

https://dspace.org/

The impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in a South African telecommunications company

Molekwa, Solomon Molefi

2023
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/39861

Molekwa, Solomon Molefi. (2023). The impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in a South African telecommunications company [Master's dissertation, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg]. WireDSpace. https://hdl.handle.net/10539/39861

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

The impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in a South African telecommunications company

Solomon Molefi Molekwa

Supervisor: Dr Jabulile Msimango-Galawe

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Business and Executive Coaching

Wits Business School

Johannesburg, 2023

ABSTRACT

The objective of the study was to evaluate the impact of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership practice on the performance of corporate graduate interns.

The study employed a post-positivist paradigm and a quantitative approach. Through an online Qualtrics questionnaire, data was gathered from a sample size of 200 corporate graduate interns. Data analysis method that was adopted was regression analysis to test hypotheses. The results demonstrated a significant positive impact between self-leadership skills practice and performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The hypothesis that the perceived quality of a manager-employee coaching relationship impacts positively on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns was not supported.

The key message from this study is that the self-leadership coaching is critical for the development and growth of corporate graduate interns. Leadership that practices coaching is vital for supporting employees to develop and practice self-leadership skills, which impact positively on their development of desired job-related performance behaviours.

KEYWORDS: Self-leadership, Self-leadership strategies, Self-efficacy, Shared leadership, Coaching partnership[p, Developmental coaching, Managerial coaching, Employee development, Performance management, Performance behaviours, Performance behaviours, Graduate interns, and Internships.

DECLARATION

I, Solomon Molefi Molekwa, hereby confirm that except as noted in the references and acknowledgments, this research report is entirely mine. It is presented as part of the requirement for the University of the Witwatersrand's Master of Management degree in Business Executive Coaching. It has not been submitted before to this university or any other for a degree or examination.

Signature: ----------Name: Solomon M Molekwa

Signed at ----------on the ---------- day of

February 2023.

DEDICATION

This study is intended to help struggling corporate graduate interns find their footing in companies as they go through organisational training in improving their performance behaviours, and to assist organisational managers who dedicate time to apply employee coaching relationships to grow their underreports' performance behaviours. It is further dedicated to those corporate graduate interns who consciously adopted personal leadership methods to increase their confidence, self-control, and self-management of their performance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude to Dr. Msimango-Galawe, my study supervisor, who helped me with my research. Although it has been a difficult journey, it has been full of insights and lessons that one cannot buy.

I am appreciative of the help I received from my research and study peers, who exchanged learning swords with me and provided unwavering encouragement through messages and regular meetings. The difficulties of this research were made simpler by your inspiration, initiatives, contribution, and teamwork. It has been a thrilling experience that has allowed us to build professional networks that will support us long after our studies are complete.

I am thankful and truly honoured to have had the opportunity to walk alongside the graduate interns who shared with me their experience with coaching and insights into research. Their dedication and participation in the study gave me confidence that this study could be completed.

MTN deserves credit for giving me the time and the freedom to conduct this research on its premises. This research would not have been completed if management had not accepted my study and permitted participation from the graduate interns.

An extra special thank you to my late wife, maKhanyile Lethiwe Innocentia Molekwa, whose spirit is like the wind beneath my wings. My sincerest gratitude to my current wife Kitiana Shela Molekwa, and our lovely children together with their partners; Palesa and Kgotso, Orethabbetse and Nkosha, Kakaretso, Batshego, and Esazante and grandchild Pelonolo for their continued support, inspiration, and encouragement to pursue my studies to transform, rebuild, and rediscover myself.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT……..…..**II**

KEY WORDS…… **II**

DECLARATION…… ……... **III**

DEDICATION……..... **IV**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS…….....**V**

LIST OF TABLES…… **X**

LIST OF FIGURES……..... **XII**

LIST OF ACRONYMS…… **XIII**

VARIABLE AND CONSTRUCT CODINGS…… **XIV**

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY……..……**1**

1.1. Introduction.....1
1.2. Purpose of the study.....2
1.3. Context of the study.....2
1.4. Research problem 5
1.5. Research objectives 6
1.6. Research questions.....7
1.7. Significance of the study.....7
1.8. Delimitations of the study.....9
1.9. Definitions of terms.....10

1.9.1. Developmental coaching…….10

1.9.2. Graduate interns and internships……..10

1.9.3. Manager as coach……...11

1.94. Manager-employee coaching relationship ……12

1.9.5. Self-leadership……..13

1.9.6. Skill, performance, and performance behaviours……14

1.9.7. Performance assessment and management……14

1.10. Assumptions 15
1.11. A research report outline 15
1.12. Conclusion of Chapter 1. 17

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW……..18

2.1. Introduction.....18
2.2. Background discussion.....18
2.3. Theoretical foundation 20

2.3.1. Organisational support theory……20

2.3.2. Managerial and leadership coaching…….23

2.3.3. Social cognitive theory……28

2.4. Employee / corporate graduate intern performance 30

2.4.1. Contextual performance……..31

2.4.2. Task performance, measurement, and behaviours……32

2.5. Manager-employee coaching relationship and hypothesis 32

2.5.1. Nature of employee coaching relationship……...32

2.5.2. Hypothesis 1……33

2.6. Self-leadership skills and hypothesis……...34

2.6.1. Behaviour-orientated strategies……35

2.6.2. Natural reward strategies……..37

2.6.3. Constructive thought-pattern strategies……..37

2.6.4. Hypothesis 2……..39

2.6.5. Main strategies of self-leadership……..39

2.7. Conceptual framework.....41
2.8. Summary of literature review.....42

2.8.1. Hypothesis 1……..42

2.8.2. Hypothesis 2……..43

2.9. Conclusion of Chapter 2.....43

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY……..44

3.1. Introduction.....44
3.2. Research approach.....45
3.3. Research paradigm.....46
3.4. Research design.....48
3.5. Sampling and population.....49

3.5.1. Population……49

3.5.2. Sample and sampling method……..50

3.6. The research instrument.....51
3.7. Procedure for data collection.....56
3.8. Data analysis and interpretation.....57
3.9. Limitations of the study.....58
3.10. Validity.....59

3.10.1. External validity (Generalizability)……60

3.10.2. Internal validity……...60

3.10.3. Face validity……...61

3.10.4. Objectivity……...61

3.11. Reliability.....62
3.12. Ethical considerations.....64
3.13. Conclusion of Chapter 3.....65

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS……67

4.1. Introduction.....67
4.2. Data screening and quality 67
4.3. Sample characteristics.....68

4.3.1. Gender distribution……68

4.3.2 Age distribution……..69

4.3.3. Marital status……70

4.3.5. Educational level……..72

4.4. Descriptive statistics 73

4.4.1. Performance behaviours……..73

4.4.2. Manager-employee coaching relationship……74

4.6. Reliability of measurement scale results.....82

4.6.1. Performance behaviour (SGS)……84

4.6.2. Manager-employee coaching relationship……85

4.6.3. Self-leadership……..87

4.7. Assumptions testing.....94

4.7.1. Assumption 1: Linearity and homoscedasticity Test……...94

4.7.2. Test for normality of error terms……97

4.7.3. Assumption 3: Independence of Error Terms……..98

4.8. Hypothesis testing 99
4.9. Conclusion of Chapter 4 103

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS……..105

5.1. Introduction.....105
5.2. Demographic profile of respondents.....105
5.3. Manager – employee coaching relationship and performance 106
5.4. Self-leadership and performance behaviours. 109
5.5. Conclusion of Chapter 5 112

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS…… 113

6.1. Introduction.....113

6.2. Conclusions – Impact of manager-employee coaching relationship on performance behaviours 113

6.3. Conclusions – Influence of self-leadership on performance behaviours…….114

6.4. Recommendations, Practical and Theoretical Implications……...115

6.4.1. Implications for coaching practice……...115

6.4.2. Implications for corporate graduate interns……...116

6.4.3. Implications for graduate intern recruitment industry……...117

6.4.4. Theoretical implications……...117

6.5. Study's contribution to coaching, psychological and organisations..118

6.6. Limitations of the study.....120

6.7. Research suggestions for the future.....121

REFERENCES…….123

APPENDICES……..150

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Research instrument summarised…….55

Table 4.1 Performance behaviours descriptive statistics ……73

Table 4.2. Manager-employee coaching relationship statistics ……..74

Table 4.3 Self-leadership skills practice statistics……..……....76

Table 4.4 KMO and Bartlett's Test……..77

Table 4.5 Communalities…… ……...78

Table 4.6 Total variance explained ……...79

Table 4.7 Pattern matrix…… ……81

Table 4.8 Reliability scales ……..…….……83

Table 4.9 Inter-Item Statistics -Self-goal setting……...84

Table 4.10 Inter-Item correlation matrix – SGS……...84

Table 4.11 Item-Total Statistics – Genuineness of relationship……...85

Table 4.12 Inter-Item correlation matrix -GRL…….85

Table 4.13 Item-Total Statistics – Effective communication……..86

Table 4.14 Inter-Item correlation matrix – EFC……...86

Table 4.15 Item-Total Statistics – Comfort in the relationship……..87

Table 4.16 Inter-Item correlation matrix – CRL……...87

Table 4.17 Item-Total Statistics – Self-reward…….88

Table 4.18 Inter-Item correlation matrix – SRW……..88

Table 4.19 Item-Total Statistics – Self-observation……89

Table 4.20 Inter-Item correlation – SOB……...89

Table 4.21 Item-Total Statistics – Self-cuing……...90

Table 4.22 Inter-Item correlation matrix – SLC……..90

Table 4.23 Item-Total Statistics – Self-punishment……91

Table 4.24 Inter-Item correlation matrix – SPN……...91

Table 4.25 Item-Total Statistics – Visualising successful performance……..92

Table 4.26 Inter-Item correlation matrix – VSP……...92

Table 4.27 Item-Total Statistics – Self-talk……..92

Table 4.28 Inter-Item correlation matrix – SLT……93

Table 4.29 Item-Total Statistics – Evaluating beliefs and assumptions……..93

Table 4.30 Inter-Item correlation matrix – EBA……...94

Table 4.31 Pearson's correlation Matrix – Linearity ……..……...95

Table 4.32 Test of homogeneity of variance……...97

Table 4.33 Model 1 Durbin-Watson – Independence of Errors...…….99

Table 4.34 Model summary – performance behaviours…….....100

Table 4.35 ANOVA results – performance behaviours…….....100

Table 4.36 Coefficients results – performance behaviours…….....101

Table 4.37 Comparison of literature review findings ……..103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Manager-employee - performance relationship……..42

Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents……...68

Figure 4.2: Age of respondents…….69

Figure 4.3. Marital status of respondents……70

Figure 4.4: Race of respondents…… ….71

Figure 4.5: Educational level of respondents……..72

Figure 4.6. Scree plot……..80

Figure 4.7: Homoscedasticity……96

Figure 4.8: Histograms, Q-Q Plots, and Scatterplot……...98

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CFI	- Comparative Fit Index
CoP	- Community of Practice
CRL	- Comfort with the Relationship
EBA	- Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions.
EFC	- Effective Communication
FDV	- Facilitating Development
FNR	- Focusing on Rewards
GRL	- Genuineness of the Relationship
IFI	- Incremental Fit Index
OST	- Organisational Support Theory
POS	- Perceived Organisational Support
PQECR	- Perceived Quality of Employee Coaching Relationship
RSMEA	- Root Mean Square Error Approximation
RSLQ	- Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire
SEM	- Structural Equation Modelling
SGS	- Self-goal Setting
SLC	- Self-cueing
SLT	- Self-talk
SOB	- Self-observation
SPN	- Self-punishment
SRW	- Self-reward
VSP	- Visualising Successful Performance

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the research that assessed the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills on corporate graduate interns' performance behaviours in a South African telecommunications company. The study claims that organisations can improve the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns by implementing coaching approaches of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership. The purpose was to generate knowledge and contribute to the implementation of coaching approaches of manager-employee relationship and self-leadership in empowering corporate graduate interns, according to the study's goal.

The context below explains how the research gap was discovered, focusing on the challenges faced by corporate graduate interns and how their deficient performance behaviours affect their eligibility for permanent positions at the end of their internship. The need for this study is explained in the problem statement section, along with its implications for South African businesses. The study's goals explain why it was being done, and the objectives explain why it was different from others in terms of how it addresses the identified problems. The study's research questions defined the study's scope and were used to gather information that was important and relevant to the study. The study's significance explains the importance of research and how it would help to solve the problems that corporate graduate interns face. The research delimitations establish behaviours for the scope, design, and management of the research process.

The definition and conceptualisation section explains and defines the key terms and concepts used throughout the study. The study's assumptions were statements that were assumed true for specific purposes, such as theory building or deciding what statistical technique to use to generate study results. The

research dissertation establishes the study format, making it easier for researchers to locate information.

1.2. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the impact of self-leadership abilities and the manager-employee coaching relationship on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in a South African telecommunications company.

1.3. Context of the study

The 2019 Statistics South Africa Report showed a 31% unemployment rate among graduates up to the age of 24, and the 2019 Quarterly Labour Task Survey revealed that the overall graduate unemployment rate for graduates was about 2.1%. According to the Statistic South Africa Report of June 2020, unemployment was about 30.1%, suggesting a cumulative increase in unemployment. Du Toit, De Witte, Rothmann, and Van den Broeck (2018) note that unemployment is a significant socio-political problem in South Africa, which has the highest unemployment in the world. An important activity that allows interns to prepare for future jobs is internships for potential employees (Kasli & Ilban, 2013).

The impact of skills shortage is very worrying for public and private institutions. The attempt to close skills shortages with employment and competitive factors of the current times is to set up graduate internship programmes to enhance skill development, knowledge, and experience. The introduction of graduate internship programmes as a component of skills development initiatives has increased significantly (Mabeba, 2019) considering that even the private sector adopted these programmes. According to earlier research by Basow and Byrne (1993) graduates use internships as a way to put what they have learnt at various institutions of higher learning to use. Following internship research, the benefits

include learning about business life, gaining first-hand experience, and developing problem-solving skills (Barr & Busler, 2011). Images acquired during this period, whether positive or negative, influence the future years of interns in their professions (Kasli & Ilban, 2013).

In order to gain a competitive edge in luring and keeping the talented workers necessary to ensure organisational success, South African businesses, like their international counterparts, are engaged in a war of talent (Wolfswinkel, 2019). According to Cilliers and Aucoin (2016) and Subban (2016) a talent paradox occurs when there is a sizable pool of unemployed jobseekers, the majority of whom lack skills necessary for employment (Subban, 2016; Tshilongamulenzhe, 2017) as a result of socioeconomic factors manifesting in high unemployment rates fuelled by a subpar educational system (Subban, 2016). Theron, Barkhuizen, and Du Plessis (2014) observed a rise in the competition among South African businesses, as well as how hiring managers and decision-makers relentlessly pursue their rivals to attract and retain new talent (Pop & Barkhuizen, 2010) with the aim of consolidating and enhancing the competitive advantage of their organisations (Wolfswinkel, 2019).

In light of this paradox, it makes sense that businesses are in competition for employees. In order to keep talented employees engaged and committed, businesses should monitor both their individual and organisational talent goals (Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2015). Organisations realised that creative approaches to performance management should incorporate systems and processes. Development of leadership and programme strategy must start with the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership approaches to workforce performance development (Pop & Barkhuizen, 2010). According to Zigarmi (2018) 83% of organisations express the value of cultivating leadership at all levels. All leaders begin to develop at the individual level.

A working relationship between a manager and an employee that is focused on the employee's performance and developmental needs is known as the manager-employee coaching relationship (Gregory & Levy, 2010). Self-leadership involves motivating oneself and setting one's behavioural standards while utilising particular cognitive and behavioural strategies (Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011). Stewart et al. (2011) also considered the intrinsic motivation of self-leadership to influence oneself about what, why, and how to perform work. Despite the above-mentioned demonstration of the impact on job performance by the relationship between manager and employee (Gregory & Levey 2010, 2011, 2012) and self-leadership skills (Manz, 1992; Neck & Manz, 2010; Neck & Houghton, 2006) prior quantitative studies on both variables failed to fully capture common elements influencing effective coaching outcomes. They often explored single concepts instead of recognizing symbiotic relationships between concepts.

Basow and Byrne (1992) emphasized that graduates use what they learned from different higher learning institutions as an opportunity to achieve what they have learned, making skills and talent central to successful programmes for leadership. Hay (2002) cited skills and capacity building for talent as the most significant crucial factors related to employee well-being and retention. While an internship aims to practice theoretical knowledge in a business environment and learn new practical skills, the negative experiences of trainees during an internship will therefore undermine their intentions to acquire expertise and work in the business environment (Busby & Gibson, 2010).

Lack of understanding of the impact of the coaching relationship between manager and employee (Bennett, 2006) the practice of self- management, and work-role achievement results in neither the managers nor workers being able to increase their work performance (Keller, 2012, p. 225). The objective of the current study was to close the gap between, on the one hand, the intensive practice abundant in the theoretical literature on manager-employee coaching relationships and self-leadership (i.e., the coaching of employees) and on the

other hand, the limited knowledge of graduate interns based on performance behaviours and self-leadership practice.

1.4. Research problem

South Africa is experiencing growth in its graduate labour force, but graduates face job challenges due to performance behaviour challenges which prevent them from performing and securing a permanent placement at the end of the 18-24-month internship period (Gralin, 2015). Although internships are a great platform for understanding the skills employers require for organisational performance from their graduates, several studies have identified problems perceived to cause graduate interns performance issues, including a lack of practical skills (Kasli & Ilban, 2013), lack of experience (Jung & Lee, 2017), and lack of adequate guidance and support (Gashaw, 2019), which are not the focus of this study. This study emphasises the difficulty corporate graduate interns have in meeting their performance goals due to a lack of work experience and employability skills, and it shows how important it is for employers to identify and develop future talent by offering graduate internships.

Yorke (2006) defined employability as a set of skills, understandings, and personal attributes that will allow any graduate to gain employment and succeed in the occupation of their choice that will benefit themselves, the community, and the economy in turn. The lack of employability skills of internship students is often cited, and the study by Bist, Mehta, Mehta, and Meghrajani (2020) found that graduates lack communication skills, the ability to solve problems, analytical skills, and understanding of the business. Schreuder and Coetzee (2008) argued that to meet the demands of the rapidly moving, dynamic and highly competitive nature of the South African market, managing graduates as the next generation in the workforce is essential. The fact that graduate interns experience challenges such as lack of employability skills, job experience and managerial support,

(including deficient performance) sometimes impedes their growth and development.

According to Harvey, Harvey, Locke, and Morey (2002) employers or institutions look for graduates who are proactive and possess skills that include analysis, criticism, synthesis, and communication. They must therefore design courses that incorporate these skills into learning activities or organize workshops related to the job/work profile that enhance employability skills (Cooper, Orrell, & Bowden, 2010). To be successful as self-leaders, graduate interns must take responsibility for their success and what they need, and stop blaming systems, executives, and circumstances for creating unfavourable conditions (Zigarmi, 2018). Fresh alternatives are provided by the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills practice.

This research study aims to shed light on the issues of the inability of corporate organizations to equip graduate interns with employability and work experience skills by proposing innovative approaches to the manager-employee coaching relationship and practice of self-leadership skills to advance organisational performance. Promoting the connection between the two factors can lead to overcoming the organisational culture that hinders innovation (Pratoom & Savatsomboon, 2012) thus preventing managers and staff from improving work performance (Keller, 2012). Notably, our limited knowledge of how self-leadership and the manager-employee coaching relationship interact to affect performance behaviours is part of the problem.

1.5. Research objectives

The study's objective is to investigate the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns

The stated objectives of this study are as follows:

1.1.1. To investigate the impact of the perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.
1.1.2. To investigate the impact of self-leadership skills practice on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.

1.6. Research questions

The following research questions were formulated from the main objective of the study to guide the process and achieve conceptual alignment of the research study.

1.1.3. What impact does perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship have on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns?
1.1.4. To what extent does self-leadership skills practice impact on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns?

1.7. Significance of the study

Many studies explored the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance achievement (Gregory & Levy, 2009, 2010, 2011; Manz, 1998, 1992; Neck & Manz, 2010; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997). The study on the relationship between the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership acknowledges the fact that “leadership is an activity that can be shared or distributed between members of a group or organization” (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 2) and similar studies discovered that the relationship between the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership affected job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012) and goal achievement (Carver & Scheier, 1998). Less research was done on the effects of

coaching between the manager and the employee, and self-leadership skills as single factors, and did not include their effect on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.

There is a good deal of research investigating the role of manager as coach and self-leadership in improving performance. Markets and organisations require staff who are willing to develop, lead themselves efficiently in teams, and expand business performance (Boss & Sims, 2008). Organisations have to invest in coaching skills to empower managers and graduate interns as next-generation employees to improve organisational performance and continuity to achieve a decision-making model in empowering managers as coaches and graduates as self-leaders (Cardon & Stevens, 2004). The idea focused on the abilities that the study sought to contribute to an emerging study of the importance of coaching executives and promoting informal leadership.

