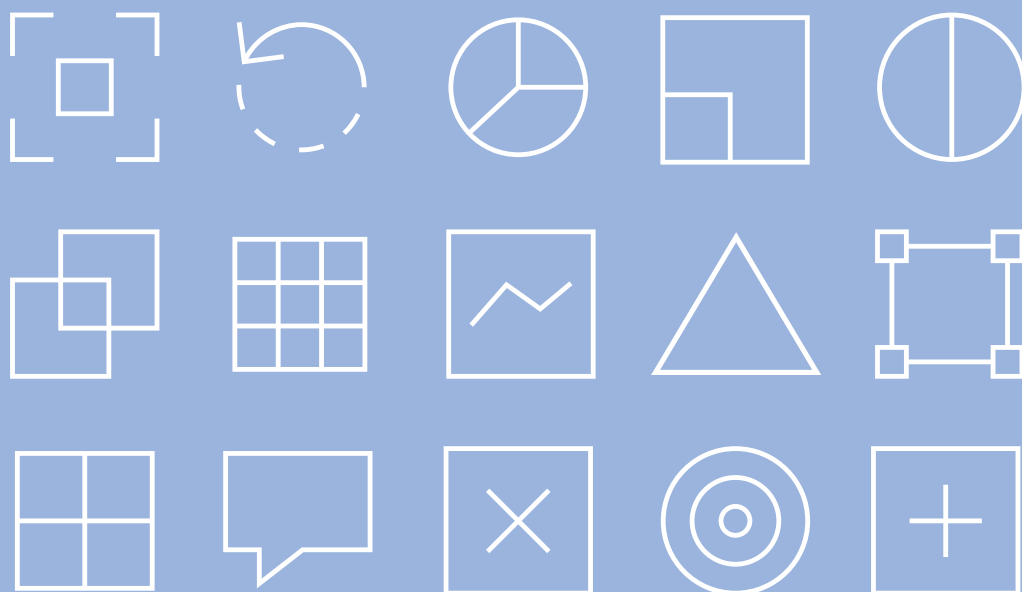# Developing Coaching Culture Through Coaching-Based Leadership Style

Signe Vesso

Estonian Business School

DEVELOPING COACHING CULTURE THROUGH COACHING-BASED LEADERSHIP STYLE

Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
by
Signe Vesso

Tallinn 2016

Department of Management, Estonia Business School, Estonia

Dissertation is accepted for the defence of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management by the Research Council of Estonian Business School on May 17, 2016.

Supervisor: Professor Ruth Alas, PhD
Department of Management,
Estonian Business School, Estonia

Professor Olav Aarna, PhD
Department of Law and Public Administration,
Estonian Business School, Estonia

Opponents: Professor Anu Virovere, PhD
Estonian Entrepreneurship University of
Applied Sciences, Estonia

Dr. Krista Tuulik, PhD
TLG Operation Director
TLG Hotell OÜ

Public commencement on December 13, 2016 in Estonian Business School, Lauteri 3

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank everyone who helped, guided and assisted me during these years. The completion of this doctoral dissertation was possible only with the support and contribution of many people. I wish I could name everyone here and express my appreciation.

First of all I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Professor Ruth Alas for her encouragement, guidance, support and trust. Thank you for being like a genius coach supporting my development and growth during these years.

I would like to express my huge appreciation and thanks to Professor Olav Aarna for his invaluable recommendations and support. Without his recommendations, understanding and knowledge, this thesis could never have been completed. Thank you deeply for you valuable time, support and effort.

My special gratitude goes to my opponents. Professor Anu Virovere who has given me valuable recommendations and support based on her personal knowledge. Thank for your time, effort, and feedback.

I would also like to thank my opponent Dr. Krista Tuulik whose remarks and support were necessary to conclude the thesis. Thank you so much.

I would like to thank the members of the Research Council of Estonian Business School for their support and remarks.

The thesis would not have been possible without the people participating in the research I conducted here. I thank all the respondents.

My warmest gratitude goes to my colleague Kaupo for endless discussions about the subject of my thesis. I also thank all my friends and colleagues for their support.

Finally, I would like to thank my husband, son and daughter for their understanding and support. I also thank my sister and parents.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

This dissertation is based on the following original publications, which will be referred to in the text by their respective Roman numerals.

I. Vesso, S. 2014. Coaching Culture Characteristics in Estonian Companies. Journal of Management and Change, 32/33(1/2), 109-131.

II. Vesso, S., Alas, R. 2014 The main coaching areas for Estonian leaders for managing organisational change. Organisation and Management, 1B (160): 81-93. ISSN 0137-5466

III. Vesso, S. 2015. Strengthening leader's impact and ability to manage change through group coaching. In F. P. Dievernich, K. O. Tokarski, J. Gong, F. P. Dievernich, K. O. Tokarski, J. Gong (Eds.), Change management and the human factor: Advances, challenges and contradictions in organisational development (pp. 91-107). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing

IV. Vesso, S., Alas, R. 2016 Characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership style: the leaders impact on culture. Journal of Problems and Perspectives in Management. Volume 14, Issue 3 (cont.)

The author of this thesis is the primary author of Publication II and Publication IV, responsible for general and theoretical framework and data collection. The author conducted quantitative research, analysed the results.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS AT CONFERENCES

I. Vesso, Signe 2009. The main coaching areas for Estonian leaders towards change management. EIASM , The 4th *workshop on organisational change and development*: Advances, Challenges & Contradictions in Krakov, September 10-11, 2009. 5.2

II. Vesso, Signe 2012. The Impact of Group Coaching on Leader's Ability to Manage Changes. EIASM 7th Colloquium on Organisational Change and Development. Bern, September 13-14, 2012. 5.2

III. Vesso, Signe 2013. «Coaching culture aspects in Estonian companies» EISAM 8th Workshop on Organisational Change and Development Ghent, September 12-13, 2013. 5.2

1.   INTRODUCTION

1.1   Relevance of the topic

The external environment of organisations has changed and is constantly changing, which also requires changes inside organisations. Organisational change is related to organisational culture and leadership style.

It has been suggested that effective organisational response to the pressures of an increasingly dynamic and unpredictable environment demands that organisations abandon the classical authority-based hierarchy that dominated relationships between superiors and subordinates for decades. As individual initiative and entrepreneurship arguably become more important to organisational success than a prescriptive, control-oriented mode of operation (Agarwal et al. 2009).

In the past 20 years, coaching has received increasing attention and endorsement as an important managerial activity (Bartlett et al. 2002). Evered and Selman (1989) endorsed a paradigm in which 'the process of creating an organisational culture for coaching becomes the core managerial activity', and where coaching is viewed 'not as a subset of the field of management but rather as the heart of management'. The concept of coaching has emerged as a new paradigm for management (Ellinger et al. 2003). In contrast to a traditional command-and-control form of managerial supervision, coaching is characterized by an emphasis on constructive and developmental feedback for improving employee work performance, and their ability to cope with routine and non-routine problems (Ellinger et al. 2003). Gradually, organisations have begun to train managers in coaching philosophy and techniques. In several organisations, managers have been encouraged to coach their subordinates as part of their job responsibilities (Feldman, Lankau 2005).

The Global Coaching Survey (2009) provides an overview according to which the nature of coaching in Europe is generally characterized by a great diversity of coaching styles, practices and development degrees, probably due to the multiplicity of cultures existing on the continent. Organisations are looking for ways to develop the coaching culture. For this purpose, it is important to systematize the concepts and models related to coaching culture and find ways for organisations to assess the coaching culture characteristics and enhance the leaders' impact on it.

Zernand-Vilson (2014) has studied the implementation of new management ideas in Estonia during the period 1996–2011 and coaching is not mentioned. Since the implementation of coaching is one of the paradigmatic changes in management, and in Estonia the coaching culture in organisations has not been studied, the author has chosen **coaching culture in Estonian organisations as the object of research.**

1.2　Research problem and research questions

The research problem tackled in the dissertation is: **how to increase a leader's impact in developing a coaching culture in the organisation** (based on the example of Estonian organisations).

The research problem of this dissertation involves several interrelated basic concepts (see Figure 1). The review of existing research reveals (see p2.1 and 2.2) that there is no theoretical framework jointly encompassing a coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of the leader on organisational culture.
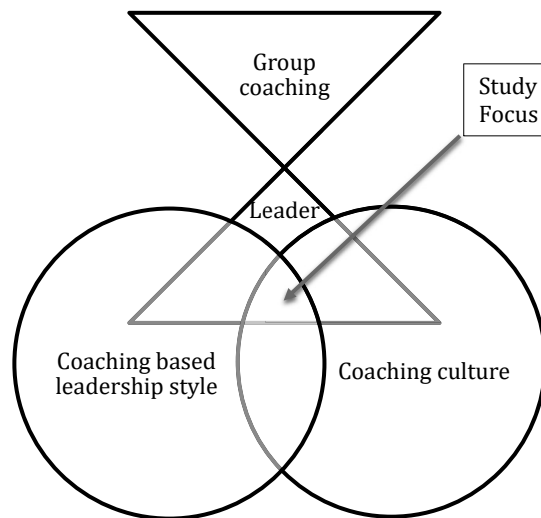
Figure 1. Conceptual framework under exploration

Moreover, there are no empirical studies about coaching culture and coaching-based leadership styles in Estonian organisations. Therefore, the author decomposed the research problem into seven **research questions**:

1) How can we describe and evaluate the coaching culture in an organisation? (RQ 1, Publication I and IV)
2) How can we describe and evaluate a coaching-based leadership style? (RQ2, Publication II and IV)
3) How is coaching culture perceived in Estonian organisations? (RQ 3, Publication I and IV)
4) How is the coaching-based leadership style perceived in Estonian organisations? (RQ 4, Publication II and IV)
5) How are coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style related? (RQ 5, Publication IV)

6) What leader profiles correspond to different levels of the coaching-based leadership style? (RQ 6, Publication II, III and IV)
7) How does group coaching impact the coaching-based leadership style? (RQ 7, Publication III)

1.3 Research design

The philosophical basis of this study is social constructivism, which sees culture as a socially constructed concept of a multi-dimensional nature. As stated before, existing studies do not provide a theoretical framework that would link a coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of the leader. To fill this gap, the author developed two conceptual models (4C model and LIC model) linking the coaching culture, coaching-based leadership and the impact of the leader (see 2.4).

The logic of the research is presented in Figure 2.

CC - Coaching culture
CLS – Coaching-based leadership style
FW- CC&CLS - Framework for coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style
L - Leaders impact
GC - Group coaching impact
RQ - Research question

Figure 2: Internal logic of research design

To answer the second part of research questions 1 and 2 (how to evaluate coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style), the author developed two questionnaires (see 3.1):

1) Questionnaire to evaluate the coaching culture (4C);
2) Questionnaire to evaluate coaching-based leadership style (LIC).

These questionnaires were used in empirical surveys of coaching culture, coaching-based leadership and the impact of leader in Estonian organisations.

The first empirical survey took place in 2007, the last one in 2015. Using these instruments five empirical surveys were conducted in Estonian organisations:

1) In order to study coaching culture in Estonian organisations the author conducted two empirical surveys: **Survey 1** in 2007 (*Publication I*), and **Survey 5** in 2015 (*Publication IV*).
2) In order to study coaching-based leadership style in Estonian organisations the author conducted the empirical survey (**Survey 2)** in 2007 *(Publication II*) and in 2015 (**Survey 5**) (*Publication IV*).
3) In order to find connections between coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style in Estonian organisations the author conducted **Survey 5** in 2015 *(Publication IV).*
4) In order to study the leaders' profiles with respect to coaching-based leadership style adopted, the author conducted several empirical surveys: **Survey 2** in 2007 *(Publication II),* **Survey 3** in 2009 *(Publication III),* **Survey 4** in 2010 *(Publication III),* **Survey 5** in 2015 *(Publication IV).*
5) In order to investigate the impact of group coaching on team leaders the author conducted two surveys **(Survey 3** and **Survey 4)** in a biggest Estonian telecommunications company *(Publication III).*

2.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter consists of four sections. Section 2.1 gives an overview of theoretical approaches to organisational culture and leadership style, leaders impact on organisational culture and trustworthiness of leaders. Section 2.2 concentrates on basic concepts of coaching, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style. Section 2.3 uses definitions for coaching, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style to develop conceptual models for coaching process, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style. Section 2.4 combines coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of the leader on organisational culture into conceptual model for developing coaching culture through coaching-based leadership.

2.1   Organisational culture and leadership style

2.1.1 Organisational culture

Organisational culture is described through different levels (Schein 1992), orientations (Kilmann and Saxton 1983, Cooke and Lafferty 1986, Goffee and Jones (2000, 2001), typologies (Harrison 1995, Roots 2002), traits (Denison and Mishra 1995), components (Kilmann et al 1986, Wriston 2007), and also from a scientific management and complexity theory perspective (Weeks 2007).

Organisational culture is manifested in behavioural norms, hidden assumptions, and human nature, each occurring at a different level of depth. Behavioural norms are just the unwritten rules of the game. Norms describe behaviours and attitudes that the members of a group or organisation follow (Kilmann et al. 1986). Several theorists differentiate task-oriented and relationship-oriented organisational culture. Kilmann and Saxton (1983) and Cooke and Lafferty (1986) focus on people versus task, while Goffee and Jones (2000, 2001) separate sociability and solidarity.

In the context of coaching, task-orientation influences a person's attitudes and behaviour by establishing clear goals and developing values, which enhances achieving the goals at all levels of an organisation. Relationship-orientation influences a person's attitudes toward change through informal structures and communication (Salancik et al. 1978). The relational dimension refers to networked relationships, such as trust and trustworthiness (Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998), which describe personal relationships developed through interactions (Day 2001). While trust is an attribute of relationships, trustworthiness rests in the intrapersonal qualities of individuals (Barney & Hansen, 1994). These orientations are both important in the context of a coaching culture.

Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a model of organisational culture based on **four traits of organisational culture**: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. They suggest that specific culture traits may be useful predictors of performance and effectiveness. Two of the traits, involvement and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness and responsiveness and strong predictors of growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, are indicators of integration, direction and vision, and better predictor profitability.

Wriston (2007) argues that four critical components are necessary to create and sustain a **high-performance culture**: collaborative environment, accountability, focus and robust processes. In 2002, the Corporate Leadership Council (Council C.L. 2002) observed that the culture of some organisations supports high performance more successfully than others do. The Council found that organisations should refocus their investments from performance management towards activities that promote understanding, connection, fairness and credibility. Two cultural traits with the largest impact on employee performance are the culture of risk taking, and the culture of internal communication.

The following sections of this chapter are based on the main characteristics of a high-performance organisational culture: behavioural norms, task-orientation and relationship-orientation, and traits of organizational culture such as involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission.

2.1.2 Changing the organisational culture

There are several ideas related to changing the organisational culture. Whether a given culture can be changed depends on how deep-seated the culture is and whether multiple cultures exist. Specifically, managing the deepest layers of culture differently in each unit requires a **participative approach** (Kilmann et al. 1986). The collective insights and interpretations that emerge from the sense-making discussions are a valuable strategic resource that is often lost in traditional management practices (Weeks 2007).

Weeks (2007) analysed the concept of "organisational culture" from a scientific management and complexity theory perspective, with reference to strategic management practice within the global service economy. He emphasised that the traditional paradigm of management assumes a rational deductive process of decision-making. From this perspective, the culture of an organisation is difficult but possible to change because by its very nature socially construed shared meanings and interpretations can be revised within the light of changing cause-effect relationships. It is the task of top management to align the strategy and culture of the organisation.

Weeks (2007) concluded that within a traditional scientific management context the notion of intentionally shaping the culture of an organisation, to attain congruency

between the organisation's culture and strategy, is well established. Leadership is generally deemed to play a crucial role in managing the change process (Munro & Beeson 2002).

Schein (1992) argues that leaders develop the organisation's culture through their actions in creating an organisation. Once the culture evolves, the culture has an increasingly important role in determining the context and the extent of the need for leadership. If the culture becomes dysfunctional, then leadership has a responsibility to fix the culture. In conditions of perpetual change, culture is particularly difficult to manage. Consequently, creating a culture in which learning, innovation, change, and adaptation are the norms becomes a challenge (Schein 1992). The coaching approach can be helpful here as it is focused on learning and change.

Weeks (2007) stated that organisational culture from a complexity theory perspective is emergent in nature and cannot be intentionally managed to inculcate a specific culture within an organisation but is deemed essential for strategy implementation. An emergent culture is the "result of the continuing negotiations about values, meanings and properties between the members of that organisation with its environment"; that is, cultural change stems from communication (Seel 2000).

Organisational culture emerges from the interaction of people working together to achieve a shared objective, and there would thus be little merit in executives attempting to shape the outcome by means of desired value and belief statements. It tends to support processes where desired values, beliefs, norms and similar cultural attributes are solicited from employees, as opposed to being decreed (Weeks 2007).

The following basic ideas are derived from this section and used in developing the conceptual framework of this study (see sections 2.3 and 2.4): managing the deepest layers of culture requires a participative approach; the collective insights and interpretations that emerge from the sense-making discussions are a valuable strategic resource; emergent culture is the result of continuing negotiations and organisational culture changes emerge from employee interaction; the leaders role is to enable such interactions.

2.1.3 Leadership style

Leadership is by far the most influential component to organisational resilience, longevity, and brand recognition (Harper 2012). Leadership is often described through the leader's influence on employees and the leader's role in creating change. The core of almost all leadership definitions concerns influence – that is, how leaders influence others to help accomplish group or organisational objectives (House et al. 2004).

According to Gardner (1997), a *leader* is a person who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influences the behaviours, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings. Among the most common outcomes of leadership behaviours is the facilitation of organisational change (Bass et al. 2008; Kotter, 1990). Leadership scholars frequently define leadership in terms of the leaders' role in bringing about change (Bass et al. 2008).

The early leadership research emphasized general broadly-defined behaviour categories that are best described as relationship-oriented behaviour and task-oriented behaviour, ignoring change-oriented leadership. It is important to clarify the distinction between task-oriented, relationship-oriented and change-oriented behaviour, because all three types are relevant for understanding effective leadership in different situations (Yukl et al. 2002).

The hierarchical taxonomy of a leader's behaviour consists of three meta-categories: Task Behaviour (plan short-term activities, clarify task objectives and role expectations, monitor operations and performance), Relational Behaviour (provide support and encouragement, provide recognition for achievements and contributions, develop member skill and confidence, consult with members when making decisions, empower members to take initiative in problem solving), Change Behaviour (monitor the external environment, propose an innovative strategy or new vision, encourage innovative thinking, take risks to promote necessary changes).

According to House and Aditya (1997), the term leadership styles refers "to the manner by which leaders express specific behaviours." Leadership styles are important, since they represent different ways of practicing leadership. In relation to this, the traits of leaders reflect the ability of individuals to practice specific leadership styles. Leadership styles are reflected in behaviours and attitudes, but these in turn are the outcome of complex interactions between the way we think and feel (Kippenberg 2002).

Kesting et al. (2016) studied seven leadership styles – directive, participative, interactive, charismatic, transformational, transactional/instrumental, strategic, shared and distributed leadership, and found strong indications that different innovation stages and types raise different demands on leadership. Goleman et al. (2013) have described primal leadership, which consists of resonant and dissonant leadership styles, depending on the situation. Resonant leadership style is identified as visionary, coaching, affiliate and democratic, while dissonant leadership style is identified as pace-setting and commanding. Most leaders use both leadership styles. Leadership studies show that the most successful organisations are the product of distributive, collective and complementary leadership (Kets de Vries 2006).

The following ideas concerning leadership style are used as a basis for developing the conceptual model of coaching-based leadership style: task-oriented, relationship-oriented and change-oriented behaviour are relevant for understanding effective leadership in different situations; the traits of leaders reflect the ability of individuals to practice specific leadership styles.

2.1.4 The impact of leaders on teams

Leaders influence employees as individuals and the team as a whole. Leadership is not necessarily an interaction between leaders and followers as individuals, but rather between leaders and followers as group members (Haslam et al. 2011). To fulfil the role and bring about change, it is crucial to influence the team. Organisations need to attend to both individual leader and collective leadership development (Day 2001).

Empirical studies indicate that leadership has effects on team motivation, efficacy, and performance (Sivasubramaniam et al. 2002; George 2000; Dickson et al. 2001) primarily through the development of the team's climate (Piloa-Merlo et al. 2002).

According to social cognitive theory (Bandura 1977), in addition to learning from the actual performance of an action and personally experiencing the associated consequences, individuals' vicarious learning by observing the behaviours of others constitutes a key mechanism driving behavioural change. Phillips (1997) described the influence of employee expectations on co-worker actions and behaviour, and linked this to employee attitude and performance. In teams, the leader must be aware that employee attitudes are linked with performance

Edmondson et al. (2001) provided leaders with useful recommendations for fostering team learning: (1) be accessible to team members to ensure them that their opinions are welcomed and valued, (2) ask team members for their input, and (3) serve as a "fallibility model" by admitting mistakes and errors.

Results of studies show that team leader's emotional intelligence significantly influences the emotionally competent group norms in the teams they lead, and as a consequence, team performance (Stubbs 2005).

The following basic ideas are taken for the study from this section: it is crucial to influence the team and this goes primarily through the development of the team's climate; learning from the behaviour of others constitutes a key mechanism driving behavioural change; employee attitudes are linked with performance, and group norms are related to team performance.

2.1.5 The impact of leaders and trustworthiness

At the heart of most business literature is the assumption that trust must exist and information must flow freely in multiple directions for organisations to work consistently (O'Connor et al. 2012). Trust can be viewed as an attitude held by one individual – the trustor – toward another – the trustee (Robinson 1996). Building trust is the first step towards building a cohesive team (Lencioni 2012).

Research suggests the link between trust and the following work behaviours (Mach et al 2010): employee performance, both individual and as a group (Dirks et al, 2009; Mayer et al, 1999); open communication (Smith et al, 1997); commitment to team objectives (Costa et al 2001), team performance (Hempel et al, 2009; Lawler, 1992) and increased coordination and cooperation (McAllister, 1995).

Interpersonal trust improves cooperation as a result of effective working relationships between individuals (Massey and Kyngdon, 2005), but it takes a significant amount of time and energy to build trust.

Trust is critical in developing a coaching relationship (Harrower, 2010; Machin, 2010). Trustful relationships between leaders and employees enhance the employee development process. Establishing trustful relationships and striving to align organisational and employee goals are appropriate elements of a coaching culture.

O'Connor et al. (2012) shared their model, arguing that leaders must be trustworthy for an organisation to function in an optimal way.

Watkins (2008) stated that subordinates must believe in their leader's trustworthiness. Without trust mutually beneficial relationships will not develop. Positional authority is not a precondition of respect. Further, performance standards must be established for work and personal conduct. And finally, the leader has to establish a fair team environment, where subordinates will participate and are happy about their contributions (Mace, 1950). Cataldo et al. (2009) found that organisations that wish to improve employee development need to create a culture of trust so that employees are comfortable to express their opinions.

Clutterbuck et al. (2005) argue that there is a link between the leader credibility, employee communication and business performance. They found that what communication did was of little importance, unless it was in support of critical cultural factors – in particular, the credibility of the leadership, the quality of trust between people and departments, the quality and scope of knowledge exchange and clarity of purpose.

To conclude, the leaders' trustworthiness makes it possible to create trusting relations that support employee risk taking and initiative in the coaching culture context.

2.1.6 The relationship between organisational culture and leadership style

Several researchers (Schein 1992; Bass and Avolio 1993) observe that organisational culture and leadership style are intertwined; the leader creates and is in turn shaped by the organisational culture.

Ogbonna et al. (2000) suggested that the link between leadership style and organisational performance is mediated by the nature and form of organisational culture. It is frequently assumed that organisational culture is directly linked to the performance of an organisation (Denison 1990), and that changes in cultural traits will impact immediately on effectiveness and efficiency (Kotter and Heskett 1992). The links between organisational culture and performance are supported by empirical evidence (Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992). Therefore, Ogbonna et al. (2000) proposed that organisational culture mediates the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance and their survey supports this claim.

Alnasseri et al. (2013) also indicate that organisational culture is directly and positively correlated with organisational performance and effectiveness, while project managers' leadership style has an indirect relationship with effectiveness. A strong organisational culture is therefore deemed critical to organisational performance.

Ogbonna et al. (2000) suggest that difficulties associated with changing an organisational culture may be solved by focusing on leadership style, which is relatively easily achieved. This is supported by the idea that leaders can create a competitive advantage by fostering an organisational climate that supports change and creativity (Lutz Allen et al 2013). It is apparent that a change in leadership style creates change in the organisation's climate – new priorities, performance expectations, and strategic directions (Nwibere 2013).

Most textbooks in leadership and management attribute leadership style as the factor most significantly affecting employee behaviour. This implies that leadership style translates into the values and priorities that control employee behaviour.

In conclusion, if the leaders want to change organisational culture they should consider changing their own attitudes and behaviour. Behaviour is a function of the meaning of a given situation. It has been postulated that attitudes motivate behaviour (Eagly et al. 1993). Participants in social events bring to them prior meanings and stereotypes, which can be understood only in a historical and cultural context (Sahlins, 1985). Employee attitudes are considered an indicator of the future success of an organisation (Hurst, 1995).

The current study is based on the idea that organisational culture and leadership style are closely linked.

2.2 Coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style

2.2.1 What is coaching?

The author studied several descriptions of coaching (see Table 1), which served as a basis for developing a definition of coaching. The table below shows how coaching has been discussed over the last 25 years.

Table 1. Descriptions of coaching

Authors	Description
Locke, Latham, 1990	Coaching also may enhance an individual's motivation to improve or take personal initiative. It may allay goal ambiguity and stimulate a process of "spontaneous goal-setting" by clarifying performance expectations
Kinlaw 1999	Successful coaching is mutual, predictable and leads to commitment, superior performance and positive relationships
Whitmore 2003	Coaching involves 'unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping to learn rather than teaching.'
Gallwey, 2002	Coaching 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.
Ellinger et al 2003	Coaching activities include helping employees set specific goals, providing constructive feedback on specific tasks, offering resources and suggestions to adopt new techniques, and helping employees understand the broader goals of the organization
Bonfield, 2003	Coaching is a collaborative relationship between a coach and a coachee to support the client in identifying, clarifying, and exploring ways to solve issues
Sue-Chan, Latham 2004	Coaches help coachees to develop problem-solving approaches and implement strategies to improve performance
Grant 2006	Coaching is an enhancement of life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organizations that do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress.
Berg 2006	Coaching is the process of challenging and supporting a person or a team to develop ways of thinking, ways of being and ways of learning. The purpose is to achieve personal and/or organizational goals
Linley 2006	Coaching is fundamentally a human change process
Heslin et al 2006	Coaching may affect individual performance through three mechanisms: the acquisition of job related knowledge and skills, the enhancement of motivation and effort, and the process of social learning

Authors	Description
Berg, Karlsen 2007	Coaching is a tool that can develop self-confidence and contribute to actions that create results. Coaching is about helping other people to succeed.
Bennet et al 2009	Emphasizing action, accountability and personal responsibility, coaching support provides leaders with a safe environment for learning how to creatively manage change and conflict, improve communication, strengthen self-confidence, retool skills, and foster multicultural relationships in a positive, constructive way
Wilson 2010	Coaching helps coachees develop their self-awareness, their choices and decisions; deepen the self-confidence since they are encouraged to exercise, make mistakes and experience; focus on finding solutions rather than on problems; and search and discover new prospects that encourage them to act and change.
Segers 2011	Coaching is an intensive and systematic facilitation of individuals or groups by using a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help them attain self-congruent goals or conscious self-change and self-development in order to improve their professional performance, personal well-being and, consequently, to improve the effectiveness of their organization
Moen et al 2012	Coaching is a conversation technique, learning and developmental process to promote the resource base of another person
Wujee 2013	Coaching includes attitudes towards developing the potential of the person and the environment they develop in, striving for the achievement of goals, finding solutions, improvement in efficiency; support for development of coachees that is consistent with the values they believe in; partnership relations between coach and coachees; emphasizing that this is a process of support; being based on the conversation with feedback to coachees, caring for the coachees to find solutions by themselves; supporting coachees in overcoming internal limitations, emphasising short-term interventions
Jones et al 2014	Coaching is a conversation where the coach acts as the facilitator to the coachee, so that they learn, gain insight and take action toward a specific and agreed outcome. Implicit in the term coaching is the notion of empowerment – that coachees take responsibility for their own learning and are ready, willing and able to take action to make progress
Randak-Jezierska 2015	Coaching is a method which, with the help of an expert, allows for the realization of problems and working through all that prevents a person from changes, and, based on our own resources, plan and take actions that allow for the achievement of the set goal. Coaching can be viewed as a partnership relation based on mutual trust between a properly prepared coach and a coachee where, through conversation, asking questions by the coach, receiving the feedback and helping remove internal barriers, coachees are motivated for determination of the goal they aim to achieve and to achieve the goal based on their own values and resources

From a management and leadership perspective, coaching was introduced by Myles Mace in 1958. He looked at coaching as a leadership tool for developing employee skills in the firm. Bartlett and Ghostal described the envisioned reconfiguration of the managerial role already 20 years ago, and saw a shift in the relationship between employee and manager, and the extensive use of coaching to provide performance feedback to subordinates. They argue that in a turbulent economic environment, middle managers have to change their goals and related behaviours to be more focused on coaching support rather than administrative control. They suggest that executives have to create a challenging environment facilitating the development of individual entrepreneurial initiatives (Bartlett, Ghoshal 1997). Latham et al. (2005) also showed that managers in large organisations are increasingly expected to provide coaching to their subordinates. Hamlin et al. (2006) argue that organisations are increasingly starting to embrace a new management culture based on inclusion, involvement and participation, rather than the traditional command, control and compliance paradigm. Agarwal et al. (2009) suggest that the new management paradigm calls for facilitative behaviours that focus on employee empowerment, learning and development. These facilitative behaviours are essential elements of coaching.

McComb (2012) describes different ways that organisations use coaching. In some organisations coaching is used to develop a CEO or the senior executives; however, in other organisations, a more integrated approach is utilised to bring about more extensive cultural change. This approach often involves the use of a variety of forms of coaching, including leader as coach, internal coaching or peer coaching. Coaching can be a complex task, and therefore, leaders may not be willing or able to coach (McComb 2012). A coaching leader may conduct formal coaching sessions or take the opportunity to engage in informal coaching on a daily basis (Hunt and Weintraub, 2002; Ellinger et al. 2010; Wheeler, 2011). For example, Bresser (2010) sees coaching skills as part of a line manager's normal leadership style, and a natural way of implementing an empowering style of leadership. The author also supports Bresser's point of view.

Although coaching may be a leaders' predominant approach, they may also sometimes adopt teaching, training, mentoring or consulting roles, which require more giving of information, instruction and advice, unlike the non-directive role of coaching (Ellinger et al. 2010). All these roles have something in common, seeking to help someone improve their performance by learning something new. However, it is possible to differentiate as follows: training is typically skills-based and has pre-defined answers; in mentoring, someone gives advice in a particular role or situation; in consulting, the client is given a solution to his or her problem.

Hicks et al. (2011) see coaching as a collaborative process designed to help people alter perceptions and behavioural patterns in a way that increases their effectiveness and ability to adapt and accept change as a challenge, rather than an obstacle. Grant (2008) stated that contemporary professional coaching is a cross-

disciplinary methodology, and not 'owned' by a particular professional group or association. On the other hand, such diversity increases the difficulty to develop a standardised definition of coaching (Sherman et al. 2004).

Traditionally, focus in the field of coaching has been on specific models, approaches and techniques, directed towards ultimate goals for people's overall learning and development (de Haan et al. 2012).

In general, coaching is a discipline that is in constant development. The International Coaching Federation (ICF) pointed out that the coach's responsibility is to discover, clarify, and align with what the client wants to achieve; encourage client self-discovery; elicit client-generated solutions and strategies; and hold the client responsible and accountable (ICF 2016).

One survey (de Haan et al. 2011) studied coaches' qualities and behaviours that make coaching effective. The study indicated that coach behaviour has a significant influence on the learning process for the coachee.

Based on the literature review the author proposes the following definition: Coaching is a creative process between a trained coach and coachee (individual or group) based on trust, contact, dialogue and questioning, where the coach helps to focus change related aspects. The results are personal development for the coachee and the achievement of agreed objectives.

2.2.2 Coaching culture

According to the ICF research in collaboration with the Human Capital Institute published in 2014, more and more organisations have recognised the value in building a culture of coaching that offers employees at all levels the opportunity to improve their skills, enhance their value and reach their professional goals (Bawany 2015).

The author studied descriptions of coaching culture from 2005 to 2015 (see Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptions of coaching culture

Author	Coaching culture
Crane 2005	In a coaching culture, it is common practice to involve everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the implementation planning. The seven characteristics of a coaching culture – leaders are positive role models, every member is focused on customer feedback, coaching flows in all directions – up, down, and laterally, teams become passionate and energized, learning occurs, more effective decisions are made, and change moves faster, HR systems are aligned and fully integrated, the organization has a common coaching practice and language.
Clutterbuck, Megginson 2005	Coaching is the predominant style of managing and working together, and where a commitment to grow the organization is embedded in a parallel commitment to grow the people in the organization.
Hart 2005	A coaching culture is a paradigm for organizational cultures in which coaching takes place on a formal and informal basis and has been ingrained into the fabric of organizational life.
Lindbom 2007	A culture of coaching is one in which the regular review of performance and just-in-feedback is expected. The culture of coaching also sets the expectation for feedback – positive or for improvement – that is specific, behavioural and results-based. This type of culture is self-reinforcing as it leads to improved performance, which encourages employees to seek more feedback and managers to see the value in coaching as the key requirement of their job. A culture of coaching requires commitment, consistency and dedication from leadership.
Crane 2007	As coaching practices succeed, the subordinates also begin to coach their associates. In this way, a culture eventually develops. When coaching becomes a widespread practice within an organization, a culture of coaching will develop. Coaching cultures have developed as a means of engaging entire organizations in the transformative coaching process.
Figlar et al. 2007	Building the coaching culture within the organization requires the involvement of a high percentage of employees. An organization has to weigh the benefits and costs of hiring external coaches as distinct from developing their own cadre of internal coaches or using some combination of internal and external resources.
Kets de Vries 2008	A coaching culture contributes to a sense of mutual ownership, better networking, more effective leadership practices and higher commitment, creating better results across the organization. Not surprisingly, companies with a successful coaching culture report significantly reduced staff turnover, increased productivity, and greater job satisfaction. A coaching culture promotes more open communication, is transparent, and builds trust and mutual respect. When executives are able to work together to improve their performance, by finding more creative ways to deal with their professional environment, a positive kind of contagion infects the organization—and this contagion can spread hope and enthusiasm as the coaching culture replaces a former toxic or moribund environment

Author	Coaching culture
Leonard-Cross 2010	The pursuit of a coaching culture can have benefits; with widespread quality, coaching an organization can learn new things more quickly and adapt to change more effectively, which is particularly desirable in the current economic climate.
Segers et al. 2011	Interesting to note that the prevalence of who is acting as coach and the extent to which the different coaches (i.e. external, internal, line manager, and self) work together in organizations might depend on the maturity of the coaching culture of the organizations.
Mukherjee 2012	It is argued that to promote a coaching culture within organizations, the managers need to use more of an inquiry and questioning approach to help their subordinates to learn to think for themselves rather than a telling and directing approach.
Hawkings 2012	Artefacts: The organization espouses the importance of coaching in its key strategy and mission statements and coaching appears as a key competency and capability for all leaders and managers. Behaviours: A coaching style of engaging is used in one-to-one as well as team meetings, as a way of encouraging both problem solving and continuous team and personal development. Mind-sets: It is important to help people think through the choices and options, through inquiring together we can arrive at better responses to new challenges than by thinking alone. Emotional ground: High levels of personal engagement and responsibility. Motivational roots: People are both committed to their own development, and others potential to learn continuously. People believe the collective performance can improve through learning and development
Wood 2012	Creating a coaching culture involves transitioning managers away from providing directional solutions and towards empowering others to find their own solutions. This moves the manager-subordinate relationship away from one of paternalism, towards one of mutual respect and collaboration.
Clutterbuck 2013	Coaching culture is something that happens (or is created) at an organizational level. In recent years, however, practical experience and interviews with hundreds of HR practitioners have convinced me that the fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team. The focus of coaching needs to be on issues the team feels are truly relevant and current. Coaching at the team level can be either individual (focused on a specific learning need or issue) or collective (based on an issue important to the team as a whole). It seems that the mixture of these provides the most fertile ground for the growth of a coaching culture within the team.