This study on the relationship between the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership acknowledges that it offers the basis for the idea that “leadership is an activity that can be shared or distributed among members of a group or organization” (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 2). This opens new lines of thinking about informal leadership (Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003b) in organizations where people are empowered to make decisions concerning their own tasks at work and to implement them (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

Specifically, the study attempts to contribute to research on internal coaching and informal leadership, constructs which have thus far received insufficient attention. The study suggests ways for organizations to enhance their performance through employees who build strong manager-employee coaching relationships, self-leadership skills and receive appropriate and extensive rewards for their leadership skills and performance behaviours. The study aims to resolve the issue of corporate organizations’ inability to equip corporate graduate interns at

work through the manager-employee coaching relationship and the practice of self-leadership skills to advance organizational success.

In particular, the results of the study aim to contribute significantly to the development of internal workplace coaching approaches, where managers and leaders engage employees in either formal or informal coaching sessions (Grant, 2017) which has received insufficient attention so far. A manager can make the most important contribution to the organisation by developing others to perform at optimal levels (Allenbaugh, 1983). The research findings could assist organizations to formulate policies and programmes to facilitate good manager–employee relationships for employee coaching that focus on employees' achievement of measurable goals and objectives rather than formalized annual appraisals that only communicate one-way (Stanleigh, 2012), and to develop strong self-leadership that has a positive impact on the performance of graduate interns (Johari, 2011).

1.8. Delimitations of the study

Costa, Breda, Pinho, Bakas, and Durão (2016) define delimitations as the decision made by the researcher to set limits for the research's scope, design, and management strategies. Consequently, the goal was to investigate a particular representative sample of graduate interns working for a South African telecommunications company that offered coaching in an organisational environment through direct managers / supervisors. The criteria for inclusion included: (a) graduate interns serving their internships (b) who received coaching by direct managers / supervisor and (c) who were accustomed to collaborating with their direct managers.

The study evaluated the effects of manager-employee coaching relationships and self-leadership skills on the performance of corporate graduate interns in a South African telecommunications company, who served fixed internship contracts over

an 18–24-month period from 2020-2022. The research did not examine the management practices to improve employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills, nor the development of performance behaviours. This research examined performance behaviours only, and clearly a multidimensional construct was the job outcome at the individual level. One of the delimitations of the study is that while it is suggested that elements of organisational performance, culture, innovation and work performance and leadership are related, the study does not look into this relationship. To conduct a more thorough investigation, the delimitations were driven by factors such as time available and financial resources.

1.9. Definitions of terms

The following concept definitions operational to this study were outlined as follows:

1.9.1. Developmental coaching

Developmental coaching represents an effort to develop the employee's capacity to meet his / her own needs or goals, where the coach is in service to the employee's interests (Stanleigh, 2012). Assessing how much the coaching relationship aids in the education and training of employees is known as "facilitating development" (Gregory & Levy, 2010).

1.9.2. Graduate interns and internships

There are various definitions of graduate interns depending on the socioeconomic settings. According to the South African Graduate Development Association (SAGDA) report (2013) an intern is a graduate looking to enter the corporate world or organisation through a structured bridging programme, who has no or little practical working experience in a specific discipline.

The term “graduate intern” in the context of this study, refers to a person who has a degree but has not been employed recently and needs work experience to increase his / her chances of landing a job in the future. Internships can take a variety of shapes depending on the industry, but they typically involve closely watched hands-on training. According to Maio (2018) applied learning opportunities and internships are essential for providing graduates with real-world work opportunities, first-hand exposure in the corporate setting, and the ability to put their newly acquired skills, knowledge and theoretical practice to use.

Graduate internship programmes are described by Galbraith and Mondal (2020) as targeted training interventions where interns are given the chance to learn about various fields of expertise. In a similar vein, Pietersen and Malatjie (2022) define a graduate internship as a recognised programme made available to a person who has successfully completed a university degree, is unemployed, but needs experience and skills to improve employment prospects. Anjum (2020) points out that internship programmes combine both classroom learning with real-world experience in the workplace to give graduates experience and give them the confidence to stand out in the contemporary and ever-changing market.

Internship programmes are introduced to provide students with the opportunity to gain hands-on experience and facilitate a smooth transition from the academic world to the work setting (Mohaidin, Supar, Ibrahim, & Sidik, 2017). In general, internships assist graduates in honing their specialised and general skills while gaining experience.

1.9.3. Manager as coach

The are many ways to define a manager as a coach, but for the purpose of this study, we want to focus on just two. Hagen and Aguilar (2012) define manager as a coach as the process by which a manager assists a member of his team in resolving a problem and completing a task more successfully or efficiently

through guided discussion and activity. Dahling, Taylor, Chau, and Dwight (2016) note that managerial coaching entails giving feedback, modelling behaviour, and setting goals with subordinates in order to enhance the handling of personal issues. This study adopts the definition that a coaching manager is an example of a business leader or manager who uses coaching to support his team members' learning and development. This definition implies that a manager acting as a coach is less trained than an outside competent coach.

According to de Haan and Nilsson (2017) it can be challenging to agree to what could be referred to as the coach's best behaviours, referring to when and how to intervene as though there is a predetermined way that coaches should react. However, a lot of discussion has taken place without any supporting evidence, that is without knowing which behaviours clients exhibit and which behaviours coaches believe they use. Llaniro, Schermuly, and Kauffeld (2013) as well as de Haan, Culpin, and Curd (2011) claim that it has been uncommon to measure coaching behaviours or coaches' and clients' perceptions of coaching behaviours. Since "meta communication" can announce, amplify, contradict, call into question or modify primary communication in many other ways, it always goes along with any coaching intention (de Haan & Nilsson, 2017).

1.94. Manager-employee coaching relationship

A collaboration between a worker and his managers, is known as an employee coaching relationship (Gregory & Levy, 2009) which focuses on maintaining the performance of the job and addressing a worker's developmental requirements (Gregory & Levy, 2010). This relationship also draws on experience in the workplace from collaboration and assessment and is therefore not merely a coaching relationship. The manager can contribute to the development of a high-quality relationship by listening to individual concerns and building a positive trust and empathy-based feedback environment (Gregory & Levy, 2011).

Employee coaching is more precisely defined as a development-related activity in which “an employee works one-on-one with his direct manager to improve current job performance, and / or enhance his capabilities for future role / and or challenges, the success of which is based on the relationship between employee and manager, as well as the use of objective information, such as feedback, performance data or assets” (Gregory & Levy, 2010, p. 114).

The definition of Gregory and Levy (2010), was adopted for the purpose of this study, which described an employee coaching relationship as a collaboration between a manager and a worker that attends to the worker’s performance and developmental requirements. Relationships between a manager and an employee for the purpose of coaching are referred to as “employee coaching relationship” in both concepts.

1.9.5. Self-leadership

Self-leadership is about developing and managing individual energy to initiate, motivate and perform at a high level, improving and sustaining the organization’s leadership philosophy at an individual level (Zigarmi, 2018). It is defined as the process of influencing oneself to act in accordance with the desired goals by the person concerned (Neck & Manz, 2010). Expanding on the definition, Mantz (1986), Neck and Houghton (2006a), and Neck and Manz (2010) defined self-leadership as a process of behavioural and cognitive self-evaluation and self-influence, whereby people achieve self-direction and self-motivation needed to shape their behaviours in positive ways in order to enhance their overall performance (Mantz, 1986; Neck & Houghton, 2006b; Neck & Manz, 2010). Mantz (1986)’s definition of self-leadership was adopted, which explains self-leadership as an influence-related process through which individuals or working groups navigate, motivate, and lead themselves towards achieving desired behaviours and outcomes.

1.9.6. Skill, performance, and performance behaviours

Harrison (1993), defines skill as a technique that enables individuals to successfully take on system implementation and creation of new roles to achieve predetermined performance goals. It is the capacity to exhibit behaviour that is actually connected to achieving performance objectives (Robbins, 1995). Performance is generally aligned to an employee's skills, abilities, and knowledge, according to Pannuzzo cited in Chinn (2018), and refers to the level to which an employee successfully fulfils the factors included in the job description. According to Chandel (2016) performance behaviours are what you can do, which is heavily reliant on one's attitude and in turn related to one's personality. The focus of this study was on performance behaviours.

1.9.7. Performance assessment and management

"Performance is associated with quantity of output, quality of output, timeline of output, pressure / attendance on the job, efficiency of the work completed and effectiveness of work completed" (Mathis & Jackson, 2009, p. 324). The definition of performance adopted by the researcher for study purpose states as follows: employee performance is about the timely, effective, and efficient completion of mutually agreed tasks.

Performance measurement refers to "processes involving managers, individuals and team based on shared understanding, which define performance and contribution expectations, assess performance against expectations, provide for regular and constructive feedback and information agreed plans for performance improvement, learning and personal development" (Armstrong & Murlis, 2007, p. 8). According to Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, and Wright (1997, p. 196) "performance management is the means by which managers ensure that employee activities and outputs are in line with business goals" or as Smith and Mazin (2004, p. 42) state; "it is a systemic approach to tracking individual

performance against the targeted objectives of the organization and identifying strengths and opportunities for improvements". The study adopted the following definition: Performance measurement or management refers to a continuing means by which an organization uses different tools to monitor, document, correct or reward individual and collective employees in an organization.

1.10. Assumptions

Wargo (2015), defined assumption as a statement that is presumed to be true, often only temporarily or for a specific purpose, such as building a theory; and the conditions under which statistical techniques yield valid results. The following assumptions were made in relation to this study:

a) The respondents will respond to the online survey questionnaires in an honest and candid way because the study investigates an area of interest that would yield key information that they could use for self-development and improvement.

b) Respondents have a sincere interest in participating in research and do not have any other motives.

1.11. A research report outline

This report is divided into the following five chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduced the topic of the study, background of the corporate graduate interns programme and its purpose for the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, the research objectives, questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, definition of key terms / concepts, and assumptions.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter focused on literature review, background discussion, the theoretical foundation, variables of manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance, as well as their underlying hypotheses, the conceptual framework and conclusion of the literature review. A review of literature was conducted to determine the opinions of various academics on managerial coaching and self-leadership practice for corporate graduate interns.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This Chapter described and explained the quantitative research design that was employed. For this study, a sample of 200 participants was identified and fully described. The technique for gathering data in the present study is known as quantitative / statistical analysis which is calculated as a numerical representation based on observation and manipulations, tools and instruments. Its limitations, validity, objectivity, reliability, and ethical considerations were discussed, as well as the validity and objectivity of the study. The ethical issues that were taken into consideration for this research, such as informed consent, approval to conduct the study, confidentiality, and others, were described.

Chapter 4: Presentation of research findings

This Chapter presented the study findings. Data analysis was conducted to evaluate the impact of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership variables on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns with the aid of graphs, figures, and tables.

Chapter 5: Discussion of results

This Chapter provided a detailed discussion of the research findings and interpreted these results in the context of theoretical literature. The study findings were covered in-depth in this chapter which included scholarly discussions.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Summaries of the answers to each of the study questions were provided in this Chapter, as well as their theoretical, practical contributions and implications, and limitations. The final recommendations were given before drawing conclusions from the study.

1.12. Conclusion of Chapter 1.

This Chapter provided the study's background, purposes, problems statement, goal, and an outline of the study's objectives and research questions. It listed the study's assumptions, key concepts and terms, and the research limitations. By concentrating on the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and the use of self-leadership practice in South Africa, the research intended to help corporate graduate interns overcome performance challenges. The researcher's difficulties coaching graduate interns at work, which also served as an impetus for this research endeavour, were discussed in this Chapter. The next chapter will review literature on the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and graduate intern performance behaviours.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter was to further investigate the concepts of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills and their sub-concepts, as well as their relationship with performance behaviours. When organisations address volatile business environments, companies empower employees to meet current competitive demands. Empowerment demands that non-traditional relationships exist in organisations and for employees. At the heart of empowerment lies the ability of managers to coach their own subordinates and staff to lead themselves. Employee coaching relationship and self-leadership were two most important approaches that could be used to empower staff to lead themselves and improve performance. However, emphasizing the significance of the relationship between manager-employee coaching and self-leadership and performance behaviours, it was important to explore how these concepts related to success of individual performance. This study, therefore, explored the interaction between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership skills and performance behaviours, as well as other influences.

The chapter covered areas of literature review, background discussion, the theoretical foundation, variables of manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviours, as well as their underlying hypotheses, the conceptual framework and conclusion of the literature review. A review of literature was conducted to determine the opinions of various academics on managerial coaching and self-leadership practice for corporate graduate interns.

2.2. Background discussion

As a potential approach to talent management for organisations in the twenty first century, coaching between the manager and employee has emerged, according

to Lakshman (2016) and Surijah (2016) to boost employees' performance and increase manager-coach efficiency to manage employee motivational needs. According to Musselwhite (2008) performance is critical in the manager-employee coaching relationship, which has a significant impact on performance, a viewpoint shared by Graham, Wedman, and Garvin–Kester (1993) who believe that the manager-employee relationship is an important component of successful employee coaching.

This research on the other hand, suggested that self-leadership training is not only a performance-enhancing intervention, but also a means to anticipatory coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997) which supports Prussia, Anderson, and Manz (1998)'s assertion that employee self-leadership is a key foundation to empowering organisations. However, as important as empowerment programmes are for manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership, valid measures of employee coaching relationship and self-leadership among corporate graduate interns are limited. This begs the question of why companies don't provide coaching training for managers.

Manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership are recognized as new approaches that indicate that leadership is an activity that can be shared or distributed between an organization's membership (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Adopting this view opens up new lines of thinking about informal leadership (Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003a) in organisations in which individuals are empowered to make and implement decisions about their own work tasks (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). This study argued that efficient teams and organisations require staff who are willing to lead themselves, and self-leadership is significantly linked to higher perceptions of job satisfaction, improved communication, quality management, and efficient working relationships (Boss & Sims Jr, 2008).

In addition, both employee coaching relationship and self-leadership help individuals and teams to address the challenges that inadvertently accompany

change by ensuring that optimistic perceptions of their ability and work situation are developed (Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012b). A study conducted on the effects of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours of graduate interns, suggested that the manager-employees coaching relationship centered on coaching aspects that promote worker advancement. This was essentially a conversation between two individuals, typically a supervisor and a worker, with the goal of assisting the worker in learning from the job to advance his growth (Hunt & Weintraub, 2011). Self-leadership influenced better performance behaviours because self-leaders know how to navigate and manage themselves in a relatively wide variety of circumstances (Latham & Locke, 1991). The next part of the research report looked at key conceptual / theoretical frameworks, variables, and operating hypotheses underpinning this research were explored in the subsequent portion of this report.

2.3. Theoretical foundation

Currently, a broad variety of management coaching and self-leadership theories can be used to describe performance behaviours; however, many of them are theories of psychology. For this study, only those theories that are relevant to the variables of manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviour were considered, such as organisational support, and social cognitive theories. In the following parts of this report, both theoretical structures are discussed.

2.3.1. Organisational support theory

The current research used Organisational Support Theory (OST) (Dai & Qin, 2016) and (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) as a basis for theorising about how managerial coaching affects its results. Expectations and perceptions about how much an employer values their work, respects their dedication, and is concerned about their physical and mental health are shaped by employees, according to

the theory. OST also looks at the psychological mechanism that underpins the relationship between employees' expectations about how their organisation leads them and the implications of those beliefs. It is a common misconception that OST is primarily a social exchange theory. However, it also emphasizes techniques for improving oneself. Perceived Organisation Support, also known as POS, is thought to satisfy socioemotional needs by promoting emotional support, affiliation, and approval, which promotes identification with the organisation (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

In a subjective sense, perceived organisational support represents the organisation's overall aspirations of its members, as well as appreciation of the personal importance and commitment (Dai & Qin, 2016). Research on organisation support and employee engagement is based on "social exchange theory" and the "reciprocity principle." The concept of a social exchange relationship is that if one person does something for another, he hopes to receive something in return in the future (Dai & Qin, 2016). According to the concept of reciprocity, workers can only provide a positive organisational contribution and participate and make active attitude or behaviour changes in order to make an effort to achieve organisational objectives if they feel support and care from the organisation (Asiedu-Appiah & Addai, 2014b).

According to social exchange theory and a mutuality standard, these values may have an impact on employees' willingness to contribute to the achievement of organisational goals, as well as their sense of responsibility for the success and welfare of the organisation over the long term. Secondly, the organization's approval, appreciation, and care should meet employees' socio-emotional needs, allowing them to see themselves as members of the organisation, accept organisational core values, consider the destiny of the organization, and assimilate the brand of the organisation into their identities in society (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

Employees form general opinions about how supervisors valued their efforts, put emphasis on their contributions to the team, and cared about their wellbeing in the same way they form views about how the company treated them. Employees interpret their managers' behaviour and demeanor towards them as a demonstration of their loyalty to the organisation. Supervisors are principal agents of the organisation, with responsibility for controlling and assessing individual results (Levinson, 2009). According to recent research, supervisors' organisational identification levels may vary, and POS is correlated with favourable leadership identification (Eisenberger et al., 2014).

The perceived organisational support theory examines the relationship between managerial coaching activities and job satisfaction and success, as well as the exchange between employers and employees (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). As a result, organisational support theory describes the exchange relationship between employee and organisation, and actions taken by a manager or leaders are seen as the organization's spokesperson (Raza, Ali, Ahmed, & Ahmad, 2018). Thus, leadership and supervisory positions are crucial in giving employees access to organisational benefits and assets and they ought to be regarded as an important source of organisational support than co-workers (Wayne, Shore, & Linden, 1997).

Managers function as instructors in a coaching setting and subordinates describe their natural process as goodwill. Managers carry out several tasks, such as identifying specific priorities and objectives and providing timely input to improve performance (Kim, 2014). Managerial coaching is given to employees, and managers play a critical role as coaches (Beattie et al., 2014). It has been proposed that managerial coaching is a critical act that enhances employee performance, productivity, contribution, and learning (Ratiu, David, & Baban, 2017).

2.3.2. Managerial and leadership coaching

Managerial coaching has been described and evaluated in several ways. It is described by Ellinger, Ellinger, Hamlin, and Beattie (2010) as a method of facilitator learning offered by a supervisor or manager to enable employees to learn and improve performance. It is regarded as a method for enhancing subordinates' efficiency (Grant, 2006). In this analysis, the idea of managerial coaching and its outcome on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns are assessed to see whether there was any theoretical support. It is seen as a more transformative phase for the coachee with personal growth as an essential component of skills creation (Beattie et al., 2014). The influence of the manager as a coach is linked to the construct of managerial coaching (Dahling, Taylor, Chau, & Dwight, 2016a). By using the coaching approach, individual consideration of individual needs can be met and delegation for development needs can be met, and delegation for growth processes can be met as well, based on fostering employee ownership and empowerment (Milner & McCarthy, 2016).

The research of Hahn (2016) shows a positive relationship between managerial coaching behaviour and employee psychological empowerment. According to Hahn (2016), the more psychological empowerment that is promoted during the training process, the more control employees will have over their own work circumstances. He further states that psychological empowerment is the idea that a person has discretionary power over his responsibilities and employment. In order to encourage coaching high performance work, line managers must also facilitate their employees' learning as trainers (Raza et al., 2018).

Research by Gilley (2000), and Hankins and Kleiner (1995) found that management coaching has gained considerable attention in recent years as a result of leadership in organisations. Several studies have looked at the possible outcomes of managerial coaching in terms of inspiring, creating, and educating

workers in organisations; individual and team learning (Matsuo, 2018); employee ownership and empowerment (Milner & McCarthy, 2016); manager skills set (Rick Ladyshewsky & Taplin, 2018) and performance feedback (Kim, 2014). The study findings can be used to justify the need for organisational coaching practices and to guide interventions for their effective implementation.

2.3.2.1. Employee development

The purpose of coaching was recognised as the development of individual learning, including coaching as a way to lead genuine, lasting employees (Park, McLean, & Yang, 2008). As a coach, line managers need to promote their employees' future growth (Evered & Selman, 1989), and play a role in their growth (Buhler, 1994). Leibowitz and Schlossberg (1981) argue that managers need sufficient skills to promote growth through daily interactions with employees for subordinate development and that support for management has been shown to be important for employee development (Shore & Bloom, 1986). There has been, however, a lack of empirical studies to examine the link between managerial coaching and its potential impact on the performance of employees.

Researchers Mom, Fourné, and Jansen (2015) stress the importance of the managers' roles in enabling and inspiring workers to complete both their assigned tasks and newly mandated creative ones. According to Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) managerial coaching can assist staff members in better understanding their duties and responsibilities of their jobs, and is potentially an effective tool that managers can use to encourage these two various forms of work achievement (Hui, Sue-Chan, & Wood, 2013). In addition, managerial coaching creates an environment of empowerment and support by giving staff members the freedom to experiment with new concepts and pursue developing themselves independently (Heslin, Vandewalle, & Latham, 2006).