Author	Coaching culture
Chidiac 2013	It would seem that in some organizations, the emergence of coaching as a specialism is leading to less emphasis being placed on the benefits of creating and maintaining a coaching culture and stance. Not only is the latter more cost effective than hiring external coaches, but recent research from the Institute of Leadership and Management has shown the direct benefits of coaching to organizations. Maximizing these benefits means creating a coaching culture that permeates throughout the organization and develops internal coaching capability at all levels.
Jones et al. 2014	Coaching culture is described also as culture where people are empowered and where coaching happens at every level. And, not only does it happen at every level, but it also adds to bottom line performance. It is a recognized development tool that touches every part of the employee life cycle.
Bawany 2015	Fundamentally, a **coaching culture** is an organizational development model that provides the structure that defines how the organization's members can best interact with their working environment and how the best results are obtained and measured. Introducing coaching competencies into an organization is a very powerful strategy to create an adaptive workplace culture committed to the on-going process of development and learning. Companies that have developed a **coaching culture** report significantly reduced staff turnover, increased productivity, greater happiness and satisfaction at work.

Coaching culture is described in the literature as a paradigm (Hart 2005), a development model (Bawany 2015), a development tool (Jones et al 2014) or culture with certain characteristics (Hawkings 2012, Crane 2005, Ketz de Vries 2008). Based on Schein, Hawkings (2012) describes five levels of a coaching culture – artefacts, behaviours, mind-sets, emotional ground and motivational roots.

Crane (2005) describes seven **characteristics** of coaching culture:
1) Leaders transform their leadership style from being "the boss of people to the coach for people". Leaders learn to create powerful, emotionally-intelligent conversations where they guide productive change, passion and inspired action.
2) There is a huge emphasis on expanding customer feedback channels and making them truly effective. It becomes the responsibility of every member to proactively seek, strive to understand, and non-defensively respond to the feedback.
3) Coaching flows in all directions from all parties, making a networked web across the organisation consisting of many connections between people in the same departments, across departments, between teams, and up and down and across the hierarchy. In addition to up-down coaching, peer coaching is the second place for creating explicit coaching relationships. Coaching relationships across the organisation are established to support on-going

dialogue, learning, problem solving, and enhanced working conditions. Peer coaching is an invaluable element that supports learning, growth, and productivity improvements. Upward coaching is the third element and often the most challenging to establish. Becoming coaches for one another makes the shift by creating safety, trust, respect and rapport in the relationship.

4) Teams focus on creating connection and high trust. Trust directly supports people being able to work together more effectively and more efficiently, which leads to higher performance. The relationships can be characterized by a high degree of commitment to teammates' success.

5) Coaching speeds up the personal and team learning curve by capturing lessons learned more quickly. Teams make frequent use of after-action-reviews to document any and all lessons learned. People learn to fail fast without fear of repercussion.

6) It is common practice to involve everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the implementation planning. Coaching is the act of engaging people in safe dialogue where they are expected to respectfully share their candid concerns, ideas, and points-of-view so that they experience feeling part of the process and being valued as a partner.

7) Coaching is fully integrated into all the systems that impact people. All members of the organisation have personal development plans that are taken seriously, reviewed annually, and serve to significantly impact the effectiveness of individuals and teams. Job descriptions include a clear description of relevant coaching skills required to be successful in the job.

According to Kets de Vries (2008), an organisation with a true coaching culture is one in which not only formal and more prescribed leadership coaching occurs but also where most people use coaching (Kets de Vries 2008). According to Bawany (2015), a coaching culture needs the discipline of building a shared vision, learning and a desire for personal mastery to realize its potential. Building a shared vision fosters long-term commitment. Team learning develops the skill of seeing larger picture beyond individual perspectives.

Hawkings (2012) argues that a coaching culture exists in an organisation when coaching is a key approach for how leaders, managers, and staff engage and develop people, and engage stakeholders, in ways that create increased individual, team, and organisational performance and shared value for all stakeholders. It is argued that to promote a coaching culture within organisations, the managers need a leading and directing approach (Mukherjee 2012). McCarthy (2013) even states that coaching is clearly a feature of workplaces of the future.

Based on the literature review, the author proposes the following definition: **A coaching culture** is a type of organizational culture where the coaching mind-set, communication style and leadership style is dominant throughout the organization and supported by organizational policy.

2.2.3 Coaching-based leadership style

Different authors point out the leaders coaching style as a key factor to moving towards a coaching culture (Crane 2005, 2007, Clutterbuck, Megginson 2005, Lindbom 2007, Kets de Vries 2008, Mukherjee 2012, Wood 2012).

The author studied several descriptions of a coaching-based leadership style (see Table 3), which served as a basis for developing a definition of a coaching-based leadership style (see2.3).

Hicks et al. (2011) stated that coaching and leadership are two sides of the same coin and suggest that leaders should increase effectiveness by developing coaching as a leadership style. The foundation of both is the type of relationship between the coach-leader and his or her colleagues. Kemp (2009) has stated that the interaction of coach and coachee is similar to the relationship between a leader and an employee, with an aim to facilitate and guide the follower's development and performance.

Table 3. Coaching-based leadership – issues, challenges

Author	Coaching-based leadership – issues and challenges
Mace et al. 1958	Coaching helps develop employees' skills in the firm.
Evered, Selman 1989	Coaching is a communication vehicle for managers to create a climate, environment, and context of empowerment for individuals and teams to generate results.
Barry, 1992	Some management experts consider coaching to be more important than all other management skills.
Bartlett, Ghoshal 1997	Middle managers have to be more focused on coaching support rather than administrative control. The executive managers have to create a challenging environment, which facilitates the development of individual entrepreneurial initiatives.
Hunt, Weintraub 2002	'Coaching managers' help their employees learn and develop through coaching, create workplaces that make learning, growth and adaptation possible, and also combine leadership with a genuine interest in helping those with whom they work'. Although the coaching manager cannot create conditions of equality where none exist, if employees have been properly selected and share some goals with the firm, then "the coaching manager can share responsibility for development with the employee"
Kouzes, Posner 2002	Leaders act as coaches by distributing decision-making authority and responsibility among their associates. Leaders who coach foster confidence within their teams through the faith the leaders demonstrate in letting go and letting other people lead.

Author	Coaching-based leadership – issues and challenges
Ellinger et al. 2003	Coaching behaviour measures: (1) personalizing learning situations, (2) broadening employees' perspectives – getting them to see things differently, (3) question framing to encourage employees to think through issues, (4) stepping into other's shoes to shift perspectives, (5) providing feedback to employees, (6) soliciting feedback from employees, (7) setting and communicating expectations, and (8) being a resource.
Clutterbuck, Megginson 2005	The structure and pace of work allows less and less time to think about what we are doing and why. The antidote to this destructive cycle is the creation of reflective space. Coaching is an opportunity to call a halt to the frenetic pace of doing and to refocus on being. It enables people to challenge their routines, to take a critical look at what they are doing and why, to identify and commit to new performance goals and to work out how to overcome the barriers that prevent them being more effective in their work roles. It allows behaviours to be discussed, priorities to be established and mere busy-work to be laid down. Most of all, however, it brings performance to the fore. An important element is having a team development plan, which links performance goals for the team with individual learning and performance improvement.
Lindbom, 2007	Setting goals, assessing progress, facilitating improved performance now become the major tasks managers are facing. It is critical for the manager to acknowledge the employee and that performance and results have been improved. A culture of coaching is one in which the regular review of performance and just-in-feedback is expected. Developmental coaching is not an episodic interaction, but rather a mechanism to help employees reflect on their actions on a regular basis.
Wilson 2007	Coaching in business emphasizes values that encourage employees to be more self-directed in their own learning
Agarwal et al. 2009	New management paradigm calls for facilitative behaviours that focus on employee empowerment, learning and development
Moen et al. 2012	Coaching relationships require that executives in their roles as coaches surrender some of their control to the other person (employee/coachee) in the relationship. An optimal coaching process might therefore have the potential to empower the coachee. In the coaching-based leadership, a trusting and respectful relationship is a central component.
Wood 2012 n.od 2012).	Creating a coaching culture involves transitioning managers away from providing directional solutions and towards empowering others to find their own solutions. This moves the manager-subordinate relationship away from one of paternalism, towards one of mutual respect and collaboration.
Mukherjee 2012	Coaching is being deployed within large organizations for a variety of purposes: from enhancing leadership skills to creating more effective teams, to assisting in setting priorities and goals and helping employees maintain their work-life balance

Author	Coaching-based leadership – issues and challenges
McComb 2012	Reasons leaders may be unmotivated to adopt the coaching role might include: leaders having had a negative experience previously; coaching may be viewed as less of a priority because of competing demands; and they may not be willing to coach a particular person because they consider that there will not be a "return on investment"
Moen et al. 2012	Balancing the power of the coachee to make important decisions for themselves without being influenced by the coach and the demands in the working environment for results and certain behaviours (organizational demands), is a challenge in coaching-based leadership
McCarthy et al. 2013	Coaching skills are becoming part of a manager's toolkit. Through regular coaching conversations, the coaching manager can have considerable impact on developing trust, awareness, responsibility and learning and ultimately on engagement and performance.
Randak- Jezierska 2015	Managers using the coaching style for management develop some beliefs and behaviours that help them evaluate and stimulate others to think independently, act and encourage them to take responsibility for the effects of work

A coaching-based leadership style is related to the specific attitudes and behaviour of the leader. As attitudes impact behaviour, an important issue is **how the leader sees the employees as human beings.** Supporting the employees' responsible and accountable attitude and behaviour is one of priorities in coaching.

Melé (2011) points out five levels of human quality in dealing with people: mistreatment, indifference toward people, respectful treatment, concern for peoples' interests and favouring mutual esteem and cooperation. The description of the fifth level is typical for a coaching culture. The author suggests that one option to build up a person-centred corporate culture is focusing on a coaching-based leadership style.

Moen et al. (2012) proposed the following **key principles in coaching-based leadership**: (1) The leader must facilitate employee learning so they are increasingly able to do their best at work; (2) The coaching leader must be goal-oriented towards employee growth and development; (3) The coaching leader must build effective working relationships with the employees. In order to create effective relationships with employees they must be met with trust, respect and dignity; (4) The coaching leader must be a good communicator. The coaching process is the mechanism that influences the outcome of the helping relationship between a coach and a coachee. To acquire and reveal necessary and important information, communication is fundamental; the conversation is therefore at the heart of the coaching process (Hargrove, 2003); (5) The coaching leader must build effective relationships with external customers.

Both the leader and team members need to know what role the leader is adopting at any given point in time (McCarthy 2013).

The main **challenge in a coaching-based leadership style** is balancing the power of the coachee to make important decisions for themselves without being influenced by the coach and the demands in the working environment for results and certain behaviours (organisational demands) (Moen et al. 2012). Coaching relationships require that executives in their roles as coaches transfer some of their power to the other person (employee/coachee) (Moen et al. 2012).

According to de Haan et al. (2011), establishing and maintaining a trustful relationship is a critical element for enhancing the coaching process. The main difference between an outside and inside coach is the power position. The leader has formal power over the team. At this point a clear contract and trust are essential.

The literature review reveals **three levels of coaching-based leadership style outcomes**. The first level is related to changes on how the employees are thinking, feeling and acting on the personal level. The second level relates to changes in employee skill levels. The third level relates to changes on the organisational level – in employees' work roles and improved performance. When leaders influence the personal level of employees, this impacts the employees' skills and performance, which in turn influences the organisational performance.

The author suggests that the leader's trustworthiness impacts the leader's relationship-oriented behaviour, which influences the effectiveness of the leaders' change and task oriented behaviours in the coaching process, which in turn impacts the results (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Leader's impact on coaching results

In conclusion, the author proposes the following definition: **Coaching-based leadership style** is a leadership style where the leader mainly uses a coaching attitude and skills on a daily basis.

2.2.4 Group coaching

Clutterbuck admits that parts of his earlier recommendations have not given the desired results. He states that in recent years, practical experience and interviews with hundreds of HR practitioners have convinced him that the fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team (Clutterbuck 2013). While the usual form of coaching for full-time coaches is one-to-one coaching, group coaching is increasing in popularity, also because of

a recognition that group coaching can be a powerful complement to one-on-one coaching (Brown and Grant 2010). Hawkins (2011) stated that there is a limit to what can be achieved through coaching individuals. Mathieu et al. (2008) suggest that coaching teams can have a positive effect on self-management, team empowerment and several other factors, which contribute to team effectiveness. According to Thornton (2010), team coaching is the best way to develop social intelligence. Ward (2008) presented a model for group coaching arguing that coaching executives in groups to leverage collective experiences in an experiential environment with on-going support was an efficient and effective way for executives to grow.

When researching group-coaching models, Christensen points out that to date no published research has reported the effects of group coaching on executive internal dynamics or leadership effectiveness (Christensen 2012). Group interventions have the potential to get to the core of many systemic issues. Researchers such as Hackman and Wageman (2005) and Kets de Vries (2005) have started to differentiate the merits of group coaching from one-on-one coaching in the development of leaders. However, empirically supported literature has been lacking when compared to the number of individuals engaging in and facilitating various group interventions associated with leadership development (Christensen 2012).

In conclusion, group coaching has many advantages over individual coaching. However, no research has been conducted comparing the effectiveness of executive coaching and group coaching. Group coaching may be more efficient than individual coaching because the process is influenced by group dynamics and this will create coherence in the organisation. The combination of peer coaching and group coaching is especially effective because this emphasises learning in the role of a coach.

2.3.   Conceptual model for coaching

Based on theoretical framework described in sections 2.1 and 2.2, the author developed conceptual models for the coaching process, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership.

2.3.1 Conceptual model for the coaching process

Based on the literature review (see2.2), the author proposed an "input – process – output" model for the coaching process (see Figure 4).
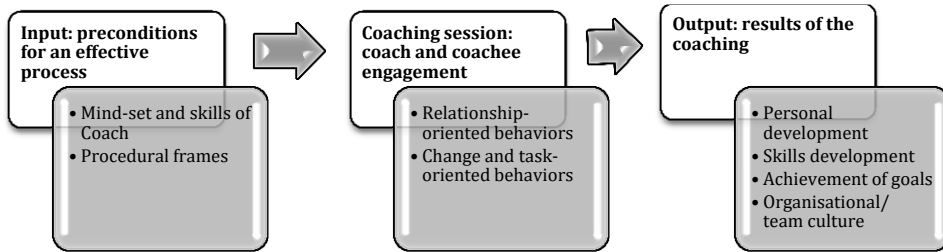
Figure 4. "Input – process – output" model for the coaching process

Input describes preconditions for effective coaching process and consists of two parts:
1) *Mind-set and skills* of the coach consists of: a coaching mind-set, trustworthiness, ability and skill to create a trusting relationship, ability to create a safe learning environment, wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods.
2) *Procedural framework* consists of: clear agreements about contract, systematic and regular facilitation.

Coaching session describe the engagement of the coach and coachee, the content of the meetings between the parties and consists of two parts:
1) *Relationship-oriented behaviours*: supporting, helping, challenging and empowerment.
2) *Change and task-oriented behaviours*: identifying, clarifying, exploring, setting priorities and goals, helping implement strategies, contributing to action, adopting new techniques.

Output describes the results from coaching and consists of four parts:
1) *Personal development*: personal well-being and work-life balance, developed ways of thinking, being and learning, self-confidence, initiative action, motivation, accountability, personal responsibility.
2) *Skills development*: developed job-related knowledge and skills, problem-solving and conflict management abilities, creativity, open and authentic communication.
3) *Achievement of goals*: superior and improved performance, solved issues.
4) *Organisational/team culture*: continuous learning, increased flexibility and adaptability, increased efficiency, dedicated employees, commitment, positive and constructive relationships, improved communication.

The framework makes it possible to assess the quality of the coaching process by looking at how all three parts are represented.

2.3.2 Conceptual model for a coaching culture

Analysing the available descriptions, the author proposed three approaches to a coaching culture (see Figure 5):

1) **Normative approach** seeks an answer to the questions: "What is the expected output?", "What are the norms?"
2) **Behavioural approach** seeks an answer to the questions: "What is being done by the parties?", "How do people behave?"
3) **Developmental approach** seeks an answer to the question: "How to reach a coaching culture?"

Normative approach consists of five elements:

1) *Policy:* The organisation espouses the importance of coaching in its key strategy and mission statements and coaching appears as a key competency and capability for all leaders and managers. A coaching approach is a key aspect of how the leaders, managers and staff engage and develop all their people and engage their stakeholders, in ways that create increased individual, team and organisational performance and shared value for all stakeholders. Coaching has been ingrained into the fabric of organisational life and is included in the organisation's documentation, procedures and traditions. HR systems are aligned and fully integrated, the organisation has a common coaching practice and language.
2) *Coaching practice:* Coaching takes place on a formal and informal basis. Coaching flows in all directions from all parties, making a networked web across the organisation consisting of many connections between people in the same departments, across departments, between teams, and up and down and across the hierarchy. There are top-down coaching, peer coaching and bottom-up coaching. Teams make frequent use of after-action-reviews.
3) *Results:* Reduced staff turnover, increased productivity, widespread quality, effective change adaptation, learning environment.
4) *Feelings, emotional environment*: Mutual ownership, greater happiness and satisfaction at work, a sense of connection, trust and mutual respect, high levels of personal engagement and responsibility, high degree of commitment to team-mates' success.
5) *Thinking, beliefs*: You get the most out of people, not through telling them what to do, or through advocacy and explanation, but through engaging them with the issues and challenges and helping them think through the choices and options. Nobody has all the answers, but through inquiring together we can arrive at better responses to new challenges than by thinking alone. Together we can create ways forward better than any of us can do by ourselves. Every challenge is an opportunity for new learning. Problems are addressed through engaged relationships. Collective performance can improve through learning and development.

Behavioural approach consists of two elements:

1) *Leaders*: Effective leadership practices, leaders are positive role models,,ulture where c.nd coaching is the dominant leadership style. The managers use more of an inquiry and questioning approach to help their subordinates learn to think for themselves rather than a telling and directing approach. A coaching style of engaging is used in one-to-one as well as team meetings, as a way of encouraging both problem solving and continuous team and personal development.

2) *People*: Open and transparent communication,,ulture where c. on-going dialogue, networking, every member is focused on customer feedback. Coaching behaviour as a means of managing, influencing and communicating with each other. People have the courage to speak their mind. There is high challenge and high support for all employees with a real focus on helping individuals and teams realize their individual and collective potential. All members fearlessly engage in candid, respectful coaching conversations about how they can improve their working relationships and individual and collective work performance. All effectively use feedback as a powerful learning tool. People share wisdom across the team, and learn to fail fast without fear. It is common practice to involve everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the implementation planning. Everybody has personal development plans that are taken seriously, and reviewed regularly.

Developmental approach consists of five elements:

1) *Leaders*: When leaders become skilled coach-practitioners, they transform their leadership style. A culture of coaching requires commitment, consistency and dedication from the leadership. When executives are able to work together to improve their performance by finding more creative ways to deal with their professional environment, a positive kind of contagion infects the organisation—and this contagion can spread hope and enthusiasm as the coaching culture replaces a former environment.

2) *Team:* The fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is at the level of the team.

3) *People*: Building the coaching culture within the organisation requires the involvement of a high percentage of employees

4) *Resources:* An organisation has to weigh the benefits and costs of hiring external coaches as distinct from developing their own cadre of internal coaches or using some combination of internal and external resources. Introducing coaching competencies into an organisation is a very powerful strategy for creating an adaptive workplace culture committed to the on-going process of development and learning.

5) *Positive experience*: A coaching culture is self-reinforcing as it leads to improved performance, which encourages employees to seek more feedback and managers to see the value in coaching as the key requirement of their job. As coaching practices succeed, the subordinates also begin to coach their associates. When coaching becomes a widespread practice within an organisation, a culture of coaching will develop.
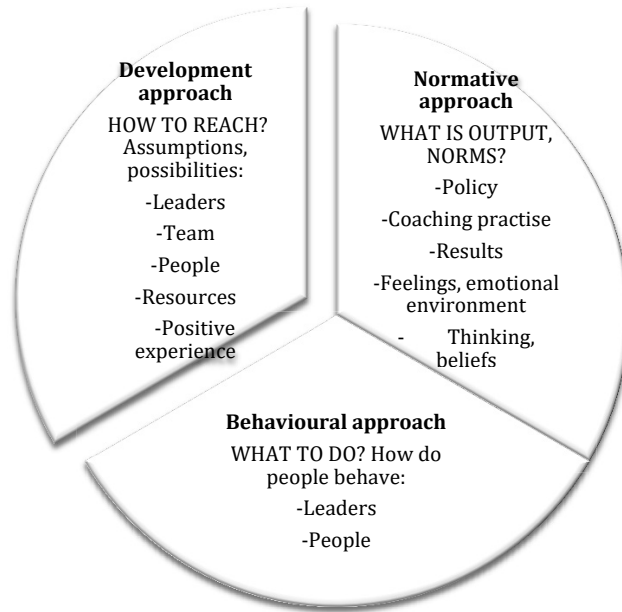
Figure 5. Conceptual framework for a coaching culture

2.3.3 Conceptual model for a coaching-based leadership style

Based the descriptions of leader behaviour in coaching-based leadership, the author developed the conceptual model for a coaching-based leadership style (see Figure 6), based on **four categories common to coaching leaders**:

1) *Building trust* is related to leader trustworthiness and describes a leader's ability to build trust. It consists of genuine interest (Hunt et al. 2002), faith (Kouzes et al. 2002), trust (McCarthy 2013) and mutual respect (Wood 2012).
2) *Relationship oriented behaviours* describe how leaders create climate, and support and encourage employees. First, it describes how *leaders create climate* and consists of a challenging environment (Evered et al. 1989, Bartlett et al. 1997), distributing decision-making authority (Kouzes et al 2002), and setting and communicating expectations (Ellinger et al. 2003). Secondly, it describes how *the leader supports and encourages* employees and consists of support (Bartlett 1997), helping (Hurt et al 2002), encouragement (Wilson 2007, Randak - Jezierska 2015, Rogers 2013), empowerment (Agarwal et al. 2009, Moen et al 2012, Wood 2012), fostering confidence (Kouzes et al. 2002), being resourceful (Ellinger et al. 2003), discussions (Clutterbuck et al. 2005) and maintaining a work-life balance (Mukherjee 2012).
3) *Change oriented behaviours* describe leaders' behaviours that influence change in thinking and support learning. It consists of reflection (Lindbom 2007), stimulating independent thinking (Randak-Jezierska 2015), broadening employee perspectives, encouraging employees to

36

think through issues and stepping into other's shoes to shift perspectives (Ellinger et al. 2003), learning, development (Hunt et al. 2002, Agarwal et al. 2009, McCarthy 2013), challenging routines (Clutterbuck et al. 2005), acknowledging to the employee that performance and results have improved (Lindbom 2007).

4) *Task oriented behaviours* describe leaders' behaviours related to setting goals and facilitating the process towards goals. First, it describes issues related to setting goals and consists of establishing priorities, identity and commitment to new performance goals (Clutterbuck et al. 2005) and setting goals (Linbom 2007, Mukherjee 2012). Secondly, it describes the process towards the goals and consists of generating results, assessing progress, facilitating performance (Evered et al. 1989, Mukherjee 2012), responsibility (Kouzes et al 2002, Randak - Jezierska 2015, McCarthy 2013), providing and soliciting feedback (Ellinger et al. 2003, Lindbom 2007), working out how to overcome barriers (Clutterbuck et al. 2005) and regular reviews of performance (Lindbom 2007).
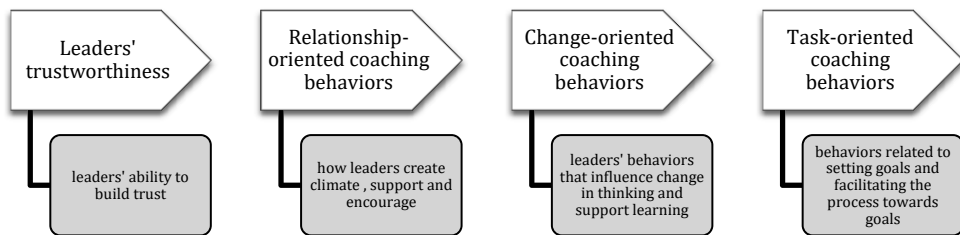
Figure 6: Conceptual model for a coaching-based leadership style

Leader trustworthiness impacts a leader's ability to build trust for creating a challenging and supporting climate to support and encourage employees. Trust and relationship-oriented coaching behaviours make it possible to take risks and support learning, and therefore, influence changes in thinking. The readiness to change and learn enables quick reactions to environmental changes and supports flexible goal setting and implementation.

2.4 Conceptual model for developing a coaching culture through a coaching-based leadership style

Using the models described in2.3, the author designed a conceptual model for developing a coaching culture through a coaching-based leadership style, which combines a coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of the leader. The conceptual model consists of two parts: "Four Phases of a Coaching Culture" (4C model, *Publication* I) and "Coaching-based leadership style "(LIC model, *Publication* II).

The model is based on principles that attitude motivates behaviour and learning takes place by replication. The model describes how mission, involvement, understanding, consistency and credibility are expressed gradually. The coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style are addressed in a novel way described through relationship-oriented, task-oriented and change-oriented behaviour based on the coaching principles. In addition, the category of trust is added to the conceptual model, since trust is one of the prerequisites of a leader's impact. The leader and team level are integrated within the model.

The model has been developed in three stages. In the first stage, the author developed three conceptual models for the study (see2.3). In the second stage, the 4C and LIC models were developed. In the third phase, the models were combined into a conceptual model for developing a coaching culture through the coaching-based leadership style.
The conceptual model "Developing a coaching culture through a coaching-based leadership style" consists of two interrelated parts: "Coaching-based leadership style and leaders impact" (LIC), and "Four Phases of a Coaching Culture" (4C). Both models consist of three parts shown in Figure 7.
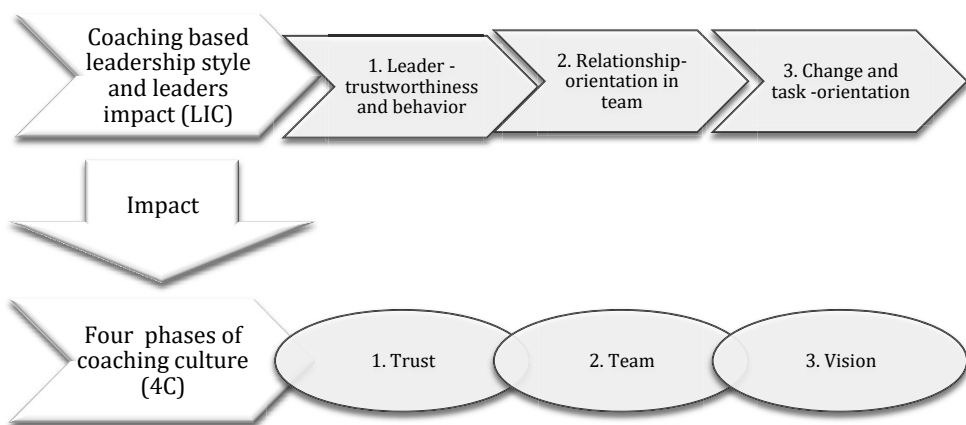
Figure 7. Conceptual model for developing a coaching culture through a coaching-based leadership style

Both models encompass three common categories: (1) Trust, (2) Relationship-orientation in team, and (3) Change and task-orientation (see Table 4).

Table 4: The common categories in the LIC and 4C models

Common category	Parts of the models	
(1) "Trust"	Part 1	
LIC	Leader - trustworthiness and behaviour	The high level trustworthiness enables sharing responsibilities
4 C	Trust	
(2)"Relationship orientation"	Part 2	
LIC	Relationship-orientation in team	The high level positive attitude and behaviour towards each other enables functioning agreements
4 C	Team	
(3) "Change and task orientation"	Part 3	
LIC	Change and task-orientation	The high level solution focus, ambitious, persistent and reflective team enables implementation of common vision.
4 C	Vision	

2.4.1 Conceptual model for a coaching-based leadership style and leaders impact

The conceptual model for a coaching-based leadership style **(**LIC) (Publication I) describes the leader's impact on relationship-orientation in the team and on change and task-orientation; in other words, the leaders impact on the coaching-based leadership style. The model describes the coaching-based leadership style as a complex phenomenon where the leader's* trustworthiness and impact of the team is considered. The theoretical LIC model consists of three parts: Leader (L), Relationship-Orientation in Team (RO), and Change and Task-Orientation (TO) (see Figure 8).

The LIC model includes task, relationship and change-oriented behaviour following the meta-categories by Yukl et al. (2002). In addition, the model consists of the leader and team levels, and their interactions. The parts of the LIC model are divided into two sub-levels. The leader (L) consists of the Leader's Trustworthiness (LT) and Leader's Behaviour (LB), while Relationship-Orientation in Team (RO) is divided into team members' Attitude towards each other (ROA) and team members' Behaviour towards each other (ROB). Change and Task-Orientation in team (TO) consist of Individual and team goals (TOG) and Achievement of Goals (TOA).

The sub-levels "Leader" and "Relationship-Orientation in team" are developed based on the principle that attitudes impact behaviour. Leader trustworthiness impacts Leader's Behaviour, and Team members' Attitude towards each other
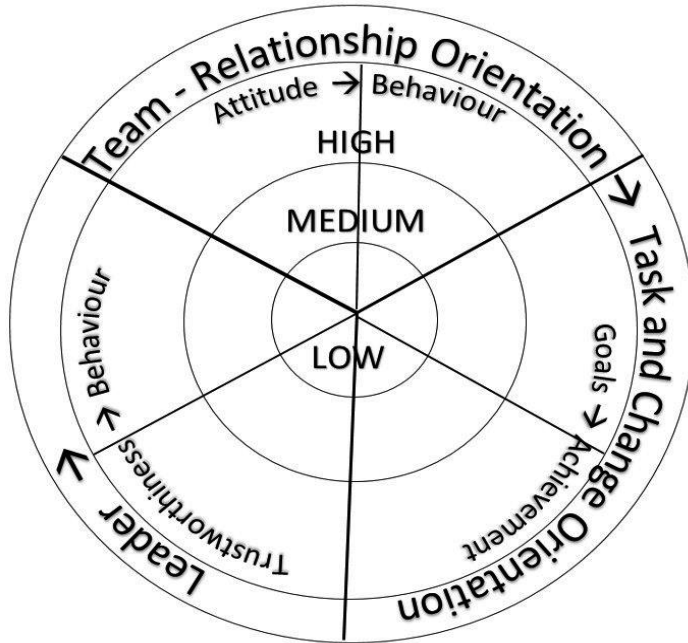
Figure 8. LIC model

impacts the Team members' Behaviour towards each other. The sub-levels of "Change and Task-Orientation" are developed based on the principle that Individual and team goals are essential for the Achievement of Goals.

All parts of the LIC model are interconnected and influence the leader's ability to facilitate change.

(1) **The Leader (L)** has the most influence on the culture and implementation of organisational changes. Two sublevels have been brought out from the leadership in this model: the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and the leader's behaviour (LB). In relation to the first sublevel, does the leader create trust and how easy it is to communicate with the leader. As these people dare to be honest with the leader, can he/she create positive energy through his/her behaviour which is needed for successful change initiation and implementation. In the second sublevel, is the leader instructing and coaching team members, meeting management, noticing everyday successes. The trustworthiness of the leader has the strongest influence.

It is essential that the first part the "Leader" is the strongest as the leaders impact the whole team. For example, the team members begin to imitate the leader's supportive behaviour towards each other and dare to take risks and challenging goals. The "Leader" has the impact on the part "Relationship-Orientation in Team" and each, in turn, influence the "Change and Task-Orientation."

Inside the first part, it is essential that the first sub-level (LT) is stronger than the second sub-level (LB), because then trusting contact supports the leader's behaviour, and team members listen to the leader more openly and respond in a more courageous and honest way. If the leader's LB is higher than the LT then it is likely that the leader has manipulative managerial techniques – it is not possible to be honest with the leader but the leader coaches the employees actively.

The higher the leader's LT, the more receptive subordinates are to LB. The higher the credibility of the leader, the more positively receptive the employees are to the leader's behaviour, and the more they will open themselves to the challenges and towards implementation of their potential.

(2) **Relationship-Orientation in Team (RO)** consists of two sublevels. The first is the team members' attitude towards each other (ROA) – how well do the team members know each other, do they have fun together and how open are they to helping each other. The readiness to contribute to achieving common goals depends on that. The second sublevel is team members' behaviour towards each other (ROB) – how much do people encourage, acknowledge each other and give supportive feedback to improve results – these behaviours can help achieve goals.

The higher the first sublevel ROA, the more receptive the employees are to the second sublevel ROB. The second part, "Relationship Orientation in Team", influences the third part "Change and Task-Orientation", because the willingness to commit to common goals depends on the quality of relationships. In turn, on the second level, the higher the sub-level "team members' attitudes to one another", the more positively team members behave towards each other, because their attitude is reflected in their behaviour.

Goals are achieved through communicating with each other. When the attitudes towards each other are bad and the behaviour non-constructive then this holds people back from achieving their goals. When the second sub-level (ROB) is higher than the first sub-level (ROA), mutual relations are not sincere. For example, people seek only certain advantages in relation to each other.

At the same time when the attitudes towards each other are good and the behaviour constructive, but the positive influence of the leader is low (the leader is not reliable or does not act as a leader), then it is hard for the leader to initiate change and to get support. Instead, the leader may experience resistance. Employees stick together in order to preserve the existing situation. This reaction may not be conscious, but rather reflects the fact that individual employees will react similarly to the leader. Even if the changes are verbally agreed, then the actual change may not occur.

(3) The third part of the model is **Change and Task-Orientation (TO)** in team, which has two sublevels. The first sets the individual and team goals (TOG) – does everyone have clear and measurable personal goals, is the team aiming to achieve the best at the team level, does the team focus on finding solutions, are there team "game rules". That is the prerequisite for implementation. The second sublevel is the achievement of goals (TOA) – how well is the team informed about how close they are to their goals, do they take time to analyse together whether they are doing the right things and doing them right, how persistent are they and is success celebrated.

The higher the first sub-level TOG, the more chances the second sub-level TOA is also working. If the TOA is higher than the TOG then it is likely that the goals set for the team members are too low or the goals are actually vague and the team members do not have a vision of clear and measurable goals.

If the second sub-level TOA is higher than the first sub-level TOG, it may indicate that there is lack of understanding by the team leader about clear and measurable objectives, and the "rules of the game" are not clear between the team members, but at the same time the team leader contributes time for monitoring the results. This can be frustrating for the team members because the analysis of unclear objectives may be open to different interpretations.

Every change needs goal setting at the team level as well as the team member level. In this regard, the first part "Leader" and the second part "Team"; in other words, the Relationship Orientation in the model perform a preparatory function for the third part, the Task and Change Orientation activities, thereby making meaningful and effective change possible. If the first and the second parts are weak, then it will have an impact on the third part. In this case, there is the probability of the existence of formal goals, but no commitment. When the third part is higher than the first and the second part, then the movement towards goals takes place through the command and control paradigm and the team leader will experience constant resistance. In relation to constant resistance, the results are low and under the team's actual capability. If the first and the second part are high and the third part is low, then it indicates the leader's unused potential.

Based on the LIC model the author proposed three levels of leader's profile:
1) High profile (L-RO-TO) – where the Leader (L) component is evaluated highest, followed by Relationship Orientation (RO), and Task and Change Orientation (TO).
2) Medium profile (RO-L-TO) – where Relationship Orientation (RO) component is evaluated highest, followed by Leader (L), and Task and Change Orientation (TO).
3) Low profile (TO-RO-L) – where Task and Change Orientation (TO) component is evaluated highest, followed by Relationship Orientation (RO), and Leader (L)

2.4.2 Four Phases of a Coaching Culture

The conceptual model "Four Phases of a Coaching Culture" (model 4C) describes how a coaching culture is behaviourally expressed in the organisation (Figure 9). The model makes it possible to evaluate the level of coaching culture in organisations. The model describes the behaviour of the team leader and the team members over **four phases** in the maturity of the coaching culture (Table 5):

1) In Phase 1 coaching culture is missing;
2) In Phase 2 some elements of a coaching culture are present;
3) In Phase 3 the elements of a coaching culture are present on average level,
4) In phase 4 the elements of a coaching culture are strongly present.

Table 5. "Four Phases of Coaching Culture" (4C) Model

Coaching culture characteristics	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
The strength of the involvement, consistency, responsibility in the team created by the leaders	--› --› --› --› --› --›	involvement consistency responsibility	--› --› --›	--› --› --›
VISION (Creating and implementing the vision)	- Leader does not have a vision - Leader has a vision - Leader has "sold" the vision to the team"	- The team has discussed and written down the common vision - The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals.	- The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal.	- The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal. Action plans are made. Follow ups are carried out.

Coaching culture characteristics	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
TRUST (Trust and finding solutions)	- No problems are talked about. Problems persist. - The problems are talked about but no action follows. - Leader has his/her own solutions and asks team members to implement. - Leader has his/her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting, but finally makes his/her own decisions.	- Leader has his/her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting and takes them into account.	- Leader asks team members to find out solutions and after that decides which of them to carry out. - Leader and team start to find out solutions together and decide about the best solution together	- Team finds solutions to problems and reports to the leader. - Team finds solutions to the problems, implements and reports afterwards.
TEAM (Establishment and keeping agreements)	- No agreements made. Everyone acts on his own. - Leader has spoken about norms.	- Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are made. In the beginning they are trying to be fulfilled but later the process is stopped.	- Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are made. Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focus on drawbacks.	- Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are made. Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focuses on success, appreciation by giving concrete examples.

Phase 1 and Phase 2 describe the characteristics of the old management paradigm, and the Phase 3 and Phase 4 the characteristics of a new management paradigm. Each phase of the model is described through three categories:

1) **Trust** describes the existence of trust in finding solutions to everyday problems and the sharing of responsibilities and decision-making power;
2) **Team** describes **establishing and keeping agreements** - how the cooperative agreements are arranged;
3) **Vision** describes **creating and implementing the vision**, how the vision is created and what is the implementation process.

The "Team" and "Trust" are prerequisites for "Vision". The "Vision" is most directly connected with coaching technics. The other two categories express coaching related attitudes and mindset.
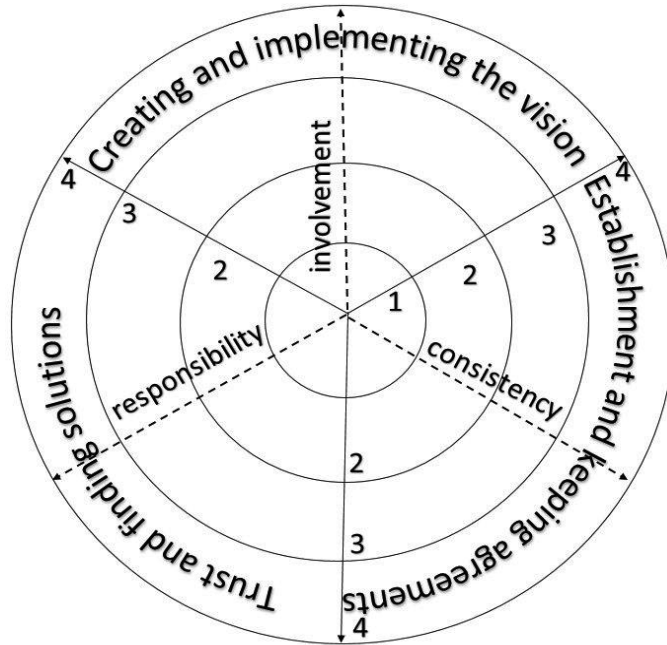
Figure 9. "Four Phases of Coaching Culture" (4C) Model

The 4C model describes the extent to which the practice of involvement, consistency and responsibility exist. In the first phase the involvement, consistency and responsibility is the weakest and in the fourth phase the strongest. When the practice of involvement, consistency and responsibility is weak, it does not support the development of a coaching culture because a coaching culture requires a strong culture of involvement, consistency and responsibility.

3.   THE EMPIRICAL STUDY IN ESTONIAN ORGANISATIONS

3.1   Research design

In order to answer research questions 3–7, the author conducted five empirical surveys (see Table 6), using the theoretical framework developed in2.4 and two questionnaires (see Annex 5 and Annex 6).

Table 6. Overview of empirical survey: sample, method, analyses

Survey	Sample	Method	Analyses
Survey 1 2007	The total number of respondents was 399 (196 team-leaders, 154 team members) from Estonian organisations. 59 from large enterprises; 176 from small businesses; 59 from state-owned organisations; and 61 from medium-sized enterprises.	Questionnaire 4C	In order to find answers to research questions, answers by respondents were compared using ANOVA and T test.
Survey 2 2007	336 respondents (149 team-leaders and 182 team members (5 did not mark their position) from Estonian organisations. 24.4% from large-scale enterprises; 39.58 % from small businesses; 18.15% from state-owned organisations.	Questionnaire LIC	In order to find answers to research questions, groups of respondents were compared using ANOVA and T test. Linear Regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the impact of the leader. In order to find the characteristics of the leaders' profiles according to high, medium and low estimated coaching-based leadership style, the whole sample was divided into three groups according to how respondents rated the scale 'Leader's Trustworthiness'. The result was three groups: groups with low, medium and high evaluations on leader's trustworthiness. The average indicators for the rest of the five scales have been calculated for those groups. According to the ANOVA test in all five scales, the averages were statistically significantly different.

Survey 3 2009	Estonia's largest telecommunications company. 11 teams took part in the study (97 *participants*) The team leaders, their managers and team members participated in the survey. After Survey 3, group coaching was carried out with team leaders	Questionnaire LIC	ANOVA and T-test.
Survey 4 2010	Estonia's largest telecommunications company. 9 teams took part (57 participants). The team leaders, their managers and team members participated in the survey.	Questionnaire LIC	ANOVA and T-test. The results were compared with the results of Survey 2 and Survey 3
Survey 5 2015	The total number of respondents was 183 (80 team-leaders, 103 team members) from Estonian organisations. 42 from large enterprises; 3 from small businesses; 67 from state-owned organisations; and 41 from medium-sized enterprises.	Questionnaire 4C, Questionnaire LIC	ANOVA and T-test. Linear Regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the impact of the leader. In order to find the characteristics of the leaders' profiles according to high, medium and low estimated coaching-based leadership style, the whole sample was divided into three groups according to how respondents rated the scale 'Leader's Trustworthiness'. The result was three groups: groups with low, medium and high evaluations of the leader's trustworthiness. The average indicators for the rest of the five scales have been calculated for those groups. According to the ANOVA test in all five scales the averages were statistically significantly different. Correlation analysis was conducted to find relations between elements of the 4C and LIC models.

1) In order to study the coaching culture in Estonian companies, the author conducted an empirical survey in 2007 (**Survey 1**) and in 2015 (**Survey 5**) (*Publication I, Publication IV*).
2) In order to study the coaching-based leadership style in Estonian companies, the author conducted the empirical survey (**Survey 2**) in 2007 *(Publication II)*. Another survey (**Survey 5**) was carried out in 2015 (*Publication IV*).

3) In order to find connections between a coaching culture and the coaching-based leadership style in Estonian companies, the author conducted an empirical survey (**Survey 5**) in 2015 *(Publication IV)*.
4) In order to find the characteristics of leaders' profiles according to high, medium and low estimated coaching-based leadership style, the author conducted several empirical surveys – **Survey 2** in 2007 *(Publication II)*, **Survey 3** in 2009 *(Publication III)*, **Survey 4** in 2010 *(Publication III)*, **Survey 5** in 2015 *(Publication IV)*.
5) In order to investigate the impact of group coaching on team leaders, two surveys **(Survey 3, Survey 4)** were conducted in the largest Estonian telecommunications company *(Publication III)*.

3.1.1 The questionnaire "Four phases of coaching culture"

The questionnaire "Four phases of coaching culture" is based on the 4C model developed in 2.4 (see Annex 5). The questionnaire is divided into three parts. The *first* part "Vision" contains seven statements, the *second* part "Team", six statements, and the *third* part "Trust", nine statements. The statements in the "Vision" part describe seven levels of vision development and implementation. The statements in the "Team" part describe six levels of team culture development and implementation. The statements in the "Trust" part describe nine levels of trust and solution finding.

Phase 1 – coaching culture is missing, Phase 2 – some characteristics of coaching culture are present, Phase 3 – characteristics of a coaching culture are moderately expressed, and Phase 4 – characteristics of a coaching culture are strongly expressed.

The statements chosen by a respondent make it possible to decide which phase of development the given aspect of coaching culture is currently in:
VISION
    Phase 1 - statements 1, 2, 3
    Phase 2 - statements 4, 5
    Phase 3 - statement 6
    Phase 4 - statement 7
TRUST
    Phase 1 - statements 1, 2, 3, 4
    Phase 2 - statements 5
    Phase 3 - statements 6, 7
    Phase 4 - statements 8, 9
TEAM
    Phase 1 - statements 1, 2
    Phase 2 - statements 3, 4
    Phase 3 - statement 5
    Phase 4 - statement 6

The Table 7 shows percentage of respondents who chose the respective coaching culture category in each phase in Survey 1 and Survey 5. The phase with the highest percentage of chosen category is the predominant phase of coaching culture.

Table 7. Percentage of organisations in each phase of coaching culture in 2007 (Survey 1) and in 2015 (Survey 5)

Phase	Phase1		Phase2		Phase3		Phase4	
Survey (S)	S1	S 5	S 1	S 5	S 1	S 5	S 1	S 5
Vision	31	32	37	30	9	12	23	24
Team	19	14	28	40	39	30	14	15
Trust	17	22	26	17	37	41	20	18
Total: Coaching culture character-istics	22.3	22.7	30.3	29.0	28.3	27.6	19.0	19.0

3.1.2 The questionnaire "Coaching-based leadership style"

The questionnaire "Coaching-based leadership style" is based on the conceptual model "Coaching-based leadership style and leaders impact" (LIC) developed in section 2.4 (see Annex 6). The questionnaire contains three parts.

The *first* part, Leader (L), was composed of six statements: three statements about the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and three statements about the leader's behaviour (LB). The *second* part, Relationship Orientation in team (RO), was composed of six statements : three statements about the team members' attitude towards each other (ROA) and three statements about the team members' behaviour towards each other (ROB). The *third* part, Task and Change Orientation in team (TO), was composed of eight statements : four statements about setting individual and team goals (TOG) and four statements about the achievement of goals (TOA).

The statements in the questionnaire are divided into three groups based on the LIC model:
   Leader (L)
   LT (leader's trustworthiness) - statements 10, 13, 14
   LB (leader's behaviour) - statements 6, 8, 9
   Relationship orientation in team (RO)
   ROA (team members' attitudes towards each other) - statements 3, 7, 11
   ROB (team members' behaviour towards each other) - statements 4, 5, 19
   Task and change orientation (TO)
   TOG (Individual and team goals) - statements 1, 2, 12, 17
   TOA (achievement of goals) - statements 15, 16, 18, 20

The respondents marked the statements on a ten-point scale. Leader's profile was described based on the evaluations of the three groups (L, RO, TO). The value of coaching-based leadership style is the arithmetic mean of the evaluations of groups (see Section 3.2.3).

3.2 Findings and discussion

3.2.1 Coaching culture in Estonian organisations (RQ 3)

The results of Surveys 1 and 5 conducted in 2007 and 2015 make it possible to draw the following conclusions:

1) The coaching culture has not changed significantly from 2007 to 2015. It can be concluded that the coaching culture is not been consciously developed in Estonian organizations yet. This result is supported by the recent survey (Survey of Estonian management practices 2015), which revealed that the management practices in Estonian companies have stayed in the comfort zone during the period of 2010 – 2015.

2) The phase of coaching culture development that has the largest percentage of Estonian organisations is Phase 2 with about 30% of the organisations in the study. Of the remainder, about 23% are still in Phase 1, while the share of organisations in Phase 3 has increased from 19% to 28%, and 19% of organisations are in Phase 4.

3) Results suggest that Estonian organizations have good prerequisites to introduce a coaching culture if desired. Only 23% of respondents did not notice any signs of coaching culture.

4) In both Surveys the Vision component of a coaching culture was evaluated the lowest. In Survey 1 Vision was in Phase 1, but the difference between Phase 1 and Phase 2 was very small, only 2%. In Survey 5, Vision was in Phase 2.

5) The Team and Trust components of a coaching culture were evaluated a bit higher than Vision. As far as Team and Trust components serve as prerequisites for implementing a coaching-based leadership style, it can be concluded that Estonian organisations are ready for this type of change.

6) The team leaders evaluate all components of the coaching culture higher than the team members. This result is also supported by other studies (Alas 2004).

3.2.2 Coaching-based leadership style in Estonian organisations (RQ 4)

The results of Surveys 1, 2 and 5 make it possible to draw the following conclusions:

1) The coaching-based leadership style in Estonian organizations has not changed from 2007 to 2015. In both surveys the highest evaluated element was Relationship Orientation in team (RO), followed by Leader (L), and Task and Change Orientation (TO).

2) The coaching-based leadership style needs a high level of trust towards the leader.
3) When the leader's trustworthiness is lower than the relationship orientation in the team, it is hard for the leader to initiate change and to obtain support.
4) Team leaders perceived all elements of the coaching-based leadership style higher than the team members in Survey 2 and Survey 5. The highest difference was in evaluations of leader's trustworthiness and behaviour. Therefore, the leaders and team members perceive and evaluate the situation differently, and also react differently. This conclusion is also supported by earlier studies (Ham brick et al. 1984; Miller et al. 1988).

3.2.3 Leaders' profiles in a coaching-based leadership style (RQ 6)

The leaders' profiles were analysed in two ways. Both ways led to the same conclusions. First, the value of leadership style was calculated as described in Section 3.1. This value was used to divide the leaders into three categories with high, medium and low leadership style. Second, the whole sample was divided into three groups according to the respondents' evaluations of the leader's trustworthiness (low, medium or high).

In the high and medium trustworthiness group, the element Leader (L) was evaluated the highest, followed by Relationship Orientation (RO), and Task and Change Orientation (TO). The leader's profile in these groups has the pattern L-RO-TO. The leaders with this kind of pattern are able to achieve high relationship orientation in teams and high change and task orientation. In the low trustworthiness group RO and TO were lower than in the high and medium trustworthiness groups, and the pattern changed to RO-TO-L. In this case it is hard for the leader to initiate change and to obtain support.

The values of a coaching-based leadership style were calculated for different samples in Survey 2, Survey 3, Survey 4 and Survey 5 (see Table 8).

Table 8. Leaders' profiles in different samples

Patterns of leaders' profiles	Sample	Evaluations to coaching-based leadership style components	Means values of evaluations of coaching-based leadership style
L - RO - TO	One large company 2010, N=57	L 8.9 RO 8.75 TO 8.31	8.65
L - RO - TO	High group 2007, N=112	L 8.9 RO 8.7 TO 8.1	8.5
L - RO - TO	One large company 2009, N=97	L 8.36 RO 8.33 TO 7.77	8.15
L - RO - TO	High group 2015, N=75	L 8.5 RO 8.1 TO 7.5	8.1
L - RO - TO	Large comp 2007, N= 82	L7.2 RO 7 TO 6.8	7,0

52

L - RO - TO	Medium group 2007, N=112	L 7.2 RO 7.1 TO 6.6	6,97
L = RO - TO	Small comp 2015, N=33	L7.2 RO 7.2 TO 6.4	6,93
L = RO- TO	Medium group 2015, N=51	L 6.9 RO 6.9 TO 6.4	6.7
RO - L - TO	Large comp 2015, N=42	RO 6.5 L 6.7 TO 6.2	6.5
RO - L - TO	State comp 2015, N=67	RO 6.9 L 6.4 TO 6.1	6.5
RO - L - TO	Small comp 2007, N=133	RO 6.9 L 6.5 TO 6.2	6.5
RO - L - TO	Medium comp 2015, N=41	RO 6.7 L 6.5 TO 6	6.4
RO - L - TO	State comp 2007, N=61	RO 6.6 L 6.3 TO 6	6.3
RO - TO - L	Low group 2007, N=112	RO 5 TO 4.3 L 4	4.4
RO -TO - L	Low group 2015, N=57	RO 5.2 TO 4.2 L 3.8	4.4

Regularities emerge when comparing different groups of samples. When analysing patterns it turned out that the LIC pattern is directly connected with the evaluations of the coaching-based leadership style. When the coaching-based leadership style is rated between 8.65 and 6,97, a pattern of L-RO-TO occurs, when the coaching-based leadership style is rated between 6,93 and 6,7, a pattern of L= RO-TO occurs, a coaching-based leadership style rated between 6.5 and 6.3 is characterized by the pattern RO-L-TO and a coaching-based leadership style rated 4.4 is characterized by the pattern RO-TO-L.

In Surveys 3 and 4, the impact of group coaching on the leader's profile was studied based on the LIC model. In Table 9, a sample profile of a leader is presented, which is characterized by the pattern RO-L-TO.

Table 9. Sample leader's profile in 2009 with LIC pattern RO-L-TO

	LT	LB	L	ROA	ROB	RO	TOG	TOA	TO
team members	8.39	6.25	**7.32**	8.03	7.21	**7.62**	6.13	6.13	**6.13**
team leader	8.66	5.66	**7.16**	7.66	8.66	**8.16**	5.25	6.5	**5.87**
mean			**7.24**			**7.89**			**6.0**

The same leader's profile followed a new LIC pattern L- RO - TO in 2010 (see Table 10).

Table 10. Sample leader's profile in 2010 with LIC pattern L-RO-TO

	LT	LB	**L**	ROA	ROB	**RO**	TOG	TOA	**TO**
team members	9.28	8.66	**8.97**	8.7	8.49	**8.59**	8.65	7.68	**8.16**
team leader	9.66	9	**9.33**	9.33	9.33	**9.33**	9	8.75	**8.87**
mean			**9.15**			**8.96**			**8.51**

With the change in LIC pattern from RO-L-TO to L-RO-TO all evaluations are higher than before. It can be concluded from this that the leader's higher trustworthiness impacts relationship orientation in the team and enables higher task and change orientation.

The studies revealed that for Estonian leaders the most important development areas are the impact the leaders' trustworthiness and behaviour on team members.

3.2.4 Relationship between coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style (RQ 5)

Survey 5 studied the relationship between coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style in groups with high, medium and low leader trustworthiness. The results allow us to draw the following conclusions:

1) In the high and medium trustworthiness groups, leader (L) was evaluated highest, followed by relationship orientation (RO) and task and change orientation (TO). In the low group relationship orientation (RO) was highest, then change and task orientation (TO) and finally leader (L).
2) In high trustworthiness group, the coaching culture is evaluated highest (2.8), followed by the medium trustworthiness group (2.5), and the low trustworthiness group (1.8) (See Table 11).

Table 11. Coaching culture characteristics in high, medium and low group in 2015

High, medium and low groups	VISION - Creating and implementing the vision	TRUST - Trust and finding solutions	TEAM - Establishing and keeping agreements	Coaching Culture average
High, N=75	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8
Medium, N=51	2.2	2.7	2.5	2.5
Low, N=57	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8
Total, N=183	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.4

3.2.5 The impact of group coaching on the coaching-based leadership style of the leader (RQ 7)

The results of Surveys 3 and 4 make it possible to draw the following conclusions concerning the impact of group coaching on the coaching-based leadership style of leaders[1]:

1) Participation in group coaching strengthens the coaching-based leadership style. Several previous studies support this conclusion (see p.2.2.3).

_____

[1]　　　After Survey 3 the group coaching was carried out with team leaders.

2) The individual and team goals element of the model increased most as a result of group coaching, which indicates that the leaders started to develop their teams.
3) Group coaching supports the development of leaders coaching skills, and improves the communication with team members
4) Group coaching influenced leader's trustworthiness most.
5) In contrast to previous studies, Survey 3 revealed that team members evaluate the situation higher than their leaders. This can be explained by the specific economic situation (recession), where the leaders had more information regarding the real economic results and future perspectives.. This phenomenon should be explored further.
6) The team leaders and team members perceived the same changes in Survey 4 – the Task Orientation in teams had increased the most for both. Both perceived the highest changes in individual and team goals.

To conclude, the author can see that group coaching has many advantages over individual coaching.

4.   RECOMMENDATIONS

The author has developed recommendations for organisations, leaders and human resource specialists on how to increase the leader impact in developing a coaching culture in an organisation.

4.1   Recommendations for organisations

It is important to assess the current state of coaching culture to decide what kind of strategy to use to further develop the coaching culture.

The author does not recommend coaching skill training for companies in coaching culture Phase 1 or Phase 2 because the skills are rooted in beliefs and attitudes. Beliefs and attitudes are very hard to change and the most effective option is learning by experimenting. To support the coaching-based activities leaders need to learn how to create the environment of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms. It is important to enable leaders through a positive personal experience of coaching. Therefore, the strategy of starting with group coaching or team coaching is much more efficient for developing a coaching culture in Phase 1 or Phase 2. In group coaching the participants are the members of the organisation who operate in the same level and do similar tasks (for example team leaders are at the same level). Team coaching means that the group consists from one team, and the participants of the group are the team leader and the team members. First, group coaching or team coaching supports developing a practice of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms inside the team. Secondly, a parallel learning process is taking place in the organisation. The participants learn a coaching attitude and skills through their own experiences.

However, an organisation can also promote different types of culture within departments; that is, an intra-organisational sub-culture (Alvesson 2013). It can also influence leadership behaviour at all levels. Therefore, one possibility is to start developing a coaching culture as a pilot project in one department and study how coaching-based leadership impacts the culture and performance.

The transformation from coaching culture Phase 3 to Phase 4 is most efficient using team coaching. A strategy using executive group coaching can also be useful.

4.2   Recommendations for leaders

The author developed recommendations for leaders for developing a coaching culture based on the 4C model (Figure 9).

For those leaders whose organisations or teams are in **Phase 1**, the first steps in developing a coaching culture are:
1) The team leader together with team members discusses and agrees upon a common vision about the future.
2) The team leader together with team members sets the goals to reach this vision.
3) Even when the team leader has his/her own solutions towards problem solving, he/she also asks the others' opinions and takes them into account.
4) The team leader together with team members discusses and agrees upon the norms of the team culture.

For those leaders whose organisations or teams are in **Phase 2**, the important steps in developing the coaching culture are:
1) The team members set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goals and vision.
2) The team leader and team decide about the best solution together.
3) The team regularly analyses the agreed team culture norms.

For those leaders whose organisations or teams are in **Phase 3**, the following steps to enhance the coaching culture are recommended:
1) Action plans are prepared to achieve individual goals in accordance with the common goal and vision. Regular follow-ups are carried out.
2) The team finds solutions to the problems and reports to the team leader or implements solutions and reports afterwards.
3) The team regularly analyses the agreed team culture norms, and focuses on success.

4.3   Recommendations for leaders and human resource specialists

Based on the LIC model and the results of the empirical surveys, the author developed recommendations for leaders and human resource specialists concerning the development of the leader's coaching competence:
1) Ensure regular and timely feedback to the leaders to develop their awareness of themselves and what is essential in guiding themselves.
2) Invest in developing the trustworthiness of leaders.
3) Start developing a coaching culture by identifying the current state of the coaching-based leadership style.
4) Be aware that the leaders and employees perceive the situation differently.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Solving the research problem: How to increase the impact of leaders in developing a coaching culture in the organisation (based on the example of Estonian organisations) has led to the following theoretical and practical results.

5.1 Contributions to theory

1) Coherent definitions of the concepts of coaching, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style.
2) Conceptual models for the coaching process, coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style. The model for the coaching process makes it possible to assess the quality of the coaching process, and can serve as the basis for planning coaching. The model for the coaching culture combines a normative, behavioural and developmental approach offering valuable information for decision-makers, human resource specialists and managers. Conceptual model of coaching based leadership style: (1) building trust, (2) relationship oriented behaviours (3) change oriented behaviours (4) task oriented behaviours. The author suggests that this framework enables a better understanding of coaching-based leadership.
3) A conceptual model for developing coaching culture through a coaching-based leadership style, which combines a coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of the leader. The conceptual model consists of two parts: "Four phases of coaching culture" (4C) and "Coaching-based leadership style and leaders impact"(LIC).
4) Empirical evidence of the coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style in Estonian organisations. The coaching culture and coaching-based leadership style had not been studied in the context of Estonian organisations. The dissertation filled this gap.
5) Empirical evidence of the impact of leaders' trustworthiness and group coaching on the effectiveness of management.

5.2 Contributions to methodology

The author also contributed to the methodology of management research by developing two instruments for studying the coaching culture and coaching-based leadership:
1) The "Four phases of coaching culture" questionnaire for identifying the level of coaching culture development.
2) The "Coaching-based leadership style" questionnaire to evaluate the strength of the coaching-based leadership style and the leader's impact on the coaching culture in organisations.

5.3   Contributions to practice

The theoretical results and empirical evidence gained from the research conducted allowed the author to recommend the following tools to leaders and human resource specialists for developing the coaching culture in their organisation:

1) Use the "Four phases of coaching culture" model to identify your development phase and design a route towards a more developed phase of coaching culture.
2) Use the "Coaching-based leadership style" model, emphasizing the importance of leader self-awareness, and the link between the leaders trustworthiness and leaders ability to impact the team.

6. REFERENCES

Agarwal, R., Angst C.M., Magni M. 2009 *The performance effects of coaching: a multilevel analysis using hierarchical linear modeling* The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 20, No. 10, October 2009, 2110–2134

Alas, R. 2004 *Organisational changes during the transition in Estonia: Major influencing behavioral factors*. The Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, the University of Tartu, Estonia

Alnasseri, N., Osborne, A. and Steel, G., 2013. Organizational culture, leadership style and effectiveness: a case study of Middle Eastern construction clients.

Bandura, A. 1977. *Social Learning Theory*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall

Barney, J. B., Hansen, M. H. 1994. Trustworthiness as a source of competitive advantage. Strategic Management Journal, 15, 175–190

Barry, T. 1992 The Manager as Coach *Industrial & Commercial Training, 24 (2), 14.*

Bartlett, C.A., Ghoshal, S. 2002. *Building competitive advantage through people*. MIT Sloan Management Review, 43:34-41

Bartlett, C.A., Ghoshal, S. 1997 *'The Myth of the Generic Managers: New Personal Competencies for New Management Roles,'* California Management Review, 40, 1, 92–116Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J., 1993. Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public administration quarterly*, pp.112-121.

Bass, B. M., Bass, R. 2008 *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY, USA: The Free Press

Bawany, S. 2015. *Creating a Coaching Culture*. Leadership Excellence Essentials, 32(2), 43.

Bennett, J., Bush, M. 2009 *Coaching in organizations*. OD Practitioner, 41(1), 2-7.

Berg, M.E. 2006, *Coaching,* Universitetsforlaget.

Berg, M. E., Karlsen, J. T. 2007 *Mental Models in Project Management Coaching.* Engineering Management Journal, 19(3).

Bonfield, H. 2003 *Executive Coaching is not just for a big companies* The British Journal of Administrative Management (36), 18

Bresser, F. (2010), The Global Business Guide for the Successful Use of Coaching in Organizations, Frank Bresser Publishing, Cologne.

Cataldo, C. G., Raelin, J. D., Lambert, M. 2009. Reinvigorating the struggling organization. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 45(1), 137-138.*

Chidiac M.A. 2013 *Creating a coaching culture: relational field coaching* VOL. 27 NO. 3 2013, pp. 11-13, Q Emerald Group Publishing Limited, ISSN 1477-7282

Christensen, K, A., 2012 A Group Coaching Model for Early Career Ministers *Professional Psychology Doctoral Projects. Paper 7.*

Council, C. L. (2002). Performance management survey. *Washington DC: Author*.

Clutterbuck, D. 2013 *Teaming up for a coaching culture* Training journal, February

Clutterbuck D., and Megginson D. 2005 *Making Coaching Work* 2005 CIPD

Cooke, R. A., Lafferty, J. C. 1986. *Organisational Culture Inventory (Form III),* Plymouth, MI: Human Synergetics.

Costa, A. C. Roe, R. A. Taillieu, T. 2001. *Trust within teams: The relation with performance effectiveness* European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology 10 225–244

Crane T. 2005 *Creating a coaching culture - today's most potent organizational change process for creating a "high-performance" culture"* Business Coaching Worldwide, Volume 1, Issue 1

Crane, T. G. 2007. *The heart of coaching: using transformational coaching to create a high-performance culture* (Third ed.). San Diego: FTA Press.

Day, D.V., 2001. Leadership development:: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(4), pp.581-613.

de Haan, E. and Nieß, C., 2012. Critical moments in a coaching case study: Illustration of a process research model. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *64*(3), p.198

Denison, D.R., 1990. *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. John Wiley & Sons.

Denison, D. R., & Mishra, A. K. 1995. *Toward a Theory of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness.* Organization Science, 6(2), 204-223.

Dickson, M.W., Smith, D.B., Grojean, M.W. & Ehrhart, M. 2001. An organizational climate regarding ethics: the outcome of leader values and the practices that reflect them *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 12, pp. 197-217.

Dirks, K. T. Skarlicki, D. P. 2009. *The relationship between being perceived as trustworthy by coworkers and individual performance* Journal of Management 35 136–157

Eagly, Alice H., Chaiken, Shelly 1993. *The psychology of attitudes*. Orlando, FL, US: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.. xxii 794 pp.

Edmondson, A. C., Bohmer, R. M., Pisano, G. P. M., Pisano, G. P., 2001 Disrupted Routines: Team Learning and New Technology Implementation in Hospitals. Administrative Science Quarterly, 00018392, Dec, Vol. 46, Issue 4

Ellinger, A.D., Beattie, R.S., Hamlin, R.G. 2010, "The 'manager as coach' ", in Cox, E., Bachkirova, T. and Clutterbuck, D. (Eds), The Complete Handbook of Coaching, Sage, London, pp. 257-270.

Ellinger, A.D., Ellinger, A.E., Keller, S.B. 2003 *'Supervisory Coaching Behavior, Employee Satisfaction, and Warehouse Employee Performance: A Dyadic Perspective in the Distribution Industry,'* Human Resource Development Quarterly, 14, 4, 435–458.

Evered, E.D., Selman J.G. 1989 *Coaching and the Art of Management*, Organizational Dynamics*. 18:2* pp. 16-23.

Feldman, D.G., Lankau M.J. 2005. *Executive Coaching: A Review and Agenda for Future Research*, Journal of Management, 37:6 , pp. 829-848.

Figlar, M., Adams, M., Hornyak, L. 2007. *Strengthening the leadership pipeline through internal human-resources-based executive coaching:* A white paper, 12th Annual Global Forum for Action Learning,

Gallwey, W.T., 2002. *The inner game of work: Overcoming mental obstacles for maximum performance*. Texere.

Gardner, H. 1997. *Leading Minds an Anatomy of Leadership.* Harper Collins Publishers

George, J.M. 2000. Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence *Human Relations,* Vol. 53 No. 8, pp. 1027-1055.

Global Coaching Survey. 2009. *Frank Bresser consulting report: Global coaching survey 2008/2009. The state of coaching across the globe: Results of the global*

coaching survey 2008/2009. Retrieved February 17, 2010 http://www.frank-bresser-consulting.com/globalcoachingsurvey.html

Goffee, R., Jones, G. 2000. *The Character of a Corporation: How your company's culture can make or break your business.* Harper Collins Business.

Goffee, R., Jones, G. 2001. *Organisational Culture: A Sociological Perspective.* In: Cooper, C. L., Cartwright, S., Earley, P. C. (Eds.) The International handbook of Organisational Culture and Climate, John Wiley & Sons, pp. 3-20.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A., 2013. *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence.* Harvard Business Press.

Gordon, G.G. and DiTomaso, N., 1992. Predicting corporate performance from organizational culture. *Journal of management studies*, *29*(6), pp.783-798.

Grant, A.M., 2006. A personal perspective on professional coaching and the development of coaching psychology. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, *1*(1), pp.12-22.

Grant, A.M., 2008. Personal life coaching for coaches-in-training enhances goal attainment, insight and learning. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, *1*(1), pp.54-70.

Hackman, R., Wageman, R. 2005. A theory of team coaching. Academy of Management Review, 30(2), 269-287.

Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. 1984. Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2):193-206

Hamlin, R. G., Ellinger, A. D., Beattie, R. S. 2006. *Coaching at the heart of managerial effectiveness: A cross-cultural study of managerial behaviours.* Human Resource Development International, 9(3), 305-331.

Hargrove, R., 2003. Masterful coaching: Inspire an "impossible future" while producing extraordinary leaders and extraordinary results (Rev. ed.).

Harrower, N. 2010. *Applying OD principles to non-OD projects*. OD Practitioner , 42(1), 26-30.

Harper, S. (2012). The leader coach: A model of multi-style leadership. *Journal of Practical Consulting*, *4*(1), 22-31.

Hart, W 2005. *Getting culture: Imbuing your organization with coaching behaviour* Leadership in Action, 25 (4), 7-10.

Haslam, S.A., Reicher S.D., Platow M.J. 2011. The New Psychology of Leadership. Identity, Influence, and Power. Psychology Press

Hawkins, P. (2011), Leadership Team Coaching, Routledge, London.

Hawkings P. 2012. *Creating a Coaching Culture: Developing a Coaching Strategy for Your Organization*, Berkshire, England

Hempel, P. S. Zhang, Z. Tjosvold, D. 2009. *Conflict management between and within teams for trusting relationships and performance in China* Journal of Organizational Behavior 30 41–65

Heslin, P.A., Vandewalle, D. and Latham, G.P., 2006. Keen to help? Managers implicit person theories and their subsequent employee coaching. *Personnel Psychology*, *59*(4), pp.871-902.

Hicks, R. and McCracken, J., 2011. How to give difficult feedback. *Physician executive*, *37*(3), pp.84-87.

House, R.J. and Aditya, R.N., 1997. The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis?. *Journal of management*, *23*(3), pp.409-473.

House, R.J., Hanges P. J., Javidan M., Dorfman P. W., Gupta V. 2004 *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations, The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, Sage Publications, Inc.

Hunt, J.M. , Weintraub, J.R. 2002, The Coaching Manager, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Hurst, D. K. 1995. *Crisis and Renewal: Meeting the Challenge of Organizational Change*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

ICF 2016 What is professional coaching? https://www.coachfederation.org/need/landing.cfm?ItemNumber=978&navItemNumber=567

Jones, G., Gorell, R. 2014. *How to create a Coaching Culture*, Kogan Page ,264 p

Kinlaw, D.C. 1999 *Coaching for commitment: interpersonal strategies for obtaining superior performance from individuals and teams* (2nd ed) San Francisco, Calif: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer

Kemp, T.J., 2009. Is coaching an evolved form of leadership? Building a transdisciplinary framework for exploring the coaching alliance. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, *4*(1), pp.105-110.

Kesting, P., Ulhøi, J.P., Song, L.J. and Niu, H., 2016. The impact of leadership styles on innovation-a review. *Journal of Innovation Management*, *3*(4), pp.22-41.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. 2005. *Leadership group coaching in action: The Zen of creating high performance teams*, Academy of Management Executive, 19(1), 61-76.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. 2006. *"The Eight Roles Executives Play."* Organizational Dynamics 36(1), 28-44.

Kets de Vries M. 2008. Leadership Coaching and Organizational Transformation: Effectiveness in a World of Paradoxes INSEAD Working Paper Series 2008/71/ EFE

Kilmann, R. H., Saxton, M. J. 1983. *The Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey.* Pittsburgh: PA Organisational design Consultants.

Kilmann, R, Saxton, M, Serpa, R 1986. 'Issues in Understanding and Changing Culture', *California Management Review*, 28, 2, pp. 87-94, Business Source Complete

Kippenberger, T., 2002. *Leadership Styles: Leading 08.04* (Vol. 8). John Wiley & Sons.

Kotter, J.P. 1990. *A force for change: How leadership differs from management.* New York, NY, US: Free Press

Kotter, J.P. and Heskett, J.L., 1992. Corporate culture and performance. *New York, Free Press*.

Kouzes, J.M., Posner, B.Z., 2002 *The leadership challenge* . San Francisco Jossey-Bass

Latham, G.P., Almost, J., Mann, S., Moore, C. 2005. New developments in performance management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 34: 77-87

Lawler, E. E. 1992. The ultimate advantage: Creating the high involvement organization. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lencioni, P. 2012. *The advantage: Why organizational health trumps everything else in business,* Jossey-Bass.

Leonard-Cross E. 2010. *Developmental coaching: Business benefit – fact or fad? An evaluative study to explore the impact of coaching in the workplace.* International Coaching Psychology Review Vol. 5 No. 1 March

Linley, P. A. 2006. *Coaching Research: who? what? where? when? why?* International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring Vol. 4, No.2, Autumn

Lindbom D. 2007. *A Culture of Coaching: The Challenge of Managing Performance for Long-Term Results.* Organizational Development Journal Volume 25 Number 1 Spring 2007 P101

Lutz Allen, S., Smith, J.E. and Da Silva, N., 2013. Leadership style in relation to organizational change and organizational creativity: Perceptions from non-profit organizational members. *Non-profit Management and Leadership*, *24*(1), pp.23-42.