2.3.2.2. Transformational leadership and managerial coaching

According to Milner and McCarthy (2016) transformational leadership is analogous to managerial coaching, which entails coaching within an individual's background. Grant (2007) identified similarities between coaching and the dimensions of transformational leadership, which include serving as an exemplary role model, engaging, and inspiring others, promoting innovative thinking and creativity, and serving as a coach and mentor to assist others in achieving their results. Listening, analytical skills, interviewing, questioning, observational skills, input, setting and communicating goals, and building a coaching atmosphere are among the skills and behaviours that a coaching manager should possess, according to Ellinger, Beattie, and Hamlin (2018).

Managerial coaching is implemented by those fulfilling leadership roles, although the implementation of manager as coach for leadership theories are not examined (Hagen & Gavrilova Aguilar, 2012). The evolving qualities of transformation, vision, inspiration and charisma are modern leader-centered roles (Yukl, 2008). Leadership theories highlight the group member assumptions and beliefs about the attributes that leaders should have, what to expect, and how to respond to group and individual performance (Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010). Leaders-member-exchange has an influence on employee performance, according to Kang and Stewart (2007) and provides a useful lens through which line manager coaching can be viewed. Interest in workplace coaching has increased, but limited attention has been paid to the areas of overlap and leadership theory (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2006).

2.3.2.3. Criticism of managerial coaching

It is important to note that managerial coaching has also received some criticism. According to Lawrence (2017) one of the issues with managerial coaching is that there isn't a common understanding of what it is, aside from a general agreement

on how it facilitates and improves performance, but there is less clarity on the process itself. However, neither these definitions nor perspectives make a distinction between managerial coaching and the other types of coaching (Beattie et al., 2014; Lawrence, 2017). Some models place an emphasis on the relationship, inspiration, and facilitation, as well as setting expectations, goals, and providing feedback in support of performance. The International Coaching Federation (ICF) and Graduate School Alliance for Executive Coaching (GSAEC) are two bodies that Mmaditla and Ndlovu-Hlatshwayo (2022) provide examples of coaching competencies a coach may adopt. The contributions of the two coaching organisations in standardising the coaching competences are discussed in the next section.

2.3.2.4. GSAEC competencies

The GSAEC established competencies to harmonise and standardise the curricula of graduate institutions that provide coaching. Standard 8.0, which lists the essential skills needed to be a successful coach (GSAEC, 2018) is the academic standard that applies. These skills include co-creating the coaching relationship by developing and coaching presence, making meaning with others through listening and questioning abilities, assisting others in succeeding by reframing the mindset and contributing in a way that motivates the coachee to advance. These GSAEC competencies were not actively tested in the context of this study, despite the fact that they are crucial in determining the efficiency of the manager's coaching skills and the coaching process.

2.3.2.5. International Coaching Federation Competencies

The International Coaching Federation (ICF) seeks to advance the coaching industry by standardising certification of internationally educated coaching experts (Mmaditla & Ndlovu-Hlatshwayo, 2022). By reducing the list of 11 core competencies to 8, it created the benchmark of coaching that will promote

professionalism (ICF, 2017). The eight core competencies were further divided into four groups: setting the foundation, co-creating the relationship, coaching presence, and facilitating learning and results.

(a) Setting the foundation entails upholding a high standard for coaching, upholding mindset characterized by openness, curiosity, flexibility, and client-centricity, and consistently applying coaching ethics.
(b) Co-creating the relationship entails developing mutual trust and intimacy with the client through the creation of clear contractual guidelines regarding the coaching relationship, fostering trust and safety through the creation of a welcoming and supportive environment, and maintaining a presence in interaction with the coachee.
© Communicating effectively means applying active listening by focusing on what the client is saying, in order to assist the coachee in making connections, enabling awareness and client insights. Tools and techniques that can be used include skillful questioning, silence, analogy, and metaphors.
(d) Cultivating learning and growth entails facilitating the coachee's growth by transforming learning and insights into actionable steps.

The study by Chong, Yuen, Tan, Zarim, and Hamid (2016) found that five of 11 International Coaching Federation (ICF) Core Competencies were related to coaching effectiveness. They discovered this by asking managerial coaches in Malaysian Telecommunications companies to evaluate each of the ICF Competencies. Establishing trust and intimacy, active listening and raising awareness were among the skills considered pertinent. These results imply that managerial coaches may not place as much importance on some competencies considered essential by external coaches, and that workplace coaching may be more directive that other types of coaching (Lawrence, 2017).

2.3.2.6. Perceived Quality of the Employee Coaching Relationship Questionnaire (PQECR) validity scales

This study employs the PQECR questionnaire to assess the perceived quality of the employee coaching relationship between the graduate interns and their managers. According to (Gregory & Levy, 2010) this scale of the employee coaching relationship is used to assess the perceived quality of the coaching relationship. The PQECR measure consists of four components; genuiness of the relationship, effective communication, comfort of the relationship and facilitating development. The validity of the current employee coaching scales, however, has repeatedly come under scrutiny by researchers due to issues such as an unsatisfactory model of fit regarding dimensionality (Hagen & Peterson, 2014; Richard Ladyshewsky & Taplin, 2017). Koskinen and Anderson (2023) report that the review revealed a strong interdependence between the various relationship building behaviours and steps of the route and employee coaching. This could partially account for the challenges in identifying distinct elements for the coaching role or relationships (Koskinen & Anderson, 2023).

2.3.3. Social cognitive theory

The fundamental fact is that social action is social in nature and takes into account the behaviours of others by virtue of the subjective meaning attached to it by the individual acting, and is thus orientated in its nature (Oyedokun, 2016). Likewise, Trueman (2015), points out that social action takes account of other people's past, present or future actions, behaviour and attitudes. Social cognitive theory suggests that, in the process of "reciprocal determinism" the environment causes behaviour and also shapes the environment (Bandura, 1986). The theory suggests a triadic reciprocal relationship among internal influences, external influences, and behavior to explain human behaviour.

When applying the principles of this theory to current research, it becomes relevant that the theory of social action gives researchers a better understanding of traditional, affective, value or rational aspects (Oyedokun, 2016). There are three elements of the theory that apply to organisations: a) development through modelling of people's cognitive, social and behavioral skills; b) confidence in their capacity to use their knowledge, skills, and abilities in an effective manner; and c) goal-orientated motivation (Bandura, 1988). In line with social cognitive theory, self-leaders are in control of themselves and their own experiences because they are intentional, thoughtful, proactive, and self-reflective.

Bandura and Cervone (1986), noted that three different types of self-influences serve as mediators in the relationship between objectives and output, notably self-satisfaction, self-efficacy, and relation of internal standards. Social cognitive theory stresses the importance of the self-reactive influences of satisfaction and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy describes a person's self-assessment of their abilities required to perform a particular task (Bandura, 1991), and influences aspirations, effort, persistence and thought patterns. The main criticisms of social cognitive theory are that it lacks coherence, is so expansive that not all its components are fully understood, cannot be incorporated into just one explanation, that not all social learning can be directly observed, and that it frequently overlooks maturation over the course of a person's the lifespan (May-Varas, Margolis, & Mead, 2023).

The concept of self-efficacy is of particular importance to self-leadership. Self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997), is the capacity of the individuals to perform on a particular task, and is connected to a particular cognitive procedure to a particular task. One's confidence in their ability to complete the given task is reflected in their capability (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, individuals who believe they have the necessary skills to do the task will accept it willingly (Bandura, 1997; Tenaw, 2013).

Fundamentally, self-efficacy affects the self-leadership strategies that have been proposed, including behavioural focused, natural reward and constructive thought strategies (Neck & Manz, 2010). In order to achieve higher performance levels, these strategies are crucial for enhancing self-efficacy perceptions (Neck & Manz, 1992). As a result, people with high self-efficacy are more likely to be able to perform at a higher level (Ibus & Ismail, 2018). This suggests that the main mechanism by which self-leadership strategies affect performance may be self-efficacy. Selected self-leadership competencies will enable leaders to manage current issues successfully while empowering corporate graduate interns.

2.4. Employee / corporate graduate intern performance

According to Mathis and Jackson (2011, p. 324) success is correlated with production quantity, production, consistency of product, output times, pressure / participation of work, and efficiency of job completion. Job output is characterized as the sum of the expected values of the various episodes on an individual progressively over time (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). This description includes one crucial concept that success is a property of actions, but success only referred to activities that make a difference to achievement of organisational goals, according to Motowidlo and Kell (2012). In this study, the definition of performance evaluation was broadened to that of performance management, which is characterized as an organisational process that evaluates individual performance against defined goals and identifies strengths and opportunities (Smith & Mazin, 2004).

The success of a company or business enterprise in the provision of goods and services is related to the quality and productivity with which it performs (Naude, 2007). To achieve the most from its workers and thus maximize efficiency, it is crucial for organisations to respect their workers. All organisations requiring substantial improvements in productivity must have an atmosphere in which,

through their expertise, experience, skills and talents, their workers feel comfortable achieving the goals of the organisation (Asgari & Vakili, 2012). Without examining and understanding the personal characteristics of the employees, and analyzing how they influence their performance, this cannot be done. The study explored the link between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns, and attempted to close the gap of understanding what leads to failure in order to improve performance of the job (Keller, 2012).

2.4.1. Contextual performance

Contextual performance is the term for those minor roles that are typical, support the environment in which task are performed, and depends on the employee's preferences and willpower (Bhardwaj & Kalia, 2021). According to Borman and Motowidlo (1997) contextual performance refers to the actions by employees to support the social and psychological functionality of the organisation. Successful contextual performance requires actions that impact on the personal, cultural, and working environment to boost organisational efficiency. Such actions consists of urging others to do useful work for the organization, transmitting collaboration, and fostering mutual trust (Tutar, Altinoz, & Cakiroglu, 2011). Contextual practices lead to organisational success by establishing social and psychological atmosphere, by volunteering for roles and things that don't fall under structural employment and working together to complete tasks with other members of the organisation. This type of behavior allows the company at team level to achieve harmony, stability, and enhanced morale, and can have a positive effect on the success of group / team members. Therefore, people who support others, do their own jobs well and use organisational tools efficiently, will contribute to the contextualized process of their work satisfactorily (Johari, 2011).

2.4.2. Task performance, measurement, and behaviours

Task performance refers to the activities that make up the programme for rewards for structures, including the employee's performance related to contribution, and satisfying the role requirements (Asiedu-Appiah & Addai, 2014). Task execution, in its widest definition, refers to activities that turn crude ingredients into the organisation's products and offerings (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Additionally, the accomplishment of duties includes undertakings that maintain an organisation's technological foundation by exchanging raw materials, distributing completed goods, offering planning functions, managing coordination, or employing personnel that allows the organisation to run successfully and effectively and efficiently (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). The study's focus was on self-leadership and performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns as a result of the relationship between manager and employee coaching.

2.5. Manager-employee coaching relationship and hypothesis

In organisational environments, coaching has become widespread and well-liked. Even though executive coaching is sometimes referred to as coaching in organisations, in this investigation the direct manager of an employee serves as the coach. Since employees are the ones who receive this coaching from the line manager, it is known as employee coaching (Gregory & Levy, 2010). Although the practice of managers coaching their staff is expanding in organisations, the practice has not been backed up by any empirical analysis. This study's objective was to investigate the function of line managers in providing coaching to their employees and how employees perceived the type of coaching relationship formed between themselves and their supervisors.

2.5.1. Nature of employee coaching relationship

The focus of the study was on employee coaching relationships between staff and their direct supervisors. A manager's coaching relationship with a

subordinate coachee is very different from an executive coach coaching a client. Employees seldom have a choice about who their coaching manager will be. Consequently, in the full range of coaching techniques, the nature of employee coaching relationship is unique. Employee mentoring is not a “once and done” conversation, according to London and Smither (2002, p. 87) but rather a sustained cooperative process. Depending on the parties involved, the employee mentoring relationship focus may change (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000). This means the mentoring arrangement is merely a facet of the already existing relationship between a manager and worker.

Gyllensten and Palmer (2007, p. 173) pointed out that the coach and coachee relationship is “one of the most essential aspects of coaching” and that this relationship is the “basis upon which the coaching is built and without a relationship the coaching would not be as effective as it could be.” The “coaching relationship is the real vehicle for change” (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007, p. 168) and is identified by Bennett (2006) as a particular subject on which the coaching should concentrate. The objective is to examine the role of this first construct in relation to the coaching relationship between manager and employee (Gregory & Levy, 2010).

2.5.2. Hypothesis 1

The current study investigated the impact of coaching relationship between managers and workers’ performance behaviours. The perceived quality of the employee coaching relationship questionnaire (PQERCR) was used to collect data. The following hypothesis was developed to assess the impact of the manager-employee coaching relationship variable on the performance behaviours of corporate graduates.

H1 *– The perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship impacts positively on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.*

2.6. Self-leadership skills and hypothesis

The field of leadership research encompasses vast amounts of attention paid to enhancing leadership effectiveness, most of which is based on one or more of core leadership theories. However, Rima (2000), pointed out that in our efforts to become better leaders, we often overlooked the biggest leadership challenge we ever face – ourselves. Ng (2017), explained that leadership was a cultivated art that begins with self-leadership.

Self-leadership is defined as an influence-related process through which individuals or working groups navigate, motivate and lead themselves towards achieving desired behaviours and outcomes (Manz, 1992). Self-leadership comes due to a developed sense of who you are, what you can do, and where you are going coupled with the ability that influences your communication, emotions, and behaviours of getting there. Self-leadership as a concept developed from the general concept of leadership, where leadership is the process of influencing others to act in accordance with the organisational goals. This means that the concept of self-leadership is similar to the concept of leadership in general, except that in self-leadership the object is an individual, while leadership in general refers to an organisation or company. Self-leadership describes people who take personal initiative, direct their own efforts, motivate themselves and renew their thinking patterns (Manz & Sims, 1989).

Self-leadership is a mechanism of self-influencing process (Manz, 1986) and it can fit well with workers with strong self-leadership. Neck and Houghton (2006a), contended that self-leadership either personally or organizationally, is capable of achieving high efficiency. Neck, DiLiello, and Houghton (2006), found that individuals with self-leadership abilities performed without self-leadership relative to others. Self-leadership is characterized as a process of self-influencing (Neck & Manz, 2004) and better performance occurs in employees with good self-leadership.

Neck and Houghton (2006a) clarified that self-leadership, either personal, team or organisational can achieve high results. This view is reinforced by the work of Ozturk (2015) which found that self-leadership in relation to employee success is a significant factor. Self-leadership allows team members to address the challenges that inadvertently accompany change by ensuring that they develop an optimistic understanding of their competency and work situation (Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012a). Those employees with excellent self-leadership qualities know how to achieve high levels of self-direction and self-motivation (Neck & Houghton, 2006b).

In addition, several other studies have shown that self-leadership adds to progress. In their study, Neck and Manz (1992) concluded that self-leadership has a positively significant influence on employee performance. DiLiello and Houghton (2006) discovered that people with self-leadership performed better than people without self-leadership. Warwer (2013), Ho and Nesbit (2014) and Şahin (2011) found similar findings where self-leadership had a significant positive impact on employee performance. As a broader construct, self-leadership encompasses a set of three complementary cognitive and behavioral strategies which impact subsequent outcomes. These are behaviour-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought strategies which are discussed in the subsequent part of the report.

2.6.1. Behaviour-orientated strategies

People make a variety of assumptions on a daily basis to keep an eye on their own behaviour, develop self-awareness, and justify traits by learning about definitions of self-hood (Houghton & Neck, 2002). They may participate in reckless behaviours to develop therapeutic strategies and rely on the expected access data to create behavioural tactics (Neck and Houghton, 2006). In order to facilitate behavioural management, particularly behaviour related to necessary

but unpleasant tasks, behaviour-focused strategies work to increase an individual's self-awareness (Neck & Manz, 2004).

The following categories are classified for behavior-orientated approaches, which are typically classified into strategies for self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment, self-observation, and self-cueing techniques. Self-goal setting is defined as representing the self-directing sense of individual that results from choosing and working towards achieving personal goals in order to maximize successful performance (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Self-leadership behaviours are improved by aligning these personal and organisational goals.

Self-reward strategies refers to a person's choice to receive payment after successfully completing a task (Manz, 1992), while self-observation is a technique for developing self-control that involves asking oneself questions like: under what conditions, how frequently, where to take action, how to do it, and why (Alves et al., 2006). Both self-observation and self-cuing require preparation, practice, or outward signaling of certain items that need to be recalled or accomplished using physical objects. Self-observation encourages setting of priorities, including any other strategies, and defining goals for one's activities.

People who use this self-observation technique can easily increase their output and management of time. The concepts of self-punishment and self-reinforcement, both of which influence individual behaviors (self-applied effects) are opposite sides of the same coin (Manz, 2015), with self-punishment requiring self-correction while criticism about oneself is used to strengthen oneself. Self-punishment is suggested to undermine someone's drive and imagination, but several individuals in life frequently employ this strategy (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Research by Prussia et al. (1998) found that self-reinforcement has a positive impact on success whereas self-punishment can result in negative results for trainees, college students and staff. The efficacy of behavior-focused intervention is reinforced for several reasons. Self-leaders put greater importance

on self-observation and its pursuit, they keep a diary, take notes about important events, and ask for advice from others (Neck & Manz, 2013); they are more likely to encourage better physical health, better stamina and wellbeing; and use goal-supported and self-reinforcing techniques of exercise and meditation (Neck & Cooper, 2000).

2.6.2. Natural reward strategies

Natural reward techniques help people find satisfaction in a specific task or practice, which in turn leads to an increased sense of competence, self-control and intention (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Individuals may use natural rewards either by creating a task or activity with more fun and friendly features so that the task itself becomes gratifying, or by transferring cognitive attention to the task's intrinsically rewarding aspects (Neck & Houghton, 2006a). By using constructive thinking approaches that makes people participate in successful behaviors by focusing on beneficial behavior and preventing unwanted habits, natural reward strategies have a positive influence (Anderson & Prussia, 1997). Thus, a normal individual tries to establish a connection with their workplace that inspires them to carry tasks for their own sake rather than any outside benefit. Therefore, natural reward methods are based on the principle of determination (Manz, 2015), where great focus is part of natural or inherent rewards that are part of the success of the task (Neck & Houghton, 2006a).

2.6.3. Constructive thought-pattern strategies

Constructive thought pattern strategies, which include identifying and replacing dysfunctional beliefs, assumptions, mental imagery and self-talk, are intended to facilitate the formation of constructive thought patterns and habitual ways of thinking that can positively impact performance (Neck & Manz, 2004). The underlying idea is that those methods centre on the knowledge that people have control over their own attention, emotions, mental activity and how their thoughts

are formed. In light of the knowledge that individuals have control over their attention, thoughts, mental activity, as well as how thoughts are formed, one can think more consistently by using the self-influencing concept, which is a component of overall self-leadership. Manz (1992), asserts the most important element of self-leadership is focus. The Self-leadership Research Centre considers controlling the effectiveness of reflective behaviours and methods, including prototypes of workers, rather than focusing on the undesirable aspects (Manz, 1986).

The visualization of good rewards, perfecting self-talk, and assessing expectation perceptions are positive thinking strategies. Below, each of these techniques is explained. Visualizing successful performance includes imagining situations, creating mental deceptions, imagining drills, and envisioning events as they were experienced through use of imagination, according to Houghton and Neck (2002).

The process of visualizing successful performance entails a series of mental rehearsals of the desired actions that need to be activated; whereas self-talk takes place to a degree that cannot be detected in the mind of the individual (Neck & Houghton, 2006a). Self-talk happens by speaking to themselves positively and relying on their values and perceptions they build in their psychological environment (Godwin, Neck, & Houghton, 1999). These actions might aid them in achieving their goals (Elloy, 2008). Evaluating assumptions and beliefs by testing values and perceptions, requires using mental models to solve issues in the everyday life of individuals (Godwin et al., 1999). These mental models are influenced by and based on thoughts, values, and experiences that people develop, and the resulting behaviors arise from thoughts which are also affected by environmental factors. Individuals need to change their dysfunctional behaviours and switch to receptive ones to get better performance results (Neck, Nouri, & Godwin, 2003). This implies that self-leadership is considered an independent variable, while performance behavior is a dependent variable. Modifications or manipulations of self-leadership will therefore result in changes

in the performance of graduate interns. The research investigated the extent to which graduate intern performance behaviours were influenced by the adoption of self-leadership skills.

2.6.4. Hypothesis 2

This study suggested that people with high self-leadership skills will exhibit better performance and thereby advance. The study hypothesis below was used to evaluate the connection between graduate interns at work and their use of self-leadership skills.