Locke, E. A., Latham, G. P. 1990. *A theory of goal setting & task performance*. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Mace, M.L. 1950. *The growth and development of executives*. Boston: Harvard University.

Mach M., Dolan S., Tzafrir S. 2010. *The differential effect of team members' trust on team performance: The mediation role of team cohesion* Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology Volume 83, Issue 3, 771–794

Machin, S. 2010. *The nature of the internal coaching relationship*. International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 4, 37-51.

Massey, G., Kyngdon, A. 2005. *The measurement of interpersonal trust between peer managers: a test of a specific item bank using factor analysis and Rasch Modelling* Working Paper Series, School of Marketing, Faculty of Business, University of Technology, Sydney.

Mathieu, J., Maynard, M.T., Rapp, T., Gilson, L. 2008. Team effectiveness 1997-2007: a review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future, Journal of Management, Vol. 34 No. 3, pp. 410-476.

Mayer, R. C. Davis, J. H. Schoorman, F. D. 1995. *An integrative model of organizational trust* Academy of Management Review 20 709–734

McAllister, D. J. 1995. *Affect and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations* Academy of Management Journal 38 24–59

McCarthy, G. Milner, J., 2013. Managerial coaching: challenges, opportunities and training. *Journal of Management Development*, *32*(7), pp.768-779.

McComb, C., 2012. Developing coaching culture: are your managers good coachees?. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *44*(6), pp.345-348.

Melé, D., 2011. *Management ethics: Placing ethics at the core of good management*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Miller, D., Droge, C. and Toulouse, J.M. 1988. Strategic process and content as mediators between organizational context and structure. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(3): 544-569

Moen, F. and Federici, R.A., 2012. The Effect from Coaching Based Leadership. *Journal of Education and Learning*, *1*(2), pp.1-14.

Moen, F., Federici, R. A. 2012. *The Effect of External Executive Coaching and Coaching- Based Leadership on Need Satisfaction*. Organization Development Journal, 30(3), 63-74.

Mukherjee, S. 2012. *Does Coaching Transform Coaches? A Case Study of Internal Coaching.* International Journal Of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring, 10(2), 76-87.

Munro P. ,Beeson J. 2002. Leadership's purpose: Attaining a culture of understanding. (Paper presented at the INTERCOM Conference Leadership in Museums: Are our Core Values Shifting, Dublin, Ireland, October 16– 19.) Internet: http://www.intercom.museum/conferences/2002/munro.pdf

Nwibere, B.M., 2013. The influence of corporate culture on managerial leadership style: The Nigerian experience. *International Journal of Business and Public Administration*, *10*(2), pp.166-187.

O'Connor D., Jones V 2012. *Trust, conversation and creativity: Designing an intentional culture of success,* Journal of Professional Communication 2(2):133-138

Ogbonna, E. and Harris, L.C., 2000. Leadership style, organizational culture and performance: empirical evidence from UK companies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(4), pp.766-788.

Pirola-Merlo, A., Hartel, C., Mann, L., Hirst, G. 2002. How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in R&D teams, *The leadership quarterly*, 13, 561-581.

Phillips, J. J. 1997. *Developing a results-based approach. Handbook of Training Evaluation and Measurement Methods* (Improving Human Performance Series) 3rd ed., pp. 35-50. Houston: Gulf Professional Publishing.

Randak- Jezierska, M. 2015. *Coaching in Managerial Work.* Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Management 2015. "Management, Leadership and Strategy for SME's Competitiveness". ICM 2015. 18-19th June 2015, Godollo, Hungary

Robinson, S.L. 1996. *Trust and breach of the psychological contract.* Administrative Science Quarterly, 41: 574-599

Roots, H. 2002. *Organisatsioonikultuuri tüübid*, Tallinn: Sisekaitseakadeemia.

Sahlins, M. 1985. *Islands of History*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Salancik, G. R., Pfeffer, J. 1978. A Social Information Processing Approach to Job Attitudes and Task Design, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23: 224-253.

Schein, E. 1992. Organizational Culture and Leadership.

Sherman, S. and Freas, A., 2004. The wild west of executive coaching. *Harvard business review*, *82*(11), pp.82-93.

Seel R. 2000. Culture and complexity: new insights on organisational change. Organisations & People, 7(2):2-9, May. Internet: http://www.new-paradigm.co.uk/culture-complex.htm

Segers J. ,Vloeberghs D., Henderickz E. 2011. *Structuring and Understanding the Coaching Industry: The Coaching Cube* , Academy of Management Learning & Education, Vol. 10, No. 2, 204–221.

Sivasubramaniam, N., Murry, W.D., Avolio, B.J. Jung, D.I. 2002. A longitudinal model of the effects of team leadership and group potency on group performance *Group and Organizational Management*, Vol. 27 No. 1, pp. 66-96.

Sue- Chan C. &Latham G.P. 2004. *The relative effectiveness of external, peer and self-coaches.* Applied Psychology: An International Review, 53(2) 260-278

Survey of Estonian management practices 2015, Civietta and EBS

Stubbs, E.C. 2005. *"Emotional intelligence competencies in the team and team leader: A multi-level examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on group performance"*, Unpublished Dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

Smith, J. B. Barclay, W. B. 1997. *The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships* Journal of Marketing 61 3–21

Smither, J. W., London, M., Flautt, R., Vargas, Y., & Kucine, I. 2003. *Can working with an executive coach improve multisource feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental study. Personnel Psychology*, 56: 23-44.

Survey of the Estonian Management Practices in 2015. Civitta, Estonian Business School

Thach, E. C. 2002. *The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership Effectiveness.* Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23(4), 205-214. doi: 10.1108/01437730210429070

Thornton, C. 2010. Group and Team Coaching, Routledge, Hove.

Tsai, W., Ghoshal, S. 1998. Social capital and value creation: The role of intrafirm networks. Academy of Management Journal, 41, 464–476.

Watkins D, 2008 *The common factors between coaching cultures and transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and high-performance organizational cultures* A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctorate of Management in Organizational Leadership

University of Phoenix December 2008

Ward, G. 2008. *Towards executive change: A psychodynamic group coaching model for short executive programmes.* International Journal of Evidenced Based Coaching and Mentoring, 6(1), 67-78.

Weeks R. 2007 *Revelling in the mess of the flat world services economy: a strategic management and organisational culture perspective* Journal of Contemporary Volume 4 2007 Pages 116 - 137 Management DoE accredited ISSN 1815-7440

Wheeler, L. 2011, How does the adoption of coaching behaviours by line managers contribute to the achievement of organisational goals?, International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, Vol. 9 No. 1, pp. 1-15

Whitmore, J. 2003. *Coaching for Performance, Growing People, Performance and Purpose,* Boston, MA: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Wilson, C., 2007. *Best practice in performance coaching: A handbook for leaders, coaches, HR professionals and organizations*. Kogan Page Publishers.

Wilson, C., 2010. The coaching feedback model. *Performance Coach Training*, pp.1-9.

Wood P. 2012 *Creating a coaching culture* Human Resources December 2011 / January 2012

Wriston M.J. 2007 *Creating a High-Performance Culture* Organization Development Journal Spring , Vol. 25 Issue 1, p8-16.

Wujec B. 2013. *Origins and definitions of coaching*, „Coaching Review"1 (4), p. 4-28.

Yukl, G., Gordon, A., Taber, T. 2002. *A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: Integrating a half century of behavior research. Institute of Personnel* Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies Vol 9(1), Sum 2002. pp. 15-32.

Zernand- Vilson, M. 2014. *Adoption and implementation of new management ideas in Estonian business organisations*, Doctoral Thesis in Management, Estonian Business school, No.19, Tallinn

7. ANNEXES

Annex 1: Paper I

COACHING CULTURE CHARACTERISTICS IN ESTONIAN COMPANIES

Signe Vesso

Abstract

Since the 1990s, the emphasis on coaching has been as a means of facilitating learning and moving executives from excellent performance to peak performance (Ellinger, Bostrom 1999; Evered, Selman 1989). In several organizations, managers have been encouraged to coach their subordinates as part of their job responsibilities (Feldman, Lankau 2005). Evered and Selman (1989) endorsed a paradigm in which 'the process of creating an organizational culture for coaching becomes the core managerial activity', and where coaching is viewed 'not as a subset of the field of management but rather as the heart of management'. Increasingly organizations are beginning to embrace a new management culture based on inclusion, involvement and participation, rather than on the traditional command, control and compliance paradigm (Hamlin et al 2006). Several authors have mentioned the term "coaching culture". The Global Coaching Survey (2009) provides an overview that describes coaching in Europe as generally being characterized by a great diversity of coaching styles, practices and degrees of development; probably due to the existing multiplicity of cultures and countries on the continent.

In this article the author describes the framework for coaching culture and present her own "Coaching Culture Characteristics" model (3C Model) to evaluate the extent of coaching culture in organizations. The model describes four phases for achieving a coaching culture, and has been implemented through a study in 2007 involving 336 respondents, where it was identified that 22.3% of Estonian companies are in phase 1, 30.3% are in phase 2, 28.3% are in phase 3 and 19% are in phase 4.

Keywords
Coaching, coaching culture, Estonia

Introduction

It has been suggested that an effective organizational response to the pressures of an increasingly dynamic and unpredictable environment demands that organizations abandon the classical authority-based hierarchy that has dominated relationships between superiors and subordinates for decades. As individual initiative and entrepreneurship arguably become more important to organizational success than a prescriptive, control-oriented mode of operation (Agarwal et al., 2009). The

concept of coaching has emerged as a new paradigm or metaphor for management (Ellinger et al., 2003). In contrast to a traditional command-and-control form of managerial supervision, coaching is characterized by an emphasis on constructive and developmental feedback for improving employee work performance, and the ability to cope with routine and non-routine problems, e.g. (Ellinger et al., 2003).

Executive coaching, team coaching, group coaching, coaching skills workshops, peer-coaching and other coaching-based approaches are currently being used in comprehensive change initiatives. Moreover, these initiatives are becoming increasingly strategic. Coaching-based initiatives are being leveraged to change company cultures in important and strategic ways (Anderson et al 2009). There are external coaching activities from external coaches and internal coaching activities such as leadership style, leader as a coach, internal coaches, peer-coaching. In this article, coaching is used in the sense that leaders use a leadership style based on the principles of coaching. Coaching leaders rely on their ability to influence, teach and question, whereas traditional leaders exert direction, advice and coercion (Bianco-Mathis et al., 2002). The author offers the coaching culture framework as one way for organizations to respond to the pressures of an increasingly dynamic and unpredictable environment.

According the Coaching Survey (2009), UK and Germany comprise around 70% of all business coaches on the continent. In contrast, only about 5% of all coaches are based in the area of the former communist countries. Coaching in Estonia has not yet left the pre-introduction phase. Therefore, it is important to examine and become aware of the current status of elements of coaching culture in Estonian companies, and if companies want to move over to this new management paradigm they must know how to select the most suitable strategy for implementing this change.

The main research goal is to work out the diagnostic tool to measure coaching culture characteristics in organizations and to find out what level of coaching culture is represented in Estonian companies. There are three research questions to answer: How coaching culture characteristics are manifested in Estonian organizations?

How team-leaders and team-members perceive the coaching culture characteristics in Estonian organizations? How much does the representation of coaching culture characteristics differ in large, medium-sized, small and state organizations? To answer these questions the author will first describe coaching culture and present the theoretical background to coaching and coaching culture. The article will go on to provide an overview of progress in the field of coaching in Eastern and Western European countries. Subsequently, the author will create a theoretical model – the "Coaching Culture Characteristics" (3C) model, which will ultimately facilitate the empirical study.

Theoretical framework

Coaching in Europe

According the Global Coaching Survey (2009), UK and Germany (nearly 20% of the European population) comprise around 70% of all business coaches on the continent. In contrast, only about 5% of all coaches are based in the area of the former communist countries (40% of the population). Coaching has become a $2 billion per-year global market (Fillery-Travis, Lane, 2006) and has only reached the maturity phase in terms of the product life cycle in two of the 162 countries surveyed in the Global Coaching Survey (2009) – in 83 countries it is in the introduction or growth phase.

After the fall of the Berlin wall, coaching slowly started to reach the former communist countries. On the one hand, this later opening was a disadvantage, as these countries had no experience in coaching and needed time to catch up. On the other hand, this was an opportunity, as there was no track record of any mistakes in regard to coaching and so coaches could be selective from current best practice to best meet their needs. While coaching has made continuous progress in Eastern Europe, the figures today clearly suggest that it is still generally less advanced than coaching in Western Europe. In none of the former communist countries (Albania, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Ukraine) is coaching widely accepted today and used as a business tool.

Coaching in Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Ukraine is still in the introduction phase. And it hasn't yet left the pre-introduction phase in Estonia, Latvia and Macedonia.

Definition of Coaching

From a management and leadership perspective, coaching was introduced by Myles Mace in 1958 (Eggers, Clark 2000). He looked at coaching as a leadership tool for developing employee skills in the firm. Coaching is about helping other people to succeed now and in the future. Coaching can thus be defined as the process of challenging and supporting a person or a team to develop ways of thinking, ways of being and ways of learning. The purpose is to achieve personal and/or organizational goals (Berg 2006). Coaching is a tool that can develop self-confidence and contribute to actions that create results. Coaching is about helping other people to succeed (Berg, Karlsen 2007). According to Linley (2006), coaching is fundamentally a human change process.

Coaching is a communication vehicle for managers to create a climate, environment, and context for the empowerment of individuals and teams to generate results

(Evered, Selman 1989). Successful coaching is mutual, predictable and leads to commitment, superior performance and positive relationships (Kinlaw 1999). Coaches help coachees to develop problem-solving approaches and implement strategies to improve performance (Sue-Chan, Latham 2004).

Coaching is being deployed within large organizations for a variety of purposes: from enhancing leadership skills to creating more effective teams, to assisting in setting priorities and goals and helping employees maintain their work-life balance (Mukherjee 2012). Hunt and Weintraub point out the term 'coaching manager' which they identify with 'business leaders and managers who help their employees learn and develop through coaching, who create workplaces that make learning, growth and adaptation possible, and who also combine leadership with a genuine interest in helping those with whom they work'. Coaching has predominantly been used as a tool for promoting individual growth and supporting leaders in their development processes (Hunt, Weintraub 2002).

Many coaching definitions share common themes that relate to the coach assisting the coached towards goal attainment, performance improvement or personal enhancement in a one-on-one relationship (Watkins 2008). Coaching activities include helping employees set specific goals, providing constructive feedback on specific tasks, offering resources and suggestions about adopting new techniques, and helping employees understand the broader goals of the organization (Ellinger et al 2003). Coaching may affect individual performance through three mechanisms: the acquisition of job-related knowledge and skills, the enhancement of motivation and effort, and the process of social learning (Heslin et al 2006). Coaching may also enhance an individual's motivation to improve or take personal initiative. It may allay goal ambiguity and stimulate a process of "spontaneous goal-setting" by clarifying performance expectations (Locke, Latham, 1990). Coaching is a collaborative relationship between a coach and a coachee to support the client in identifying, clarifying, and exploring ways to solve issues (Bonfield, 2003).

Emphasizing action, accountability and personal responsibility, coaching support provides leaders and potential leaders with a safe environment for learning how to creatively manage change and conflict, improve communication, strengthen self-confidence, retool skills, and foster multicultural relationships in a positive and constructive way (Bennet, Bush, 2009). Coaching is an intensive and systematic facilitation of individuals or groups by using a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help them attain self-congruent goals or conscious self-change and self-development in order to improve their professional performance, personal well-being and, consequently, to improve the effectiveness of their organization (Segers 2011).

Coaching Culture

Bartlett and Ghoshal described an envisioned evolution in organizational design through a reconfiguration of the managerial role, a shift in the relationship between employee and supervisor, and an extensive use of coaching to provide performance feedback to subordinates. They argue that in a turbulent economic environment, middle managers have to change their goals and related behaviours to be more focused on coaching support rather than administrative control. They also suggest that this role shift must pervade all levels of management. Specifically, executive managers have to create a challenging environment, which facilitates the development of individual entrepreneurial initiatives (Bartlett, Ghoshal 1997). Increasingly, organizations are beginning to embrace a new management culture based on inclusion, involvement and participation, rather than on the traditional command, control and compliance paradigm (Hamlin et al 2006). The new management paradigm calls for facilitative behaviours that focus on employee empowerment, learning and development; in other words, coaching (Agarwal et al 2009).

The author studied several descriptions of coaching cultures in order to develop a framework for further study (Appendix 1).

Crane (2005) argued the seven characteristics of a coaching culture: 1) leaders are positive role models, 2) every member is focused on customer feedback, 3) coaching flows in all directions – up, down, and laterally, 4) teams become passionate and energized, 5) learning occurs, more effective decisions are made, and change moves faster, 6) HR systems are aligned and fully integrated, and 7) the organization has a common coaching practice and language. Leaders transform their leadership style from being "the boss of people to a coach for people". Leaders who master coaching learn to create powerful, emotionally-intelligent conversations where the coach guides productive change, passion and inspired action. In a coaching culture, there is a huge emphasis on expanding customer feedback channels and making them truly effective. It becomes the responsibility of every member in a coaching culture to proactively seek, strive to understand, and non-defensively respond to the feedback and the customer who is delivering it. In a coaching culture, coaching flows in all directions from all parties, making a networked web across the organization consisting of many connections between people in the same departments, across departments, between teams, and up and down and across the hierarchy. In addition to up-down coaching, peer coaching is the second place for creating explicit coaching relationships. Coaching relationships across the organization are established to support on-going dialogue, learning, problem solving, and enhanced working conditions. Peer coaching is an invaluable element that supports learning, growth, and productivity improvements. Upward coaching is the third element and often the most challenging to establish. Becoming coaches for one another forms a shift by creating safety, trust, respect and rapport in the relationship. The process of coaching creates egalitarian, high-trust relationships

that move people toward a collaborative relationship. This enhanced feeling of connection occurs because teams make a point of opening up dialogue to explore how they are working together. Teams focus on creating connection and high trust. Trust directly supports people being able to work together more effectively and more efficiently, which leads to higher performance. The relationships that teams create in a coaching culture can be characterized by a high degree of commitment to the success of teammates. Internal competition for the spotlight, job promotions and accolades from the top management do not become destructive. Coaching speeds up the personal and team learning curve by capturing lessons learned more quickly. Teams make frequent use of after-action-reviews to document any and all lessons learned. People become anxious to tap and share wisdom across the team. People learn to fail fast without fear of repercussions. In a coaching culture, it is common practice to take everybody affected by the change and involve them in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the planning and implementation. Coaching is the act of engaging people in safe dialogue, where they are expected to respectfully share their candid concerns, ideas, and points-of-view so that they experience feeling part of the process and being valued as a partner. Coaching must be fully integrated into all the systems that impact people. Coaching cultures actively embrace and use their espoused core values as a compass to guide people and business decisions. Coaching cultures use 360° processes to gather feedback on a regular basis. All members of the culture have personal development plans that are taken seriously, reviewed annually, and serve to significantly impact the effectiveness of individuals and teams. Job descriptions include a clear description of the relevant coaching skills required to be successful in the job. Coaching cultures adopt a singular approach and methodology so the culture has an easily recognized, commonly understood approach (Crane 2005). A coaching culture is a paradigm for organizational cultures in which coaching takes place on a formal and informal basis and has been ingrained into the fabric of organizational life (Hart 2005).

A culture of coaching is one in which the regular review of performance and just-in-time feedback is expected. The culture of coaching also sets the expectation for feedback – positive or for improvement – that is specific, behavioural and results-based. This type of culture is self-reinforcing as it leads to improved performance, which encourages employees to seek more feedback and managers to see the value in coaching as the key requirement of their job. A culture of coaching requires commitment, consistency and dedication from leadership (Lindbom 2007).

A coaching culture contributes to a sense of mutual ownership, better networking, more effective leadership practices and higher commitment, creating better results across the organization. Not surprisingly, companies with a successful coaching culture report significantly reduced staff turnover, increased productivity and greater job satisfaction (Kets de Vries 2008). According to Kets de Vries (2008) an organization with a true coaching culture is one in which not only formal, more prescribed leadership coaching occurs, but also where most people use coaching

behaviour as a means of managing, influencing and communicating with each other. A coaching culture promotes more open communication, is transparent, and builds trust and mutual respect. Creating a coaching culture helps leaders to think and plan more strategically, to manage risks more effectively, to create and communicate vision and mission more clearly. The subtlest aspect of a coaching culture is the new way individuals perceive themselves and their world. A coaching culture provides them with a sense of connection. It makes them feel part of a whole. It makes them take responsibility. It prevents incidents of "us" and "them." When they have a sense of ownership in the organization, people move beyond the blame game and have the courage to speak their mind, knowing that they have the right to (Kets de Vries 2008).

As coaching practices succeed, the subordinates also begin to coach their associates. In this way, a culture eventually develops. When coaching becomes a widespread practice within an organization, a culture of coaching will develop. Coaching cultures have developed as a means of engaging entire organizations in the transformative coaching process (Crane 2007). Coaching culture is something that happens (or is created) at an organizational level. In recent years, however, practical experience and interviews with hundreds of HR practitioners have convinced me that the fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team. The focus of coaching needs to be on issues the team feels are truly relevant and current. Coaching at the team level can be either individual (focused on a specific learning need or issue) or collective (based on an issue important to the team as a whole). It seems that the mixture of these provides the most fertile ground for the growth of a coaching culture within the team (Clutterbuck 2013).

It is argued that to promote a coaching culture within organizations, the managers need to use more of an inquiring and questioning approach to help their subordinates to learn to think for themselves rather than a telling and directing approach (Mukherjee 2012). Building the coaching culture within the organization requires the involvement of a high percentage of employees. An organization has to weigh the benefits and costs of hiring external coaches as distinct from developing their own cadre of internal coaches or using some combination of internal and external resources (Figlar et al 2007). The pursuit of a coaching culture can have benefits; with widespread quality, coaching an organization can learn new things more quickly and adapt to change more effectively, which is particularly desirable in the current economic climate (Leonard-Cross 2010).

According to Hawkings (2012), a coaching culture exists in an organization when a coaching approach is a key aspect of how the leaders, managers, and staff engage and develop all their people and engage their stakeholders in ways that create increased individual, team, and organizational performance and shared value for all stakeholders. Hawkings draws out five different levels of an organizational coaching culture – artefacts, behaviours, mind-sets, emotional ground and motivational roots.

Artefacts: The organization espouses the importance of coaching in its key strategy and mission statements and coaching appears as a key competency and capability for all leaders and managers.

Emotional ground: The mood of the organization is one of energy, with high levels of personal engagement and responsibility, where every challenge is an opportunity for new learning, and problems are addressed through engaged relationships. There are big challenges but also plenty of support for all employees with a real focus on helping individuals and teams to realize their individual and collective potential.

Motivational roots: At the wellspring of such a culture are people who are both committed to their own lifelong learning and development, and who believe in other people and their potential to learn continuously. There is also a belief that collective performance can improve through learning and development. These motivational roots are also fuelled by a belief in the power of dialogue and collective exploration. There is a belief that together we can create ways forward better than any of us can do by ourselves (Hawkings 2012).

Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) offer a useful definition of coaching culture:

"Coaching is the predominant style of managing and working together, and where a commitment to grow the organization is embedded in a parallel commitment to grow the people in the organization". A coaching culture is present when...all members of the culture fearlessly engage in candid, respectful coaching conversations, unrestricted by reporting relationships, about how they can improve their working relationships and individual and collective work performance. All have learned to value and effectively use feedback as a powerful learning tool to produce personal and professional development, high-trust working relationships, continually-improving job performance, and ever-increasing customer satisfaction (Crane 2005).

Creating a coaching culture involves tran-sitioning managers away from providing directional solutions and towards empowering others to find their own solutions. This moves the manager subordinate relationship away from one of paternalism, towards one of mutual respect and collaboration (Wood 2012). Interesting to note is that the prevalence of who is acting as coach and the extent to which the different coaches (i.e., external, internal, line manager, and self) work together in organizations might depend on the maturity of the coaching culture of the organizations (Segers et al 2011).

When executives are able to work together to improve their performance by finding more creative ways to deal with their professional environment, a positive kind of contagion infects the organization – and this contagion can spread hope and enthusiasm as the coaching culture replaces a former toxic or moribund environment. Leadership coaching should also be viewed as an iterative process by which people can test and evaluate a new behaviour in their daily life, and

make adjustments until they feel that they have got it right. When done properly, leadership coaching is very dynamic, and contributes to creativity and innovation in organizations (Kets de Vries 2008).

It would seem that in some organizations, the emergence of coaching as a specialisation is leading to less emphasis being placed on the benefits of creating and maintaining a coaching culture and stance. Not only is the latter more cost effective than hiring external coaches, but recent research from the Institute of Leadership and Management has shown the direct benefits of coaching to organizations. Maximizing these benefits means creating a coaching culture that permeates throughout the organization and develops internal coaching capability at all levels (Chidiac 2013).

Author's Theoretical Model for Empirical Study

Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) have devised a diagnostic tool – the "Coaching culture questionnaire". This tool completes a set by measuring the overall progress towards developing a coaching culture in the organization. There are indicators in four levels, representing progressive stages on the journey. These four stages have been named nascent, tactical, strategic and embedded. The diagnostic tool cannot be used in organizations in the pre-introduction phase, as one of the preconditions is that coaching is already applied to a certain extent and the term coaching is known. Another diagnostic tool is the Coaching Inventory (Self) TM developed by Scott Martin (2000) (Reierson 2011), which helps to understand existing coaching skills and abilities. It studies the coaching skills of a leader but does not look at the coaching culture as a whole in an organization.

There was therefore the need for a tool to identify the coaching culture in organizations where coaching terms are unknown. Although, according to Global Coaching Survey (2009), Estonia is in the pre-introduction phase in the progress of coaching, coaching elements can still be used as a management tool. While life and organizational coaching are often facilitated by "professional" coaches within formalized settings, coaching as a management tool is often not even referred to as being coaching (Clegg et al 2005).

As the above mentioned diagnostic tools enable us to look into organizations that are at least at the introduction phase of coaching, the author has devised a model for investigating the rate of the occurrence of coaching elements in the management of an organization that has not deliberately introduced the coaching culture. The more features of a coaching culture are found in an organization, the better are the conditions for introducing and implementing a coaching culture in the whole organization in the future. Based on the features of the coaching culture identified, it is possible to choose a strategy for creating a coaching culture. Lindbom suggests that to begin developing a coaching culture we must understand the current challenges facing organizations and managers (Lindbom 2007).

The aim of the author's model is to study the existence of the strength of the coaching culture in organizations. The model enables organizations that have already introduced coaching culture to diagnose the extent to which the coaching elements and characteristics have been applied. It also enables managers to identify the coaching culture in organizations that are in the pre-introduction phase according to the Global Coaching Survey (2009). The model is based on the sources detailed in Table 1.

Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a model of organizational culture and effectiveness based on four traits of organizational cultures: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Two of the traits, involvement and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness and responsiveness, and were strong predictors of growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, are indicators of integration, direction and vision, and were better predictors of profitability. They suggest that specific cultural traits may be useful predictors of performance and effectiveness.

Leaders act as coaches by distributing decision-making authority and responsibility among their associates (Kouzes, Posner 2002). Leaders who coach, foster confidence within their teams through the faith the leaders demonstrate in letting go and letting other people lead (Kouzes, Posner 2002). Wriston (2007) stated that there are four critical components necessary to create and sustain high-performance culture: 1) A collaborative environment; 2) A culture of accountability; 3) Focus; and 4) Robust processes.

In a coaching culture, it is common practice to involve everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the planning and implementation. Coaching is the act of engaging people in safe dialogue where they are expected to respectfully share their candid concerns, ideas, and points-of-view so that they experience feeling part of the process and being valued as a partner (Crane 2005).

The collective insights and interpretations that emerge from the sense-making discussions are without doubt a valuable strategic resource that more often than not is lost in traditional strategic management practices (Weeks 2007). The question posed then relates to how emergent patterns that shape the future may be identified in practice to facilitate the emergent strategy (Weeks 2007). One answer may be in capturing the narratives that stem from open-ended discussions between participants involved in conversations relating to issues they deem to be important, and clustering these narratives could result in the emergence of themes or patterns that serve as strategic determinants in the emergent strategic process (Weeks 2007). Described is a very participative process that involves employees in the front lines of interaction with suppliers, interest groups, clients and competitors. This assumes a participative culture, one where employees are able to interact and are empowered to become involved in the conversations relating to the strategy that

emerges. Leadership studies show that the most successful organizations are not those led by one, powerful, charismatic leader, but are the product of distributive, collective, and complementary leadership (Kets de Vries 2006).

Table 1. Sources for the model "Coaching Culture Characteristics"

Author	Approach	Elements and characteristics
Denison 1995	Culture traits that predict performance and effectiveness	Involvement Consistency Adaptability Mission
Kouzes, Posner 2002	Leader as a coach	Distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility is among their associates Letting other people lead
Wriston 2007	Critical components to create and sustain high-performance culture	A collaborative environment A culture of accountability Focus Robust processes
Crane 2005	Coaching culture	Involving everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change Involving everybody in planning and implementation Safe dialogue
Clutterbuck, Megginson 2005	Coaching	Reflective space
Weeks 2007	Organisational culture from a complexity theory perspective	Open-ended discussions between participants involved in conversations relating to issues they deem to be important Employees are able to interact and are empowered to become involved in conversations relating to the strategy that emerges
Kets de Vries 2006	Leadership	Distributive, collective, and complementary leadership
Lindbom 2007	Leadership Coaching culture	Goal-setting Assessing progress Acknowledgement Reflection
Corporate Leadership Council 2002	High-performance culture	Risk-taking Frequent and effective communication across the organization Emphasizing the positive
Stubbs 2005	Team performance	Emotionally competent group norms
Bandura 1977	Social cognitive theory	Learning from actual performance Learning from observing

Setting goals, assessing progress, facilitating improved performance now becomes the major tasks managers face. It is critical for the manager to acknowledge the employee that performance and results have been improved (Lindbom 2007). Developmental coaching is not an episodic interaction, but rather a mechanism to help employees reflect on their actions on a regular basis (Lindbom 2007). In 2002, the Corporate Leadership Council found in a study of 34 organizations that the use of performance management and specific coaching principles described the critical differences between high-performing organizations and lower-performing organizations.

These findings suggest that organizations would do well to refocus their investments from the "process" of performance management toward activities that promote understanding, connection, fairness and credibility. The council observed that some organizational cultures actively support high performance more successfully than others. The single cultural trait with the largest impact on employee performance is a culture of risk taking. Risk taking – a culture in which employees are provided with incentives and encouragement to work on new ideas despite the uncertain outcomes or initial failures – can improve employee performance by a striking 39 percept. In addition, a culture of internal communication is important – it is characterized by frequent and effective communication between peers and the steady flow of information, not only up and down but across the organization. Such a culture often has opportunities for junior staff to speak and interact with senior executives. Emphasizing the positive in performance reviews can have a substantial impact on employee performance.

Results show that team leader's emotional intelligence is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms on the teams they lead, and that emotionally competent group norms are related to team performance (Stubbs 2005).

According to social cognitive theory (Bandura 1977), in addition to learning from the actual performance of a behaviour and personally experiencing the associated consequences, individuals' vicarious learning from observing others' behaviours constitutes a key mechanism driving behavioural change.

The structure and pace of work allows less and less time to think about what we are doing and why. The antidote to this destructive cycle is the creation of reflective space. Coaching is an opportunity to call a halt to the frenetic pace of doing and to refocus on being. It enables people to challenge their routines, to take a critical look at what they are doing and why, to identify and commit to new performance goals and to work out how to overcome the barriers that prevent them being more effective in their work roles. It allows behaviours to be discussed, priorities to be established and mere busy-work to be laid down. Most of all, however, it brings performance to the fore (Clutterbuck, Megginson 2005).

The Description of the Model "Coaching Culture Characteristics"

Based on existing literature the author worked out the "Coaching Culture Characteristics" model (Table 2)

Firstly, the model describes the extent to which the environment of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms exists to support the coaching based activities. Whitmore argues that coaching effectiveness could be limited by organizational and behavioural barriers. For example, coaching effectiveness could be constrained by the lack of an organizational environment that supports coaching oriented behaviours (Whitmore 2003). Secondly, the model focuses on how much goal setting, regular follow ups, solution focus, positive mind-setting and achievement appreciation are put into practice by leaders. Coaching oriented behaviours can be effectively observed in those organizational contexts that proactively construct the foundation for effectively changing toward a developmental managerial style (Agarwal et al 2009).

The model is divided into 4 phases according to the maturity of the coaching culture in the organisation. Each phase is described through 3 dimensions:

1. Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation
   A coaching culture is characterised by the involvement of employees, which means that everybody has his/her individually set goals and action plans based on a common challenging vision. Follow ups are regularly conducted, and successes are recognized and celebrated. Changes are made to goals and action plans according to need.
2. Relationship orientation and teamwork norms.
   A coaching culture is characterized by collaboration in teamwork. Mutual agreements exist and are regularly overviewed. Feedback is given and received. Dialogue takes place. The focus is on success.
3. Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility.
4. A coaching culture is characterised by a high level of initiative and responsibility. Trust is essential between leaders and team members.

Table 2: The description of the model "Coaching Culture Characteristics" (3C)

Coaching culture characteristics	Phase 1: None	Phase 2: To some extent	Phase 3: Strong	Phase 4: Very strong
The strength of the involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration in the team created by the leader	--> --> --> --> --> --> --> -->	--> involvement --> --> consistency --> --> responsibility --> --> collaboration -->		
Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation	-Leader does not have a vision -Leader has a vision -Leader has "sold" the vision to the team"	-The team has discussed and written down the common vision - The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals.	- The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal.	- The team has discussed and written down the common vision and has set goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal. Action plans are made. Follow ups are carried out.
Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving	-No problems are talked about. Problems persist. -The problems are talked about but no action follows. -Leader has his/her own solutions and asks team members to implement. - Leader has his/her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting, but finally makes his/her own decisions.	- Leader has his/ her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting and takes them into account.	- Leader asks team members to find solutions and after that decides which of them to carry out. - Leader and team start to find solutions together and decide about the best solution together	- Team finds solutions to the problems themselves and reports to the leader. - Team finds solutions to the problems themselves, implements and reports afterwards.

Relationship orientation and teamwork norms	-No agreements made. Everyone acts on his own. -Leader has spoken about norms.	-Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are In the beginning they are trying to be fulfilled but later the process is stopped.	- Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are made. Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focus on drawbacks. made.made.	- Team has discussed the norms. Agreements are Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focuses on success, appreciation by giving concrete examples.

Empirical study

Hypothesis for Empirical Study

The author developed hypotheses based on the proposed theoretical model "Coaching Culture Characteristics" (3C).

H1: Team leaders perceive the elements of the 3C model higher than the team members.

H2: The characteristics of the coaching culture of large and medium-sized companies according to the 3C model are higher than in small companies and state companies.

H3: The lowest evaluated category is in "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" and the highest results are in "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" according to the 3C model.

H4: Most Estonian companies are in phase two according to the 3C model.

Sample and Method

In order to study aspects of coaching culture in Estonian companies, the author conducted an empirical study at the end of the 2007. The total number of respondents was 399 – 59 of the participants were representatives of large enterprises; 176 were from small businesses, 59 were from state-owned companies and 61were representatives of medium-sized enterprises. From the participants 196 were leaders and 154 were team members working in Estonian organizations.

The author developed a three-part questionnaire based on the existing literature and the authors theoretical model "Coaching Culture Characteristics" (3C model). The *first* scale "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" was composed

of 7 questions; the *second* scale "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" was composed of 6 questions; the *third* scale "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving" was composed of 9 questions.

In order to test the hypotheses, groups of respondents were compared using the ANOVA and T-test.

Table 3. Comparison of coaching culture characteristics perceived by team-leaders and team members

	Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation		Relationship orientation and teamwork norms		Trust and distribution of decision-making authority andresponsibility according to problem solving	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Team leaders N=196	2.35	1.094	2.84	.872	2.64	.832
Team members N=154	2.05	1.119	2.31	1.044	2.31	1.047
Total N=350	2.2	1.1065	2.575	.958	2.475	0.9395
T -test , p	.000		.000		.000	

Results

H 1: Team leaders perceive the elements of the 3C model higher than the team members.

This hypothesis found support (Table 3).

According to the T-test, all indicators for team leaders were statistically significantly higher than for the team members; in all scales the team leaders perceive the elements of the 3C model higher than the team members. The greatest difference in the ratings is for "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" (team leaders 2.84 and team members 2.31).

H 2: The characteristics of the coaching culture of large and medium-sized companies according to the 3C model are higher than in small companies and state companies.

This hypothesis found partial support (Table 4). For large companies, this hypothesis found support. In all three aspects of coaching culture the results for

large companies were the highest. For medium-sized companies, this hypothesis found partial support. In the case of "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" the state companies results (2.44) were higher than the results for medium-sized companies (2.23). In the same category, the lowest results were for small companies (1.91).

In the category "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" the medium-sized companies results were higher (2.73) than the state companies (2.43) and small companies (2.53).

In the category "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving" the medium-sized companies and state companies had the same results (2.41) and the small companies had lower results (2.39).

Table 4. Comparison of coaching culture characteristics in companies according to model 3C.

	Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation		Relationship orientation and teamwork norms		Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
State Companies N=59	2.44	1.178	2.43	1.002	2.41	1.06	2.426	.964
Large Companies N=103	2.68	1.122	2.75	.887	2.72	.883	2.716	1.08
Medium-sized Companies N=61	2.23	1.079	2.73	1.008	2.41	.938	2.456	1.008
Small Companies N=176	1.91	1.016	2.53	1.019	2.39	.945	2.276	.993
Total N=399	2.315	1.099	2.61	.979	2.482	.956	2.469	1.011
Enova -test , p	.000			.000	.000			

In conclusion, it can be said that in large companies (2.716) and medium-sized companies (2.456), the results were higher than state companies (2.426) and small companies (2.276).

According to the results, the highest standard deviation (1.08) existed in state companies; for example, in the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" it was 1.178. The lowest standard deviation was in large companies (.964). The highest standard deviation was in the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" (1.099) and the lowest in the category "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving" (.956).

H 3: The lowest results are in "Coaching ori-ented behaviours and goal orientation" and the highest results are in "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" according to the 3C model.

This hypothesis found partial support (Table 4). This hypothesis found support for large companies, medium-sized companies and small companies. This hypothesis found partial support for state companies. The highest results were in the category "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms". The lowest results were in the category "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving" (2.41).

H 4: Most Estonian companies are in phase two according to the 3C model.

This hypothesis found support according to the cross-sectional sample – 30.33% found that "Coaching culture characteristics" are in phase 2 (Table 5). This hypothesis found partial support (Table 6) in separate categories.

The hypothesis found support in the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" (149) in which 37% answered according to the descriptors of phase two.

The hypothesis found no support in the categories "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" and "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving".

In the category "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" the highest results were in phase 3 (141) all together 37% of respondents, and in the category "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving" the highest results were also in phase 3 (153) all together 39% of respondents.

Discussion

The study explored the extent to which coaching culture exists in Estonian companies. The study found that large companies gained the highest results on categories of coaching culture. The Global Coaching Survey (2009) found that Western multinational companies are often an important, if not the only, driver for

the emergence and development of coaching in a number of former communist countries. Domestic managers may have mixed experiences of this Western influence.

Table 5. Percentage of firms in each phase of coaching culture (based on the 3C model)

	Phase1	Phase2	Phase3	Phase4
Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation	31	37	9	23
Relationship orientation and teamwork norms	19	28	39	14
Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving	17	26	37	20
Total: Coaching culture characteristics	22.33	30.33	28.33	19

Table 6. Number of firms in each phase of coaching culture (based on model 3C) according to size and ownership of companies

	State company	Large company	Medium-sized company	Small company	Total
Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation					
Phase 1	15	16	17	75	123
Phase 2	21	38	24	66	149
Phase 35		12	7	11	35
Phase 4	18	37	12	24	91
Total	59	103	60	176	398
Relationship orientation and teamwork norms					
Phase 1	11	10	6	36	63
Phase 2	18	25	19	39	101
Phase 3	16	46	14	65	141
Phase 4	9	20	16	31	76
Total	54	101	55	171	381
Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving					
Phase 1	14	9	11	40	74
Phase 2	17	31	22	41	111
Phase 3	16	42	20	75	153
Phase 4	11	20	8	16	55
Total	58	102	61	172	393

This trend can also be seen in Estonia. The results for small companies were the lowest. The results were particularly low for the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation" (1.91). Small companies are less influenced by multinational companies. Leaders often act in the role of a specialist dealing with everyday duties and emergencies, not dealing with setting goals and objectives for employees.

The category "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms" was most evident in large companies, medium-sized companies and small companies. This result is logical because teamwork was one of the first aspects that was paid attention in companies after Estonia regained its independence. Relationship orientation is also assumed to be necessary for creating trust, and therefore, for good coaching relationships.

The results for state companies differed from the results of other companies. One possible explanation is connected with the ownership of state companies. The highest result among state companies was for the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation". It is remarkable that the highest standard deviation (1.178) was also evident for this category. For large companies, medium-sized companies and small companies, the lowest result was for the category "Coaching oriented behaviours and goal orientation", but for state companies the lowest was for "Trust and distribution of decision-making authority and responsibility according to problem solving".

The hypotheses that stated that leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than team members found support. This result agrees with Alas who also found that leaders assess the situation in an organization to be better than their subordinates (Alas 2004). In all scales leaders assessed the situation higher than team members. The greatest difference was in Relationship orientation and teamwork norms; therefore, the greatest difference was seen between leaders and employees in relation to "Relationship orientation and teamwork norms". This may result from the fact that the greatest lack of information for a team is about the real situation. For leaders, it is easy to overestimate the level of cooperation in the team.

In conclusion, it can be said that the coaching culture characteristics were missing or existed to some extent in 53% of companies, and were strong or very strong in 47% of companies. According to author's 3C model 22.3% of companies are in phase 1, 30.3% are in phase 2, 28.3% are in phase 3 and 19% are in phase 4. From the organizational point of view, it is important to understand the current situation in the organizational, as this helps managers choose the right strategy for moving towards a coaching culture.

The main strategy for starting to develop coaching culture described in the literature is through executive coaching or coaching skill training. When in phase 4, this can

be a good solution. But for phase 1 and 2 this may lead to failures because there is a lack of practice with involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms inside the company. Therefore, the strategy of start-ing with group or team coaching is much more efficient for developing a coaching culture. First, group or team coaching helps to develop the practice of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms inside the team.

Secondly, a parallel learning process is taking place in the organization. The participants learn coaching attitudes and skills through their own experiences. When a company's coaching culture characteristics are in phase 1, it is useful to add training designed to help introduce a reflective process. This is because there might be a low level of reflection competence in the team due to the lack of this habit.

The transformation from phase 3 to phase 4 is most fluent through team coaching. A strategy of using executive group coaching can also be suitable. The process of implementing a coaching culture has been detailed by practitioners. There are no scientific articles on the subject. One who has written about coaching culture is Clutterbuck. Clutterbuck currently admits that parts of his earlier recommendations have not given the desired results. He has stated that in recent years, however, practical experience and interviews with hundreds of HR practitioners have convinced him that the fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team (Clutterbuck 2013).

The author finds that it is important to conduct further research into coaching culture, especially the implementation process. More studies are needed about the impact of group and team coaching on creating a coaching culture. It is also worthwhile researching the impact of leaders on culture. The leaders are key players in the cultural change process. There are no surveys about the connection between leader trustworthiness, team relationship orientation and goal orientation, but these elements are critical for creating a coaching culture.

References

Agarwal, R., Angst C.M., Magni M. 2009. The performance effects of coaching: a multilevel analysis using hierarchical linear modeling. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 20(10), 2110–2134.

Alas, R. 2004. Organisational changes during the transition in Estonia: Major influencing behavioral factors. The Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, the University of Tartu, Estonia.

Anderson, M. C. Frankovelgia, C., Hernez-Broome G. 2009. Business Leaders Reflect on Coaching Cultures LIA, 8(6), January/Febru-ary.

Bandura, A. 1977. Social Learning Theory, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bartlett, C.A., Ghoshal, S. 2002. Building competitive advantage through people. MIT Sloan Management Review, 43, 34-41.

Bartlett, C.A., Ghoshal, S. 1997. The Myth of the Generic Managers: New Personal Competencies for New Management Roles. California Management Review, 40(1), 92–116.

Bennett, J., Bush, M. 2009. Coaching in organizations. OD Practitioner, 41(1), 2-7.

Berg, M.E. 2006. Coaching, Universitetsfor-laget.

Berg, M.E., Karlsen, J.T. 2007. Mental Models in Project Management Coaching. Engineer-ing Management Journal, 19 (3), 3-13.

Bianco-Mathis, V.E., Nabors, L.K. and Roman C.H. 2002 Leading from the inside out: A coaching model. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Bonfield, H. 2003. Executive Coaching is not just for a big companies. The British Journal of Administrative Management 36, 18-19.

Chidiac M.A. 2013. Creating a coaching culture: relational field coaching. 27(3), 11-13, Q Emerald Group Publishing Limited, ISSN 1477-7282.

Clegg, S.R., Rhodes, C., Kornberger, M., and Stilin, R. 2005. Business coaching: challenges for an emerging industry. Industrial and commercial training, 37(5), 218.

Clutterbuck, D. 2013. Teaming up for a coaching culture www.trainingjournal.com February 2013

Clutterbuck D. and Megginson D. 2005 Making Coaching Work 2005 CIPD.

Crane T. 2005. Creating a coaching culture - today's most potent organizational change

process for creating a "high-performance" culture". Business Coaching Worldwide, 1(1).

Crane, T.G. 2007. The heart of coaching: using transformational coaching to create a high-performance culture (Third ed.). San Diego: FTA Press.

Denison D.R., Mishra A.K. 1995. Toward a Theory of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness. Organization Science, 6(2), March-April 1995.

Eggers, H. and Clark, D. 2000. Executive Coaching That Wins. Ivey Business Journal, 65(1), 66-70.

Ellinger A.D., Bostrom R.P. 1999. Managerial coaching behaviors in learning organizations. Journal of Management Development, 18(9), 752 - 771.

Ellinger, A.D., Ellinger, A.E., Keller, S.B. 2003. Supervisory Coaching Behavior, Employee Satisfaction, and Warehouse Employee Performance: A Dyadic Perspective in the Distribution Industry. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 14(4), 435–458.

Evered, E.D., Selman J.G. 1989. Coaching and the Art of Management. *Organizational Dynamics,18(2),* 16-23.

Feldman, D.G., Lankau M.J. 2005. Executive Coaching: A Review and Agenda for Future Research. *Journal of Management,* 37(6), 829848.

Figlar, M., Adams, M., Hornyak, L. 2007. Strengthening the leadership pipeline through internal human-resources-based executive coaching*:* A white paper, 12th Annual Global Forum for Action Learning,

Fillery-Travis, A., Lane, D. 2006. Does coaching work or are we asking the wrong question? *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 1(1), 24-36.

Global Coaching Survey. 2009. *Frank Bresser consulting report: Global coaching survey 2008/2009. The state of coaching across the globe: Results of the global coaching survey 2008/2009. Retrieved February 17, 2010*

http://www.frank-bresser-consulting.com/ globalcoachingsurvey.html

Hamlin, R.G., Ellinger, A.D., Beattie, R.S. 2006. Coaching at the heart of managerial effectiveness: A cross-cultural study of managerial behaviours*. Human Resource Develop-ment International*, 9(3), 305-331.

Hart, W 2005. Getting culture: Imbuing your organization with coaching behaviour. *Leadership in Action*, 25 (4), 7-10.

Hawkings P. 2012 Creating a Coaching Culture: Developing a Coaching Strategy for Your Organization, Berkshire, England.

Hunt, J.M. Weintraub, J.R 2007 *The coaching organization: a strategy for developing leaders.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kinlaw, D.C. 1999 *Coaching for commitment: interpersonal strategies for obtaining supe-rior performance from individuals and teams* (2nd ed) San Francisco, Calif: Jossey-Bass/ Pfeiffer.

Kets de Vries, M.F.R. 2005. Leadership group coaching in action: The Zen of creating high performance teams. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 61-76.

Kets de Vries M. 2008. Leadership Coaching and Organizational Transformation: Effectiveness in a World of Paradoxes *INSEAD Working Paper Series* 2008/71/ EFE.

Kouzes, J.M., Posner, B.Z. 2002 *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco Jossey-Bass.

Leonard-Cross E. 2010. Developmental coaching: Business benefit – fact or fad? An evaluative study to explore the impact of coaching in the workplace. I*nternational Coaching Psychology Review*, 5(1) March.

Linley, P.A. 2006. Coaching Research: who? what? where? when? why? *International Jour-nal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentor-ing,* 4(2), Autumn.

Lindbom D. 2007. A Culture of Coaching: The Challenge of Managing Performance for Long-Term Results. *Organizational Develop-ment Journal*, 25(1), Spring, 101.

Locke, E.A., Latham, G.P. 1990. *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Mukherjee S. 2012. Does Coaching Transform Coaches? A Case Study of Internal Coaching*. International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 1*0(2), August.

Reierson M. 2011 *A n Exploration o f the Utilization o f Coaching at Company XYZ: A Pilot Study* A Research Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master of Science Degree In Training and Development University of Wisconsin-Stout

Segers J., Vloeberghs D., Henderickz E. 2011. Structuring and Understanding the Coaching Industry: The Coaching Cube. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 10(2), 204–221.

Sue- Chan C., Latham G.P. 2004. The relative effectiveness of external, peer and self-coaches. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53(2), 260-278.

Stubbs, E.C. 2005 *"Emotional intelligence competencies in the team and team leader: A multi-level examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on group performance"*, Unpublished Dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

Watkins D, 2008 *The common factors between coaching cultures and transformationa leadership, transactional leadership, and high-performance organizational cultures* A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctorate of Management in Organizational Leadership University of Phoenix December 2008.

Weeks R. 2007. Revelling in the mess of the flat world services economy: a strategic management and organisational culture perspective. *Journal of Contemporary Management,* 4, 116 – 137.

Whitmore, J. 2003. *Coaching for Performance, Growing People, Performance and Purpose,* Boston, MA: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Wood P. 2012. Creating a coaching culture. *Human Resources* December 2011 / January 2012.

Wriston M.J. 2007. Creating a High-Perfor-mance Culture. *Organization Development Journal,* 25(1), 8-16.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Coaching culture through a normative, behavioural and developmental approach

Authors	Normative approach	Behavioral approach	Development approach
De Vries 2008	Mutual ownership, networking, effective leadership practices, high commitment, reduced staff turnover, increased productivity, great job satisfaction. Open communication. Transparency. A sense of connection Trust and mutual respect.	Most people use coaching behavior as a means of managing, influencing and communicating with each other. People have the courage to speak their mind.	When executives are able to work together to improve their performance, by finding more creative ways to deal with their professional environment, a positive kind of contagion infects the organization—and this contagion can spread hope and enthusiasm as the coaching culture replaces a former toxic or moribund environment.
Hart 2005		Coaching takes place on a formal and informal basis	Coaching has been ingrained into the fabric of organizational life
Lindbom 2007		The regular review of performance and just-in-feedback (positive or for improvement - that is specicific, behavioral and results-based.) is expected.	This type of culture is self-reinforcing as it leads to improved performance, which encourages employees to seek more feedback and managers to see the value in coaching as the key requirement of their job. A culture of coaching requires commitment, consistency and dedication from leadership
Crane 2007		Coaching is the predominant leadership style.	As coaching practices succeed, the subordinates also begin to coach their associates. When coaching becomes a widespread practice within an organization, a culture of coaching will develop Coaching cultures have developed as a means of engaging entire organizations in the transformative coaching process

Authors	Normative approach	Behavioral approach	Development approach
Clutterbuck 2013			Coaching culture is sometbing that happens (or is created) at an organisational level. The fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team.
Mukherjee 2012		The managers use more of an inquiry and questioning approach to help their subordinates to learn to think for themselves rather than a telling and directing approach.	
Figlar et al, 2007			Building the coaching culture within the organization requires the involvement of a high percentage of employees. An organization has to weigh the benefits and costs of hiring external coaches as distinct from developing their own cadre of internal coaches or using some combination of internal and external resources.
Leonard-Cross 2010	Widespread quality, people learn new things more quickly and adapt to change more effectively,		

Authors	Normative approach	Behavioral approach	Development approach
Hawkings 2012	There is a prevalent belief that you get the most out of people, not through telling them what to do, or through advocacy and explanation, but through engaging them with the issues and challenges and helping them think through the choices and options. There is a belief that nobody has all the answers, but through inquiring together we can arrive at better responses to new challenges than by thinking alone. The mood of the organization is one of energy, with high levels of personal engagement and responsibility, where every challenge is an opportunity for new learning, and problems are addressed through engaged relationships. There is also a belief that collective performance can improve through learning and development. These motivational roots are also fuelled by a belief in the power of dialogue and collective exploration. There is a belief that together we can create ways forward better than any of us can do by ourselves.	a coaching approach is a key aspect of how the leaders, managers, and staff engage and develop all their people and engage their stakeholders, in ways that create increased individual, team, and organizational performance and shared value for all stakeholders. The organization espouses the importance of coaching in its key strategy and mission statements and coaching appears as a key competency and capability for all leaders and managers. A coaching style of engaging is used in one-to-one as well as team meetings, as a way of encouraging both problem solving and continuous team and personal development. There is a focus on the collective endeavour of the team and the organization and its stakeholders. There is high challenge and high support for all employees with a real focus on helping individuals and teams to realize their individual and collective potential.	

Authors	Normative approach	Behavioral approach	Development approach
Clutterbuck and Megginson 2005		Coaching is the predominant style of managing and working together, and where a commitment to grow the organisation is embedded in a parallel commitment to grow the people in the organisation	
Wood 2012			Creating a coaching culture involves transitioning managers away from providing directional solutions and towards empowering others to find their own solutions. This moves the manager- subordinate relationship away from one of paternalism, towards one of mutual respect and collaboration.
Segers 2011			The prevalence of who is acting as coach and the extent to which the different coaches (i.e., external, internal, line manager, and self) work together in organizations might depend on the maturity of the coaching culture of the organizations
Chidiac 2013			Maximizing the benefits of coaching means creating a coaching culture that permeates throughout the organization and develops internal coaching capability at all levels.

Authors	Normative approach	Behavioral approach	Development approach
Crane 2005	Leaders are positive role models, every member is focused on customer feedback, coaching flows in all directions -- up, down, and laterally, teams become passionate and energized, learning occurs, more effective decisions are made, and change moves faster , HR systems are aligned and fully integrated, the organization has a common coaching practice and language. Ongoing dialogue, learning, problem solving, and enhanced working conditions. Safety, trust, respect, and rapport in the relationship. Egalitarian, high-trust relationships in teams A huge emphasis on expanding customer feedback channels Responsibility. Feeling of connection,high degree of commitment to teammates' success.	A coaching culture is present when...all members of the culture fearlessly engage in candid, respectful coaching conversations, unrestricted by reporting relationships, about how they can improve their working relationships and individual and collective work performance. All effectively use feedback as a powerful learning tool. Coaching flows in all directions from all parties, making a networked web across the organization consisting of many connections between people in the same departments, across departments, between teams, and up and down and across the hierarchy. There is up-down coaching, the peer coaching, upward coaching. Teams make frequent use of after-action-reviews. People share wisdom across the team, learn to fail fast without fear. It is common practice to involve everybody affected by the change in the decision to make the change, and certainly in the implementation planning. Using 360° processes to gather feedback on a regular basis have personal development plans that are taken seriously, reviewed annually.	When leaders become skilled coach-practitioners, they transform their leadership style

Annex 2: Paper II

THE MAIN COACHING AREAS FOR ESTONIAN LEADERS FOR MANAGING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Signe Vesso, Ruth Alas

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to find the main coaching areas for Estonian leaders for managing organisational change. Based on previous literature the author developed a model consisting from 3 components: leader, relationship orientation and task orientation of a team. According to the study results the most important development areas for Estonian leaders are awareness of the impact of the leaders' trustworthiness and behavior on team members. It is especially important in state owned and small companies. The other important development areas are goal setting and achievement of these goals.

Key Words: Leader, Task Orientation, Relationship Orientation, Change Management

Introduction

Since organizations are facing constant change leaders need to be constantly changing.

Senge (1997) mentioned that human beings are more complex than we often assume. Employees' attitudes towards change are related to the leaders' impact. The role of leaders is significant in the change process and therefore it is important to find opportunities which would help the leaders themselves to change efficiently in a changing environment.

If Estonian enterprises want to develop future leaders for successful change management it has to be known what the main needed coaching areas for leaders are. Coaching has widely been recognized as an effective tool in developing leaders. Nowadays in order to put change into practice successfully it is important for leaders to use their impact, communication skills and employee coaching in addition to formal power with awareness. It is important to support employees to be an active part of changes instead of being changed by someone else. A participatory style of leadership and choosing the management practices which help to create a learning environment form a great part in the success of the change process (Alas et al., 2009). Leaders need to focus on their personal influence, and also on the relationship orientation and task orientation in teams.

The aim of this paper is to find the main coaching areas for Estonian leaders towards effective change management. This paper consists of a theory about change management, leadership, organizational culture, coaching, and trust. The theory is followed by an empirical study on Estonian enterprises.

1. Theoretical framework

1.1. Change management

While, historically, organizations often faced single focal changes, now they are facing constant change (Kotter, 2008). According McKinsey (2008) only a third of organizations implementing change achieve a real performance improvement.

Lawer and Worley (2006) argue that rather than creating change efforts, organizations should be "built to change". Business students are traditionally taught about the tools of analysis: finance and accounting, operations management, and strategy. The product of such an education may be great thinkers but they may not necessarily be good at communicating their ideas, influencing others to work toward shared goals, or collaborating with others in a team. (Hunt, 2002). The results of this excessive focus on analysis can be seen in poor change management.

In order to implement changes successfully, several support processes are needed to identify resistance as an obstacle to overcome (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999).

Ackerman (1986) describes three types of organizational change: (1) developmental change, (2) transitional change, and (3) transformational change. Leaders should be trained so that they would be capable of constantly implementing foremost (1) developmental change, and (2) transitional change.

Since transformation change is the most difficult to carry out, then leaders especially need support for that. In those cases it would be wise to use help from outside coaches because those changes are also intimidating for the leaders themselves.

1.2. Leadership

According to Gardner (1997) *leader* is a person who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influences the behaviors, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings. The core of almost all leadership definitions concerns influence – that is, how leaders influence others to help accomplish group or organizational objectives (House et al., 2004). Among the most common outcomes of leadership behaviors is the facilitation of organizational change (Bass et al., 2008; Kotter, 1990). Leadership scholars frequetly define

leadership in terms of the leaders'role in bringing about change (Bass et al., 2008). To grasp the opportunities and lessen the anxiety that come with change processes, leaders must have collaborative, problem -solving and influencing skills, an astute understanding of how to analyze complex processes and grasp the intricacies of their company's value chain, as well as the ability to deal with inefficiencies (Kets de Vries, 2008).

If leaders want to achieve organizational changes then as the first stage they should implement changes in themselves. Only then can leaders change their own attitude and behaviour. According to social scientists, behaviour is a function of the meaning of a given situation. Participants in social events bring to them prior meanings and stereotypes, which can be understood only in a historical and cultural context (Sahlins, 1985). Employee attitudes are considered an indicator of the future success of an organisation (Hurst, 1995). It has been postulated that attitudes motivate behaviour (Eagly et al., 1993).

Through leaders' interpretations of organizational reality and their choices of employee behaviors and outcomes to be emphasized, leaders of organizations substantially influence what their organizations will look like (Hambricket al, 1984; Miller et al., 1988).

The empirical studies indicate that leadership has effects on team motivation, efficacy, and performance (Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; George, 2000; Schein, 1985; Dickson et al., 2001) primarily through the development of a climate in a team (Piloa -Merlo et al., 2002).

According to Hackman (2003), work team effectiveness is a function of three performance processes: effort expended by team members, the match between the task, situation, and performance strategies employed by team members, and the level of knowledge and skills they possess.

Gavin and Hofmann (2002) studied the relationship between the significance of an individual task and hostility behavior, and found a significant moderating effect of leadership climate. They underscored that in contexts with a supportive leadership climate, the effects of task significance on hostility are attenuated.

1.3. Organizational culture

Several theorists have pointed out *task -orientation and relationship -orientation* of organizational culture: Kilmann and Saxton (1983) and Cooke and Lafferty (1986) focus on people versus task; Goffee and Jones (2000, 2001) particularise sociability, which is similar to relationship -orientation and solidarity, and similar to task-orientation; Harrison (1995) distinguishes between power culture, role culture, achievement culture and support culture. Roots (2002) in his monograph

about typologies of organizational culture points out, that from these four types two – achievement culture and support culture – are more relevant today than the others. The former is similar to task -oriented and the latter to relationship oriented organizational cultures. In the context of organisational change, task –orientation could influence people's attitudes by establishing clear goals and developing values, which could help the achievement of these goals at all levels of an organisation. But achieving employee participation at the beginning is not enough; ensuring that the change process does not reverse and building more effective relationships between peers is also necessary (Landau, 1998). Relationship orientation could influence people's attitudes toward change through informal structures and communication (Salancik et al., 1978).

Task orientation of organizational culture reflects the extent to which all members are willing to support the achievement of common goals. A certain degree of freedom, acknowledgment of good work done and the occurrence of constant positive change inspires organizational members. It makes people think more about the needs and objectives of their organization (Nadi et al., 2002).

Relationship orientation of organizational culture indicates belongingness. People assist each other in work -related problems and discuss all the important topics with each other. People know how to communicate with each other and there is a strong feeling of unity in difficult situations. (Alas, 2004). Both these orientations are important in the context of organizational change.

1.4. Coaching

In the past 20 years, coaching has received increasing attention and endorsement as an important managerial activity (Bartlett et al., 2002). Some management experts consider coaching to be more important than all other management skills (Barry, 1992).

Coaching is about helping other people succeed now and in the future. Coaching can thus be defined as the process of challenging and supporting a person or a team to develop ways of thinking, ways of being and ways of learning. The purpose is to achieve personal and/or organizational goals (Berg, 2006). Coaching is a tool that can develop self -confidence and contribute to actions that create results. Coaching is fundamentally a human change process (Linley, 2006).

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2007), coaching is a major, pervasive learning and development tool used within 71% of surveyed organisations in the UK. Latham et al (2005) also showed that managers in large organisations are increasingly expected to provide coaching to their subordinates.

Setting goals, assessing progress, facilitating improved performance are becoming the major tasks that managers are facing. It is critical for managers to acknowledge employees whose performance and results have improved. A culture of coaching is one in which the regular review of performance and just-in-feedback is expected (Lindbom, 2007).

Establishing trusting relationships, building on peer influence, and striving to align organization and employee goals were determined to be all elements appropriate to incorporate into a culture of coaching.

1.5.   Trust

Trust can be viewed as an attitude held by one individual – the trustor – toward another – the trustee (Robinson, 1996). Building trust is the first step towards building a cohesive team (Lencioni, 2012). Watkins (2008) stated that subordinates must have a sincere belief in their leader's full confidence and trust. Without a baseline of trust, a mutually beneficial relationship will not develop because subordinates will not be open and honest with the leader. Positional authority is not a condition of respect; instead, the existence of greater ability will prove to be the basis for respect. Secondly, performance standards must be established for work and personal conduct. Subordinates do not appreciate unwarranted praise and are interested in candid performance feedback. Subordinates appreciate positive or negative feedback, as long as the feedback is accurate. The leader's adherence to performance standards lends validity to the leader's approval. Thirdly, the leader needs to establish a team environment in which subordinates are able to participate and feel good about their contributions.

The single cultural trait with the largest impact on employees performance is a culture of risk taking. Risk taking – a culture in with employees are provided with incentives and encouragement to work on new ideas despite uncertain outcomes or initial failures – can improve employees performance by a striking 39 percent (2002 Corporate Leadership Council). One needs a high level of trust to take risks. Cataldo et al (2009) found that organizations that wished to improve employee development programs needed to create a culture of trust so that employees were comfortable to share opinions.

Interpersonal trust improves cooperation as a result of the effective working relationships that develop between individuals (Massey and Kyngdon, 2005) but it takes a significant amount of time and energy to build trust.

2. The theoretical model for the empirical study

Based on existing literature, the author developed a theoretical model for the study (Figure 1).

The model consists of three levels: (1) Leader (L), (2) Relationship Orientation in a team (RO), and (3) Task Orientation in a team (TO). These levels on its own are divided into two further levels.

Leader (L) consist of Leader's trustworthiness (LT) and Leader's Behaviour (LB). Relationship Orientation in a team (RO) is divided into Team members' Attitude towards each other (ROA) and Team members' Behaviour towards each other (ROB). Task Orientation in a team (TO) consists of Individual and team goals (TOG) and Achievement of Goals (TOA).
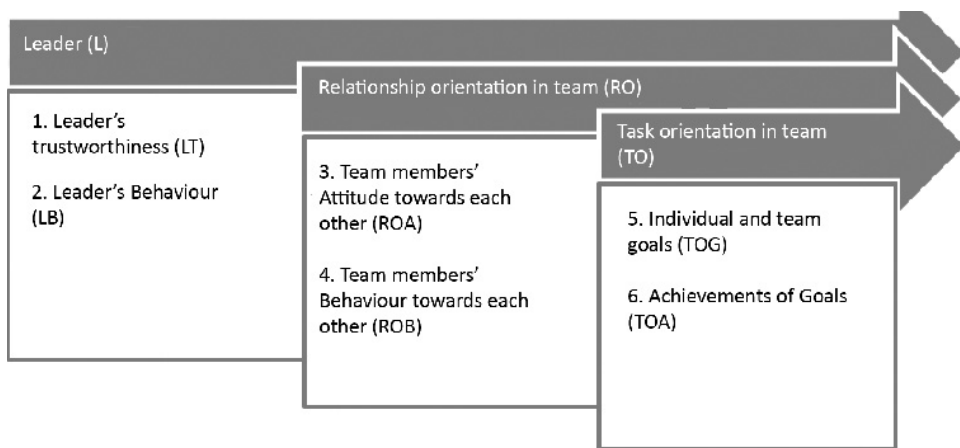
Figure 1. Components of influencing leaders change management ability

All these levels influence the leaders ability to manage change and they are interconnected.

The first level – **The leader** has the most influence on the implementation of organisational changes. Two aspects have been brought out from leadership in this model: the leader's trustworthiness and the leader's behavior. Does the leader create trust and how easy is it to communicate with leader; is the leader instructing and coaching team members, can he/she create positive energy through his/her behavior which is needed for successful change initiation and implementation etc.?

The second level in the model is **Relationship Orientation** in a team. There are two aspects brought out from that level in the model. The first one is team members' attitude towards each other – how well do the team members know each

other, do they have fun together and how open are they to help each other? The readiness to contribute to achieving common goals depends on that. The second one is team members' behavior towards each other – how much people encourage, acknowledge each other and give supportive feedback to improve results – these demeanors can help achieve goals.

The third level in the model is **Task Orientation** in a team, which has two components. The first one is the setting of individual and team goals – does everyone have clear and measurable personal goals, does the team have a the best goal on the team level to achieve, is the team focused on solutions, there are team "game rules"? That is the prerequisite for implementation. The second one is the achievement of goals – how well is the team informed about how close they are to their goals, do they take time to analyze it together, are they doing the right things and are they doing them right, how persistent are they and is success celebrated?

Based on the proposed theoretical model three hypotheses are suggested:

1) Leaders evaluate themselves and the team situation higher than team members.
2) Leaders' highest evaluations of relationship orientation and task orientation of a team are in big enterprises.
3) Leader's trustworthiness influences the relationship orientation and goal orientation in teams.

3.   The empirical study

The empirical study was conducted with 336 respondents. The author developed three scales based on existing literature. The participants were 149 leaders and 182 team members from Estonian organizations. From the participants 24.4 % were representatives of large -scale enterprises; 39.58 % were from small businesses and 18.15 % were from state -owned companies.

The *first* scale Leader (L) was composed of 6 questions; 3 questions about the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and 3 questions about the leader's behavior (LB). The *second* scale Relationship Orientation in teams (RO) was composed of 6 questions; 3 questions about the team members' attitude towards each other (ROA) and 3 questions about the team members' behavior towards each other (ROB). The *third* scale Task Orientation in teams (TO) was composed of 8 questions; 4 questions about setting individual and team goals (TOG) and 4 questions about achievement of goals (TOA). The internal consistency, or Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, is between .848 and .923 for all scales.

In order to test the hypotheses, groups of respondents were compared with the ANOVA and T tests.

4.   Results

H1 stated that leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than team members. This hypothesis found support (Table 1).

Table 1. Managers and Team –members

Leader (L)			Relationship Orientation in Team (RO)		Task Orientation in team (TO)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Managers N=151	7.45	1.91	7.45	1.79	6.91	1.89
Team -members N=180	6.09	2.47	6.45	2.29	5.79	4.70
T-test .p	.000		.000		.000	

Note: Bold indicates statistically significant differences according to T-test.

According to T-test in all scales leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than team members.

H2 stated that the highest results are in large -scale enterprises since they have more resources to constantly deal with the development of leaders. Hypotheses found support (Table 2). According to the results in Table 2 big companies results in all scales are higher than small companies and state companies.

Table 2. Leader, Relationship Orientation in a team and Task Orientation in a team in Big Companies, Small Companies and State Companies

Big Companies N =82	7.21 2.00	7.02 2.07	6.77 2.05
Small Companies N=133	6.5 2.50	6.9 2.08	6.17 2.27
State Companies N=61	6.33 2.53	6.58 2.41	6.01 2.41
Total N=276	6.67 2.39	6.83 2.16	6.31 2.25
Anova test – p	.048	.456	.081

According to the ANOVA there were no statistical significant differences between these three groups of companies.

To find answers to hypotheses 3 the whole sample was divided into three equal groups according to how respondents rated the scale Leader's Trustworthiness'. The result was three groups: groups with low, intermediate and high evaluations of the leader's personality. The average indicators for the rest of the 5 scales were calculated for those groups. According to the Anova test in all five scales the averages were statistically significantly different.

Table 3. Higher, medium and lower group

Leader's trustworthiness		Leader's trustworthiness (LT)	Leader's behaviour (LB)	Leader (L)	Team-members' attitude towards each other (ROA)	Team-members' behaviour towards each other (ROB)	Relationship Orientation in Team (RO)	Individual and team goals (TOG)	Achievement of goals (TOA)	Task Orientation in team (TO)	Total 6 scalas
lower group	Mean	4.12	3.90	4.03	5.51	4.46	4.98	4.45	4.06	4.26	4.41
N=112	SD	1.56	1.95	1.57	2.03	2.11	1.92	1.80	1.83	1.74	1.88
medium group	Mean	7.70	6.68	7.18	7.38	6.78	7.08	6.51	6.62	6.57	6.94
N=112	SD	.690	1.62	0.99	1.25	1.63	1.33	1.73	1.80	1.67	1.45
higher group	Mean	9.48	8.24	8.90	9.01	8.29	8.65	8.11	8.00	8.06	8.52
N=112	SD	.44	1.57	0.76	1.01	1.54	1.18	1.39	1.50	1.36	1.24
Total	Mean	7.11	6.27	6.70	7.30	6.51	6.90	6.36	6.23	6.30	6.62
N=336	SD	2.45	2.49	2.32	2.07	2.37	2.13	2.23	2.37	2.23	2.33
Anova test – p		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Note: Bold indicates statistically significant differences according to ANOVA test.

H3 stated that leadership influences the relationship orientation and goal orientation in teams.

According to results of Linear Regression analysis, hypotheses found support.

Also, according to results in Table 3 in the higher and medium group were high LB and also high RO and TO. In the lower group was lower LB and also low RO and TO. The lower group is characterized by the fact that LI was lower than RO.

In big companies leaders' (L) evaluation is the highest, the next is relationship orientation (RO) and task orientation (TO) is the lowest (L 7,20, RO 7,02 and TO 6,76). The scales are in the same order as in big companies also in higher (L 8,85, RO 8,65, TO 8,05) and medium (L 7,19, RO 7,08, TO 6,56) groups according to leaders' trust-worthiness. But in the lower group according to evaluations on leader's personality (L 4,0, RO 4,98, TO 4,25) relationship orientation (RO) and task orientation (TO) were evaluated higher than leadership.