H2 *- Self-leadership skills practice has a positive impact on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.*

2.6.5. Main strategies of self-leadership

2.6.5.1. Self-regulation

Self-regulation is a behaviour pattern that allows someone to manage their behaviour by enhancing their inner states, particularly when it comes to necessary but often unpleasant tasks. Self-observation, self-assessment, goal setting, and self-cuing, which focus on knowledge of how, why, and the circumstances surrounding a person's behaviour. Such self-regulation, according to Neck and Manz (2013) is a necessary first step towards changing or eliminating ineffective or unproductive behaviour. Self-regulation supports the idea that individuals can more effectively set behaviour change goals for themselves, provided that they have precise knowledge and understanding of present effectiveness and behaviour thresholds.

2.6.5.2. Self-reflection

Self-reflection is an effective habit for fostering the configuration of original thoughts and creative patterns that enhance one's effectiveness. Identifying and replacing ineffective beliefs and assumptions, as well as practicing mental vision and positive self-talk, are examples of constructive thought pattern-based strategies. In order to change unhelpful beliefs and assumptions, with more original ones, one should first investigate the individual's thought patterns.

2.6.5.3. Self-talk

Self-talk is a type of communication with oneself that includes evaluating oneself and one's responses mentally (Ellis, 1977). Positive self-talk can take the place of negative self-talk by analysing self-talk patterns (Gillham & Seligman, 1999). Leaders are becoming aware of the effectiveness of constructive self-discussion in enhancing self-esteem and preventing negative feelings. Individuals with positive self-talk are thought to be more confident, motivated, and productive. Individuals who visualise themselves performing an activity successfully before doing so are more likely to succeed when confronted with the actual task (Neck & Manz, 2013) .

2.6.5.4. Self-perspective

Self-perspective is a healthy reward approach that illustrates how people form views and perspectives by examining and evaluating their own behaviour and are rewarded in line with those conclusions. Self-perception must be accurate considering the other person's reality. To accomplish this, two natural reward strategies are used: creating an environment in which the task itself becomes naturally rewarding and shaping perspective by analysing one's behaviour, while staying away from the undesirable elements of the job.

2.7. Conceptual framework

The illustration in Figure 2.1 below indicates that the link between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and line manager rating and performance is complicated in nature. The operating theories of manager-employee coaching relationship emphasized that the relationship is the key to performance, while self-leadership skills practice influence work success.

The research variables and their constructs that serve as the foundation for the conceptual framework are summarised below (refer further to Table 3.1).

- **Manager-employee coaching relationship (IV1**) – genuineness of the relationship (GRL), effective communication (EFC), comfort in the relationship (CRL), and facilitating development (FDV).
- **Self-leadership skills practice (IV2)** – self-reward (SRW), self-observation (SOB), self-cuing (SLC), self-punishment (SPN), focus on natural rewards, Visualising successful and performance VSP), self-talk (SLT), and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA).
- **Performance behaviours (DV**) – self-goal setting (SGS).

Figure 2.1 in the next subsection illustrates the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and job performance. For reference, the consistency matrix is placed in Appendix E.

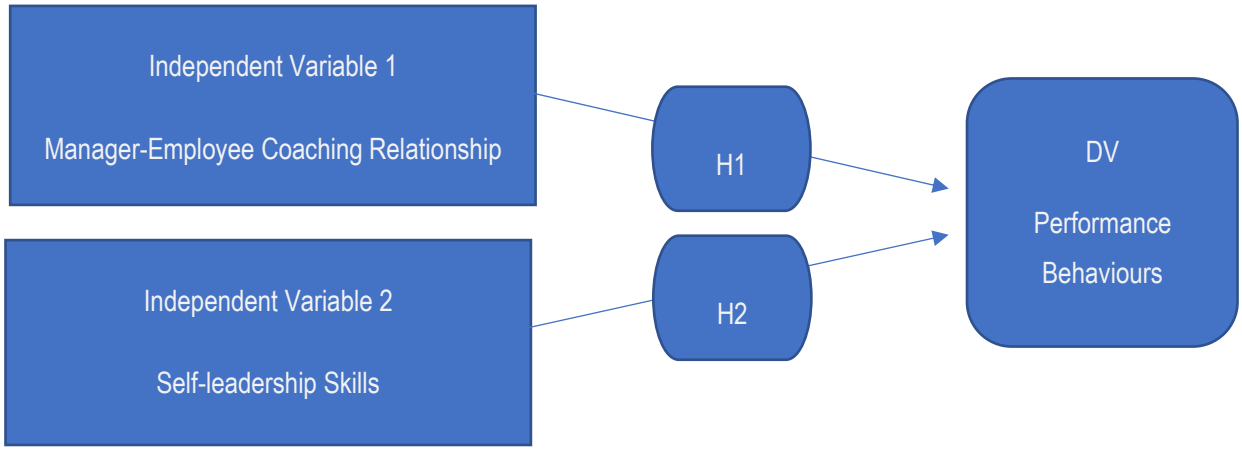


Figure 2.1. The relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and job performance

2.8. Summary of literature review

The findings of the literature review indicate that the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership are positively related to the performance of workers, the culture of work / performance, and organisational success. To have an efficient and meaningful effect on the organisational culture, good managerial coaching and self-leadership accompanied by an excellent work culture were related to enhanced employee efficiency. Employees with a strong work morale and a sense of high job satisfaction were expected to contribute to the company's success in general. The investigator adopted the following research hypotheses for the research study, based on the findings of the literature review:

2.8.1. Hypothesis 1

H1 *– The perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship impacts positively on performance of corporate graduate interns.*

2.8.2. Hypothesis 2

H2 *– Self-leadership skills practice has a positive impact on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.*

2.9. Conclusion of Chapter 2

The various facets of the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviours were covered in this chapter. It outlined the aspects of the relationship between the practice of self-leadership, manager-employee coaching relationship, and performance behaviour outcomes of corporate graduate interns. The process of developing hypotheses was guided by elements from the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviour variables. Their impact on job performance of performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns was discussed. Figure 2.1, the conceptual framework of the study, shows the direct connections between the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and performance behaviours. The next chapter outlines the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The prior sections covered the relevant scientific research on the relationship between managers and employees coaching, self-leadership, and graduate interns' performance behaviours. This chapter concentrated on the research methodology used in this study to fully inform the reader about the processes used and the logic followed. Furthermore, the study's research approach, research paradigm, research design, population, sample, data collection, instrumentation, data analysis, limitations, validity, reliability, and ethical considerations are discussed.

In order to allow the researcher to discuss and answer the research query, data was collected and then evaluated through research. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2003), identified research methodology as a philosophy of how research should be conducted and research as something that individuals do to systematically find out about things to improve awareness.

There are four research areas that needed to be considered, according to Hull (2004) and these include: research as a systematic, formal, and coordinated approach to the problems; research should reveal knowledge that was not readily available; research should be orientated, not general; and research should provide a framework for analysis and commentary. Johnson in Hull (2004, p. 45) supported the above statement, which describes research as systematic and concentrated investigation that goes beyond commonly available data in order to obtain specialized and comprehensive information which in turn provides a basis for analysis and commentary.

3.2. Research approach

Three types of research approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods are known, according to Grover (2015), Guba (1990) and Creswell and Creswell (2018). In order to test theories by looking at the relationships between variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), a quantitative research approach uses numerical data from a chosen population subgroup in a systematic and objective manner (Walliman, 2005). Conrad and Serlin (2011) extended this definition to describe the deductive nature of quantitative research, because its conclusions regarding the population's characteristics are derived from statistical inference tests. However, as noted by Goodwin (2002) qualitative research is distinguished by an interpretation based on the story of the data that was collected from the study. As a result, the findings of the research are verbally summarized without the use of objective statistical summaries, according to Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, and Zechmeister (2000). Mixed approach methods are used when research problems cannot be addressed by a single approach and both approaches are thus used in combination (Grover, 2015) and with parallel data collection and analysis (Kemper, Stringfield, & Teddlie, 2003). Both Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Newman, Benz, and Ridenour (1998) warned that quantitative and qualitative approaches should not be regarded as rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites or dichotomies, but instead as representing the continuum's distinct ends.

Differences between the research strategies can be described as follows. Qualitative data that can be commonly controlled by using interviews and personal observations, can be used to define people, associations and groups (Shaughnessy et al., 2000). The quantitative research approach enables the researcher to respond to inquiries between measured occurrences and evaluated parameters. Such research also highlights the assessment and analysis of causal relationships between variables (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). A quantitative approach for this study was adopted according to the above definitions of the

research approach since the research aimed to investigate the impact of the relationship between manager employee coaching and the practice of self-leadership skills on the performance behaviour of corporate graduate interns.

3.3. Research paradigm

The set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists on how problems should be understood and addressed (Kuhn, 2012) is a research paradigm. A paradigm, with assumptions about epistemology, methodology and methods is a basic beliefs system and theoretical framework. Lincoln, Lynham, and Guba (2011) claim that it alludes to a set of ideas that direct the researcher's action. The philosophical underpinnings of this study is a post-modern conceptual perspective, which has an academic bent and frequently uses quantitative methods (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The assumptions underlying ontology holds that the researcher is impartial and unaffected by the outside world (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2010).

This paradigm guided the researcher to decide what type of data was required for the study and which tools for the study would be most suitable for data collection. The quantitative method has the advantage of being objective when analyzing and analyzing data. The deductive logic enables the generalization of data and the use of guidelines, presumptions, discoveries and theories to arrive at a conclusion (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Methods used for a research project depend on the project's design and the theoretical mindset of the researcher, but ontological and epistemological assumptions are excluded.

There are two paradigms for the verification of theoretical paradigms in this research, notably positivism and interpretivism. Positivism assumes that reality exists irrespective of humanity and that realism, where the social world is a natural world, is the basis for a positivist ontological position. There is a cause-effect relationship between phenomena in nature and once it has been

established, it can be established with certainty in the future. An epistemological positivist position focuses on the importance of objectivity and evidence in the researcher's search for truth and the world, where facts and values are very different and it is therefore possible to conduct an objective and value-free research (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Positivist methodology relies heavily on experimentation and research questions present hypotheses about causal relationships. The objective is to measure, control, predict, construct and attribute causality to them (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). "Positivist research often generates numerical scales" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, pp. 19-20). According to the positivist approach, research is considered to be of good quality if it has internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Interpretivism is noted as a "response to positive hegemonic dominance" (Grix, 2004, p. 82) and emerges as the greatest criticism of positivism for its lack of rigor in studying individual and social phenomena in the same way as it does in studying natural phenomena (Gage, 2007). Researchers are inextricably part of the social reality being studied, that is, they are not detached from the subject they are studying. According to Grix (2004, p. 83) "the goal of interpretivism research is not to discover free knowledge and truth of universal context but to try understanding individuals' interpretations of social phenomena with which they interact". Social research can only collect data from points of view, expressed by Blaikie (2000) as merely observing spectacles with lenses that are shaped by the researcher's language, culture, discipline-based knowledge, past experiences and experience that follow from these.

Two concepts of social reality, which reflect two different paradigms, will now be considered. While positivism stands for objectivity, measurability, predictability, controllability and established behavioral laws and rules, non-positivism essentially emphasizes the understanding and interpretation of phenomena and the making of this process meaningful (Kuhn, 2012). Positivism, which emphasizes an objectivist approach to the study of social phenomena, gives

significance to quantitative analysis and survey research methods. The positivist paradigm was found appropriate for the purpose of this study, as the study adopted a quantitative research methodology.

3.4. Research design

The choice to be made regarding research design is a very important decision in the research design process as it determines how related data will be obtained from a study; however the research design process involves many interrelated decisions (Sileyew, 2019). According to Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Sileyew (2019) in this study, the term “research design” refers to the kind of quantitative methodology inquiry that established the course of study (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). These “strategies of inquiry” are meant to provide the framework for the study. This approach uses a self-administered online survey as part of a cross-sectional, non-experimental survey study. Field (2009) asserts that surveys are the best and most widely used quantitative research methodology because they have the advantage of allowing researchers to quickly gather primary data, in this case from South African coached corporate graduate interns (Field, 2009).

There are ethical considerations that the researcher must make when using questionnaires to gather data. By obtaining participants’ informed consent and outlining the significance of the research, the study made sure that the participants were aware of their roles, understood they were not obliged to participate, and had guarantees that the information they provided would remain unidentified and confidential (Cooper, Schindler, & Sun, 2006). Before the survey was distributed, the Wits Business School Ethics Committee approved the researcher’s request to conduct this research (see attached copy in Appendix A).

In order to uncover patterns and enhance decision-making, descriptive research was used to distill databases into meaningful dimensions (Loeb et al., 2017). Descriptive data can make it easier to evaluate the questions of “why” and “why

not" by providing data for each world that helps to frame, contextualize and interpret causal research (Loeb et al., 2017). Therefore, the research design allowed the researcher to gather data from respondents about the impact of the coaching relationship between manager and employee, as well as self-leadership skills, on the performance behaviours of graduate interns.

This research followed an exploratory research process to find out why a particular phenomenon occurs (Cohen et al., 2007). A similar view is expressed by Rahi (2017) who usually describes it in the form of causal relationships as a situation or problem, and helps gain new insights into the situation in order to build, elaborate, extend, or test theory.

3.5. Sampling and population

3.5.1. Population

There are many populations of interest that can be included in the research sample (Neuman, 2003). A population is described in Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) as a full collection of cases from which data can be sourced or as the complete set of that we want to draw some conclusions about according to Emory, Cooper, and Schindler (2002). At the time of the present investigation, the population of this study was coached graduate interns working at various multinational companies across South Africa.

Surveys require the identification of a "study population" according to Gill and Johnson (2002) which include all the necessary details for answering the original query. It is always difficult to include all members of the population, so it is important to choose who is involved. This idea is known as probability sampling. The goal here is to ensure that those concerned are a representative subset of the study community and thus be able to generalize or extrapolate any results with confidence to the target population (Gill & Johnson, 2002, p. 102).

3.5.2. Sample and sampling method

The use of quantitative data sampling was considered for this research, and the non-probability sampling method was used, alternatively referred to as purposive or judgement sampling. As the term implies (Zeffane, 1994a) to generalize the results equally in relation to the population size of the sample, depends on the type of data analysis the investigator intends to do, the accuracy of the sample, and the characteristics of the population.

A purposive sampling methodology or judgment technique was deemed acceptable to obtain information from identified respondents. The goal was to select units from the population to create a sample, with the intention of generalizing from that sample to the population of interest. Subjects were selected based on the study purpose with the expectation that each participant would provide unique and rich information of value to the study (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). Latham (2007) argued that purposive sampling represents selecting a sample based on the researchers' knowledge of the population, its elements and the nature of the research aims. Purposeful sampling, according to Koerber and McMichael (2008) entails the researcher looking for participants who have particular characteristics and making an effort to choose respondents who accurately reflect the population (Greenstein & Davis, 2012).

In purposive sampling, size is determined by data saturation not statistical power analysis (Suen, Huang, & Lee, 2014). The Total Population Sampling technique of purposive sampling methodology was applied as the entire population met the criteria, that is the identified coached corporate graduate interns were all included in the research being conducted (Etikan et al., 2016). For data collection, the sample consisted of 200 corporate graduate interns at a participating company, who were used as respondents. Permissions for conducting research and administering the survey were obtained from the participating company's HR

Talent Recruitment and Development function. Participants could obtain details about research procedures with informed consent (refer to Appendices A & D).

3.6. The research instrument

An online questionnaire that was predetermined and self-administered served as the research tool in this study. Unlike when respondents must be interviewed directly, the self-administered survey encourages objectivity and confidentiality while lowering social desirability. On-line questionnaires are quick , efficient, and enable greater geographic reach (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The fact that the investigation instrument had been accurately used, evaluated, and established in studies like this one, meant that it was appropriate for the current population (Acado & Florin, 2006).

It was a multi-item scale with different questions for each construct. As was the case in this study, the unclear challenging nature of the variables being measured in social science research, the multi-item scale questions are frequently used. The only drawback of using Likert Scales, which are employed to evaluate claims using a scale of arrangement, is that interpreting the significance of each score can be difficult (Zikmund & Carr, 2003).

Independent and dependent variables were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The development of questions was influenced by earlier research and simplified, evaluated, and prototyped scales (Gregory & Levy, 2010; Neck & Manz, 2013). The survey was pretested on 30 corporate graduate interns and the organisation, wording, and other minor enhancements were not altered. The instrument's goals were to gather data on the following: biographical data, independent variables (managerial coaching and self-leadership) and dependent variable (performance behaviours).

The research questionnaire consisted of three parts: the first part covered the respondents' demographic information through the Demographic Information Form (Appendix F); the second part asked respondents to evaluate perceived quality factors of manager-employee coaching relationship through use of the Perceived Quality of Employee Coaching Relationship (PQECR) questionnaire (Appendix G); and the third part would identify self-leadership variables that influence their performance behaviours through the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) (Appendix H). All tools used in the study had been tested for reliability (Scott & Bruce, 1994), except the Demographic Information and the alpha test from Cronbach's which were used to check the internal accuracy of questionnaires.

The examination of respondents' background information was important to this study because it was hoped that it would be possible to identify and characterize factors contributing to significant difference in mobility and motivation. Both forced and close-ended questions were included in the demographic section. Multiple choice questions were used in control variable measurements. In order to attain a particular degree of consistency, measures from prior studies were used because the Cronbach alpha scores were outstanding when they were assessed. In the South African setting they were not tested, even though they have met the requirement for validity and reliability (Hawkins & Smith, 2013; Ladyshewsky, 2010).

The PQECR questionnaire is used to inform talent management specialists about how workers view their coaching relationship with their managers, according to Gregory and Levy (2010). This coaching impacts on the relationship between the supervisor or line manager and employee and is referred to as manager-employee coaching relationship or employee coaching relationship. Employee and manager preferences affected the employee coaching process and its perceived effectiveness.

The research tool used to assess ones capacity for self-leadership skills amongst the corporate graduate interns was the structured survey, the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (Houghton & Neck, 2002). The RSLQ is a self-administered survey instrument consisting of 35 item statements using a seven-point Likert scale in the self-leadership scale, assessing behavior focused, natural reward and cognitive thought strategies along with an overall measure of overall self-leadership. The RSLQ is stated to have fairly good reliability, validity across a variety of empirical studies and a consistent factor structure that further confirms original results and promotes a significant degree of cross-cultural self-leadership build (Houghton & Neck, 2002).

The research online questionnaire consists of four sections. Section A contains demographic information, Section B contains information on the manager-employee coaching relationship, Section C contains information on the concepts of self-leadership concept, and Section D contains information on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The Perceived Quality of Employee Coaching relationship (PQEER) (Gregory & Levy, 2010) and the Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) (Neck & Manz, 2013) were used to derive questions relating to the self-leadership construct, and manager-employee coaching relationship.

Questions from the Perceived Quality of Employee Coaching Relationship Questionnaire were used to explore the concept of manager-employee coaching relationship. These are broken into four categories: ease in the relationship, communication effectiveness, genuineness of connection, and development support.

The Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (Houghton & Neck, 2002) was used to ask questions about self-leadership (Houghton, Wu, Godwin, Neck, & Manz, 2012). This section of the questionnaire is divided into three question sub-sections: 1) behaviour focused on covering self-goal setting, self-reward, self-

punishment, self-observation, and self-cuing; 2) constructive thought covering visualization of successful performance, self-talk, and evaluating belief and assumptions; and 3) natural rewards focusing on benefits of nature.

The research tool's goal was to gather information on demographics, two independent variables (manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership), and a dependent variable (self-goal setting). The framework, questions and items that made up the survey instrument are summarised in Table 3.1. It is a condensed version of the research tool. For additional information on the coding of constructs, subconstructs, and sources refer to Appendix I.

Table 3.1: Study Instrumentation in Summary

High-Level Factors	Constructs (Latent Factors)	Section	Questions	Items	Variables
Demographics	Individual	A	Q1-5	5	CV
Performance	Self-goal Setting	B	Q1-5	5	DV
Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship	Genuine Relationship (GRL)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
	Effective Communication (EFC)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
	Comfort in Relationship (CRL)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
	Facilitating Development (FDV)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
Self-Leadership	Self-reward (SRW)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
	Self-observation (SOB)	C	Q1-4	4	IV
	Self-cuing (SLC)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
	Self-punishment (SPN)	C	Q1-6	6	IV
	Focusing on Natural Rewards (FNR)	C	Q1-4	4	IV
	Visualising Successful Performance (VSP)	C	Q1-5	5	IV
	Self-talk (SLT)	C	Q1-2	2	IV
	Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions (EBA)	C	Q1-3	3	IV
Total				52	

Source: Primary data **Identification letters:** Independent, Dependent, and Control variables

3.7. Procedure for data collection

The research was cross-sectional in nature. A structured questionnaire was created, distributed, summarized, and sent to the potential respondents using an online tool called Qualtrics. Over the course of two months, from March to April 2022, data was gathered using an online survey questionnaire. In field research, questionnaires are the most popular tool for gathering data from the sample population (Field, 2013) and are constructed to reach the targeted population via the internet. Data collection is not overly expensive when using online surveys (Díaz de Rada Igúzquiza, Casaló Ariño, & Guinalíu Blasco, 2016).