Discussion

The first hypothesis that found support stated that leaders evaluated all scales higher than team members. The highest difference was in evaluations about leadership: leaders rated leaders' trustworthiness and behavior higher than

employees. Therefore leaders and team members see the situation differently and also react differently. Since leaders are often not aware how team members see them and what impact they have on their teams, they do not see the need to change themselves. Secondly, since the leaders evaluate the situation better than the team members, they do not see the need to change the situation. Often the leaders expect that the employees trust them and hope that people will give them feedback when something is not working. But in reality the subordinates see the leader as less reliable and keep the information about the real situation just to themselves.

The secondly study found that the results of big companies are higher than small companies and state companies on all scales. The lowest results are in state owned companies. In state companies all scales, except leaders' behavior, were lower than in big and small companies. On the one hand, it can be explained by the fact that state companies do not traditionally set as challenging goals as private companies do. The biggest difference is leaders' trustworthiness, from which a conclusion can be drawn that relationships between leaders and employees are better in private companies than state companies. Therefore in the development of leaders of state companies, the most important topic is to increase the leaders' awareness of the influence of their personality.

In small companies as well as in state companies the relationship orientation was higher than leadership and all scales were lower than in big companies. Probably Estonian big companies have made the most effort in leader development.

The most interesting results came from the last hypothesis. The whole sample was divided into three groups according to the influence of team leaders' trustworthiness – high, medium or low. In the higher and medium groups leadership was evaluated as highest, followed by relationship orientation and task orientation of teams. Those leaders can have the desired effect on a team, to achieve high relationship orientation and high task orientation. In the group with lower evaluations of leaders' trustworthiness also the relationship orientation and the task orientation of teams were lower than in the previous two groups. When the evaluations of leaders are lower than of the relationship orientation, then it is hard for the leader to initiate change and to get support. This leader is not able to have the desired effect on the team or does not know how to encourage the team to make changes. In this case team members may prefer to keep good relationships with each other and rather ignore the leader's ideas and proposals. By finding arguments against the leader's ideas they resist the proposed changes.

To conclude according to the study results the most important coaching areas of Estonian leaders are awareness of the impact of the leaders' trustworthiness and behavior on team members. It is especially important in state owned and small companies. The other important development areas are the goal setting on individual and team levels and achievement of these goals.

References

Ackerman L.S., 1986, *Development, Transition or Transformation: The Question of Change in Organisations*, "Organisational Development Practitioner", December, pp. 1–8.

Alas R., 2004, *Organisational changes during the transition in Estonia: Major influencing behavioral factors*. The Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, The University of Tartu, Estonia.

Alas R., Sun W., 2009, *Organizational Changes in Chinese companies*, [in:] Alas R. (ed.), *Implementation of Changes in Chinese Organizations: Groping the Way through the Darkness*, Chandos Publishing (Oxford) Ltd, Oxford, pp. 1–80.

Armenakis A.A., Bedeian A.G., 1999, *Organizational change: A review of theory and research in the 1990s*, "Journal of Management", 25 (3), pp. 293–315.

Barry T., 1992, *The Manager as Coach*, "Industrial & Commercial Training", 24 (2), p. 14.

Bartlett C.A., Ghoshal S., 2002, *Building competitive advantage through people*, "MIT Sloan Management Review", 43, pp. 34–41

Bass B.M., Bass R., 2008, *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*, 4th ed., The Free Press, New York.

Berg M.E., 2006, *Goaching*, Universitetsforlaget.

Cataldo C.G., Raelin J.D., Lambert M., 2009, *Reinvigorating the struggling organization*, "Journal of Applied Behavioral Science", 45 (1), pp. 137–138.

Cooke R.A., Lafferty J.C., 1986, *Organisational Culture Inventory (Form III)*, Human Synergetics, Plymouth, Michigan.

Dickson M.W., Smith D.B., Grojean M.W., Ehrhart M., 2001, *An organizational climate regarding ethics: the outcome of leader values and the practices that reflect them*, "The Leadership Quarterly", Vol. 12, pp. 197–217.

Eagly A.H., Chaiken S., 1993, *The psychology of attitudes*, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers, Orlando, Florida.

Gardner H., 1997, *Leading Minds an Anatomy of Leadership*, Harper Collins Publishers, London.

Goffee R., Jones G., 2000, *The Character of a Corporation: How your company's culture can make or break your business*, Harper Collins Business, London.

Gavin M.B., Hofmann D.A., 2002, *Using Hierarchical Linear Modeling to Investigate the Moderating Influence of Leadership Climate*, "Leadership Quarterly", 13 (1), pp. 15–33.

George J.M., 2000, *Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence*, "Human Relations", Vol. 53, No. 8, pp. 1027–1055.

Goffee R., Jones G., 2001, *Organisational Culture: A Sociological Perspective*, [in:] Cooper C.L., Cartwright S., Earley P.C. (eds.), *The International handbook of Organisational Culture and Climate*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp. 3–20.

Hackman J.R., 2003, *Learning More by Crossing Levels: Evidence from airplanes, hospitals, and orchestras*, "Journal of Organizational Behavior", 24 (8), pp. 905–922.

Hambrick D.C., Mason P.A., 1984, *Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers*, "Academy of Management Review", 9 (2), pp. 193–206.

Harrison R., 1995, *The Collected Papers of Roger Harrison*, Jossey -Bass Publishers, San Francisco.

House R.J., Hanges P.J., Javidan M., Dorfman P.W., Gupta V., 2004, *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations, The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Hunt J.M., Weintraub J.R., 2002, *The Coaching Manager: Developing Top Talent in Business*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Hurst D.K., 1995, *Crisis and Renewal: Meeting the Challenge of Organizational Change*, Harvard Business School Press, Boston.

Kets de Vries M., 2008, *Leadership Coaching and Organizational Transformation: Effectiveness in a World of Paradoxes*, INSEAD Working Paper Series 2008/71/ EFE.

Kilmann R.H., Saxton M.J., 1983, *The Kilmann -Saxton Culture-Gap Survey*, PA Organisational Design Consultants, Pitttsburgh.

Kotter J.P., 1990, *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*, Free Press, New York.

Landau J., 1998, *Short -lived Innovation: Participation and Symmetrical Relationships in the Italian Public Sector*, "European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology", 7 (2), p. 233.

Latham G.P., Almost J., Mann S., Moore C., 2005, *New developments in performance management*, "Organizational Dynamics", 34, pp. 77–87.

Lawer E.E.I., Worley C., 2006, *Built to change: How to achieve sustained organizational effectiveness*, 1st ed., Jossey -Bass, San Francisco.

Lencioni P., 2012, *The advantage: Why organizational health trumps everything else in business*, Jossey -Bass, San Francisco.

Lindbom D., 2007, *A Culture of Coaching: The Challenge of Managing Performance for Long -Term Results*. "Organizational Development Journal", Vol. 25, No. 1, Spring, p. 101.

Linley P.A., 2006, *Coaching Research: who? what? where? when? why?*, "International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring", Vol. 4, No. 2, Autumn.

Massey G., Kyngdon A., 2005, *The measurement of interpersonal trust between peer managers: a test of a specific item bank using factor analysis and Rasch Modelling* Working Paper Series, School of Marketing, Faculty of Business, University of Technology, Sydney.

McKinsey, 2008, *Creating organizational transformations*, www.mckinseyquarterly.com, [11.09.2008].

Miller D., Droge C., Toulouse J.M., 1988, *Strategic process and content as mediators between organizational context and structure*, "Academy of Management Journal", 31 (3), pp. 544–569.

Pirola -Merlo A., Hartel C., Mann L., Hirst G., 2002, How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in R&D teams, "*The Leadership Quarterly*", 13, pp. 561–581.

Robinson S.L., 1996, *Trust and breach of the psychological contract*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 41, pp. 574–599.

Roots H., 2002, *Organisatsioonikultuuri tüübid*, Sisekaitseakadeemia, Tallinn.

Sahlins M., 1985, *Islands of History*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Salancik G.R., Pfeffer J., 1978, *A Social Information Processing Approach to Job Attitudes and Task Design*, "Administrative Science Quarterly", 23, pp. 224–253.

Schein E., 1985, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, Jossey -Bass, San Francisco.

Senge P.M., 1997, *The Fifth Discipline. The Art and Practice of the Learning Organisation*, Century Business, London.

Sivasubramaniam N., Murry W.D., Avolio B.J., Jung D.I., 2002, *A longitudinal model of the effects of team leadership and group potency on group performance*, "Group and Organizational Management", Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 66–96.

Vadi M., Allik J., Realo A., 2002, *Collectivism and its Consequences for Organisational Culture*, Working Paper Series. School of Economics and BA University of Tartu, No. 12.

Watkins D, 2008, *The common factors between coaching cultures and transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and high-performance organizational cultures*, A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctorate in Management and Organizational Leadership at University of Phoenix.

Annex 3: Paper III

**STRENGTHENING LEADER'S IMPACT AND ABILITY
TO MANAGE CHANGE THROUGH GROUP COACHING**

Signe Vesso

Abstract

In this article, the author will focus on finding out how coaching influences strengthening the leader's impact and leader's ability to manage change. Longitudinal study was conducted in the Estonian biggest telecommunication company. The goal was to investigate how leadership group coaching influences the performance of the team leaders. In 2009, 11 teams took part in the study (97 participants) and in 2010, 9 teams took part (57 participants). There were 8 months between the studies. The leaders, their managers and team members all participated in both studies.

Based on existing literature, the author developed a theoretical model "Components of influencing leaders change management ability" consisting from 3 components: leader, relationship orientation and task orientation in team. Each of these components can be divided into two. In addition, trust in the teams was investigated.

The study showed that in 2010 the results were higher than in 2009. According to the study results group coaching had the strongest impact to the task orientation in teams. Group coaching influenced the common perception of the leaders' trustworthiness the most.

Introduction

In today's business environment the constant change is required to increase performance or even survive. Yet, despite this requirement for success, only a third of organizations implementing change achieve real performance improvement (McKinsey, 2008).

Since the 1990s, the emphasis on coaching has been considered as means of facilitating learning and moving executives from excellent performance to peak performance (Ellinger et al 1999; Evered et al 1989; Feldman et al 2005). In the past 20 years, coaching has received increasing attention and endorsement as an important managerial activity (Bartlett et al 2002).

The role of the leaders is significant in change process – firstly, they need to change themselves and secondly, they need to help their team to change. Therefore it is important to find key components that influence leader's impact and leader's ability to manage changes. Author`s 2007 study (Vesso 2009) stated that the specific

development areas of leaders are the leaders' trustworthiness and behaviour. This key component predicts the success of leadership performance. Another important development areas are individual and team goals settings and the achievement of goals. Leaders must understand their own role in change management processes, understand their influence on individuals and groups.

In this article, the author will focus how does group coaching as intervention method strengthen leader's impact and leader's ability to manage changes. Also how trust is related to the results.

This paper consists of theory about leadership, coaching, executive coaching, group coaching, trust and author's model about leader's influence, relationship orientation and goal orientation in teams. Theory and model is followed by longitudinal study in one company.

Theoretical background

Leadership

For Gardner (1997), leader is a person who, by word and/or personal example, markedly influences the behaviours, thoughts, and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings. The core of almost all leadership definitions concerns influence – that is, how leaders influence others to help accomplish group or organizational objectives (House et al, 2004). Among most common outcomes of leadership behaviours is the facilitation of organizational change (Bass et al 2008; Kotter 1990). In fact, leadership scholars frequently define leadership in terms of the leaders` role in bringing about change (Bass et al 2008).

Since the leader influences others with his or her personality, then it is important that the leader be aware of his or her influence. If leaders want to achieve organizational changes, then they should implement changes in themselves at the first stage.

Leadership studies show that the most successful organizations are the product of *distributive, collective, and complementary* leadership (Kets de Vries 2006).

Leadership needs to move beyond contemplation of isolated heroes and consider instead leaders–relationships with those who translate their ideas into action. Leadership is not necessarily an interaction between leaders and followers as individuals but rather between leaders and followers as group members. (Haslam et al, 2011)

Coaching

Coaching is about helping other people to succeed now and in the future. Coaching can thus be defined as the process of challenging and supporting a person or a team to develop ways of thinking, ways of being and ways of learning. The purpose is to achieve personal and/or organizational goals (Berg, 2006). Coaching is a tool that can develop self-confidence and contribute to actions that create results. Coaching is fundamentally a human change process (Linley, 2006).

Executive coaching is a short- to medium-term relationship between an executive and a consultant with the purpose of improving an executive's work effectiveness (Douglas et al 1999; Feldman, 2001). Kilburg (2000) has defined executive coaching as: "...a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organization and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to assist the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and consequently to improve the effectiveness of the client's organization within a formally defined coaching agreement."

In the management literature, Feldman (2001) identified three key elements of executive coaching relationships as follows: (a) It consists of one-on-one counselling about work- related issues; (b) it involves the use of 360-degree feedback on executives' strengths and weaknesses as its starting point; and (c) its purpose is to improve managers' effectiveness in their current positions.

Ketz (2005) advocates the benefits of leadership coaching in a group setting, because durable changes in leadership behaviour are more likely to occur. In his article, the discussion is offered to show that leadership group coaching establishes a foundation of trust, makes for constructive conflict resolution, leads to greater commitment, and contributes to accountability, all factors that translate into better results for the organization. Ketz (2005) suggests that change methodology centred on leadership group coaching creates high-performance teams, is an antidote to organizational silo formation, helps put into place boundary-less organizations, and makes for true knowledge management. Group coaching has direct links to Schein's (1969) theory of process consultation.

Barrett (2006) also stated that by increasing an executive's self-awareness through coaching, group coaching can take this awareness to the next level by fostering individual leader abilities to effectively understand their own feelings; ultimately leading to an enhanced capacity to receive, process, and act on the feelings of others in the group.

The Peer Coaching is a method where each participant of the group acts as both, a coach and a coachee (or client).

Trust

Trust can be viewed as an attitude held by one individual -the trustor -toward another - the trustee (Robinson, 1996). Most research on the antecedents of trust have focused on trustor perceptions and beliefs, such as trustors' perceptions of trustees' competence, benevolence, and integrity, that appear to be critical conditions for trust (Butler, 1991; Mayer et al.,1995). Insights into trustors' perceptions help identify how trust arises and suggest that managers can have considerable impact on building trust (Whitener et al 1998).

Building trust is the first step towards building a cohesive team (Lencioni, 2012). Research has suggested a link between trust and a variety of work behaviour including (Mach et al 2010): employee performance, both individual and as a group (Dirks et al, 2009; Mayer et al, 1999); open communication (Smith et al, 1997); a commitment to the team's objectives (Costa et al 2001), team performance (Hempel et al, 2009; Lawler, 1992) and increased coordination and cooperation (McAllister, 1995).

Author's theoretical model for empirical study

Based on existing literature, the author developed a theoretical model for study (Figure 1). The model consists of three levels: (1) Leader (L), (2) Relationship Orientation in team (RO), and (3) Task Orientation in team (TO). These levels on its own are divided into two. Leader (L) consist of Leader's trustworthiness (LT) and Leader's Behaviour (LB). Relationship Orientation in team (RO) is divided into Team members` Attitude towards each other (ROA) and Team members` Behaviour towards each other (ROB). Task Orientation in team (TO) consist of Individual and team goals (TOG) and Achievement of Goals (TOA)
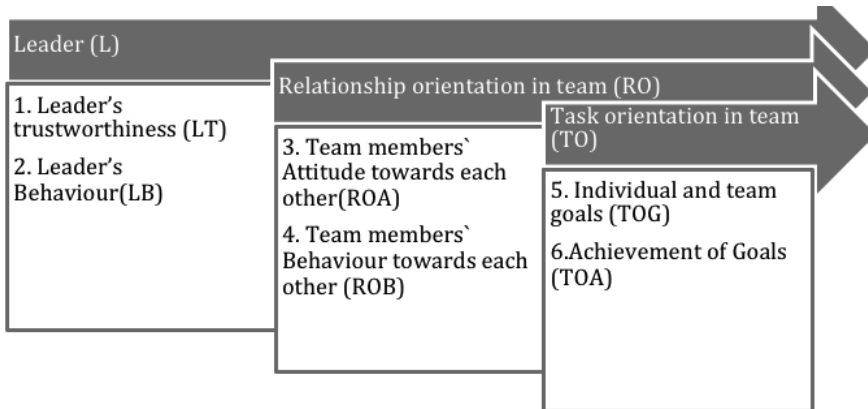

Figure 1 Components of influencing leaders change management ability.

All these levels influence the change management in a team and they are interconnected.

The first level - The leader has the most influence on change management. Two aspects have been brought out from the influence of the leader in the model: impact of the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and impact of the leader's behaviour (LB). The strongest influence has the trustworthiness of the leader – does the leader create trust and how easy is to communicate with leader, can the subordinates be honest with the leader, which type of environment the leader creates around himself/herself. Secondly, the leader's behaviour influences results – does the leader instructs and coaches team members, does the leader create positive energy through his/her behaviour which is needed for successful change initiation and implementation. The higher the leader's LT, the more receptive are subordinates to LB.

The second level in the model is Relationship Orientation in team. There are two aspects brought out from that level in the model. Firstly, team members` attitude towards each other - how well do the team members know each other, do they have fun together and how open they are with helping each other. The readiness to contribute to achieving common goals depends on that. Second is team members` behaviour towards each other - how much people encourage, acknowledge each other and give supportive feedback to improve results - these demeanours can help to achieve goals. The higher the ROA, the more receptive are the employees to ROB.

The third level in the model is Task Orientation in team which has two components. First is the setting individual and team goals – does everyone have clear and measurable personal goals, does the team has a goal to achieve the best on a team level, does the team is with solution focused mind, does there are team "game rules". That is the prerequisite for implementation. Second is the achievement of goals – how well is the team informed about how close they are to their goals, do they take time to analyse together : are they doing the right things and are they doing them right, how persistent are they and is success celebrated. The higher the TOG the more chances there are for TOA. The third level is connected to the first level of the model as well. If the team cannot implement the goals, then it influences the impact of leader. The influence of the leader declines since the team is disappointed in the leader's capability to achieve goals. If the team achieves the desired state, then it also influences the impact of leader. The influence of the leader rises because the trust of the team in leader's capabilities has risen. The authors' study (Vesso 2009) found that the high results were characterized by algorithm L-RO-TO as well the low results were characterized with algorithm RO-L-TO.

The analysis of data brought out the differences that differentiated Higher and Middle group from the Lower group. Higher and Medium groups were characterized by high L (8,85 and 7,19) and also high RO (8,65 and 7,08) and TO (8,05 and 6,56) –

all the levels were related according to the author's theoretical model. In the group with lower results, there was a relation (RO-IL-GO, where RO was the highest and, proceeded by IL and GO).

Empirical study

Hypothesis for empirical study

Based on proposed theoretical model, the author has developed 5 hypotheses.

H1: Participation in group coaching does support to strengthen the results of leaders performance. The results are higher in all the teams.

H2: The highest evaluated component is leader (L), thereafter relationship orientation (RO) and then task orientation (TO).

H3: The results of the second study are more similar, because group coaching supports leaders to develop their coaching skills and therefore the team members communication improves, which helps the team to understand the context more similarly.

H4: Trust scale is related to results. In teams where there are higher results, trust scale is also higher.

H5: Leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than the team members.

Method

Two studies were conducted in the Estonian biggest telecommunications company to investigate the impact of group coaching on the performance of the team leaders. The first study was completed before leader's group coaching in August 2009 and the repeat study was completed after group coaching in March 2010. There were 8 months in between the studies. In 2009, 11 teams took part in the study (95 participants) and in 2010 there were 9 teams participating (57 participants). The leaders, their managers and team members all participated in both studies.

After first study leaders received multisource feedback about their performance (i.e., self-evaluation, ratings from their managers and direct reports). Executive coaching sessions were held with each leader, where they analysed his/her results and set new development goals. Also there were 3 group coaching sessions. The first 2-days session was held in September 2009, the second 1-day session in November 2009 and the third 1-day session was held in January 2010. Peer coaching was used as an intervention as well– during the time between the sessions, the participants

met in pairs about 2 – 3 times. Multi-source feedback questionnaire was carried out in March 2010.

Scales

Based on the existing literature, the author has developed theoretical models for study. The *first* questionnaire, Leader (L), consists of 6 questions: 3 questions about the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and 3 questions about the leader's behaviour (LB).

The *second* questionnaire, Relationship Orientation in teams (RO), consists of 6 questions: 3 questions about the team members` attitude towards each other (ROA) and 3 questions about the team members` behaviour towards each other (ROB).

The *third* questionnaire, Task Orientation in teams (TO), consists of 8 questions: 4 questions about individual and team goals (TOG) and 4 questions achievement of goals (TOA).

In addition, trust in the teams was investigated, for which a "trust" scale was used. In the first study, there was one general trust scale, which composed of 6 questions. Trust as a variable was measured by the assessment tool derived from Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2000). In the second study, there was a trust scale which divided faith in intentions of peers and managers and confidence in actions of peers and managers. It was composed of 12 questions. Trust as a variable was measured by the assessment tool (interpersonal trust at work) derived from Cook and Wall (1980).

In order to test hypothesis, groups of respondents were compared using ANOVA and T-test. Correlation analysis was done to find relations with trust. In addition, the data was divided into two based on the results and the results were compared.

Results

H1: Participation in group coaching does support strengthening the results of leader performance. The results are higher in all teams.

This hypothesis found support (Table 1) according to the cross sample. This hypothesis found partly support (Table 2, Table 3) in different teams.

Table 1. The comparison of the results of the leaders performance in 2009 and 2010

	LT	LB	L	ROA	ROB	RO	TOG	TOA	TO
2009 N=97									
Mean	8.81	7.91	8.36	8.68	7.98	8.33	7.81	7.74	7.77
SD	1.58	2.03	1.69	1.33	1.71	1.42	1.80	1.75	1.73
2010 N=57									
Mean	9.35	8.44	8.90	8.98	8.52	8.75	8.59	8.03	8.31
SD	0.76	1.32	0.93	0.93	1.06	0.92	1.07	1.17	1.07
Mean Difference	+0.54	+0.53	**+0.54**	+0.3	+0.54	**+0.42**	+0.78	+0.3	**+0.54**
SD Difference	-0.82	-0.71	**-0.76**	-0.4	-0.65	**-0.5**	-0.73	-0.58	**-0.66**
T-test									

Based on the T-test, all indicators are statistically significantly different

The participation in-group coaching influences the results – the results of the repeat study are higher. All results were higher in 2010 than in 2009. TOG increased the most (+0,78).

Table 2. The comparison of the results in different teams in 2009 and in 2010

Teams 1-11	IL		RO		TO		Mean	Trust 2009		Trust 2010	
1(09)N=9,Mean SD	7.63	2.53	8.70	1.28	9.74	1.85	8.09	3.46	0.26		
1(10)N=7, Mean SD	9.05	0.87	9.09	0.80	8.73	1.28	8.96			6.13	0.48
2(09)N=8, Mean SD	8.27	0.79	7.43	1.10	7.2	0.98	7.63	3.56	0.41		
2(10)N=8, Mean SD	8.52	0.86	7.83	0.92	7.64	0.96	8.0			5.75	0.60
3(09)N=8,Mean SD	9.37	0.37	8.87	0.49	8.11	0.60	8.78	3.60	0.44		
3(10)N=5,Mean SD	9.43	0.32	8.97	0.89	8.02	0.81	8.81			6.17	0.23
4(09)N=5,Mean SD	8.33	1.15	8.43	0.99	8.40	1.08	8.39	3.77	0.15		
4(10)N=4,Mean SD	8.79	0.67	9.04	0.70	8.69	0.33	8.84			5.56	0.41
5(09)N=9,Mean SD	9.23	0.62	9.20	0.64	8.80	1.02	9.08	3.80	0.30		
5(10)N=3,Mean SD	9.28	0.51	9.61	0.25	8.96	0.14	9.28			6.25	0.29
6(09)N=3,Mean SD	8.54	0.85	7.71	1.50	6.96	1.13	7.74	1.89	1.67		
6(10)N=3,Mean SD	8.39	0.92	8.17	0.87	6.58	1.70	7.71			5.47	0.84
7(09)N=10,Mean SD	7.07	2.18	7.63	1.22	6.07	2.05	6.92	3.28	0.53		
7(10)N=9,Mean SD	9.02	0.76	8.68	0.58	8.25	0.90	8.65			6.05	0.40
8(09)N=12,Mean SD	6.85	2.04	6.74	1.98	5.96	2.04	6.52	3.22	0.84		
8(10)N=7,Mean SD	8.52	1.12	8.19	0.88	8.07	0.88	8.26			5.69	0.36
9(09)N=16,Mean SD	9.13	1.06	9.16	0.98	8.79	1.18	9.03	3.56	0.70		
9(10)N=11,Mean SD	9.05	1.32	9.33	0.79	9.02	0.76	9.13			5.85	0.51
10(09)N=9,Mean SD	9.30	1.14	9.28	0.68	8.90	0.61	9.16	3.74	0.62		
11(09)N=9,Mean SD	8.61	1.40	8.33	1.27	8.22	1.47	8.38	3.41	0.55		
Total(09)N=95,Mean SD	8.36	1.70	8.32	1.43	7.74	1.74	8.14	3.45	0.68		

There was a change in the company structure between the studies in 2009 and in 2010. This is why there are less respondents in 2010 than in 2009, as the number of employees changed. One of the team leaders left the company and another one took maternity leave. Therefore their teams did not participate in 2010. The results increased in every team except in the 6th.

Table 3. The change in the results of the teams

Department	IL	RO	GO	Mean
1	+1,42	+0,39	+0,79	+0,87
2	+0,25	+0,4	+0,44	+0,37
3	+0,06	+0,1	-0,09	+0,03
4	+0,46	+0,61	+0,29	+0,45
5	+0,05	+0,41	+0,16	+0,2
6	-0,15	+0,46	-0,38	**-0,03**
7	+1,95	+0,17	+2.18	+1,73
8	+1,67	+1,45	+2,11	+1,74
9	-0,08	+0,17	+0,23	+0,1

H2 stated that the highest evaluated component is leader (L), thereafter relationship orientation (RO) and then task orientation (TO). This hypothesis was supported (Table 1).

Both in 2009 and in 2010 the highest was L and the lowest was TO. In 2009 the results were: L 8,36 RO 8,33 and TO 7,77. In 2010 the results were: L 8,9 RO 8,75 TO 8,31.

H3 stated that the results of the second study are more similar, because group coaching supports leaders to develop their coaching skills and therefore the team members communication improves, which helps the team to understand the context more similarly (Table 1).

Standard deviation in 2010 was statistically significantly smaller than in 2009. The smallest standard deviation was in LT (0.76). Standard deviation changed the most in case of LT (SD was 1,58 in 2009 and 0,76 in 2010, the difference was 0,82). Secondly, standard deviation changed in TOG (SD was 1.80 in 2009 and SD was 1.07 in 2010, difference 0,73).

H4 stated that trust scale is related to results. In teams where there are higher results, trust is also higher. This hypothesis was supported (Table 4, Table 5).

In order to test this hypothesis, 2 groups were created based on the results of the teams. Group A consisted of teams with higher results and group B included teams with lower results.

Table 4 Relationship between results and trust

	Mean	Trust
Teams in 2009		
A (10,5,9,3,4)	8,89	3,69
B (11,1,6,2,7,8)	7,55	3,14
Teams in 2010		
A (5,9,1,4,3)	9,0	5,99
B (7,8,2,6)	8,15	5,74

In group A, trust is statistically more significantly higher than in group B. After the intervention, trust did not differ between groups A and B as statistically significantly as before.

In order to test whether trust scale is related to the results, a correlations analysis was used.

Table 5 Correlations between scales

	LT	LB	L	ROA	ROB	RO	TOG	TOA	TO	Respondent role	Gender	Age group
Trust 2010	0.393 **	0.476 **	0.498 **	0.223	0.490 **	0.399 **	0.593 **	0.558 **	0.604 **	0.091	0.288 *	0.420 **
Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N=54	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.105	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.512	0.035	0.002

**.Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

All scales have statistically significant relations except ROA and the role of the respondent. All relations are strong, except gender, which has the weakest relation.

H5 states that leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than team members. This hypothesis was not supported in the study in 2009. In 2010 this hypothesis was partly supported (Table 6, Table 7).

Table 6 The situation perceived by leaders, team members and leaders managers in 2009 and in 2010

Role of the respondent	LT	LB	L	ROA	ROB	RO	TOG	TOA	TO
Team member 09 N=73, Mean, SD	8.96 1.57	8.02 2.0	8.49 1.67	8.80 1.33	8.05 1.70	8.42 1.43	7.84 1.79	7.76 1.79	7.80 1.74
Team member 10 N=47, Mean, SD	9.42 0.72	8.45 1.40	8.94 0.96	9.0 0.93	8.47 1.05	8.73 0.90	8.56 1.05	8.02 1.22	8.29 1.08
Mean difference	+0.47	+0.43	+0.45	+0.2	+0.42	+0.31	**+0.72**	+0.17	+0.49
Leader 09 N=11, Mean, SD	8.31 1.16	7.7 1.53	8.0 1.18	8.40 1.05	8.07 1.60	8.24 1.26	7.55 1.95	7.71 1.50	7.63 1.71
Leader 10 N=9, Mean, SD	8.92 0.97	8.37 1.04	8.65 0.87	8.71 1.04	8.62 1.26	8.67 1.09	8.62 1.32	8.03 1.08	8.33 1.16
Mean difference	+0.61	**+0.68**	+0.65	+0.3	+0.55	+0.43	**+1.07**	+0.32	0.69
Leader manager 09 N=8, Mean, SD	8.17 2.17	6.87 2.97	7.52 2.48	7.83 1.66	6.79 1.82	7.31 1.44	7.5 1.86	7.21 2.0	7.23 1.92
Leader manager 10 N=3, Mean, SD	9.33 0.47	8.67 0.00	9.0 0.23	9.67 0.00	9.33 0.47	9.5 0.23	9.12 0.53	8.37 0.18	8.75 0.18
Mean difference	+1.16	**+1.8**	+1.17	+1.84	**+2.54**	+2.19	+1.62	+1.16	+1.52
T-test, p	0.000			0.000			0.000		

Note: Bold indicates statistically significant differences according to T-test.

According to T-test, all indicators were statistically significantly higher; in all scales, leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than team members.

In 2009, all scales were rated the highest by team members, except ROB scale: team members (tm) gave it 8,05 points and leaders (l) gave 8,07 points. The rest of the scales were rated considerably less by the leaders (LT tm=8,96 l=8,31, LB tm=8,02 l=7,7 ROA tm=8,8 l=8,4, TOG tm=7,84 l=7,55, TOA tm=7,8 l=7,63).

In 2009, leaders managers rated all the scales the lowest. Leaders and leaders managers results differed the most in scales ROB (leaders-managers rated it 1,3

points less than leaders) and ILB (leaders-managers rated it 0,82 points less than leaders).

In 2010 the results changed. Leaders managers rated all scales the highest (except LT). Leaders rated the scales the lowest, but this time their difference with team members results was nominal. The rates of leaders and team members are more similar in 2010.

Table 7 Change in means: leaders and team members, leaders managers

	2009 mean	2010 mean
team members	8,24	8,56
leaders	7,96	8,55
leaders managers	7,35	9,08

Conclusion and discussion

The first hypothesis that participation in group coaching influences the results of leaders performance was supported. The results of the repeat study were higher. The scale GOG increased the most, which indicates that the leaders started to develop their teams, the activities related to coaching increased significantly. Scriffignano (2011) supports the importance of establishing goals, as she suggested in her research "...goal setting can have a profound impact on leaders' success" . In addition, she revealed through her research that learning goal orientation, which is a belief that one can improve their abilities by acquiring new skills, is significantly correlated with the leaders' level of professional development.

Several studies support the results. Firstly, the research, where Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, and Kucine (2003) used a quasi-experimental pre/post control group design to study the impact of executive coaching on improvement in multisource ratings over a 1-year period. The participants in the study were 1361 senior managers in a large, global corporation. All of the participants had received multisource feedback about their performance as managers. From this group, 404 worked with an external executive coach. Results from the study indicated that managers who worked with an executive coach were more likely than other managers to set specific goals, to solicit ideas for improvement from their supervisors, and to receive improved ratings from direct reports and supervisors 1 year later. The intervention methods used by the author were similar – multisource feedback and executive coaching one time. But regular meetings with executive coach were replaced by group coaching.

The study conducted by Thach in 2002 also supported the results, she worked with a mid-size, global, telecommunications firm with headquarters in the western

United States and 281 executives developed a new executive development system which included 360 feedback and coaching sessions. Results from a mini 360 post survey rated by others revealed that the overall impact on leadership effectiveness based on six months of coaching and 360 feedback was an average increase of 55% during phase two and 60% increase over phase three for the executives that participated. Ward (2008) presented a model for group coaching arguing that coaching executives in groups to leverage collective experiences in an experiential environment with on-going support was an efficient and effective way for executives to grow.

The first hypothesis stated also that the results are higher for all teams. This was partly supported. The overall results increased in all teams except the 6th team, where the mean was 0,03 points lower than in 2009. What is different in the 6th team? The 6th team had the lowest trust scale in 2009: 1,89. The next trust scale was 3,22. This was an alarming sign that there are trust issues in this team, although the overall result of the team was the 4th from the end. Also, the trust scale of team 6 was the lowest in 2010 (5,47). Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the low level of trust in 2009 compared to other teams predicted the low results in 2010. Employee attitudes are considered as an indicator of the future success of an organization (Hurst 1995). It has been postulated that attitudes motivate behaviour (Eagly et al. 1993). It is significant that the results increased even though there were changes in the structure of the company. Structural reorganization is particularly corrosive of trust in management (Morgan et al 2003).

The second hypothesis that was supported stated that the highest evaluated component is leader (L), thereafter relationship orientation (RO) and then task orientation (TO). The leader with high L can have the desired effect on a team with high RO and in a team with high RO in turn accelerates achieving goals.

The third hypothesis that found support stated that the results of the second study are more similar. The standard deviation was smaller in every scale, which indicates that group coaching provided results and confirms the hypothesis that coaching supports leaders to develop their coaching skills and therefore the team members communication improves, which helps the team to understand the context more similarly. This is important in the context of change management, because the more similarly the participants understand the situation (goals, reality, obstacles, opportunities and the action plan), the less energy is required to solve communication problems and the resistance to the process is the lowest. Writings on the management of change have frequently indicated that the first step to achieve lasting organizational change is to deal with the resistance to change (Alas et al 2012).

LT had the smallest standard deviation. In addition, LT also changed the most compared to other scales. It can be concluded that coaching influenced the common perception of the LT scales the most. This is a very important result. Based on the author's model, the leader has the strongest influence on the change management.

Hypothesis four stated that trust scale is related to the results, found support. In teams where there were higher results, trust was also higher. It is interesting that after interfering in 2010, trust does not differ as much in groups A and B. The correlation analysis indicated that all scales have statistically significant relations, except ROA and the role of the respondent. This finding can be explained with the trust scale of Driscoll (1978) and C. L. Scott (1980). Driscoll (1978) and C. L. Scott (1980) divided trust into two subconstructs: a global (attitudinal/ affective) component and a specific (situational/ cognitive) component. They found that the only specific component predicted organizational outcomes. This finding is consistent with research indicating that specific attitudes, but not general attitudes, tended to be related to specific outcomes (Fisher 1980; Heberlein et al 1976). ROA scale is related to attitudinal component.

It was surprising that the hypothesis stated that leaders value themselves and the team situation higher than the team members, was not supported in the study in 2009. In 2010, this hypothesis was partly supported. Through leaders' interpretations of organizational reality the employee behaviours and outcomes to be emphasized. Leaders of organizations substantially influence what their organizations will look like (Hambrick et al 1984; Miller et al 1988). In contrary to the researches, the study in 2009 indicated that team-members assess the situation better than their leaders. It can be explained by the specific economic situation at that moment. There was a recession and leaders had more information regarding the falling economic results and future perspectives. The employees were not informed at the same scope about bad news. Therefore they could have seen the situation in lighter colours. This general tone could have also influenced the rating of the other scales. This phenomenon should be explored more.

In 2009, leaders managers rated all the scales the lowest. The largest difference between leaders managers and leaders were in ROB (leaders managers rated it 1,3 points less than leaders) and LB scale (leaders managers rated it 0,82 points less than leaders). Both scales are related to the external behaviour. Also interesting result of the study in 2010 was that leaders managers saw the largest rise in the same scales that were critical in 2009. This phenomenon needs to be researched in the future.