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1976), questionnaires consist of a series of questions that need to be carefully formulated, put together, and organized in order to yield the most useful information. To measure the variables, the Biographical Questionnaire, Perceived Quality of the Employee Coaching Relationship (PQECR) Questionnaire, and Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ), were responded to by all sampled corporate graduate serving internships from years 2020 -2022.

Approximately 200 corporate graduate interns received the questionnaires via emails and WhatsApp. A response rate of 75,5% was indicated by the return of 151 questionnaires. 143 of the 151 returned questionnaires contained useful observations. To explain the purpose of the research, each participant received an email or WhatsApp informing them of the study, its intent, and requesting their voluntary participation. They received an online summary mail package, including a cover letter, with instructions for participants to complete the questionnaires and return them to the researcher.

An effort was made to increase the possibility of achieving the true score on the need for strategies for manager-employee coaching relationships, self-leadership and internal success of graduates, rather than score with structural error by

reducing apprehension of the assessment (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Anonymity was granted to respondents and they were informed that there were no correct or incorrect responses (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

In a scheduled period, survey questionnaires were provided online to respondents and self-report data were collected from respondents on age, gender, race, and education. A non-disclosure agreement was facilitated to avoid compromising the participants' confidentiality, privacy, and deception. The participants were informed of the study's goal, which was to consider, safeguard, and only use research information for research purposes.

3.8. Data analysis and interpretation

A collection of data is meaningless and tells the researcher nothing until it is processed to extract meaningful information that will be relevant to the research goal. Data analysis involves two steps: data preparation (editing, coding and collection of data) and data interpretation (Martins, Loubser, & Van Wyk, 1996). A quantitative systematic approach to data processing was used for this study. In order to define and explain the phenomenon reflected by observations, quantitative analysis was calculated through a manipulation of numbers to represent observations, according to Babbie and Mouton (2001). These included the following: frequencies, variance, and primary trend indicators, notably the mean, median and mode.

Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were used as a preliminary analysis (Hahn, 2016). The number of respondents, and the ranges are all descriptive statistics. Statistical analysis was used to assess if there were any correlations between the factors or latent variables. According to McMillan (2002), a poor association is between .10 and .30, a moderate relationship is between 40 and .60, and a good relationship is between .70 and above.

The primary statistical method used to evaluate the hypotheses (hypotheses 1 and 2) in the current study and the strength direction of the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviours. Multiple regression used linear combinations of interval and dichotomous dependent variables to account for (predict) variation in internal dependent variable. Multiple regression analysis may show that several independent variables explain a considerable proportion of the variance in an independent variable, as well as the independent variable's relative predictive significance. A multilinear regression was used in the analysis in order to find linear relationships between a response variable and several predictor variables (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe, 2007).

3.9. Limitations of the study

If researchers study the potentialities and weaknesses of different research methodologies (Queirós, Faria, & Almeida, 2017), this study has several limitations that needs to be mentioned. The study followed a quantitative methodology aimed at accurate and reliable measurement that allows for statistical significance and presupposes a set of good data collection, analysis and report practices (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003). Schneider (2013), however, pointed out that in research evaluation, there are methodological limitations in the use of statistical significance tests. This limitation was confirmed by Maher, Markey, and Ebert-May (2013) who caution in adopting statistical techniques while proposing the measure of effect size to increase the analysis' robustness.

In order to obtain information from respondents, a purposive sampling methodology was used (Etikan et al., 2016). Using the researcher's knowledge of the population, the methodology chose the sample (Suen et al., 2014), additionally the researcher may choose participants on purpose who are in line with the population (Greenstein & Davis, 2012). Miles and Huberman (1994),

however, argued that the purposive method of sampling should place primary analysis on saturation, in other words obtaining a comprehensive understanding by continuing to sample until no significant information was required.

3.10. Validity

Validity is the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation (Collis & Hussey, 2013, p. 58). A test is accurate if it indicates what the researcher claims to be doing. Validity may be compromised by testing mistakes such as incorrect analysis methods, improper calibration and incomplete or deceptive measurements (Collis & Hussey, 2013). According to McBurney (1994), validity is an indicator of accuracy in terms of degree to which a study hypothesis concedes with facts.

Validity, according to Saunders et al. (2007) refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it was intended to measure. For this study's research questionnaires, content validity was more relevant as questions reflected the investigative questions in these questionnaires and would therefore be able to answer the research question. A clear connection between reliability and validity exists in that it is also perfectly reliable if a measure is perfectly valid (Malhotra, 2009). All data collection questionnaires used for this study have been evaluated and standardized through research to increase the level of reliability and validity, and also calibrated to deliver administration consistency.

Neuman (2003) further stated that irrespective of the methodology and attitude adopted by the researcher, there is still a question that remains that should preferably be addressed before the research scale is used and that depended on the degree to which such a scale is accurate and true. Validity implies the capacity of the independent variable to exclude alternative explanations (Devlin, 2006) .

3.10.1. External validity (Generalizability)

Prochaska (2017) pointed out that external validity referred to the degree to which other contexts can be generalized to the findings obtained in a study. Generalizability is the extent to which a study as a specimen covers the population as a whole (Malhotra, 2009). There is, in general, concern about the generalization of the findings from qualitative research due to the use of small samples and a representative number of cases. However, if the research project is linked to an existing theory, the researcher will be able to demonstrate that the results are of greater importance than if the cases formed the basis of the study (Malhotra, 2009).

As the researcher had a reasonable sample of participants, the analysis is generalizable to a degree. The study was conducted in a telecommunications company in South Africa, which offers graduate interns coaching for personal and career development. The researcher strongly believed that the study had the potential to achieve generalization at a low to medium level through its results. The research can only be generalized to the surveyed group, which is the population that was surveyed. In the non-probability sampling method, quotas are often assigned in a manner that mirrors the target population (Malhotra, 2009). As adopted in this study, the technique would improve generalizability to that specific population. Therefore, the project was limited in its results and should only be generalized to those graduate interns from companies that were part of the study.

3.10.2. Internal validity

Internal validity was defined as the determination of whether the causal relations were the relationship within the specific data-set (Devroe, 2016). It reflects the degree to which the effects are due to and not any competing interpretation of the independent variable, giving confidence that the independent variable is

actually responsible for changes in the dependent variable (Holbrook, 2011). Since an experimental environment is precisely constructed in order to be valid internally, it is not possible to be certain that the causal mechanisms are outside the experiment (Jiménez-Buedo & Miller, 2010). An experiment is a deliberate causal proposition test, in which subjects are usually randomly assigned to conditions (Druckman, Green, Kuklinski, & Lupia, 2011) and is seen as the best way to tackle the problem of third variables and potentially spurious relationships (Mutz, 2011). The internal validity of the study may be threatened by many factors, including errors in calculation, or the selection of participants, and the researcher must try to eliminate any other possible explanations for the results observed to ensure internal validity of the research (Devlin, 2006).

3.10.3. Face validity

Face validity as defined by Babbie (2020), is an indicator that makes some variables to be a reasonable measure, and it is the subjective judgement that the instrument measures what it intends to measure in terms of relevance. Thus, in this study, the researcher ensured the selection of tools that were already developed and validated to eliminate uncertainties by using appropriate words and concepts to improve clarity and general suitability (Sileyew, 2019). In the case of questionnaires, the indicators were structured in such a way that the measurement of the variables was relevant. The issues clearly relate to the perceived performance of the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills practice on the performance of corporate graduate interns.

3.10.4. Objectivity

In research methods, objectivity means that all sources of bias were minimized and that personal or subjective ideas were eliminated as far as humanly possible (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The principle of objectivity means that there is a fact or

an objective reality outside of any inquiry or observation. The researcher's job is to reveal the fact without contaminating it in any way. Objectivity communicates the idea that the arguments, methods and outcomes of science are not or should not be influenced by personal viewpoints, values, group prejudice or particular interest. Putnam (2002, p. 145), called it the belief that "facts are objective, and values are subjective, and the twain will never meet."

3.11. Reliability

Joppe (2000), defined reliability as the extent to which outcomes are consistent over time. An accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and the research instruments are dependable if the results of a study can be reproduced using similar methodology. In qualitative research, Kirk and Miller (1986), defined three types of reliability that related to: (a) the degree of consistency of results; (b) the stability over time; and (c) the similarity within a given time period.

Reliability is the extent to which, if repeated measurements are made on the same features, a scale generates consistent results. It could therefore be concluded that reliability is an extent to which random error-free measures (Malhotra, 2009), include test-retest reliability, alternative forms, and internal consistency methods in the assessment of reliability approaches. A pilot test performed before conducting a formal survey could reflect the consistency of responses that could be used to validate the reliability of collected data.

According to Collis and Hussey (2013), the study results are concerned with reliability. If research findings can be replicated and comparable results can be made, it is deemed dependable. On the other hand, reliability tests the degree to which a measuring instrument is accurate in measuring, while validity referred to the extent to which an instrument measured what is supposed to be measured (Aral, Brynjolfsson, & van Alstyne, 2006).

Manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership variables and their sub-elements were built from the questionnaires. A reliability test was conducted to determine whether the variables were reliable and accurate because their development involved adding up the answers to the pertinent questions. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the internal accuracy of each calculation. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient evaluates both the reliability of the scale being used and the precision with which a variable is measured by the items being used.

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of each measure. Model fit was used to evaluate the measurement models. Among the fit statistics examined were the chi-squared divided by the degrees of freedom (X^2/df), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and root-mean-square error approximation (RMSEA). CFI and IFI scores greater than .90 (>.90) are considered satisfactory for the hypothesized model's goodness-of-fit of the hypothesized model (Kline, 2015). An acceptable goodness-of-fit for the model was deemed to be 0.80 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992).

The direct association hypothesized in the current study was assessed using multivariate regression analysis to evaluate the hypotheses (hypotheses 1 and 2). Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to evaluate the unintended consequences of mediating variables and proposed structural relationships' indirect effects (Arbuckle, 2006). SEM is known as the most sophisticated statistical method for evaluating the mediation hypothesis, and the more reliable estimation of an indirect effect, according to Cho and Egan (2013), and Shrout and Bolger (2002).

It is possible to rate this analysis as highly accurate in that there is a strong possibility of producing the same results. This implies that the findings and outcomes would assist South African corporate organisations to implement

effective workplace graduate programmes, thereby compensating for direct, indirect and opportunity costs (Bassman, 1992).

3.12. Ethical considerations

Ethics is the field of study, according to Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2000), which attempts to determine what behaviours are appropriate in certain circumstances according to established codes of conduct set out by society. In this study, ethical considerations ensured that participants were made fully aware of the study's purpose and their informed consent first sought. Research participants were given assurance that their data would be used for the purpose of the study alone.

During separate phases of the research project, researchers face numerous ethical problems. Subsequently and generally, research ethics can be seen as a collection of moral standards that includes guidelines and behavioral guidelines for treating experiment participants and respondents with respect (De Vos, Delport, Fouche, & Strydom, 2011). Conducting research is an ethical endeavor (Struwig, Struwig, & Stead, 2001) and while performing a study, it is important to adopt moral behavior. Since data was obtained from various sources for research purposes, it was important that participants be valued, and that information collected was protected and managed privately and confidentially.

Willing cooperation was the basis of the general principle of ethical research. It depended upon the trust that was honestly and objectively conducted without intrusion or damage to the respondents. Its purpose was to collect and analyse data, not to generate sales directly or to influence the views of anyone participating in it. The public and other interested parties were entitled to full assurance that, without their consent, no information collected in the research survey would be disclosed and used to identify them. The data they provided was also not be used for any purpose other than for research and would not be used

adversely to affect them in any way, as a result of their involvement (Baines & Chansarkar, 2002).

In this research study, several ethical issues were considered:

a) Explain the purpose of the study to participants.
b) Freedom to withdraw at any stage of the study, due to uncomfortableness in responding to survey.
c) Assurance regarding anonymity, privacy, confidentiality, and security of material information provided.
d) Encounters with workplace include the employer's permission and the participants' agreement to participate in the research study being requested in advance.
e) The rights of all study participants to be protected and their privacy upheld.
f) Strengthen non-disclosure agreements to enhance confidentiality of participants.
g) Researcher bias can be avoided by drawing correct conclusions based on suitable methodologies.
h) Retaining objectivity of the researcher by properly planning the report, referencing the information cited and avoiding delicate sampling, and withholding any information that might compromise the privacy of participants (Zeffane, 1994b).
i) Access to the research report should respondents register an interest.

3.13. Conclusion of Chapter 3

This Chapter covered research methodology and paradigms with a focus on the study's research methodology. The study used a post-positivist philosophical framework and a quantitative research design. For descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, SPSS was used. Respondents were corporate graduate interns, and information was gathered using self-administered online

questionnaires. For sampling purposes, one business organisation was chosen, and they were contacted about taking part in the study. The population of interest consisted of corporate graduate interns who had received coaching in a South African telecommunications company. The sample size was 200 corporate graduate interns who received the research questionnaire. 151 questionnaires were responded to and returned. 143 of the 151 questionnaires that were retuned contained usable observations. The findings of the study are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The findings of the research conducted are presented in the chapter. It starts by presenting data screening, then moves on to sample characteristics, descriptive statistics, and attribute ratings. Prior to conducting hypotheses testing, the chapter also presents the construct validity and the reliability of scale results. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

The objectives of the study were to investigate the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and examine the influence of self-leadership skills practice on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.

4.2. Data screening and quality

For ease of management, data was gathered using the Qualtrics platform, downloaded, and saved in an excel spreadsheet. One hundred and fifty-one responses were received and, 8 cases were disqualified from further examination as they did not meet the requirements. 143 responses from the final sample were analysed. Data was cleaned to make sure its integrity was not compromised, and quality check processes involved checking data for mistakes, coding issues, completeness issues, and questions that had been asked in reverse. It was then exported to SPSS where any statistical irregularities relating to multivariate analysis were examined for missing data (Field, 2013). After this, the data was examined for values that were not present, analysis of variance, reliability and validity assessments, and statistical procedures employed in hypothesis testing. The cleaned data was analysed using SPSS Version 28 (IBM Corp. Released 2022. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 28.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed using principal axis factoring (PAF) with the original 45 factors to determine if there was a common method bias. Principal axis factoring extraction and varimax rotation were used in an EFA and 9 factors came up as valid constructs for the study. The 9 factors explained 73.884% of the variance in the items (refer to Table 4.6). As a result, since the total variance explained by the 9 factors was greater than 0.5, there was no common method bias (Field, 2009).

4.3. Sample characteristics

This subsection covers characteristics of the respondents, who in this study were corporate graduate interns. The characteristics referred to were compiled using the respondents' gender, age, race, marital status, and education level. The study did not collect data on the occupation, level of hierarchy, or years of experience.

4.3.1. Gender distribution

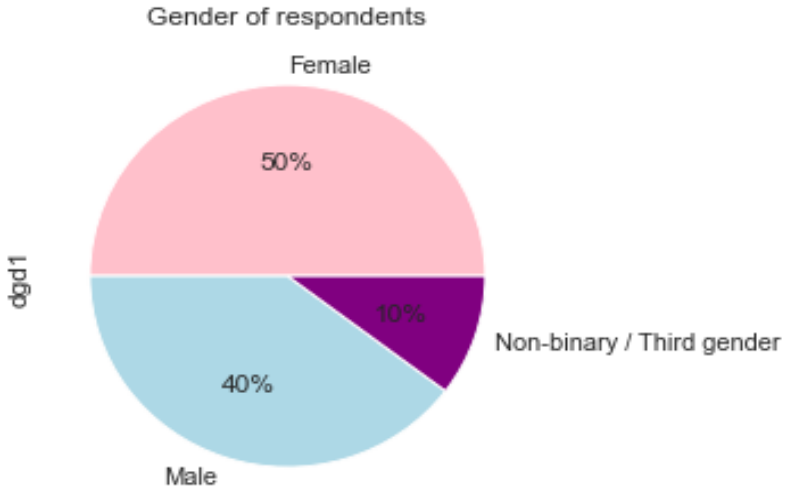


Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents

In this study, 50% of the respondents were females and 40% males, while 10% were neither female nor male (non-binary or third gender). The moderate female dominance may be attributed to diversity and inclusion policies driving parity with

one another as well as corporates adopting a tolerant attitude towards LBTQI populations.

4.3.2. Age distribution

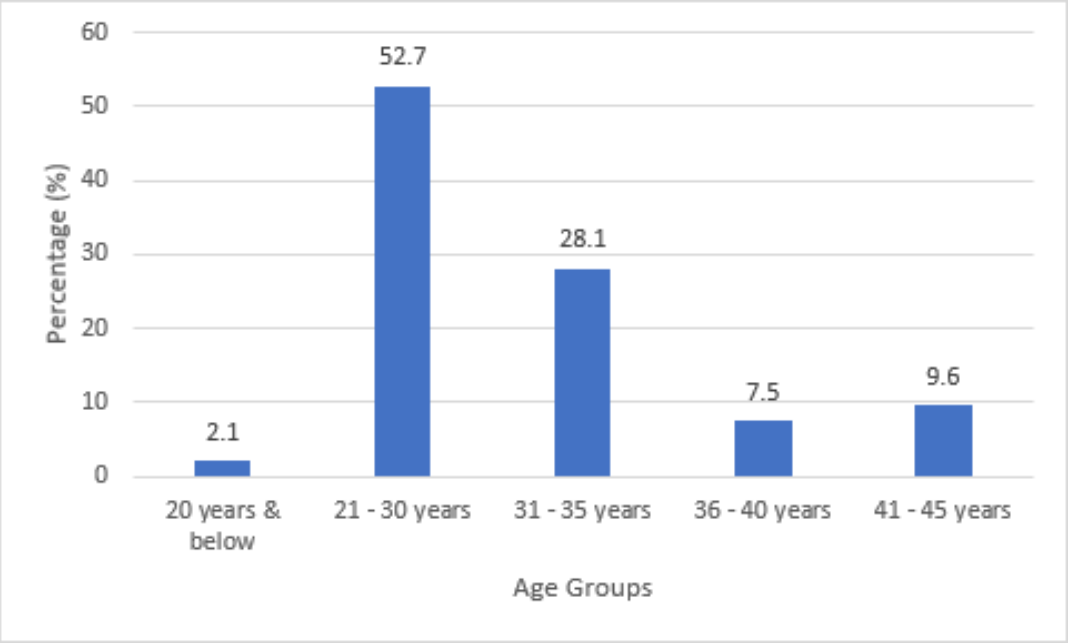


Figure 4.2: Age group

Eighty one percent of the respondents were in the age group of 21-35 years, followed by seventeen percent of respondents in the age group of 36-45 years (Figure 4.2). The results show that the majority of the respondents were young corporate graduate interns. This data suggests that young corporate graduate interns represent a sizeable group amongst the respondents, which overlaps with the economically active population. The population structure of South Africa, which is dominated by a moderately youthful group, is reflected in the collective dominance amongst the corporate graduate interns. This viewpoint is supported by the South Africa Country Report for the 2014 Ministerial Conference on Youth Employment, which noted that South Africa is a young country with a population

of youth comprising 67% of the total and a third of the working-age population being under the age of 30 years.

4.3.3. Marital status

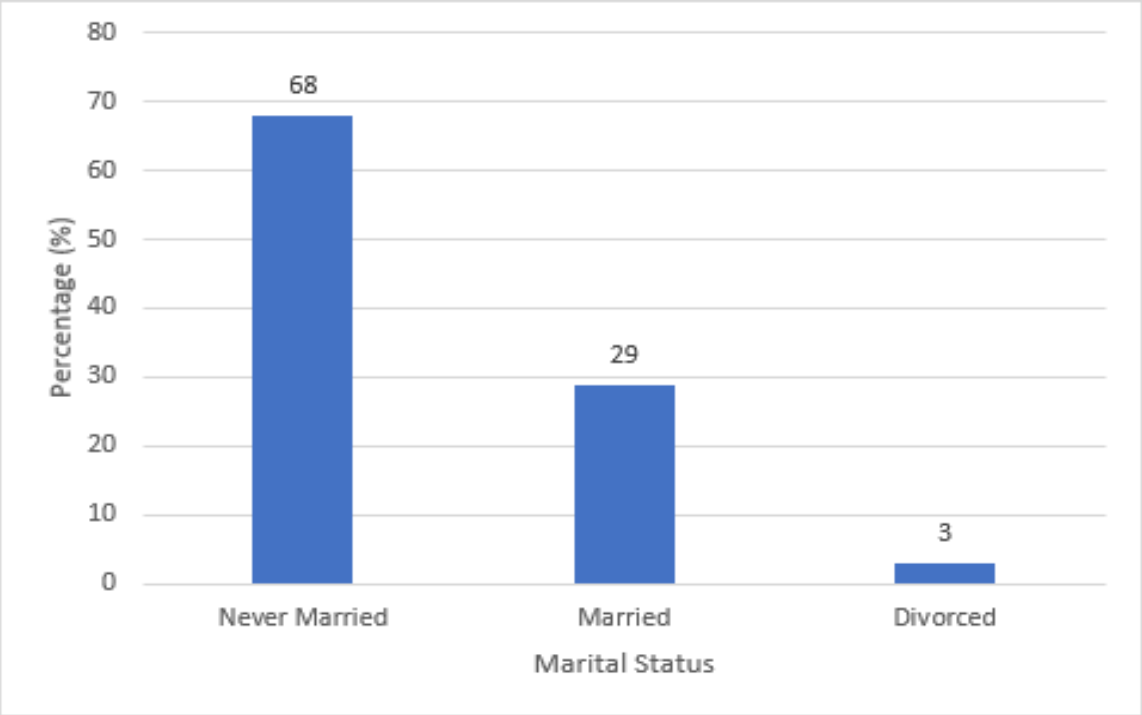


Figure 4.3: Marital status of respondents

According to Figure 4.3, 68% of the respondents were not married, and 29% were married, while 3% were divorced. This data shows that the majority of the respondents were not married.