The results had changed in 2010. Leaders managers rated all the scales the highest, except LT. Leaders gave the lowest rates, but their rates were very close to the rates of team members. The rates of leaders and team members were closer in 2010. Therefore, the results of the study in 2010 are closer to the researches, which show that the leaders assess the situation in organization better then their subordinates (Alas 2008).

The leaders and team members perceived the same changes in 2010 – the scale GO had increased the most for both and then the scale L. Both perceived the highest changes in the subscale GOG.

It is possible to see the copy mechanism in this process – the leaders set their goals during individual coaching session and later they helped their employees to set goals. It is important that the leader has a positive experience with coaching – he/ she should have a positive experience from his/her own development. This is why group coaching has an important role – it helps leaders to achieve their goals and gain positive experience.

To conclude, the author can see that leadership group coaching has many advantages over individual coaching. More researches have been conducted on the impact of executive coaching than group coaching and there are no studies that display which form is more effective. When researching group coaching models, Christensen points out that to date, no published research has reported the effects of group coaching on executive internal dynamics or leadership effectiveness (Christensen, 2012). Group interventions have the potential to get to the core of many systemic issues. Researchers such as Hackman and Wageman (2005) and Kets de Vries (2005) have started to differentiate the merits of group coaching from one-on-one coaching in the development of leaders. However, empirically-supported literature has been lacking when compared to the number of individuals engaging in and facilitating various group interventions associated with leadership development (Christensen, 2012). Group coaching can be more efficient than individual coaching, because the process is also influenced by group dynamics and this will create coherence in the organization. The combination of peer coaching and group coaching is especially effective, because this emphasises the learning in the role of a coach.

References

Alas, R. 2008. `Implementation of organizational changes in Estonian companies`. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 9(4), 289-297.

Alas, R., Sun, W., Gao, J. 2012 The Implementation of Organizational Changes during the Transition in China and Estonia, *Baltic Journal of Management,* 7(1): 86 – 102.

Barrett, P. T. 2006. *The effects of group coaching on executive health and team effectiveness: A quasi-experimental field study*. Dissertation Abstract International, UMI No. 3227469.

Bartlett, C. A. & Ghoshal, S. 2002. Building competitive advantage through people. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 43:34-41

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. 2008. *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY, USA: The Free Press

Berg, M.E. 2006. *Coaching,* Universitetsforlaget.

Butler Jr., John K. 1991. *Toward Understanding and Measuring Conditions of Trust: Evolution of a Conditions of Trust Inventory.* Journal of Management; Sep91, Vol. 17 Issue 3, p643, 21p

Christensen, K, A., 2012 A Group Coaching Model for Early Career Ministers *Professional Psychology Doctoral Projects. Paper 7.*

Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., & Menon, S. T. , 2000. Charismatic leadership and follower effects. *Journal of organizational Behavior, 21*(7), 747-767

Cook, J., Wall, T., 1980*. New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfilment* Journal of Occupational Psychology Volume 53, Issue 1, pages 39–52, March

Costa, A. C. Roe, R. A. Taillieu, T. 2001. *Trust within teams: The relation with performance effectiveness* European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology 10 225–244

Dirks, K. T. 1999. *The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance* Journal of Applied Psychology 84 445–455

Dirks, K. T. Skarlicki, D. P. 2009. *The relationship between being perceived as trustworthy by coworkers and individual performance* Journal of Management 35 136–157

Douglas, C. A., &McCauley, C.D. 1999. Formal developmental relationships: A survey of organizational practices. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 10, 203-220

Driscoll J.W. 1978. Trust and Participation in Organizational Decision Making as Predictors of Satisfaction *The Academy of Management Journal* Vol. 21, No. 1 (Mar.), pp. 44-56

Eagly, Alice H.; Chaiken, Shelly 1993. *The psychology of attitudes*.

Orlando, FL, US: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.. xxii 794 pp.

Ellinger A.D., Bostrom R. P., 1999 *Managerial coaching behaviors in learning organizations*, Journal of Management Development, Vol. 18 Iss: 9, pp.752 - 771

Evered, E.D., Selman J.G. 1989. Coaching and the Art of Management, *Organizational Dynamics. 18:2* pp. 16-23.

Feldman, D. C. 2001. Career coaching: What HR professionals and managers need to know. *Human Resource Planning*, 24: 26-35.

Feldman, D.G., Lankau M.J. 2005. Executive Coaching: A Review and Agenda for Future Research, *Journal of Management,*37:6 , pp. 829-848.

Fisher C.D. 1980 On the Dubious Wisdom of Expecting Job Satisfaction to Correlate with Performance *The Academy of Management Review* Vol. 5, No. 4 (Oct.), pp. 607-612

Gardner, H. 1997. *Leading Minds an Anatomy of Leadership.* Harper Collins Publishers

Hackman, R., Wageman, R. 2005. A theory of team coaching. Academy of Management Review, 30(2), 269-287.

Hambrick D.C., Mason P.A., 1984. Upper Echelons: The Organization as a Reflection of Its Top Managers *The Academy of Management Review* Vol. 9, No. 2 (Apr.), pp. 193-206

Haslam, S.A., Reicher S.D., Platow M.J. 2011 The New Psychology of Leadership. Identity, Influence, and Power. Psychology Press

Heberlein, T. A., Black, J. S., 1976. *Attitudinal specificity and the prediction of behavior in a field setting.* Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol 33(4), Apr, 474-479

Hempel, P. S. Zhang, Z. Tjosvold, D. 2009. *Conflict management between and within teams for trusting relationships and performance in China* Journal of Organizational Behavior 30 41–65

House, R.J., Hanges P. J., Javidan M., Dorfman P. W., Gupta V. 2004 *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations, The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*, Sage Publications, Inc.

Hurst, D. K. 1995. *Crisis and Renewal: Meeting the Challenge of Organizational Change*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. 2005. *Leadership group coaching in action: The Zen of creating high performance teams*, Academy of Management Executive, 19(1), 61-76.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. 2006. *"The Eight Roles Executives Play."* Organizational Dynamics 36(1), 28-44.

Kilburg, R. R. 2000. *Executive coaching: Developing managerial wisdom in a world of chaos*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Kotter, J.P. 1990. *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York, NY, US: Free Press Langfred, C. W. 2004. *Too much of a good thing? Negative effects of high trust and individual autonomy in self-managing teams* Academy of Management Journal 47 385–399

Lawler, E. E. 1992.The ultimate advantage: Creating the high involvement organization. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Linley, P. A. 2006. Coaching Research: who? what? where? when? why? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring* Vol. 4, No.2, Autumn

Lencioni, P.2012 'The advantage: Why organizational health trumps everything else in business', Jossey-Bass.

Mayer, R. C. Davis, J. H. Schoorman, F. D. 1995. *An integrative model of organizational trust* Academy of Management Review 20 709–734

McAllister, D. J. 1995. *Affect and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations* Academy of Management Journal 38 24–59

Mach M. , Dolan S., Tzafrir S. 2010. *The differential effect of team members' trust on team performance: The mediation role of team cohesion* Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology Volume 83, Issue 3, 771–794

Mayer, R. C. Davis, J. H. 1999. *The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment* Journal of Applied Psychology 84 123–136

McKinsey. 2008. *Creating organizational transformations*. www.mckinseyquarterly.com Accessed September 11th

Mach, M., Dolan S., Tzafrir S., 2010. *The differential effect of team members' trust on team performance: The mediation role of team cohesion* Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology Volume 83, Issue 3, pages 771–794, September

Miller, D., Droge C., Toulouse J. M. 1988. Strategic Process and Content as Mediators between Organizational Context and Structure *The Academy of Management Journal* Vol. 31, No. 3 (Sep.), pp. 544-569

Morgan D. E., Zeffane E. *2003* Employee involvement, organizational change and trust in management *Int. J. of Human Resource Management 14:1 February 55-75*

Robinson, S.L. 1996. *Trust and breach of the psychological contract.* Administrative Science Quarterly, 41: 574-599

Scott, C.L.III 1980. *Interpersonal Trust: A Comparison of Attitudinal and Situational Factors* Human Relations November vol. 33 no. 11 805-812

Scriffignano, R. S. 2011. *Coaching within organisations: Examining the influence of goal orientation on leaders' professional development.* Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, Vol 4(1), Mar,. pp. 20-31.

Smith, J. B. Barclay, W. B. 1997. *The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships* Journal of Marketing 61 3–21

Thach, E. C. 2002. *The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership Effectiveness.* Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23(4), 205-214. doi: 10.1108/01437730210429070

Schein, E. H. 1969. *Process Consultation: Its Role in OrganizationalDevelopment.* Reading. Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Smither, J. W., London, M., Flautt, R., Vargas, Y., & Kucine, I. 2003. *Can working with an executive coach improve multisource feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental study. Personnel Psychology*, 56: 23-44.

Vesso. S. 2009. *The main coaching areas for Estonian leaders towards change management* EISAM Paper for 4th Workshop on Organisational Change and Development: Advances, Challenges and Contradictions, Krakow, September 10-11

Ward, G. 2008. *Towards executive change: A psychodynamic group coaching model for short executive programmes.* International Journal of Evidenced Based Coaching and Mentoring, 6(1), 67-78.

Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard M. A., and Werner J. M., 1998. Managers as Initiators of Trust: An Exchange Relationship Framework for Understanding Managerial Trustworthy Behavior *The Academy of Management Review* Vol. 23, No. 3 (Jul.), pp. 513-530

Annex 4: Paper IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF A COACHING CULTURE IN LEADERSHIP STYLE: THE LEADER'S IMPACT ON CULTURE

Signe Vesso, Ruth Alas

Abstract

This article develops a theoretical framework for coaching-related issues, and two models are described. The first is the "Coaching Culture Characteristics in Leadership Style" model (3C model), which evaluates the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style of organizations. The second model "Leader's Impact on Culture" (LIC model) describes how the impact of leaders, relationship orientation in teams and task/change orientation are interconnected. In order to study the characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership style and the leader's impact on culture, the authors conducted an empirical survey in 2015. Results indicate that most Estonian companies are in phase two of the 3C model. According to the survey results, the most important development areas for Estonian leaders are leader trustworthiness and behavior towards team members.

Introduction

Coaching has been one of the most significant developments in leadership and management practice in the last thirty years (Hawkins, 2012). Evered and Selman (1989) pointed out a paradigm in which 'the process of creating an organizational culture for coaching becomes the core managerial activity', and where coaching is viewed 'not as a subset of the field of management, but rather as the heart of management'. Increasingly, organizations are beginning to embrace a new management culture based on inclusion, involvement and participation, rather than on the traditional command, control and compliance paradigm (Hamlin et al., 2006).

According to research in 2014 by the International Coaching Federation (ICF) in collaboration with the Human Capital Institute (HCI), more and more organizations have recognized the value of building a culture of coaching that offers employees at all levels – not just executives and managers – the opportunity to grow their skills, enhance their value and reach their professional goals (Bawany, 2015). As more and more organizations use coaching as their way to lead people, it is important to study the characteristics of coaching culture in management styles more deeply.

This article provides a theoretical framework for coaching, coaching culture and coaching in management and describes two models: first, the "Coaching Culture Characteristics in Leadership Style" model (3C model) to evaluate the characteristics of the coaching culture in the leadership style of organizations. The model describes four phases for achieving a coaching culture. The second model "Leaders Impact on Culture" (LIC model) describes how the three levels – leader impact, relationship orientation in team and task/change orientation are interconnected.

In order to study the characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership styles and leader impact on culture in Estonian companies, an empirical survey was conducted in 2015 involving 183 respondents.

1. Theoretical framework

1.1. Coaching

In general, coaching is a discipline that is being constantly developed. There are different types of coaching ranging from external professional coaches and several forms coaching used as a development tool inside the organzation. Internal coaching is provided via in-house coaches or when managers use a coaching-based leadership style. Both the external and internal coaching may provide individual coaching, group coaching or team coaching. This article focuses on coaching provided by managers.

It has been stated that coaching is the process of challenging and supporting a person or a team in order to develop ways of thinking, ways of being and ways of learning. The purpose is to achieve personal and/or organizational goals (Berg, 2006).

Emphasizing action, accountability and personal responsibility, coaching support provides leaders with a safe environment for learning how to creatively manage change and conflict, improve communication, strengthen self-confidence, retool skills, and foster multicultural relationships in a positive and constructive way (Bennet et al., 2009).

Wujec (2013) analyzed literature concerning coaching from the last 40 years and identified the components that should be dominant in an intervention for it to be termed coaching. These include: attitude towards developing the potential of the person and the environment they develop in, striving for the achievement of goals, finding solutions, improvement in efficiency, support for the development of coachees that is consistent with the values they believe in, partnership relations between coach and coaches, emphasizing that this is a process of support, being based on the conversation of feedback to coachees, caring for coachees to find solutions by themselves; supporting coachees in overcoming internal limitations and emphasis on short-term interventions.

Coaching can be viewed as a partnership relation based on mutual trust between a properly prepared coach and coachee where, through conversation, the coach asking questions, receiving feedback and helping remove internal barriers, coachees are motivated to determine the goal they aim to achieve and to achieve the goal based on their own values and resources (Randak-Jezierska, 2015).

In conclusion, coaching is described as a process that emphasizes both relationship and task orientation and consists of the process of learning and transformation.

1.2.   Coaching as a new paradigm for management.

Managerial coaching is increasingly used in organizations; coaching is becoming a core skill for managers (CIPD, 2012). Several authors have pointed out the shift from a classical management style towards a management style using the coaching philosophy and approach.

Almost 20 years ago, Bartlett and Ghoshal described the envisioned evolution in organizational design involving a reconfiguration of the managerial role, a shift in the relationship between employee and manager, and extensive use of coaching to provide performance feedback to subordinates. They argue that, in a turbulent economic environment, middle managers have to change their goals and related behaviors to be more focused on coaching support rather than administrative control. They also suggest executive managers have to create a challenging environment, which facilitates the development of individual entrepreneurial initiatives (Bartlett, Ghoshal, 1997). The concept of coaching has emerged as a new paradigm or metaphor for management (Ellinger et al., 2003).

Hunt and Weintraub introduced the term 'coaching manager' which they identify with 'business leaders and managers who help their employees learn and develop through coaching, who create workplaces that make learning, growth and adaptation possible, and who also combine leadership with a genuine interest in helping those with whom they work' (Hunt, Weintraub, 2002). Agarwal et al. (2009) suggested that an effective organizational response to the pressures of an increasingly dynamic and unpredictable environment demands that organizations abandon the classical authority-based hierarchy that dominated relationships between superiors and subordinates for decades. As individual initiative and entrepreneurship arguably become more important for organizational success than a prescriptive, control-oriented mode of operation. A new management paradigm calls for facilitative behaviors that focus on employee empowerment, learning and development, in other words, coaching (Agarwal et al., 2009).

Managers using the coaching style develop some beliefs and behaviors that help them to evaluate and stimulate others to think and act independently, and to encourage them to take responsibility for the effects of work (Randak-Jezierska, 2015).

Coaching relationships require that executives in their roles as coaches surrender some of their control to the other person (employee/coachee) in the relationship. In this case, two different views regarding power inside an organization seem to be important: (a) the organizational hierarchy of leadership, responsibility and power, and (b) the feeling of empowerment or execution of power, which arises when people inside the organization are working and learning together. An optimal coaching process might, therefore, have the potential to empower the coachee, regardless of the organizational hierarchy (Moen et al., 2012).

In conclusion, organizations need to be aware of the concept of coaching, and also the advantages and limitations of managers using coaching inside organizations. Coaching as a tool can help leaders to create and implement change. Coaching consists of several techniques and mind-sets that support participation, consistency and responsibility from the employees. The managers need to develop a coaching philosophy and approach.

1.3. Coaching culture.

Culture can be analyzed at three levels: artefacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions (Schein, 1992). Several theorists have pointed out task-orientation and relationship-orientation of organizational culture: Kilmann and Saxton (1983) and Cooke and Lafferty (1986) focus on people versus task; Goffee and Jones (2001) separate sociability, which is similar to relationship-orientation and solidarity, similar to task-orientation; Harrison (1995) distinguishes between power culture, role culture, achievement culture and support culture. Roots (2002), in his monograph on the typologies of organizational culture, points out that from these four types two – achievement culture and support culture – are more relevant for today than the others. According to these approaches to culture and the coaching process described above, it can be concluded that a coaching culture is a type of culture where a balance exists between support and achievement.

Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a model of organizational culture and effectiveness based on four traits of organizational culture: involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Two of the traits, involvement and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness and responsiveness, and were strong predictors of growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, are indicators of integration, direction and vision, and were better predictors of profitability. They suggest that specific culture traits may be useful predictors of performance and effectiveness.

According to the Denison culture model, the coaching culture predicts growth and profitability, as involvement and adaptability were strong predictors of growth, and consistency and mission were better predictors of profitability, and all these traits are familiar to coaching.

A coaching culture is described in the literature as a paradigm (Hart, 2005), a development model (Bawany, 2015) or a culture with certain characteristics (Jones et al., 2014; Hawkings, 2012; Ketz de Vries, 2008). A coaching culture is a paradigm for organizational cultures in which coaching takes place on a formal and informal basis, and has been ingrained in the fabric of organizational life (Hart, 2005). Hawkings (2012) draws out five different levels of an organizational coaching culture – artefacts, behaviors, mind-sets, emotional ground and motivational roots.

Artefacts: The organization espouses the importance of coaching in its key strategy and mission statements and coaching appears as a key competency and capability for all leaders and managers.

Behaviors: A coaching style of engaging is used in one-to-one, as well as team meetings, as a way of encouraging both problem solving and continuous team and personal development.

Mind-sets: It is important to help people to think through the choices and options; through inquiring together, we can arrive at better responses to new challenges than by thinking alone.

Emotional ground: High levels of personal engagement and responsibility.

Motivational roots: People are both committed to their own development, and the potential of others to learn continuously. People believe collective performance can improve through learning and development (Hawkings, 2012).

A coaching culture is described also as a culture where people are empowered and where coaching happens at every level. And, not only does it happen at every level, but also it adds to bottom line performance. It is recognized as a development tool that touches every part of the employee life cycle (Jones et al., 2014). A coaching culture contributes to a sense of mutual ownership, better networking, more effective leadership practices and higher commitment, creating better results across the organization. Not surprisingly, companies with a successful coaching culture report significantly reduced staff turnover, increased productivity, and greater job satisfaction (Kets de Vries, 2008).

1.4.   Leaders impact.

Leaders develop an organization's culture through their actions in creating the organization. Once the culture evolves, the culture has an increasingly important role in determining the context and the extent of the need for leadership. If the culture becomes dysfunctional, then, leadership has a responsibility to fix the culture. In organizational climates of perpetual change, culture is particularly

difficult to manage. Consequently, the challenge is to create a culture in which learning, innovation, change and adaptation are the norms (Schein, 1992).

It is argued that, to promote a coaching culture within organizations, the managers need to use more of an approach of inquiry and questioning to help their subordinates learn to think for themselves rather than using a telling and directing approach (Mukherjee, 2012). Creating a coaching culture involves transitioning managers away from providing directive solutions and towards empowering others to find their own solutions. This moves the manager-subordinate relationship away from one of paternalism towards one of mutual respect and collaboration (Wood, 2012).

O'Connor et al. (2012) shared their logic model for success, which is related to leader trustworthiness. Leaders must act in a trustworthy way, so that the organization functions optimally; the social architecture must be created to enable two-way communication and organizational conversation, and, lastly, individual behavior and organizational structures such as corporate policies and (customized) rewards must be aligned with those elements of a healthy culture (O'Connor et al., 2012).

Therefore, to create a coaching culture, the manager's main role is to change, firstly, themselves. So, there is a need to describe the coaching-based management style, which will help to clarify the development areas for managers.

1.5.   Coaching culture characteristics in leadership style.

The theoretical model "Coaching culture characteristics in leadership style" (3C model) (Vesso, 2014) describes how the characteristics of a coaching culture are expressed behaviorally in the leadership style of the organization (Figure 1).

The phases of the development of a coaching culture have been dealt with following a multi-stage principle moving from less developed forms and simpler tasks to more developed forms and ambitious tasks. The model describes the behavior of the team leader and the team members moving from the initial phase to the mature phase of the development.
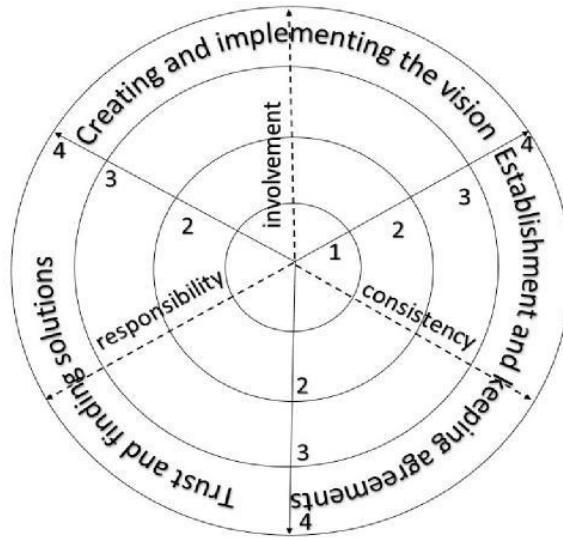
Fig. 1. 3C model "Coaching Culture Characteristics in Leadership Style"

The model is divided into four phases according to the level of maturity of the coaching culture in the organization. Phase 1 describes behaviors where the characteristics of a coaching culture are missing in the leadership style. In phase 2, some characteristics of a coaching culture are present in the leadership style. In phase 3, moderate characteristics of a coaching culture are present throughout the leadership style and, in phase 4, the characteristics of a coaching culture are strong throughout the leadership style.

Each phase of the model is described through 3 aspects:

Trust and finding solutions that describe the existence of trust in finding solutions to everyday problems and sharing responsibilities and decision-making power.

1. Establishing agreements and maintaining them describe relationship orientation in the team – how cooperation agreements are arranged.
2. Creating and implementing a vision describe task and change orientation in the team – how vision is created and implemented.

The model describes the extent to which the practice of involvement, consistency and taking responsibility exists in all three aspects.

In the first phase, the practice of involvement, consistency, responsibility is the weakest and, in the fourth phase, the strongest. When the practice of involvement, consistency, responsibility is weak, it does not support the implementation of a coaching culture, because a coaching culture requires strong involvement, consistency, responsibility.

153

1.6.   Leaders' impact on culture

The leader has the greatest impact on culture. Leadership scholars frequently define leadership in terms of the leaders 'role in bringing about change (Bass et al., 2008). Therefore, the author has studied the leaders' impact on the characteristics of a coaching culture in their leadership style. The theoretical model for the study "Leaders impact on culture" (LIC) (Vesso, 2015) consists of three parts: Leader (L), Team – Relationship Orientation (RO), and Task and Change Orientation in Team (TO) (Figure 2).

Yukl et al. (2002) point out that studies of leadership behavior have previously focused on two categories, task and relationship oriented behaviors, and change-oriented behaviors have been ignored. Their solution is a hierarchical taxonomy with three meta-categories (task, relationship and change oriented behavior). These meta-categories are included in the LIC model. In addition, the model consists of the leader and the team levels, and their interactions.

At the heart of most business literature is the assumption that trust must exist, and information must flow freely in multiple directions for solutions to work consistently (O'Connor et al., 2013). All three parts of the LIC model are divided into two sub-levels. The Leader (L) consists of the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and the leader's behavior (LB). The Team-Relationship Orientation (RO) is divided into the team members' attitude towards each other (ROA) and the team members' behavior towards each other (ROB). Task and Change Orientation in Team (TO) consists of individual and team goals (TOG) and the achievement of goals (TOA) The sub-levels "Leader" and "Team-Relationship Orientation" are developed based on the principle that attitudes impact behavior. The leader's trustworthiness (LT) impacts the leader's behavior (LB), and the team members' attitude towards each other (ROA) impacts the team members' behavior towards each other (ROB). The sub-levels "Task and Change Orientation" are developed according to the principle that individual and team goals (TOG) are essential for the achievement of goals (TOA).
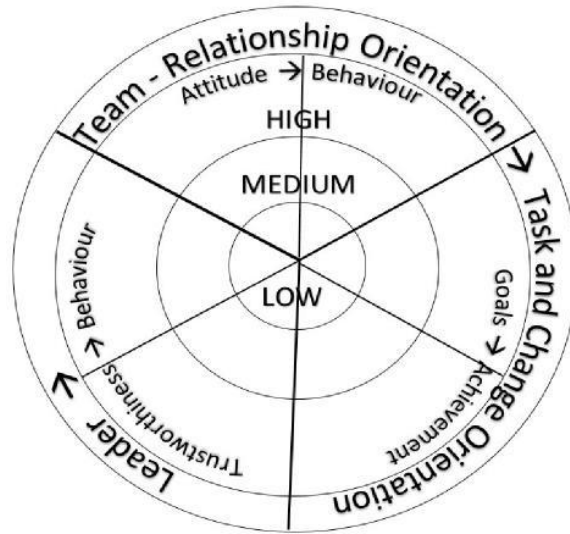
Fig. 2. LIC Model "Leaders' impact on culture"

All parts of the LIC model are interconnected and influence the leaders' ability to manage change. The leader has the most influence on the implementation of organizational change. Two aspects have been highlighted from leadership in this model: the leader's trustworthiness and the leader's behavior. The first aspect explores questions such as: Does the leader create trust? How easy is it to communicate with the leader? Can these people dare to be honest with the leader? Can the leader create the necessary positive energy through his/her behavior for successful change initiation and implementation? The second aspect explores questions such as: Is the leader instructing and coaching team members? Is the leader meeting the top management? Does the leader notice everyday successes? In regard to these two aspects, the leader has the strongest influence through trustworthiness.

The Team-Relationship Orientation describes two aspects. The first is the team members' attitude towards each other and explores questions such as: How well do the team members know each other? Do they have fun together? How open are they to helping each other? The readiness to contribute to achieving common goals depends on these elements. The second aspect is the team members' behavior towards each other and explores questions such as: How much do people encourage and acknowledge each other and give supportive feedback to improve results? These demeanors can help to achieve goals.

The third part of the model is Task and Change Orientation in the team, which has two components. The first is setting individual and team goals, and explores questions such as: Does everyone have clear and measurable personal goals? Does the team have a goal to achieve at the team level? Is the team focused on

finding solutions? Are there team "game rules"? This forms the prerequisite for implementation. The second component is the achievement of goals, and explores such questions as: How well is the team informed about how close they are to achieving their goals? Do they take time to analyse together? Are they doing the right things and are they doing them right? How persistent are they and is success celebrated?

1.7. Interrelations between the LIC model "Leaders Impact on Culture" and the 3C model "Coaching culture characteristics in leadership style".

The LIC and 3C models are interrelated. Both models consist of the 3 parts shown in Figure 3.
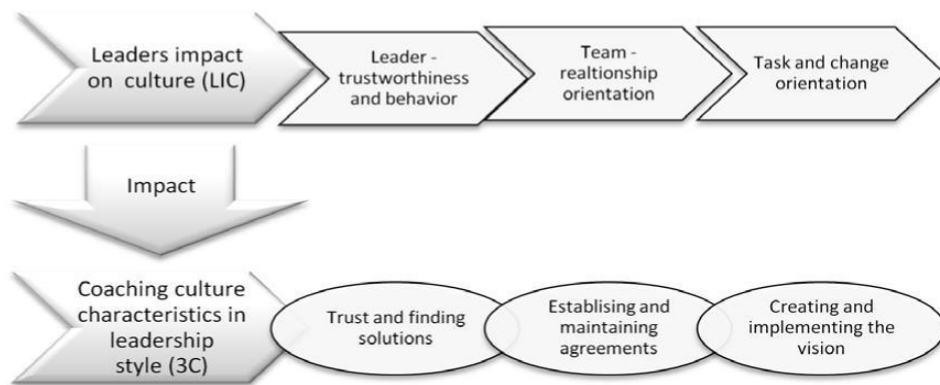
Fig. 3. The interrelations between the 3C and LIC models

First parts of the LIC and 3C models are connected with trust, second parts are connected with relationships agreements on the team and third parts are connected with achievement-task and change orientation.

The LIC model focuses on these issues through the leaders impact – what is the leader's impact on relationship and task or change orientation, and what kinds of interrelations exist.

The 3C model focuses on concrete leader behaviors related to the style of coaching leadership to evaluate the level of the characteristics of the coaching culture.

The first common category "Trust" is presented in the LIC model as part of "Leader – trustworthiness and behavior", and in the 3C model it is part of "Trust and finding solutions". A high level of trustworthiness makes it possible to share responsibilities and move towards a higher level of coaching culture.

The second common category "Relationship orientation" is presented in the LIC model as "Team-relationship orientation", and in the 3C model as "Establishing and maintaining agreements". A strong positive attitude and positive behavior towards each other makes functioning agreements possible, which are an essential condition for moving towards higher levels of coaching culture.

The third common category "Task and change orientation" is presented in the LIC model as "Task and change orientation", and in the 3C model as "Creating and implementing the vision". A strong focus on solutions, ambitiousness, persistence and reflection in the team enables the implementation of a common vision within the coaching culture mind-set.

There are three common categories in both models (Table 1).

Table 1. Common categories in the 3C and LIC models

Common category "Trust"	Part 1	A high level of trustworthiness facilitates sharing responsibilities
LIC	Leader trustworthiness and behavior	
3 C	Trust and finding solutions	
Common category "Relationship orientation"	Part 2	A strong positive attitude and strong behavior towards each other facilitates functioning agreements
LIC	Team-relationship orientation	
3 C	Establishing and maintaining agreements	
Common category "Task and change orientation"	Part 3	A strong focus on solutions, ambition, persistence and reflection in the team facilitates implementing a common vision.
LIC	Task and change orientation	
3 C	Creating and implementing a vision	

2. Empirical study

2.1. Research questions.

The research task for the empirical study was to have an overview of the state of the characteristics of coaching culture in the leadership style of Estonian organizations and to increase our understanding of the team leaders' impact on culture. The author developed six research questions based on the proposed

theoretical models "Coaching Culture

Characteristics in Leadership Style" (3C) and "Leaders impact on culture" (LIC).

Based on the 3C theoretical model three research questions were formulated:

RQ1:   How are the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style manifested in Estonian organizations?

RQ2:   How do team leaders and team members perceive the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style in Estonian organizations?

RQ3:   How are the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style represented in different types of organizations?

Based on the LIC theoretical model, the following three research questions were formulated:

RQ1:   How do respondents in Estonian organizations perceive the impact of leader trustworthiness and behavior, and relationship, task and change orientation based on the LIC model?

RQ2:   What is the difference between the high, medium and low evaluated leaders, according to the LIC model?

RQ3:   Are there interconnections between the characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership styles and the leaders' impact based on the 3C and LIC models?

2.2   Sample and method.

In order to study the characteristics of the coaching culture in the leadership style and the leaders' impact on culture in Estonian companies, the authors conducted an empirical survey in 2015. The total number of respondents was 183: 80 were team leaders and 103 team members from Estonian organizations; 42 participants were representatives of large enterprises, 41 from middle-sized enterprises, 33 were from small businesses and 67 were from state-owned companies.

Two questionnaires were used in empirical survey corresponding to the "Coaching culture characteristics in leadership style" (3C model) (Vesso, 2014) and the "Leaders' impact on culture" (LIC model) (Vesso, 2015).

2.2.1. The first questionnaire was developed using 3 scales based on existing literature and theoretical model "Coaching culture characteristics in leadership style" (3C).

The first scale – "Creating and implementing the vision" – which is characterized by a task and change of orientation was drawn up from 7 statements that describe seven different situations, where, in the first situation, there are no signs of a

coaching culture in the leadership style, in the second, there are very minor signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style, etc., up to the seventh, where there are strong signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style.

The second scale – "Establishing and maintaining agreements" – which is characterized by relationship orientation was drawn up from 6 statements that describe six different situations, where, in the first situation, there are no signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style, in the second, there are very minor signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style, etc., up to the sixth, where there are strong signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style.

The third scale – "Trust and finding solutions" – which characterizes how power, responsibility and trust is distributed in problem-solving was drawn up from 9 statements that describe nine different situations, where, in the first situation, there are no signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style, in the second, there are very minor signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style, etc., up to the ninth, where there are strong signs of a coaching culture in the leadership style.

The statements set out in the scales, in turn, are divided into four phases, according to the strength of the coaching culture in leadership style: Phase 1 (characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are missing), Phase 2 (limited characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are present), Phase 3 (moderate characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are present) and Phase 4 (the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are strong).

In order to find answers to the research questions, groups of respondents were compared using ANOVA and T-tests.

2.2.2. The second questionnaire was developed using 3 scales based on existing literature and the theoretical model "Leaders impact on culture" (LIC).

The first scale Leader (L) was composed of 6 questions – 3 questions about the leader's trustworthiness (LT) and 3 questions about the leader's behavior (LB). The second scale Team-Relationship Orientation (RO) was composed of 6 questions – 3 questions about the team members' attitudes toward each other (ROA) and 3 questions about the team members' behavior toward each other (ROB). The third scale Task and Change Orientation in teams (TO) was composed of 8 questions – 4 questions about setting individual and team goals (TOG) and 4 questions about achieving goals (TOA).

The respondents were asked to evaluate 20 questions on a 10-point Likert scale. The questions were grouped using the SPSS program.

The internal consistency, or Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, is between .848 and .923 for all scales. To compare different groups of respondents, an ANOVA test and a T-test were completed.

To identify what kinds of connections characterize the elements of the LIC model, the whole sample was divided into three equal groups according to how respondents rated Leader's Trustworthiness. The result was three groups: groups with low, medium and high evaluations of leader trustworthiness. The average indicators for the rest of the 5 scales have been calculated for those groups. According to the Anova test, in all five scales the averages were statistically significantly different.

Linear regression analyses and correlation analyses were used to discover the structure of the connections.

3.   Results

Based on the 3C and LIC models, the authors posed six research questions (RQ).

RQ 1. How are the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style manifested in Estonian organizations?

In 2015, 23% of companies are in phase 1, 29% are in phase 2, 28% are in phase 3 and 19% are in phase

4 (Table 2). The characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style were missing or were only present, to some extent, in 52% of companies and were moderate or strong in 47% of companies.

Table 2. Characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style in 2015 (based on the 3C model) – % of firms in each phase

	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
Creating and implementing a vision	32	30	12	24
Establishing and maintaining agreements	14	40	30	15
Trust and finding solutions	22	17	41	18
Total: characteristics of a coaching culture in the management style	23	29	28	19

Table 3. Comparison of the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style perceived by team-leaders and team-members in 2015 based on the 3C model

	Creating and implementing the vision		Establishing and maintaining agreements		Trust and finding solutions	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Team-leaders N=80, 2015	2.45	1.221	2.48	0.875	2.73	0.967

Team-members N=103, 2015	2.08	1.273	2.37	1.013	2.35	1.160
Total N=183, 2015	2.27	1.247	2.43	0.944	2.54	1.063
T -test, p	0,00		0,00		0,00	

RQ 3. How are the characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style represented in different types of organizations?

The large companies (2.39) and medium-sized companies (2.39) presented the highest results after state companies (2.42) (Table 4).

In "Creating and implementing the vision" the large companies' results (2.45) were higher than those from the state companies (2.34). Similarly, the lowest results were in small companies (1.79). In "Establishing and maintaining agreements", the highest results were in small companies (2.68) and the lowest results in large companies (2.19). In "Trust and finding solutions", the highest results were in small companies (2.8) and the lowest in state companies (2.46).

In conclusion, there are no great differences in the characteristics of coaching culture in the leadership style (according to the 3C model) in large, medium-sized and state companies (Table 4). In small companies, the biggest difference is in respect to "Creating and implementing the vision".

Table 4. Characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style in different types of organizations in 2015 based on the 3C model

	Creating and implementing the vision		Establishing and maintaining agreements		Trust and finding solutions		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
State companies 2015, N=67	2.34	1.398	2.45	1.004	2.46	1.034	2.42	1.145
Large companies 2015, N=42	2.45	1.347	2.19	0.862	2.54	1.163	2.39	1.134
Medium-sized companies 2015, N=41	2.22	1.060	2.42	0.948	2.54	1.164	2.39	1.0572
Small companies 2015, N=33	1.79	0.992	2.68	0.944	2.58	1.031	2.35	0.989
2015, Total N=187	2.24	1.260	2.43	0.961	2.52	1.086	2.40	1.100
Anova-test, p	0,00		0,00		0,00			

RQ 4. How do respondents in Estonian organizations perceive the impact of leader trustworthiness and behavior, and relationship, task and change orientation based on the LIC model? According to the T-test, team leaders perceive the elements

of LIC higher than team members in all scales (Table 5). In the Leader scale, the difference in ratings was 1.15. In the Team scale, the difference in ratings was 0.33. In the Task and Change Orientation scale, the difference in ratings was 0.02.