4.3.4. Race

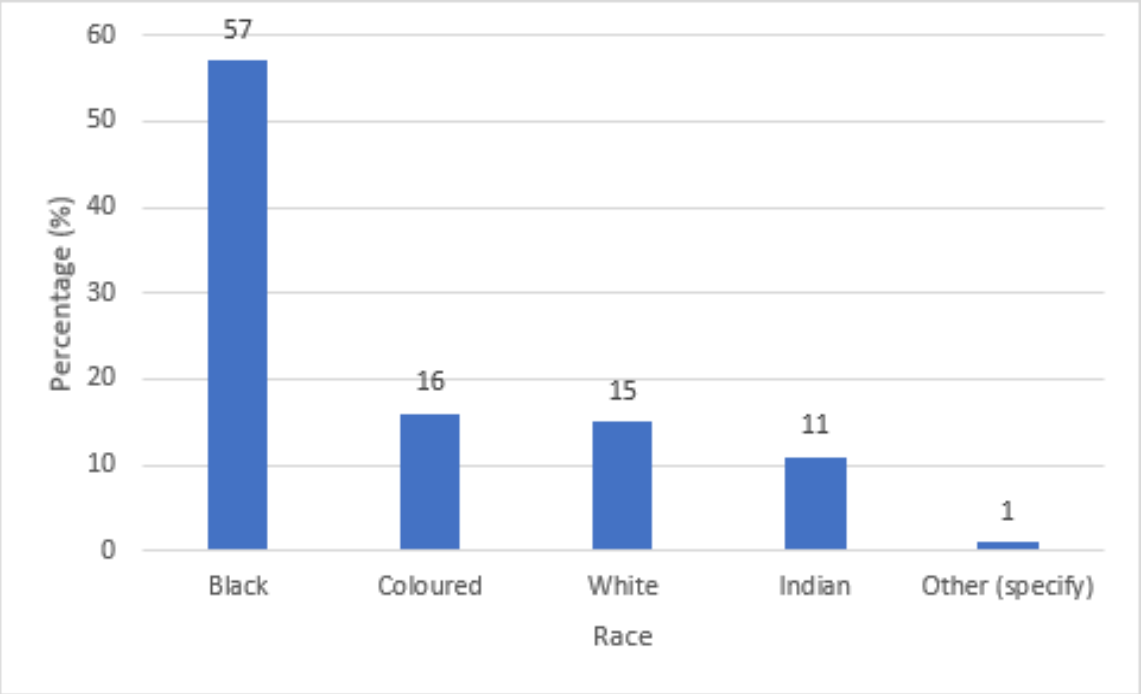


Figure 4.4: Proportion of respondents by race

Results shown in Figure 4.4 reveal that the majority of the respondents were Black (57%), followed by Coloured (16%), Indian (11%), and White (15%), and Other (1%). The results show that the company had more African graduate interns than other racial groups at the time of the study, due to the participant sample's proportionate representation of all racial groups and the ethnic diversity of the corporate graduate interns.

4.3.5. Educational level

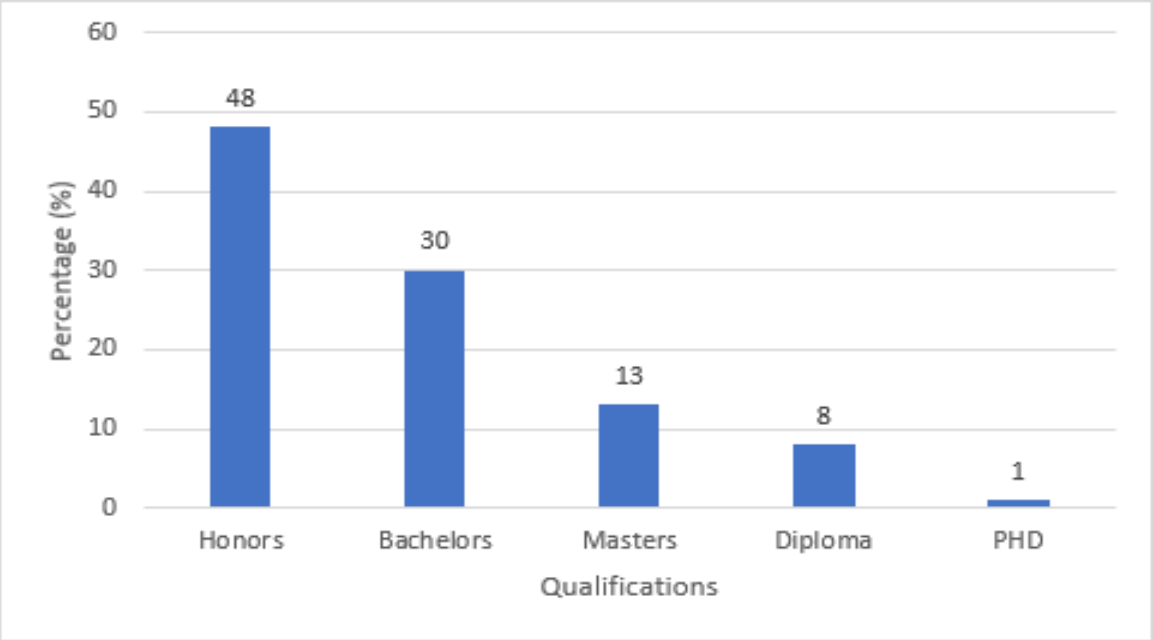


Figure 4.5: Educational level of respondents

Qualifications ranged from diplomas to PhDs, with the majority holding Bachelors and Honours degrees. 100% of the respondents had post-matric qualifications and 62% of the 100% had postgraduate degrees (honours, masters, and PhD), This result is consistent with corporate hiring and appointment practices for lower-level positions, where having a higher qualification is preferred. It indicates that most graduates believe that having a higher degree increased their chances of landing a job or placement as a graduate intern.

4.4. Descriptive statistics

In this subsection, three high level factors, their constructs and items are covered as outlined in Table 4.1. Additional information on the coding of constructs / latent factors and sources is contained in Appendix I. The results of the evaluation of the descriptive statistics for each construct's items are shown in this subsection.

4.4.1. Performance behaviours

The descriptive statistics for performance behaviours (SGS), which is the dependent variable are summarised in Table 4.1. The findings reveal how respondents view their performance, and that the respondents' top characteristic was that the respondents work towards specific goals set for their work (mean = 6.05), with 94.71 percent of those surveyed agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. However, the statement that they should set clear goals for their own performance received the least amount of support from respondents (mean = 5.74).

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for performance behaviours.

Variable	Frequency Distribution									Descriptive	
Self-Goal Setting (SGS)	No.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Somewhat / Agree / Strongly	Mean	Standard Deviation
SGS1.	143			4.90%	3.50%	14.69%	46.85%	30.06%	93.60%	5.93	1.00
SGS2	143		0.69%	2.79%	5.59%	12.58%	53.85%	24.48%	90.91%	5.89	0.96
SGS3	143			2.09%	4.19%	11.19%	51.05%	31.47%	93.71%	6.05	.869
SGS4	143	0.69%	0.69%	1.40%	3.50%	13.29%	51.05%	29.38	93.72%	5.98	.98
SGS5.	143	0.69		4.19%	8.39%	20.28%	39.17%	27.27%	86.72%	5.74	1.13

Source: Primary Data **1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree**. **SGS = Self-goal setting**

4.4.2. Manager-employee coaching relationship

Table 4.2 summarised the results and findings for manager-employee coaching relationship. The findings showed that the best rated quality was that respondents thought their managers or supervisors were good listeners (mean = 5.95), with 94.45% of the respondents stating that they agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. The claim that the respondents find it simple to communicate with their supervisors / managers about their performance is the statement with which they agreed the least.

Table 4.2: Findings for manager-employee coaching relationship

Variable Manager-employee Coaching Relationship	Frequency Distribution									Descriptive	
	No.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Somewhat / Agree / Strongly	Mean	Standard Deviation
GRL1	143		1.4%		2.08%	5.55%	56.94%	34.03%	96.52%	6.18	0.82
GRL2	143	0.69%	1.4%	0.69%	5.55%	12.50%	57,64%	21.53%	91.6%	5.87	1.01
GRL3.	143		1.39%	0.69%	4.86%	20.83%	52.77%	19.44%	93.04%	5.81	0.92
EFC1	143	1.39%	0.69%	2.78%	0.69%	11.81%	55.56%	27.08%	94.45%	5.96	1.06
EFC2	143	1.389	0.69%	3.47%	2.78%	9.03%	51.39%	31.25%	91.67%	5.97	1.13
EFC3	143		2.08%	3.47%	4.17%	15.28%	52.78%	22.22%	90,28%	5.80	1.07
CRL1	143	0.69%	0.69%	3.47%	2.78%	15.97%	46.53%	29.86%	92.36%	5.92	1.08
CRL2	143	1.39%	1.39%	5.56%	4.86%	22.22%	37.50%	27.08%	86.80%	5.66	1.28
CRL3	143	0.69%	4.16%	2.78%	4.16%	15.27%	47.92%	25.00%	88.19%	5.73	1.26
FDV1	143		2.08%	2.77%	9.03%	21.53%	47.91%	16.67%	86.11%	5.60	1.08
FDV2.	143		2.78%	2.78%	6.94%	13.89%	52.78%	20.83%	87.53%	5.74	1.12
FDV4	143		2.78%	3.47%	7.64%	27.08	39.58%	19.44%	86.10%	.556	1.17

Source: Primary Data. **1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree.**

GRL = Genuineness of relationship, EFC = Effective communication, CRL = Comfort in the relationship, FDV = Facilitating development.

4.4.3. Self-leadership skills

Results for respondents' ratings of each item under each sub-construct of the self-leadership construct are shown in Table 4.3. It should be noted that the statement 'respondents keep track of their project progress' is the one with which they agreed or strongly agreed the most (mean = 5.09; 96.48%).

The sample provided the least evidence in support of the claim that respondents frequently expressed resentment when they completed the assignment insufficiently (mean = 3.91).

Table 4.3. Findings for self-leadership skills practice

Variable Self-Leadership	Frequency Distribution									Descriptive	
	No.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Somewhat / Agree / Strongly	Mean	Standard Deviation
SRW1	143		4.22%	3.52%	11.97%	22.53%	38.02%	19.71%	80.26%	5.40	1.26
SRW2	143	1.40%	4.22%	6.33%	9.15%	23.94%	33.09%	21.83%	78.86%	5.37	1.42
SRW3	143	1.40%	4.22%	5.63%	13.38%	21.12%	33.80%	20.42%	75.34%	5.32	1.42
SOB1	143		1.40%	1.40%	3.52%	14.78%	58.45%	20.42%	93.65%	5.89	.91
SOB2	143			0.70%	4.92%	11.26%	6056%	22.53%	94.35%	5.99	.77
SOB3	143		0.70%	0.70%	3.52%	7.74%	58.45%	28.87%	95.06%	6.09	.82
SOB4	143			1.40%	2..11%	9.85%	61.97%	24.66%	96.48%	6.07	.74
SLC1	143		2.11%	4.92%	2.82%	14.08%	46.47%	29.57%	90.12%	5.87	1.14
SLC2	143		3.52%	4.22%	4.22%	10.56%	47.88%	29.57%	88.01%	5.84	1.22
SLC3	143		3.52%	4.92%	9.85%	9.86%	52.82%	19.01	81.43%	5.61	1.24
SPN1	143	8.45%	14.79%	11.97%	10.56%	19.71%	17.60%	16.90%	54.21%	4.40	1.94
SPN2	143	4.92%	11.26%	4.22%	4.22%	20.42%	42.25%	12.67%	75.34%	5.02	1.72
SPN3	143	15.49%	15.49%	11.27%	6.33%	14.78%	28.17%	8.45%	51.40%	4.09	2.05
SPN4	143	14.78%	20.42%	7.04%	10.56%	21.83%	16.19%	9.15%	47.17%	3.91	1.98
SPN5	143	2.81%	6.33%	2.81%	4.92%	14.08%	50.00%	19.01%	83.09%	5.48	1.49
SPN6	143	21.13%	16.19%	3.53%	11.97%	23.23%	19.72%	4.23%	47.18%	3.78	1.99
FNR1	143	0.70%	2.81%	3.52%	14.08%	14.08%	52.11%	12.67%	78.86%	5.45	1.21
FNR2	143				7.04%	13.38%	54.92%	24.64%	92.94%	5.97	.813
FNR3	143	0.70%		4.22%	2.81%	14.08%	54.22%	23.94%	92.24%	5.88	1.17
FNR4	143	0.70%		4.22%	2.81%	14.08%	54.22%	23.94%	92.24%	5.88	1.17
VSP1	143	0,70%	2.81%	2.81%	5.63%	11.27%	56.34%	20.42%	88.02%	5.75	1.16
VSP2	143	1.40%	2.81%	2.11%	2.81%	17.60%	55.63%	17.60%	90.83%	5.74	1.16
VSP3	143		2.11%	2.11%	6.33%	16.90%	51.40%	21.12%	89.42	5.77	1.05
VSP4	143		1.41%	0.70%	3.52%	17.61%	56.34%	20.42%	94.35%	5.88	0.89
SLT1	143		2.82%	0.70%	0.70%	15.49%	53.52%	26.76%	95.77%	5.95	0.98
SLT2	143		2.81%		1.41%	12.68%	56.34%	26.76%	95.78	6.00	0.92
EBA1	143	1.40%	1.40%	0.70%	8.45%	26.06%	50.70%	11.26%	88.02%	5.53	1.06
EBA2	143	2.11%	3.55%	1.40%	6.33%	22.53%	54.22%	9.85%	86.60%	5.45	1.22
EBA3	143	1.40%	1.40%	2.81%	9.15%	22.53%	52.11%	10.56%	85.22%	5.48	1.12

Source: Primary Data. **1 strongly disagree; 7 =strongly agree** SRW - Self reward; SOB - Self-observation; SLC - Self-cuing;; SPN - Self-punishment; FNR - Focus natural reward; VSP - Visualise successful performance; SLT - Self-talk; EBA – Evaluate beliefs and assumptions.

4.5. Construct Validity

Construct validity was examined using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA with principal axis factoring extraction and varimax rotation was used to assess the conceptual frameworks' validity. All items measuring performance behaviours, manager-employee coaching relationship, and self-leadership skills were included in an EFA with principal axis factoring extraction and varimax rotation to evaluate both convergent and divergent validity. No scales were reversed before conducting the EFA. The pattern matrix was chosen due to its simplicity and the information it provides on the precise contribution of each variable to each factor for interpretation over the structure matrix (Field, 2018).

Table 4.4. provides the results of tests used to determine whether the sample results were adequate, including Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Orkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO). Given that this result was higher than the minimal acceptable value of at least 0.5, a KMO value of 0.788 indicates that the sample was adequate to perform factor analysis (Field, 2009). Significant result from Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was p-value = 0.000 < 0.05. This suggests that the exploratory factor analysis could be used since the items were sufficiently correlated (Field, 2018).

Table 4.4: KMO and Bartletts' Test.

KMO and Bartletts' Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.788
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4135.863
	Df.	741
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.5 below displays the communalities for the EFA. The findings show that every item had a communality of at least 0.3. All items were included as they were deemed to fit well with the other items in the constructs (Field, 2018).

Table 4.5: Communalities

Communalities			
		Initial	Extraction
GRL1	My supervisor / manager and I have mutual respect with each other	1.000	.682
GRL2	I believe my supervisor / manager genuinely cares about me.	1.000	.770
GRL3	I believe my supervisor / manager feels a sense of commitment to me.	1.000	.711
EFC1	My supervisor / manager is a good listener	1.000	.567
EFC2	My supervisor / manager is easy to talk to.	1.000	.735
EFC3	My supervisor / manager is effective at communicating with me.	1.000	.764
CRL1	I feel at ease communicating with my supervisor / manager about my job performance.	1.000	.721
CRL2	I am content to discuss my concerns or troubles with my supervisor / manager	1.000	.729
CRL3	I feel safe and being open and honest with my supervisor.	1.000	.781
SGS1	1 I establish goals for my own performance	1.000	.682
SGS2	I am consciously guided / informed by goals in the accomplishment of my work.	1.000	.756
SGS3	I work towards specific goals that I have set for myself doing work.	1.000	.787
SGS4	Doing work, I constantly think about the goals I intend to achieve in future.	1.000	.680
SGS5	I write specific goals for my own performance.	1.000	.634
SRW1	When I do an assignment well, I like to treat myself with a special treat / event such as dinner, movie	1.000	.810
SRW2	When I do something well, I reward myself with a special treat / event such as good dinner, movie.	1.000	.875
SRW3	When I have successfully completed a task, often I reward myself with something I like.	1.000	.882
SOB1	I made a point to keep track how I am doing at work	1.000	.646
SOB2	I am usually aware of how I am doing as I perform an activity	1.000	.751
SOB3	I pay attention to how well I am doing my work.	1.000	.808
SOB4	I keep track on my progress on project I am working on	1.000	.749
SLC1	I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish.	1.000	.820
SLC2	I use concrete reminders (e.g., sticky notes to help me focus on things I need to accomplish.	1.000	.817
SLC3	I diaries all my future work-related activities	1.000	.649
SPN1	I tend to beat myself up when I have performed poorly.	1.000	.649
SPN2	I tend to be tough on myself in thinking when I have not done well on a task.	1.000	.721
SPN3	I tend to have self-pity when I do not perform well on a task.	1.000	.752
SPN4	I often express self-resentment when I underperform on a task.	1.000	.702
SPN5	I feel guilty when I perform a task poorly.	1.000	.562
SPN6	I sometimes openly express displeasure with myself when I have done well.	1.000	.659
VSP1	I use imagination to picture myself performing well on important tasks.	1.000	.774
VSP2	Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.	1.000	.776
VSP3	I purposefully visualize myself overcoming the challenges I face.	1.000	.777
VSP4	I often mentally rehearse the way I plan to deal with a challenge before I face the challenge.	1.000	.769
SLT1	Sometimes I find I'm talking to myself (aloud or in my head) to help me deal with difficult problems.	1.000	.879
SLT2	Sometimes I talk to myself (aloud or in my head) to work through difficult situations or tasks.	1.000	.892
EBA1	I do think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.	1.000	.761
EBA2	I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I have problems with.	1.000	.774
EBA3	I openly articulate and evaluate my own assumptions when I have disagreements with someone else.	1.000	.563
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring			
R indicates that the scale was reversed.*			

Total variance explained by items kept after the EFA is presented in Table 4.6. The 39 original items' variation was 73.884%, explained by 9 factors that were kept.

Table 4.6: Total variance explained

Total Variance Explained									
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.452	24.235	24.235	9.452	24.235	24.235	5.998	15.379	15.379
2	4.964	12.729	36.964	4.964	12.729	36.964	3.917	10.044	25.423
3	3.615	9.269	46.233	3.615	9.269	46.233	3.233	8.291	33.714
4	2.511	6.439	52.672	2.511	6.439	52.672	3.192	8.185	41.898
5	2.119	5.434	58.106	2.119	5.434	58.106	3.007	7.711	49.610
6	1.954	5.011	63.117	1.954	5.011	63.117	2.851	7.310	56.920
7	1.524	3.909	67.026	1.524	3.909	67.026	2.496	6.400	63.320
8	1.411	3.618	70.644	1.411	3.618	70.644	2.155	5.526	68.846
9	1.264	3.241	73.884	1.264	3.241	73.884	1.965	5.038	73.884
10	.989	2.536	76.420						
11	.897	2.299	78.720						
12	.752	1.927	80.647						
13	.666	1.708	82.355						
14	.623	1.598	83.953						
15	.594	1.522	85.476						
16	.559	1.432	86.908						
17	.455	1.167	88.075						
18	.427	1.095	89.170						
19	.394	1.010	90.179						
20	.382	.980	91.159						
21	.339	.870	92.029						
22	.327	.838	92.868						
23	.309	.792	93.660						
24	.281	.721	94.381						
25	.252	.646	95.028						
26	.219	.561	95.589						
27	.216	.555	96.144						
28	.202	.518	96.662						
29	.189	.484	97.146						
30	.166	.426	97.572						
31	.145	.372	97.943						
32	.143	.366	98.309						
33	.132	.338	98.647						
34	.113	.288	98.935						
35	.106	.273	99.208						
36	.097	.248	99.456						
37	.087	.222	99.678						
38	.076	.195	99.872						
39	.050	.128	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring									
When factors are correlated, sum of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.									

The scree plot's eigenvalues and exploratory factor analysis are compatible. The number of factors extracted is depicted in a scree plot in Figure 4.6 shown by the

chart flattening out after nine (9) points. Nine factors were extracted, as shown by the scree plot with eigenvalues greater than 1 on the vertical axis.

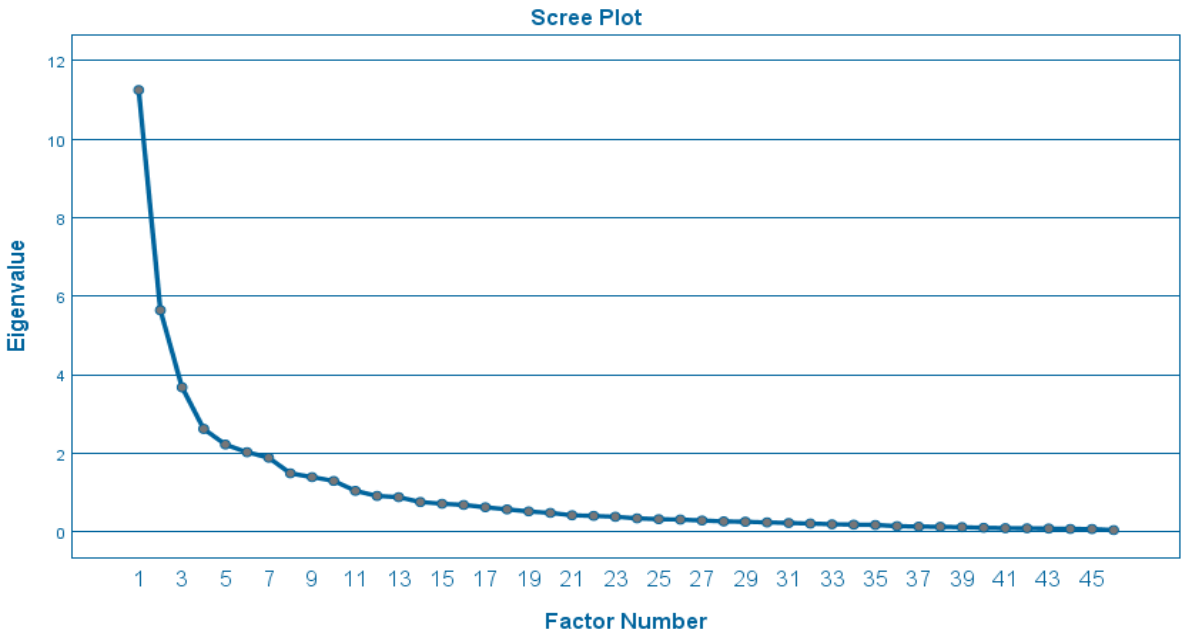


Figure 4.6: Scree Plot

Table 4.7 displays the factor loadings for each of the factors. According to the findings, the manager-employee coaching relationship, which consisted of 9 of the 12 initial hypothesised items, performance behaviours, which consisted of 5 items, and self-leadership, which consisted of 25 items of the initial 29 hypothesised items., were all retained.

The retained items all had high factor loadings and met the minimum requirement of at least 0.4 for the initially hypothesised constructs (Field, 2009). The results proved the validity of the convergent and divergent constructs. Divergent validity was established because the items diverged from unrelated constructs, as opposed to convergent validity, which was established because the items converged into the pertinent constructs.

Table 4.7: Pattern matrix

Constructs	Items	Factors								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship	GRL2	**.851**								
	GRL3	**.773**								
	GRL1	**.773**								
	EFC2	**.816**								
	EFC3	**.791**								
	EFC1	**.607**								
	CRL3	**.794**								
	CRL2	**.754**								
	CRL1	**.735**								
Performance Behaviours	SGS2		**.759**							
	SGS3		**.716**							
	SGS1		**.677**							
	SGS4		**.612**							
	SGS5		**.534**							
Self-leadership	SPN3			**.787**						
	SPN2			**.774**						
	SPN1			**.763**						
	SPN1			**.680**						
	SPN6			**.665**						
	SPN5			**.576**						
	SOB4				**.744**					
	SOB3				**.737**					
	SOB2				**.685**					
	SOB1				**.635**					
	VSP2					**.776**				
	VSP3					**.769**				
	VSP1					**.695**				
	VSP4					**.694**				
	SRW2						**.835**			
	SRW3						**.834**			
	SRW1						**.737**			
	SLC1							**.828**		
	SLC2							**.816**		
	SLC3							**.567**		
	EBA2								**.822**	
	EBA1								**.794**	
	EBA3								**.510**	
	SLT2									**.899**
	SLT1									**.868**

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

GRL - Genuine relationship; EFC - Effective communication; CRL - Comfortable relationship; SGS - Self-goal setting; SRW - Self-reward; SOB - Self-observation; SLC - Self-cuing; SPN - Self-punishment; VSP - Visualise successful performance; SLT - Self-talk; EBA - Evaluate belief & assumptions.

4.6. Reliability of measurement scale results

The results of the calculation of Cronbach's alpha for each of the nine factors that were retained are shown in Table 4.8 (Field, 2013). The results demonstrated that the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and performance behaviours have a very good level of reliability, with the Cronbach's alpha values for the 9 constructs being higher than 0.75 (Field, 2009, 2013).

The Cronbach's alpha values for each of the 9 constructs scored higher than the base minimum of 0.7 (Field, 2013), which is considered acceptable. Accordingly, a composite scale for each construct was created to produce a single composite score that is reliable by averaging the items on each scale. By computing the average of the items within each construct, the composite scale for each construct was determined. For addressing multicollinearity in regression analysis, reducing Type 1 error rate, and organising multiple highly correlated variables into informative data, composite variables are frequently used (Song, Lin, Ward, & Fine, 2013).

The self-talk subscale of the self-leadership construct only has two items in the Table 4.8 analysis of the reliability scales, which is different from recommendations of earlier literature studies (Field, 2013; Holtzman & Vezzu, 2011; Tabachnick, Fidell, & Ullman, 2007), that suggested at least three items for a scale or subscale. As a result, the question of whether a construct with two items can be regarded as valid is raised. Numerous studies (Boateng, Neilands, Frongillo, Melgar-Quiñonez, & Young, 2018; Lewis & Sauro, 2018; Nagy, 2002; Postmes, Haslam, & Jans, 2013; Worthington & Whittaker, 2008) have provided evidence in favour of the use of the use of scales or subscales with two items in research.

Table 4.8: Reliability of scales

High-level Factors	Sub-scales	Code	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
Performance Behaviours	Self-goal Setting	SGS	5	.848	Very good
Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship	Genuineness in the relationship	GRL	3	.884	Very good
	Effective communication	EFC	3	.839	Very good
	Comfort in the relationship	CRL	3	.905	Very good
Self-Leadership	Self-reward	SRW	3	.929	Very good
	Self-observation	SOB	4	.870	Very good
	Self-cuing	SLC	3	.842	Very good
	Self-Punishment	SPN	6	.874	Very good
	Visualizing Successful Performance	VSP	5	.860	Very good
	Self- Talk	SLT	2	.916	Very good
	Evaluating Beliefs & Assumptions	EBA	3	.766	Acceptable
Source: Primary Data					

GRL - Genuine relationship; EFC - Effective communication; CRL - Comfortable relationship;; SGS - Self-goal setting; SRW - Self-reward; SOB - Self-observation; SLC - Self-cuing; SPN - Self-punishment; VSP - Visualise successful performance; SLT - Self-talk; EBA - Evaluate belief & assumptions.

The details of the Cronbach's alpha were also determined by evaluating the corrected item-totals and the Cronbach's alpha if the item was deleted. The correlation between each item and the overall score is referred to as item-total correlation. It should not be any lower than 0.3. If lower, it should be removed to increase reliability. Items that caused a significant or abrupt decrease in the overall correlation should be removed. When an item is deleted, the values of the overall alpha are represented by the Cronbach's alpha. To be retained, all values must be relatively close to the overall alpha because any value greater than the overall alpha would be lost upon deletion (Field, 2018). The reliability results for each variable are discussed beginning with performance behaviours, moving on to manager-employee coaching relationship, and concluding with self-leadership.

4.6.1. Performance behaviour (SGS)

Performance behaviour had one measurement scale, which was self-goal setting (SGS). The performance behaviour scale had a good Cronbach value of greater than 0.7 (5 items, α=.846), as shown in Table 4.9. All the items were kept because when any of them were removed, the overall reliability did not increase, and the corrected item-total correlations were higher than 0.3.

Table 4.9: Item Total Statistics (Performance Behaviours - SGS)

SGS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SGS1	23.73	10.070	.671	.512	.813	.848 (5 items)
SGS2	23.78	10.048	.715	.541	.802	
SGS3	23.62	10.844	.654	.543	.820	
SGS4	23.69	10.400	.631	.427	.824	
SGS5	23.93	9.601	.639	.439	.827	

The inter-item correlations were assessed, and Table 4.10 provides the results for performance behaviours. The fact that all inter-item correlations are greater than 0.3 shows that every item correlates with each scale. As a result, all scales show convergent validity.

Table 4.10: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix - SGS

SGS	SGS1	SGS2	SGS3	SGS4	SGS5
SGS1	1				
SGS2	.535	1			
SGS3	.659	.630	1		
SGS4	.481	.560	.422	1	
SGS5	.504	.560	.418	.571	1

4.6.2. Manager-employee coaching relationship

Three sub-scales were used to assess manager-employee coaching relationship construct: genuineness of relationship (GRL), effective communication (EFC), and comfort in the relationship (CRL). Each scale's reliability was evaluated independently using three different reliability tests.

4.6.2.1. Genuineness of Relationship (GRL)

Table 4.11 shows the detailed results of genuineness of relationship (GRL) scale are good (3 items, α = 0.884). None of the items could show an improvement in the Cronbach's alpha when deleted, and all the items were retained because all the corrected item-total correlations were greater than 0.3.

Table 4.11: Item-Total Statistics (Genuineness of Relationship - GRL)

GRL	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
GRL1	**11.69**	**3.330**	**.731**	**.571**	**.876**	**.884 (3 items)**
GRL2	**12.00**	**2.465**	**.854**	**.729**	**.763**	
GRL3	**12.00**	**2.934**	**.757**	**.614**	**.849**	

The results of the evaluation of the inter-item correlations for the genuineness of the relationship are shown in Table 4.12. The fact that all inter-item correlations are > 0.3, shows that every item correlates with each scale. As a result, each scale shows convergence validity.

Table 4.12: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix – GRL

GRL	GRL1	GRL2	GRL3
GRL1	**1**		
GRL2	**.754**	**1**	
GRl3	**.621**	**.782**	**1**

4.6.2.2. Effective Communication (EFC)

Table 4.13 (EFC) demonstrates the scale's high reliability, the fact that none of the items significantly alter the results, and the fact that the corrected item-total correlation is higher than 0.3 for each of the five items. Consequently, the scales were acknowledged as trustworthy and consistent.

Table 4.13: Item-Total Statistics (Effective Communication - EFC)

EFC	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
EFC1	11.76	4.214	.633	.403	.841	.839 (5 items)
EFC2	11.75	3.570	.755	.586	.723	
EFC3	11.91	3.900	.723	.552	.756	

The inter-item correlations were assessed, and Table 4.14 provides the results for effective communication. All inter-item correlations are > 0.3, indicating that all items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, show convergent validity.

Table 4.14: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix – EFC

EFC	EFC1	EFC2	EFC3
EFC1	1		
EFC2	.609	1	
EFC3	.566	.727	1

4.6.2.3. Comfort in Relationship (CRL)

Table 4.15 provides correlated item-total correlations > 0.3. The scale was considered good as it was greater than 0.7 (3 items, $\alpha = 0.905$). None of the items could improve the overall reliability when deleted. Therefore, all items were retained.

Table 4.15: Item-Total Statistics (Comfort in the Relationship - CRL)

CRL	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
CRL1	11.38	5.816	.801	.642	.880	.905 (3 items)
CRL2	11.65	4.863	.824	.678	.856	
CRL3	11.57	4.937	.824	.680	.855	

Table 4.16 provides inter-item correlations of the three items measuring comfort in the relationship. The results show that all the inter-item correlations are greater than 0.3, indicating that all items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.16: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix – CRL

CRL	CRL1	CRL2	CRL3
CRL1	1		
CRL2	.757	1	
CRL3	.758	.786	1

4.6.3. Self-leadership

Self-leadership was measured with 7 sub-scales; self-reward (SRW), self-observation (SOB), self-cuing (SLC), self-punishment (SPN), visualising successful performance (VSP), self-talk (SLT), and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA). Seven separate reliability tests were conducted to assess each scale independently.

4.6.3.1. Self-reward (SRW)

Self-reward had a good reliability scale (3 items; $\alpha = 0.929$, which is > 0.7). The results are presented in Table 4.17, with all the corrected item-total correlations greater than 0.3. If deleted, none of the items could improve the overall reliability.

Therefore, all items were retained, and the scale was deemed dependable and consistent.

Table 4.17: Item-Total Statistics (Self-reward - SRW)

SRW	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SRW1	10.69	7.510	.825	.686	.922	.929 (3 items)
SRW2	10.78	6.410	.889	.791	.869	
SRW3	10.83	6.503	.858	.750	.895	

All inter-item corrections as presented in Table 4.18 are > 0.3, indicating that all items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity.

Table 4.18: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix – SRW

SRW	SRW1	SRW2	SRW3
SRW1	1		
SRW2	.816	1	
SRW3	.774	.856	1

4.6.3.2. Self-observation (SOB)

Table 4.19 shows that the self-observation scale was good at greater than 0.7 (4 items; α = 0.870). None of the items could contribute to improving the overall reliability when deleted, the corrected item-total correlations were all greater than 0.3. Therefore, all items were retained.

Table 4.19 Item-Total Statistics (Self-observation - SOB)

SOB	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SOB1	**18.15**	**4.328**	**.662**	**.462**	**.865**	**.870**
SOB2	**18.05**	**4.610**	**.742**	**.578**	**.828**	
SOB3	**17.95**	**4.413**	**.748**	**.611**	**.824**	
SOB4	**17.97**	**4.661**	**.761**	**.585**	**.822**	

Table 4.20 shows high inter-item correlation coefficients, which are greater than 0.3, indicating that all items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity.

Table 4.20: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix - SOB

SOB	SOB1	SOB2	SOB3	SOB4
SOB1	**1**			
SOB2	**.578**	**1**		
SOB3	**.549**	**.721**	**1**	
SOB4	**.642**	**.634**	**.689**	**1**

4.6.3.3. Self-cuing (SLC)

Self-cuing had a high reliability scale (3 items; α = 0.842), which was greater than 0.7. However, deleting an item - SLC3 - which had a lower inter-item correlation would improve the scale further (2 items; α = 0.860). The results are presented in Table 4.21 with all the corrected inter-total statistics greater than 0.3. Although SLC3 showed improvement of scale if deleted, it could not be deleted because the rule of retaining a minimum of three items per scale would be violated. Therefore, all scales were retained, and the scale was deemed dependable and consistent.

Table 4.21: Item-Total Statistics (Self-cuing -SLC)

SLC	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SLC1	11.54	4.883	.727	.583	.761	.842 (3 items)
SLC2	11.48	4.420	.774	.627	.711	
SLC3	11.71	4.913	.624	.396	.860	

Table 4.22 provides an inter-item correlation of the three items measuring self-cuing. The result shows that all the inter-item correlations are > 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with the respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.22: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix - SLC

SLC	SLC1	SLC2	SLC3
SLC1	1		
SLC2	.755	1	
SLC3	.553	.615	1

4.6.3.4. Self-punishment (SPN)

Table 4.23 shows a highly reliable scale (6 items; α = 0.874), which is > 0.7 with all the item-total correlations greater than 0.3. None of the items could improve the overall reliability when deleted. The corrected item-total correlations were all greater than 0.3. Therefore, all the items were retained.

Table 4.23: Item-Total Statistics (Self-punishment - SPN)

SPN	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SPN1	22.27	54.552	.665	.598	.852	.874 (6 items)
SPN2	21.65	55.511	.739	.654	.843	
SPN3	22.58	50.696	.772	.638	.835	
SPN4	22.76	52.239	.740	.572	.841	
SPN5	21.20	63.173	.505	.288	.878	
SPN6	22.90	54.292	.651	.553	.858	

Table 4.24 shows that all the inter-item correlations are > 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.24: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix - SPN

SPN	SLC1	SLC2	SLC3	SPN4	SPN5	SPN6
SPN1	1					
SPN2	.754	1				
SPN3	.603	.669	1			
SPN4	.535	.586	.671	1		
SPN5	.380	.453	.378	.425	1	
SPN6	.379	.440	.662	.652	.444	1

4.6.3.5. Visualizing Successful Performance (VSP)

Visualising successful performance had a good reliability scale (4 items; α = 0.860), which is > 0.7 (Table 4.25). None of the items could improve the overall reliability when deleted. The corrected item-total correlations were all > 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. Therefore, all the items were retained.

Table 4.25: Item-Total Statistics (Visualizing Successful Performance-VSP)

VSP	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
VSP1	17.35	7.314	.692	.533	.829	.860 (4 items)
VSP2	17.40	7.002	.754	.583	.801	
VSP3	17.33	7.588	.748	.589	.804	
VSP4	17.22	8.791	.652	.500	.846	

Table 4.26 shows high inter-item correlation coefficients greater than 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.26: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix - VSP

VSP	VSP1	VSP2	VSP3	VSP4
VSP1	1			
VSP2	.699	1		
VSP3	.607	.636	1	
VSP4	.465	.573	.683	1

4.6.3.6. Self-talk (SLT)

Table 4.27 shows the self-talk scale was high at greater than 0.7 (2 items; α = 0.916). None of the items could improve the overall reliability when deleted. All the corrected item-total statistics were > 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.27: Item-Total Statistics (Self-talk -SLT)

SLT	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
SLT1	6.00	.901	.846	.716		.916 (2 items)
SLT2	5.97	.964	.846	.716		

Table 4.28 shows high inter-item correlation coefficients greater than 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity and reliability.

Table 4.28: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix -SLT

SLT	SLT1	SLT2
SLT1	1	
SLT2	.846	1

4.6.3.7. Evaluating Assumptions and Beliefs (EBA)

Table 4.29 provides corrected item-total correlations greater than 0.3. The scale is good (3 items; α = 0.766). EBA3, which had a low inter-item correlations improved the scale even further (2 items; α = 0.824). EBA3 shows improvement of scale if it deleted but could not be deleted because the rule of retaining a minimum of three items would be violated. Therefore, all the items were retained, and the scale was deemed consistent and reliable.

Table 4.29: Item-Total Statistics (Evaluating assumptions and beliefs-EBA)

EBA	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Alpha
EBA1	10.95	3.948	.684	.523	.597	.766 (3 items)
EBA2	11.03	3.450	.665	.518	.607	
EBA3	11.00	4.493	.467	.218	.824	

All the inter-item correlations (Table 4.30) are > 0.3, indicating that all the items correlate with their respective scales. All scales, therefore, demonstrate convergent validity.

Table 4.30: Inter-Item Correlation Matrix -EBA

EBA	EBA1	EBA2	EBA3
EBA1	1		
EBA2	.708	1	
EBA3	.436	.427	1

In the following section of the report, three assumption tests were performed to ascertain whether the items were statistically related.

4.7. Assumptions testing

Data must be checked for any violations of the multivariate statistical technique's underlying assumptions, which could lead to the outcomes being false, becoming unreliable, and not being possible to extend to the intended population and to accept in its entirety (Field, 2009). Multiple linear regression was deemed appropriate because the study aimed to address the research questions pertaining to the nature, relevance and strength of the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership (IVs) to performance behaviours (DV), and because doing so would allow for the construction of a regression model with a degree of predictability (Tabachnick et al., 2007).

These tests include multiple regression and Pearson product moment correlation. The assumption that each of the statistical techniques must produce a stable model must then be addressed (Tabachnick et al., 2007). The assumptions of linearity, normality, and outliers were assessed against the data.

4.7.1. Assumption 1: Linearity and homoscedasticity Test

A linearity test is used to establish whether the dependent and independent variables have a linear relationship. Both correlational and regression analysis require linearity (Tabachnick et al., 2007). The linearity of the study variables was evaluated using the Pearson correlation. Although scatterplots can be used to

test for linearity, bivariate correlation was used instead because it is difficult to interpret scatterplots from a seven-point scale with 143 data points (Field, 2013).