Table 5. The perception of team leaders and team members of elements of LIC (impact of leader trustworthiness and behavior, and relationship, task and change orientation) in Estonian organzations in 2015

	Leader (L)		Team - Relationship Orientation (RO)		Task and Change Orientation in team (TO)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Team-leaders 2015 N=80	7.25	2.0	7.04	1.85	6.56	1.93
Team-members 2015 N=103	6.1	2.67	6.74	2.29	6.54	2.29
T-test, p	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Bold indicates statistically significant differences according to T-test.

According to Table 6, the results for small companies in all scales are higher than other types of companies. At the same time, the results in different types of companies are quite similar: for Leader between 6.43 and 7.22, for Team between 6.65 and 7.24 and for Task and Change orientation between 5.98 and 6.42.

Table 6. The perception of elements of LIC (impact of leader trustworthiness and behavior, and relationship, task and change orientation) in different types of Estonian organizations in 2015

	Leader (L) Mean, SD		Team - Relationship Orientation (RO) Mean, SD		Task and Change Orientation in team (TO) Mean, SD	
Large companies N =42	6.48	2.67	6.65	2.24	6.24	2.46
Middle companies N= 41	6.51	2.44	6.72	2.06	5.98	2.14
Small companies N= 33	7.22	1.77	7.24	1.77	6.42	1.67
State companies N=67	6.43	2.63	6.91	2.01	6.07	2.21
Total N=183	6.67	2.39	6.83	2.16	6.31	2.25
ANOVA test, p	0.000		0.000		0.000	

RQ 5. What is the difference between the high, medium and low evaluated leaders, according to the LIC model?

To find answers to research question the whole sample was divided into three equal groups according to how the respondents rated Leader Trustworthiness. The result was three groups: low, medium and high evaluations of the leader's personality. The average indicators for the rest of the 5 scales have been calculated for those groups. According to the ANOVA test, the averages were statistically significantly different in both surveys for all five scales.

A Linear Regression analysis was also conducted.

According to the results in Table 7, the higher group has high L and also high RO and TO. The higher group is characterized by the following order of LIC elements: L (8.52), RO (8.14) and TO (7.48). The medium group is characterized by the following order of LIC elements: L (6.9), RO (6.9) and TO (6.4).

The lower group is characterized by the fact that L was lower than RO and TO. The lower group is characterized by the following order of LIC elements: R (5.18), TO (4.21) and L (3.78). In the High group, the LIC pattern is L – RO – TO. In the Medium group the LIC pattern is L = RO – TO. In the Low group the LIC pattern is RO – TO – L. In all types of companies, the team-relationship orientation (RO) is evaluated the highest. Only in small companies is RO almost same as leader (L).

The next is team-relationship orientation (RO). The task and change orientation (TO) is the lowest.

Table 7. Comparison of companies according to lower, medium and higher group of LIC characteristics in 2015

Leader's trustwor-thiness		Leader's trustworthi ness (LT)	Leader's behavior (LB)	Leader (L)	Team- members' attitude towards each other (ROA)	Team- members' behavior towards each other (ROB)	Relation ship Orientati on in Team (RO)	Individual and team goals (TOG)	Achieveme nt of goals (TOA)	Task Orientat ion in team (TO)	Total 6 scales
Lower group	Mean	3.83	3.73	3.78	5.68	4.68	5.18	4.53	3.87	4.21	4.39
N=57	SD	1.73	1.76	1.75	1.91	1.78	1.85	1.87	1.72	1.80	1.80
Medium group	Mean	7.46	6.40	6.91	7.14	6.66	6.90	6.43	6.37	6.40	6.74
N=51	SD	0.71	1.74	1.23	1.57	1.55	1.56	1.42	2.18	1.80	1.53
Higher group	Mean	9.27	7.78	8.53	8.43	7.86	8.15	7.51	7.46	7.48	8.05
N=75	SD	0.50	1.50	1.00	1.29	1.47	1.38	1.58	1.72	1.65	1.34
Total	Mean	7.07	6.12	6.60	7.21	6.53	6.87	6.28	6.03	6.15	6.54

Leader's trustwor-thiness		Leader's trustworthi ness (LT)	Leader's behavior (LB)	Leader (L)	Team- members' attitude towards each other (ROA)	Team- members' behavior towards each other (ROB)	Relation ship Orientati on in Team (RO)	Individual and team goals (TOG)	Achieveme nt of goals (TOA)	Task Orientat ion in team (TO)	Total 6 scales
N=336	SD	2.55	2.38	2.47	1.96	2.08	2.02	2.06	2.27	2.17	2.22
ANOVA test, p		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Note: Bold indicates statistically significant differences, according to ANOVA test.

RQ 6. Are there interconnections between the characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership styles and the leaders' impact based on the 3C and LIC models? According to the LIC model, the highest characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are in the High group (Table 8). The lowest characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style are in the Low group.

Table 8. Characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style (based on the 3C model) in high, medium and low groups, according to the LIC model, in 2015

The high, medium and lower groups according to LIC model	Creating and implementing the vision	Trust and finding solutions	Establishing and maintaining agreements	Total: characteristics of a coaching culture in the leadership style
High N = 75	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8
Medium N = 51	2.2	2.7	2.5	2.5
Low N = 57	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8
Total N =183	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.4
ANOVA test, p,	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

All results are statistically significant differences according to the ANOVA test.

Conclusions

As more and more organizations use coaching to lead people, it is important to study the characteristics of a coaching culture in leadership style more deeply.

According to the results of the author's empirical survey in 2015, the largest share of Estonian companies is in phase two of coaching culture, according to the 3C

model. Comparatively speaking, 23% of companies were in phase one, 29% were in phase two, 28% were in phase three and 19% of companies were in phase four in 2015.

The poorest aspect was "Creating and implementing the vision". Team leaders perceive the elements of the 3C model higher than team members. There are no great differences in the characteristics of the coaching culture in large, medium-sized and state companies. In small companies, the aspect "Creating and implementing the vision" was lower than in all other types of companies.

These results correspond to the survey by Zernand (2014) about management ideas in Estonia for 1996 until 2011 when no coaching was mentioned.

The Estonian Management Practices survey (2015) also showed that 7.3% of respondents to the survey have used coaching as a leadership tool.

Team leaders perceived all elements of LIC higher than team members. The highest difference was in evaluations about the leadership: leaders rated leader trustworthiness and behavior higher than employees. Therefore, the leaders and team members see the situation differently and also react differently.

It seems that the representation of LIC elements does not depend so much on company type. The differences are very small in different companies types.

Leader trustworthiness influences the other elements of the LIC model. In the group with lower evaluations of leader trustworthiness, team relationship orientation and task and change orientation were also lower than in groups with high evaluations of leader trustworthiness.

As the high group evaluations (LIC model) were characterized by high leader trustworthiness, it is possible to conclude that leader trustworthiness is a prerequisite for developing a coaching culture.

According to the survey results, the most important coaching areas for Estonian leaders are awareness of the impact the leaders' trustworthiness and behavior on team members. The other important development areas are the goal setting on individual and team level and achievement of these goals.

To conclude, in order to develop a coaching culture in Estonian organizations, the most important development areas for Estonian leaders are the awareness of the impact leader trustworthiness and behavior on team members.

Implications

1. Implications for organizations in relation to implementing a coaching culture in the leadership style.

The main strategy in starting to develop a coaching culture described in the literature is through executive coaching or coaching skill training. For phase 4, this can be a good solution, according to the 3C model (Figure 4) (Vesso, 2014). But, for phases 1 and 2, according to the 3C model, this may not lead to success, because, inside the company, there is a lack of practice with involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms. All, too often, organizations invest time, effort and money in developing the coaching skills of their leaders and managers only to find that, despite initial high levels of enthusiasm, they fail to adopt the taught coaching skills in the workplace and end up slipping back into old command-and-control leadership behavior patterns (Grant et al., 2013). This is because ingrained behaviors are difficult to change (Prochaska, Velicier, Rossi & Goldstein, 1994).

Therefore, the strategy for starting with group coaching or team coaching is much more efficient for developing a coaching culture. First, group coaching or team coaching helps to develop the practice of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms inside the team. Secondly, a parallel learning process is taking place in the organization. The participants learn coaching attitudes and skills through their own experiences. When the characteristics of the coaching culture in a company's leadership style are in phase 1, it is useful to add the learning process designed to help the reflection process. This is because there might be a low level of reflection competence in the team due to the lack of habit. Team learning entails shared cognition in terms of the integration of knowledge, experiences and perspectives, and a social context that nourishes the willingness to engage in these knowledge building practices (Van den Bossche et al., 2006). Team learning refers to a continuous process of reflection and action directed toward obtaining and processing information to detect, understand and adapt to changes in an environment, and to improve the performance of a team (Edmondson, 1999).

The transformation from phase three to phase four, according to the 3C model, is most fluent through team coaching. Executive group coaching can also be a suitable strategy to use. However, Clutterbuck stated that, in recent years, practical experience and interviews with hundreds of HR practitioners have convinced him that the fulcrum for achieving a coaching culture is, in reality, at the level of the team (Clutterbuck, 2013).

To support coaching based activities, leaders need to learn how to create an environment of involvement, consistency, responsibility, collaboration and positive team norms. The authors do not recommend training in coaching skills

for companies in phase one and two, because the skills are rooted in beliefs and attitudes. Beliefs and attitudes are very hard to change, and learning by experimenting is more effective. Therefore, it is important to enable leaders via the positive personal experience of coaching.
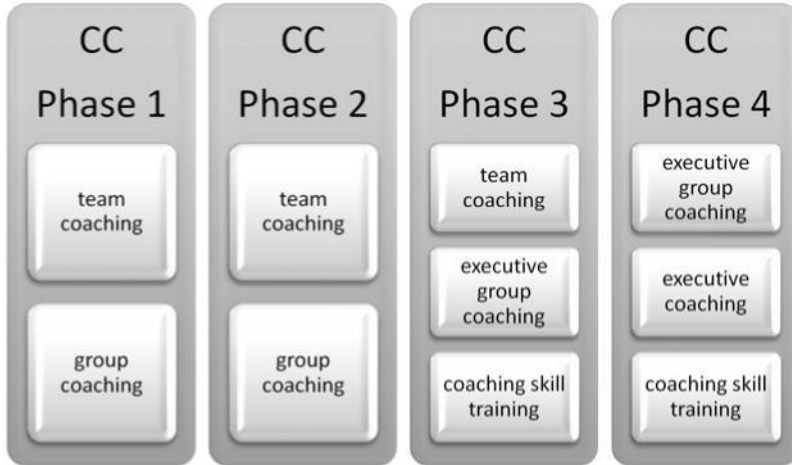

Fig. 4. Implications for organizations regarding developing coaching culture: what kind of outside support to use?

Notes: team coaching – participants are the team-leader and team-members; group coaching – participants are the members of the organization (e.g., group of team-leaders, group of specialists etc.).

2. Implications for team leaders in relation to implementing a coaching culture in the leadership style.

For teams in phase one, according to the 3C model (Vesso, 2014), to start moving towards a coaching culture there are some important initial steps (Figure 5):
1. The team leader and team members need to discuss their common vision about the future and to write it down.
2. The team leader and team members need to set the goals to reach this vision.
3. Even when the team leader has his/her own solutions to problems, he/she must also ask for other opinions at the meeting and take them into account.
4. The team leader and team members need to discuss the norms of the team culture and to make agreements.

For teams in phase two, according to the 3C model, to start moving towards higher phases in a coaching culture there are several important steps:
1. Team members have set challenging individual goals in accordance with the common goal and vision.

2. According to decision-making and problem-solving, the team leader and team start to find out solutions together and decide on the best solution together.
3. The team regularly analyzes the agreed team norms.

For teams in phase three, according to the 3C model, to move to phase four of a coaching culture, the following steps are necessary:
1. Action plans are made to implement challenging individual goals in accordance with the common goal and vision. Follow ups are carried out.
2. Team finds themselves solutions to problems and reports to the team leader or implements solutions and reports afterwards.
3. Team regularly analyzes agreed team-norms, focuses on success and appreciation by giving concrete examples.

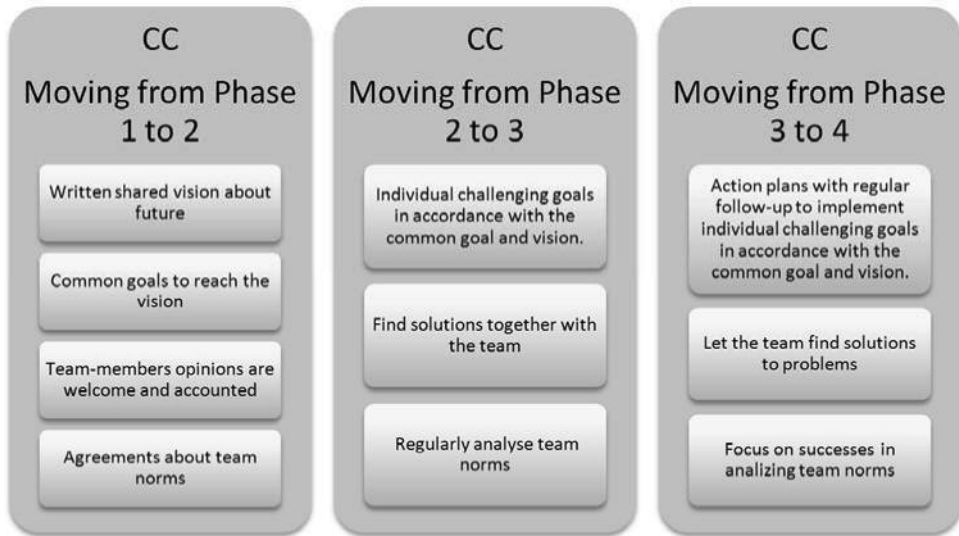| CC Moving from Phase 1 to 2	CC Moving from Phase 2 to 3	CC Moving from Phase 3 to 4
Written shared vision about future	Individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal and vision.	Action plans with regular follow-up to implement individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal and vision.
Common goals to reach the vision	Find solutions together with the team	Let the team find solutions to problems
Team-members opinions are welcome and accounted	Regularly analyse team norms	Focus on successes in analizing team norms
Agreements about team norms		

Fig. 5. Implications for team leaders regarding implementing a coaching culture in the leadership style based on the 3C model

3. Implications for team leaders and HR specialists

Organizations need to ensure feedback for leaders to develop their self-awareness in terms of what is essential for self-leading. To implement the coaching principles, the team needs to have a common vision of the reality and the future. Therefore, dialogue about the common reality is essential. Until trust is established, it is difficult to enter the 'manager as coach' role in the performance management context (Ladyshewsky, 2010). It is worth investing in developing leader trustworthiness. The leader's trustworthiness influences the coaching outcomes. In groups with lower evaluations of leader trustworthiness, the relationship and task orientation of the team were also lower than in groups with high evaluations of leader trustworthiness.

References

Agarwal, R., Angst, C.M. and Magni, M. (2009). The performance effects of coaching: a multilevel analysis using hierarchical linear modelling, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20 (10), pp. 2110-2134.

Bartlett, C.A. and Ghoshal, S. (1997). The Myth of the Generic Managers: New Personal Competencies for New Management Roles, *California Management Review*, 40 (1), pp. 92-116.

Bass, B.M. and Bass, R. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. 4th ed. New York, NY, USA: The Free Press.

Bawany, S. (2015). Creating a Coaching Culture, *Leadership Excellence Essentials*, 32 (2), p. 43.

Bennett, J. and Bush, M. (2009). Coaching in organizations, *OD Practitioner*, 41 (1), pp. 2-7.

Berg, M.E. (2006). *Coaching*. Universitetsforlaget.

Bresser, F. and Wilson, C. (2010). *What is coaching*. Excellence in coaching: The industry guide, 2.

Building a Coaching Culture. (2014). ICF (International Coaching Federation) and HCI (Human Capital Institute), CIPD Learning and Development, Annual Surveys.

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development – CIPD. (2012). *Learning and talent development*. Annual Survey Report. London: CIPD. Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/research/_learning-talent-development. Accessed on 22.07.14.

Clutterbuck, D. (2013). Teaming up for a coaching culture, *Training Journal*, February.

Cooke, R.A. and Lafferty, J.C. (1986). *Organzational Culture Inventory (Form III)*. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergetics.

Denison, D.R. and Mishra, A.K. (1995). Toward a Theory of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness, *Organization Science*, 6 (2), pp. 204-223.

Edmondson, A. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44 (2), pp. 350-383.

Ellinger, A.D., Ellinger, A.E. and Keller, S.B. (2003). Supervisory Coaching Behavior, Employee Satisfaction, and Warehouse Employee Performance: A

Dyadic Perspective in the Distribution Industry, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 14 (4), pp. 435-458.

Evered, E.D. and Selman, J.G. (1989). Coaching and the Art of Management, *Organizational Dynamics*, 18 (2), pp. 16-23.

Goffee, R. and Jones, G. (2001). Organzational Culture: A Sociological Perspective. In Cooper, C.L., Cartwright, S. and Earley, P.C. (Eds.). *The International handbook of Organzational Culture and Climate*. John Wiley & Sons, pp. 3-20.

Grant, A.M. and Hartley, M. (2013). Developing the leader as coach: Insights, strategies and tips for embedding coaching skills in the workplace, *Coaching: an International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 6 (2), pp. 102-115.

Hamlin, R.G., Ellinger, A.D. and Beattie, R.S. (2006). Coaching at the heart of managerial effectiveness: A cross-cultural study of managerial behaviors, *Human Resource Development International*, 9 (3), pp. 305-331.

Harrison, R. (1995). *The Collected Papers of Roger Harrison*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco.

Hart, W. (2005). Getting culture: Imbuing your organization with coaching behavior, *Leadership in Action*, 25 (4), pp. 7-10.

Hawkings, P. (2012). *Creating a Coaching Culture: Developing a Coaching Strategy for Your Organization*. Berkshire, England.

Hunt, J.M. and Weintraub, J.R. (2007). *The coaching organization: a strategy for developing leaders.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Jones, G. and Gorell, R. (2014). *How to create a Coaching Culture*. Kogan, p. 264.

Kets de Vries, M. (2008). *Leadership Coaching and Organizational Transformation: Effectiveness in a World of Paradoxes*. INSEAD Working Paper Series 2008/71/ EFE.

Kilmann, R.H. and Saxton, M.J. (1983). *The Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey*. Pittsburgh: PA Organzational design Consultants.

Ladyshewsky, R.K. (2010). The manager as coach as a driver of organizational development, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 31 (4), pp. 292-306.

Moen, F. and Federici, R.A. (2012). The Effect of External Executive Coaching and Coaching-Based Leadership on Need Satisfaction, *Organization Development Journal*, 30 (3), pp. 63-74.

Mukherjee, S. (2012). Does Coaching Transform Coaches? A Case Study of Internal Coaching, *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 10 (2), pp. 6-87.

O'Connor, D. and Jones, V. (2012). Trust, conversation and creativity: Designing an intentional culture of success, *Journal of Professional Communication*, 2 (2), pp. 33-138.

Prochaska, J.O., Velicier, W.F., Rossi, J.S. and Goldstein, M.G. (1994). Stages of change and decisional balance for 12 problem behaviors, *Health Psychology*, 13 (1), pp. 39-46.

Randak-Jezierska, M. (2015) Coaching in Managerial Work. Proceedings of the *5th International Conference on Management 2015. Management, Leadership and Strategy for SME's Competitiveness. ICM 2015. 18-19th June 2015, Godollo, Hungary*.

Roots, H. (2002). *Organisatsioonikultuuri tüübid*. Tallinn: Sisekaitseakadeemia.

Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. 4 ed. Wiley: Jossey-Bass.

Survey of the Estonian Management Practices in 2015. (2015). Civitta, Estonian Business School.

Van den Bossche, P., Gijselaers, W.H., Segers, M. and Kirschner, P.A. (2006). Social and cognitive factors driving teamwork in collaborative learning environments team learning beliefs and behaviors, *Small Group Research*, 37 (5), pp. 490-521.

Vesso, S. (2014). Coaching Culture Characteristics in Estonian Companies, *Journal of Management and Change*, 32/33 (1/2), pp. 109-131.

Vesso, S. (2015). Strengthening leader's impact and ability to manage change through group coaching. In F.P. Dievernich, K.O. Tokarski, J. Gong (Eds.). *Change management and the human factor: Advances, challenges and contradictions in organizational development*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing, pp. 91-107

Wood, P. (2011). Creating a coaching culture, *Human Resources Magazine*, 16 (5), pp. 20-21.

Wujec, B. (2013). Origins and definitions of coaching, *Coaching Review*, 1 (4), pp. 4-28.

Yukl, G., Gordon, A. and Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: Integrating a half century of behavior research Journal, *Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 9 (1), pp. 15-32.

Zernand-Vilson, M. (2014). *Adoption and implementation of new management ideas in Estonian business organzations*. Doctoral Thesis in Management, Estonian Business School, No.19, Tallinn.

7.5   ANNEX 5: QUESTIONNAIRE 4C

1. Creating and implementing vision

Please choose from the following statements one option that best describes the practice of your team.

		Please tick appropriate box
1	Leader does not have a vision	
2	Leader has a vision	
3	Leader has tried to "sell" the vision to the team	
4	The team has discussed together and written down the common vision	
5	The team has discussed together and written down the common vision and has set the goals	
6	The team has discussed together and written down the common vision and has set the goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal	
7	The team has discussed together and written down the common vision and has set the goals and all team members have set individual challenging goals in accordance with the common goal. Action plans are made. Follow ups are carried out	
8	Other options	

2. Trust and finding solutions

Please choose from the following statements one option that best describes the practice of your team.

		Please mark the answer
1	No problems are talked about. Problems persist.	
2	The problems are talked about but no action follows.	
3	Leader has his/her own solutions and asks team members to implement.	
4	Leader has his/her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting, but finally makes his/her own decisions.	

5	Leader has his/her own solutions and he/she asks other opinions at the meeting and takes them into account.	
6	Leader asks team members to find out solutions and after that decides which of them to carry out.	
7	Leader and team start to find out solutions together and decide about the best solution together	
8	Team finds themselves solutions to the problems and reports to the leader	
9	Team finds themselves solutions to the problems, implements and reports afterwards	
10	Other options	

3. Establishment and keeping agreements

Please choose from the following statements one option that best describes the practice of your team.

		Please mark the answer
1	No agreements made between team members. Everyone acts on his own	
2	Leader has spoken about team norms	
3	Team has discussed the team norms and agreements	
4	Agreements are made between team members. In the beginning we are trying to be fulfilled but later the process is stopped	
5	Team has discussed the team norms. Agreements are made between team members. Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focus on drawbacks	
6	Team has discussed the team norms. Agreements are made. Team regularly analyses agreed norms, focuses on success and appreciation by giving concrete examples	
7	Other options	

ANNEX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE LIC

To what extent are the following statements applicable in your team?

Please select the number that best describes the situation in your team (1 meaning it is not applicable all, and 10 that it is fully applicable).

1. Everyone has clear and measurable personal goal(s).
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
2. The team has a challenging common goal.
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
3. We are helping each other
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
4. We give each other supportive feedback and say, what is good and what to do differently to improve performance
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
5. Colleagues notice and acknowledge other successes, learning from each other positive experiences.
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
6. The leader guides team members
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
7. We have fun together, both at work and outside
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
8. At the beginning of meetings, talking about successes, what team members have doing well
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
9. Team manager notice and acknowledges the daily successes, help people to rejoice themselves.
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
10. We have good and trusted relations with team leader.
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10
11. The team members know each other well.
    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

12. We have agreed about the «rules of the game».

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

13. The team leader has a good mood most of the time, thereby creating a free and suave atmosphere.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

14. It is possible to be myself together with team leader, do not have to hide our real thoughts

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

15. All team members are informed about how close they are to the goals.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

16. We are consistent in implementation.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

17. Our team focus on possible solutions, not obstacles.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

18. We take time to analyse the situation together: are we are doing the right things and are we doing them right.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

19. We encourage each other to achieve the goal.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

20. We celebrate the experience of success on a regular basis.

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN – KOKKUVÕTE

Uurijad on toonud välja seoses keskkonnas toimuvate muudatustega vajaduse organisatsioonidel üle minna käsu-kontrolli paradigmalt paradigmale, kus fookuses on töötajate initsiatiiv ja kaasatus. Mitmed autorid soovitavad selleks kasutada coachingul baseeruvat lähenemist. Uuringud on toonud välja seose, et organisatsiooni tulemusi mõjutab organisatsiooni kultuur, kultuuri saab aga omakorda mõjutada juhtimisstiili kaudu ning juhtimisstiil oleneb juhi omadustest. Antud töö lähenebki teemale komplekselt, käsitledes nii coachingul baseeruva organisatsioonikultuuri tunnuseid, coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili tunnuseid ning juhi mõju organisatsiooni tulemuslikkusele.

Käesoleva doktoritöö **uuringu objekt on coachingukultuur Eesti organisatsioonides**. **Uurimisprobleem**ina on sõnastatud: **Kuidas suurendada juhtide mõju coachingukultuuri kujunemisele organisatsioonis** (Eesti organisatsioonide näitel)?

Doktoritöö püüab täita järgmiseid lünki: (1) Puudub teoreetiline raamistik, mis ühendaks coachingul baseeruva organisatsioonikultuuri, coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili ning juhi mõju organisatsiooni tulemuslikkusele. (2) Puudub ülevaade, kuivõrd on Eesti organisatsioonides levinud coachingukultuur ja coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil.

Töö filosoofiliseks aluseks on sotsiaalne konstruktivism, mis näeb organisatsioonikultuuri mitmemõõtmelise sotsiaalselt konstrueeritud kontseptina.

Doktoritöö raames püstitati järgmised **uurimisküsimused**:

1) Kuidas kirjeldada ja hinnata coachingul põhinevat organisatsioonikultuuri?
2) Kuidas kirjeldada ja hinnata coachingul põhinevat juhtimisstiili?
3) Kuidas Eesti organisatsioonides tajutakse coachingu kultuuri ?
4) Kuidas Eesti organisatsioonides tajutakse coachingul baseeruvat juhtimisstiili?
5) Kuidas on seotud coachingu kultuuri tunnused ja coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil?
6) Mis iseloomustab coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiiliga juhtide profiile?
7) Kuidas mõjutab grupi coaching osalejate coachingul baseeruvat juhtimisstiili?

Uuringu **teoreetilises raamistikus** esitatakse ülevaade organisatsioonikultuuri, juhtimisstiili, juhi mõju ja usaldusväärsust käsitavatest uuringutest. Organisatsioonikultuuri puhul on fookuses ülesandele ja suhetele orienteeritud lähenemine. Organisatsioonikultuuril eristatakse nelja tunnust, mis ennustavad organisatsiooni tulemuslikkust – kaasamine, järjekindlus, kohanemisvõime ja missioon. Suurimat

mõju töötajate tulemustele avaldab riskide võtmine. Organisatsioonikultuurid arenevad koos töötavate inimeste omavahelises suhtlemises ja jagatud eesmärkide kaudu ning seetõttu on juhtide soovitud väärtustel vähene mõju.

Juhtimise uurijad on peamiselt kirjeldanud ülesandele ja suhtele orienteeritud juhi käitumist ning ignoreerinud muutustele suunatud käitumist. Käitumine on aga konkreetsele situatsioonile antava tähenduse funktsioon. Juhtimisstiilid peegelduvad käitumises ja suhtumistes. Juhtimine on pigem juhi ja töötajate kui grupi liikmete vastastikune mõju. Seejuures on edu seotud juhi usaldusväärsusega. Juht mõjutab organisatsioonikultuuri ja on samas ise mõjutatud kultuuri poolt.

Kasutades kontseptuaalset modelleerimist ja tuginedes varasematele uuringutele pakkus autor välja coachingu protsessi, coachingukultuuri ja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili kooskõlalised definitsioonid ning organisatsioonikultuuri, coachingul baseeruvat juhtimisstiili ning juhi mõju ühendavad kontseptuaalsel mudelid. Koos autori välja töötatud coachingukultuuri hindamise küsimustiku (4C mudel) ja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili hindamise küsimustikuga (LIC mudel) vastas autor uurimisküsimustele 1 ja 2.

Uurimisküsimustele 3-7 vastuste leidmiseks viis autor läbi **viis kvantitatiivset empiirilist uuringut**. Esimese empiirilise uuringu viis autor läbi 2007. aastal uurides coachingu kultuuri Eesti organisatsioonides. Osalejad erinevat tüüpi organisatsioonidest vastasid küsimustikule 4C. Teine empiiriline uuring viidi samuti läbi 2007. aastal, et uurida coachingul baseeruvat juhtimisstiili ja juhi mõju Eesti organisatsioonides. Osalejad vastasid küsimustikule LIC. Kolmas (2009.a.) ja neljas uuring (2010.a) viidi läbi Eesti suurimas telekommunikatsiooni ettevõttes eesmärgiga uurida ühe suure ettevõtte näitel grupicoachingu mõju meeskonnajuhtidele. Mõlemas uuringus osalesid meeskonnajuhid, meeskonnajuhtide juhid ja meeskonnajuhtide alluvad. 2015. aastal läbi viidud viies empiiriline uuring oli esimese ja teise uuringu võrdlusuuring, milles osalejad vastasid küsimustikele 4C ja LIC.

Uuring annab raamistiku coachingukultuuri arendamiseks organisatsioonis, tuues välja seosed coachingukultuuri, coachiva juhtimisstiili ja juhi usaldusväärsuse mõju vahel. **Doktoritöö teoreetiliseks panuseks on** coachingu protsessi, coachingukultuuri ja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili kirjelduste süstematiseerimine ja kontseptuaalsete mudelite väljatöötamine:

1. Pakuti välja definitsioonid coachingu protsessi, coachingukultuuri ja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili jaoks. Koostati teoreetilise kirjanduse põhjal mudelid „Coachingu protsess: Sisendid - Coachingu sessioonid - Väljundid", „Coachingukultuur läbi normatiivse, käitumusliku ja arengulise lähenemise" ning „Coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil".

2. Töös arendati välja kontseptuaalne mudel "Coachingukultuuri arendamine läbi coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili", mis ühendab coachingul baseeruva

organisatsioonikultuuri, coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili ning juhi mõju. Mudel "Coachingukultuuri neli faasi" kirjeldab kuidas läbi nelja faasi avalduvad missioon ja kaasamine, mõistmine ja järjekindlus, usutavus ja vastusevõtmine. Mudeli faasid kirjeldavad coachingukultuuri läbi kolme komponendi: Usaldus, Meeskond ja Visioon. Mudel "Coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil" (LIC) kirjeldab juhtimisstiili komplekse protsessina, kus on arvesse ka juhi usaldusväärsuse ja meeskonna mõõde. Mudel koosneb kolmest komponendist: Juht (L), Suhetele orienteeritus meeskonnas (RO) ning Ülesandele ja muutusele orienteeritus meeskonnas (LO).

3. Töötati välja instrumendid coachingukultuuri ja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili hindamiseks.

Eesti organisatsioonides pole coachingul baseeruvat juhtimisstiili uuritud ning ka varasemad uuringud pole toonud välja coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili esinemist. **Doktoritöö võimaldab täita seda lünka ja annab ülevaate kuivõrd on Eesti organisatsioonides levinud coachingukultuur ja coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil**.

1. Coachingukultuuri tunnused on sarnaselt esindatud nii 2007. kui 2015. aastal. Enamus organisatsioone asuvad coachingukultuuri teises faasis. "Visioon" oli madalamalt hinnatud kui tesed komponendid nii 2007. kui 2015.aastal. Juhid tajusid coachingu kultuuri tunnuseid kõrgematena kui meeskonnaliikmed ja see ei sõltunud organisatsiooni tüübist.

2. Sõltumata organisatsiooni tüübist hindavad juhid coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili tunnuseid kõrgemaks kui meeskonnaliikmed. Juhi usaldusväärsus mõjutab teisi coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili tunnuseid.

3. Coachingul baseeruva juhtimisstiili tunnuste analüüsimisel selgusid erinevused kõrgeid, keskmisi ja madalaid hinnanguid saanud juhtide profiilides. Kõrgeid hinnanguid saanud juhtide profiili iseloomustas järgmine seos: komponent L oli kõrgeima hinnanguga, seejärel (peaaegu võrdse hinnanguga) RO ja madalaim oli TO. Keskmisi hinnanguid saanud juhtide profiili iseloomustas järgmine seos: komponent RO oli kõrgeima hinnanguga, seejärel L ja madalaim oli TO. Madalaid hinnanguid saanud juhtide profiili iseloomustas see, et komponent RO oli kõrgeima hinnanguga, seejärel TO ja madalaim oli L.

4. Uuring näitas, et coachingukultuuri tunnused ja coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil on seotud.

5. Doktoritöös hinnati grupicoachingu mõju, mida on vähem uuritud kui individuaalse coachingu mõju. Eestis selle teemalisi uuringuid pole varem tehtud. Osalemine grupi coachingus mõjutas juhtidele antavaid

hinnanguid nende coachingul baseeruvale juhtimisstiilile positiivselt. Peale grupicoachingut muutusid meeskonnajuhtide ja nende alluvate hinnangud sarnasemaks. Kõige enam mõjutas grupicoaching juhi usaldusväärsust.

Töös pakuti välja soovitused organisatsioonidele, meeskonnajuhtidele ja personaliga seotud spetsialistidele. Soovitused organisatsioonidele baseeruvad "Coachingu-kultuuri nelja faasi" mudelil ning keskenduvad sellele, kuidas liikuda madalamalt coachingu kultuuri faasilt kõrgema faasi suunas. Soovitused meeskonnajuhtidele lähtuvad samuti "Coachingu kultuuri nelja faasi" mudelist. Soovitused meeskonnajuhtidele ja personaliga seotud spetsialistidele baseeruvad "Coachingul baseeruv juhtimisstiil ja juhi mõju" mudelil ning rõhutavad juhi eneseteadlikkuse ja usaldusväärsuse olulisust seos tema võimega mõjutada meeskonda.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal information

First name(s) / Surname(s)   Signe Vesso
Address(es)   4 A, Külmallika, 12616 Tallinn, Estonia
Telephone(s)   mobile phone +3725066227
E-mail   signe@dictum.ee
Nationality   Estonian
Date of birth   07.08.1971

Education

2008 – ….   Estonian Business School (EBS);
                   Doctoral programme in Management
1990 – 1994   University of Tartu, MA in Economics, Marketing and Trade

Professional training

2003 – 2006   Institute der Rote Faden für Supervision, (Germany),
                   Certified supervisor, coach, organisational consultant
1998 – 1999   Erickson Institute of NLP, (Canada)
                   certified neuro – lingvistic programming practitioner
1997 – 2008   GIS International, (Denmark)
                   Certified gestalt psychotherapist
1994 – to date   Continious trainings and conferences in coaching,
                   supervision, organisational development and leadership

Employment

1994 – to date   Board member, trainer, coach,
                   Dictum Koolitus OÜ
1994 – 1994   Project manager at personnel
                   department, Tarkon AS
1993 – 1994   Personnel inspector, Tarkon AS
1992 – 1995   Bookkeeper, Pinker Albert
                   Valvebüroo OÜ

Other professional activities

2016 – to date   Member of advisory council,
                   Estonian Association for Supervisors and Coaches
2011 – 2014   Chairperson of the board,
                   International Coaching and Supervision Institute (ISCI)

2008 – 2012	Editor in chief, Handbook of Training and Development, Äripäev AS
2012 – to date	Member of the editorial board, Handbook of training and development, Äripäev AS
2008 – 2016	President, Estonian Association for Supervisors and Coaches

Developing Coaching Culture Through Coaching-Based Leadership Style

The research problem tackled in this dissertation is: how to increase a leader's impact in developing a coaching culture in the organisation. The problem is addressed in the context of Estonian organisations. The coaching-based organisational culture, coaching-based leadership style and the impact of a leader on organisational culture are combined into a conceptual model for developing coaching culture through coaching-based leadership. The model is used for analysing the results of empirical studies of coaching culture, coaching-based leadership style, impact of leaders' trustworthiness and group coaching in Estonian organisations. Recommendations for enhancing leader's impact in developing a coaching culture in the organisation are provided.

European Union
European Social Fund

Investing in your future