Based on this, a significant Pearson correlation matrix with bivariate correlations was generated. The correlation between each variable and its significance is shown in Table 4.31. A limitation of this study is that, while the dependent variable (SGS) has a significant direct relation with each of the predicting factors listed below - GRL, EFC, CRL, SRW, SOB, SLC, SPN, and VSP at p = 0.05 and p = 0.01, SGS does not have a significant linear relationship with, SLT and EBA.

Table 4.31 : Pearson Correlation Matrix-Linearity

	SGS	GRL	EFC	CRL	SRW	SOB	SLC	SPN	VSP	SLT	EBA
SGS	1										
GRL	.176*	1									
EFC	.229**	.707**	1								
CRL	.359**	.649**	.678**	1							
SRW	.403**	.109	.120	.207*	1						
SOB	.405**	.211*	.261**	.306**	.449**	1					
SLC	.359**	.649**	.678**	1.000**	.207*	.306**	1				
SPN	-.280**	-.088	-.135	-.151	-.333**	-.303**	-.151	1			
VSP	.332**	.180*	.299**	.197*	.447**	.347**	.197*	-.067	1		
SLT	-.019	.010	-.014	.003	.148	-.011	.003	-.063	.295**	1	
EBA	-.091	.145	.186*	.138	-.036	.052	.138	.152	.156	.081	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tqilled) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tqilled). GRL - Genuine relationship; EFC - Effective communication; CRL - Comfortable relationship; SGS - Self-goal setting; SRW - Self-reward; SOB - Self-observation; SLC - Self-cuing; SPN - Self-punishment; VSP - Visualise successful performance; SLT - Self-talk; EBA - Evaluate belief & assumptions.

Homoscedasticity - The term “homoscedasticity” refers to the requirement that the variance of the residuals be constant across all levels of the predictor variables. When testing grouped data, homoscedasticity, also known as homogeneity variance, is used. In this study, we evaluated the ungrouped dataset using the residual plot. The significance tests and confidence intervals will be valid if this assumption is broken (Field, 2009). The data are distributed across the residual plot, as shown in Figure 4.8, which indicates that the results are -3 and 2 of the conventional residuals cut-off and that the homoscedasticity assumption was not broken.

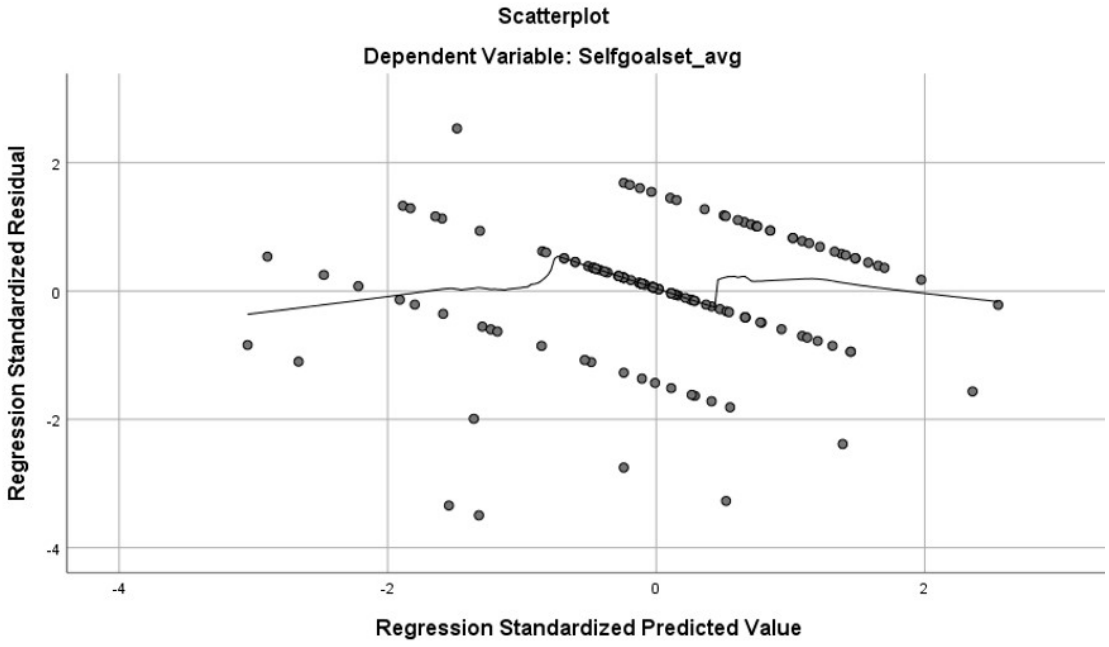


Figure 4.7: Homoscedasticity

In addition, the data for the respondents who responded promptly versus those who did not were divided into waves 1 and 2. Levine's Test of Equality Variances was run on the two groups. The results are shown in Table 4.32. The p-values for almost all the variables were higher than 0.05, proving that the homogeneity of variance assumption is completely accurate.

Table 4.32: Test of Variance Homogeneity

	Levine's Test of Equality Variances	
	F	Sig
GRL	1.039	.310
EFC	.184	.669
CRL	.425	.515
SGS	.347	.557
SRW	.430	.513
SOB	3.559	.062
SLC	.425	.515
SPN	4.743	.031
VSP	4.588	.034
SLT	1.409	.237
EBA	2.563	.112

GRL - Genuine relationship; EFC - Effective communication; CRL - Comfortable relationship; SGS - Self-goal setting; SRW - Self-reward; SOB - Self-observation; SLC - Self-cuing; SPN - Self-punishment; VSP - Visualise successful performance; SLT - Self-talk; EBA - Evaluate belief & assumptions.

4.7.2. Test for normality of error terms

To produce results that can be generalisable and draw the right conclusions, data must be normally distributed for most parametric statistical analyses. Therefore, a normal distribution is not a prerequisite if the investigator chooses not to predict the results from the data set used (Field, 2009). This study does acknowledge that, in addition to generalisability, non-normality serves a variety of other functions. The researcher in this study opted to use graphical methods, such as Histograms and P-P plots, rather than numerical or formal methods, to determine whether the distribution is normal.

Data points on the P-P plot line up along the diagonal line, providing information about typical distribution, and a line that resembles a bell-curve roughly corresponds to the histogram ranges. A histogram that has been positively skewed has an extended tail to the right of it, while the left-most portion of the negatively skewed histogram is extended (Field, 2013).

The majority of the bars in the histogram in Figure 4.8 fall under the normal curve, indicating the error approximated or followed the normal distribution (Field, 2009). The residuals were plotted close to the diagonal line in the typical P-P plot, which further support this. This shows that Model 1 satisfied the requirement for normally distributed error terms. Further distribution of the factors is presented graphically in Figure 4.9 in Appendix J.

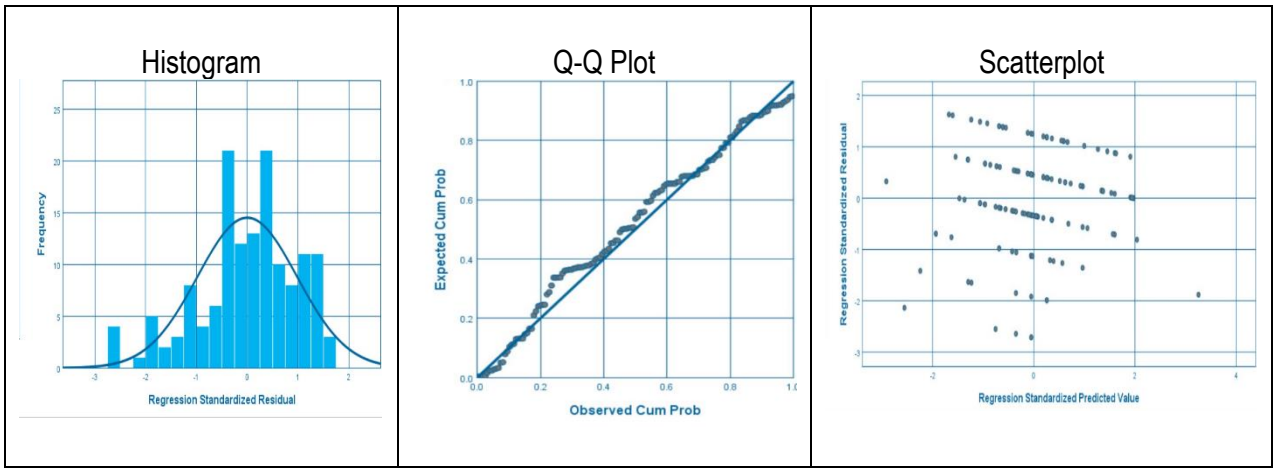


Figure 4.8. Histogram, Q-Q Plot and Scatterplot

4.7.3. Assumption 3: Independence of Error Terms

In order for errors to be independent, there must be no correlation between any two observations. The Durbin-Watson test was used to examine this claim. It can be used to assess serial correlation, another name for autocorrelation. It was used in this study because it was foundational, despite the fact that there is no consensus whether to evaluate survey results that are in chronological order (Field, 2009).

To examine the independence from errors, Model 1 is presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33: Model 1: Durbin-Watson – Independence of Errors

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	St. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.579[a]	.335	.290	.678	2.187

a. Dependent Variable: Self-goal setting (SGS).

b. Predictors: (Constant), Evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA), Self-reward (SRW), Self-talk (SLT), Genuineness of relationship (GRL), Self-punishment (SPN), Self-observation (SOB), Visualising successful performance (VSP), Self-cuing (SLC), Effective communication (EFC).

Durbin-Watson (DW) is time-based, and the result depends on the order of the observations; it is considered robust when applied to a series. The Durbin-Watson scale runs from 0 - 4. There is no issue with correlated error terms if Durbin-Watson = 2, however, if it is lower than 1 or more than 3, it suggests correlation between the error terms (Field, 2013). There is no demonstration of a correlation between errors, as shown in Table 4.34, which demonstrates the independence of the errors with DW values of 2.187. According to the model summary, there is a 33.5% variance in performance behaviors depending on the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership scales.

4.8. Hypothesis testing

The main statistical method used to evaluate the study's hypotheses was multiple regression analysis. The goal of the regression analysis was to determine the effects of self-leadership and manager-employee coaching relationship on performance behaviours. This section contains information on the integrated ANOVA (analysis of variance) model, and coefficients for the testing of hypotheses.

Table 4.34: Model Summary – Performance behaviours

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.579[a]	.335	.290	.678	2.187

a. Dependent Variable: Self-goal setting (SGS).
b. Predictors: (Constant), Evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA), Self-reward (SRW), Self-talk (SLT), Genuineness of relationship (GRL) , Self-punishment (SPN), Self-observation (SOB), Visualising successful performance (VSP), Self-cuing (SLC), Effective communication (EFC).

The model summary shows that the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership scales predicted a total 33.5% variance in performance behaviours. It was suggested that there was no correlation between error items by the Durbin-Watson statistic value of 2.187, which is greater than one and closer to two. However, if less than one and greater than three, it is assumed that there is a correlation between error items (Field, 2013).

Table 4.35: ANOVA results – Performance behaviours

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	30.794	9	3.422	7.449	<.001[b]
	Residual	61.094	133	.459		
	Total	91.888	142			

a. Dependent Variable: Self-goal setting (SGS)
b. Predictors: (Constant), Evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA), Self-reward (SRW), Self-talk (SLT), Genuineness of relationship (GRL) , Self-punishment (SPN), Self-observation (SOB), Visualising successful performance (VSP), Self-cuing (SLC), Effective communication (EFC).

The ANOVA results (Table 4.35) demonstrate that the model overall was significant $F = 7.449$, $p<0.001$ (less than 0.05), and there was a statistically significant impact on the performance behaviours by the variables.

The results in Table 4.36 demonstrate that self-cuing and visualising successful performance are significant predictors of performance behaviours (both factors are significant predictors of performance behaviours (SGS), with self-cuing, Beta=0.224, p<0,05, and visualising successful performance, Beta=0.183, p<0.05). Self-cuing was the most significant predictor of performance behaviours (SGS). For every increase in the unit of self-cuing, there is .224 increase in the performance behaviour (SGS) score.

Table 4.36 Coefficients table – Performance behaviours

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.057	.801		5.062	<.001	2.471	5.642		
	Genuine relationship (GRL)	-.072	.101	-.075	-.710	.479	-.272	.128	.445	2.249
	Effective communication (EFC)	-.045	.094	-.054	-.474	.636	-.232	.142	.379	2.636
	Self-reward (SRW)	.093	.054	.152	1.710	.090	-.015	.201	.630	1.587
	Self-observation (SOB)	.184	.096	.163	1.914	.058	-.006	.375	.689	1.451
	Self-cuing (SLC)	.224	.073	.320	3.064	.003	.079	.369	.457	2.187
	Self-punishment (SPN)	-.065	.043	-.119	-1.511	.133	-.151	.020	.806	1.241
	Visualising Successful performance (VSP)	.193	.080	.216	2.423	.017	.035	.350	.629	1.590
	(SLT) Self-talk	-.090	.067	-.102	-1.345	.181	-.222	.042	.874	1.144
	Evaluating belief & assumptions (EBA)	-.105	.062	-.124	-1.679	.096	-.228	.019	.910	1.099

a. Dependent Variable: Self-goal setting (SGS)
b. Predictors (Constant), Genuineness of relationship (GRL), Effective communication (EFC), Self-reward (SRW), Self-observation (SOB), Self-cuing (SLC), Visualising successful performance (VSP), Self-talk (SLT) and Evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA).

Summary of the findings

In summary, the following findings were observed:

- There is no significant impact of IV1 (manager-employee coaching relationship) on DV (performance behaviours - SGS). This means H1: The perceived quality of the manager-employee coaching relationship did not positively impact on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. Coefficient values for the manager-employee coaching relationship are greater than the significance level of 0.05. The results-based performance behaviours showed that the manager-employee coaching relationship was negatively and non-significantly related to performance behaviours, with genuineness of the relationship (GRL) Beta=-0.072, p>0.001, and effectiveness of communication (EFC) Beta = - 0.001, p>0.001.
- There is a positive significant impact of IV2 (Self-leadership) on DV (performance behaviours – SGS). This means that self-leadership had a significant positive influence on performance behaviour (SGS). Additionally, the results demonstrated that self-cuing (SLC), Beta=0.224, p<0.001 and visualising successful performance envisioned (VSP), Beta=0.193, p<0.001, were the only significant predictors of performance behaviours. However, the results-based performance showed that self-punishment (SPN), Beta=-0.065, p >0.001, self-talk (SLT) Beta=-0.090, p>0.001, and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA) Beta=-0.105, p>0.001 were negatively related to performance behaviours.

Table 4.37 provides a comparison of the study's results with the questions and hypotheses, along with an updated consistency matrix table.

Table 4.37: Comparison of the results of the literature review

RQ #	Stated Objective	Hypothesis #	Stated Hypothesis	Findings from own study
1	To investigate the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.	1	Perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship impacts positively on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.	The performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns were not significantly affected by the perceived quality of the manager-employee coaching relationship. **Hypothesis not supported.**
2	To examine the influence of self-leadership skills practice on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.	2	Self-leadership skills practice has a positive influence on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns.	Self-leadership skills practice has a positive major influence on the behaviours of corporate graduate interns. **Hypothesis supported.**

4.9. Conclusion of Chapter 4

This chapter answered the research questions: *"What impact does perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship have on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns?"* and *"To what extent does self-leadership influence behaviours of corporate graduate interns?"* These questions were answered by evaluating the hypotheses that were stated in the theoretical framework through multiple regression analysis.

First, the validity and reliability of the employed scales and constructs were assessed in order to produce an accurate factor structure and measurement model for the proposed assessment framework. Following exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a measurement model with nine factors, two predictor variables, and one outcome variable was developed. Assumptions were assessed to

determine whether the factors were correlated, and no correlation was found. Multiple regression analysis was performed to evaluate the hypotheses.

The first hypothesis investigated the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. It was hypothesized that manager-employee coaching relationship impacts positively on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The correlation coefficients showed that there was no significant impact by manager-employee coaching relationship on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

The relationship between self-leadership and performance behaviours was the subject of the second hypothesis. The hypothesis tested was that self-leadership skills practice has a positive influence on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The correlation coefficients showed that there was a positive and significant relationship between self-leadership and performance behaviours. Both the self-cuing and visualizing successful performance constructs were significant predictors of performance behaviours. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Self-leadership practice and manager-employee coaching relationship are important in enhancing both individual and organisational performance. There is sufficient evidence from other studies to conclude that these factors have an impact on both individual and organisational performance, even though the current study's focus was only on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. Therefore, as a logical extension, the findings of this study point in the direction of the significance of managerial and self-leadership coaching for overall organisational performance.

The study findings are expanded upon in the following chapter, which highlights their theoretical and practical implications.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

In this study, the coaching relationship between manager and employee, self-leadership, and performance behaviours was investigated. Each independent variable's effect on the dependent variable was evaluated. Additionally, a link was established between study's results and the findings of the literature review.

This chapter continues with a discussion of the findings from Chapter Four for each of the variables, beginning with the profile of the respondents and concluding with a summary.

5.2. Demographic profile of respondents

The study findings indicate that study participants were primarily young black employees of the age group 21 – 35 years. They were mostly females who were not married. Furthermore, they were a highly educated sample with post-graduate qualifications (honours, masters and PhD), which could be attributed to the sampling framework. Studies on graduate interns in South Africa consistently reveal that graduates believe higher education qualifications increase their chances for placements in jobs as interns. Graduates with higher education perform better in the job market than nongraduates, according to research by Bhorat, Cassim, and Tseng (2016), or consistently have better employment prospects at the top of the list of priorities (Baliyan, 2016; Tavares, 2017). Contrary to Cai Cai (2013)'s conclusion, employers seem less concerned with the graduates' level of qualifications; instead, in the face of a deluge of job opportunities, they increasingly merely serve as a screening device.

5.3. Manager – employee coaching relationship and performance

Assessing the effect of manager-employee coaching relationship on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns was the study's main goal in relation to Hypothesis 1. The results of the study showed that the manager-employee coaching relationship had no significant effect on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The means that this research did not support the idea that managerial coaching has a favourable impact on individual and organisational performance (Hagen & Peterson, 2014). This finding contradicts the views of Gyllensten and Palmer (2007), who assert that the coaching relationship is a genuine catalyst for transformation, and is a specific subject on researchers out to concentrate (Bennett, 2006).

On the other hand, the result of the current study confirms the assertion by de Haan (2021) that the effectiveness of workplace coaching has not been proven beyond a reasonable doubt. He provided a number of counterexamples of previously published meta-analytic studies on coaching effectiveness, in which he believed the analyses had inadequate power to dismiss the null hypothesis (Burt & Talati, 2017; Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016; Sonesh et al., 2015). de Haan and Nilsson (2023) studied findings on the theoretical model that underpinned their meta-analysis and established that all groups were impacted by coaching, but managers and leaders no longer benefitted as much. This conclusion was backed by the fact that no statistically significant variations between any of the participant subgroup were found by the subgroup analysis.

According to other studies (Will, Gessnitzer, & Kauffeld, 2016) and clients' perceptions of coaching efficacy (de Haan, Grant, Burger, & Eriksson, 2016) clients perceive coaches' empathic behaviours differently from coaches themselves. Realising that the sample is highly variable and that the majority of the evidence of efficacy depends on coaches' self-reported results, which are generally biased towards false positives, is another crucial consideration for

determining whether the results failed to reject the null hypothesis (Grover & Furnham, 2016).

Better performance behaviours relate to perceptions of a higher managerial coaching relationship. The vast majority of the manager-employee coaching relationship dimensions did not support Hypothesis 1, implying that respondents may have perceived managerial coaching as not essential to achieving their desired performance behaviours and advancement within the organisation. This finding contradicts the findings of earlier studies in the coaching literature that focused on coaching-related behaviours. These similar studies highlighted constructs including: genuineness of the relationship; effective communication; comfort in the relationship; and facilitation of development (Ellinger et al., 2018; Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003; Hawkins, 2012; Hawkins & Smith, 2013).

The results in Table 4.36 indicate a negative non-significant relationship between performance behaviours (self-goal setting - SGS) and manager-employee coaching constructs of the genuineness of relationship (GRL) and effectiveness of communication (EFC). This means that every unit increase in the genuineness of relationship (GRL) and effective communication (EFC) leads to the decrease in self-goal setting behaviours. This study finding is incongruent with that of Lunenburg (2011), which found that setting goals affects performance behaviour through additional mechanisms such as direct attention and action.

The results in Table 4.1 and 4.2 demonstrate how the respondents viewed their performance behaviours. They rated themselves highly on working towards specific goals set for their work, while to the contrary, they gave themselves a low rating on their involvement in setting specific goals for their own performance. Furthermore, they highly rated their managers as good listeners, yet they experienced difficulty in communicating with their managers about their performance issues. Communication between employees and employers, as well as the relationship between managerial coaching activities, job satisfaction, and

success remains critical (Eisenberger et al., 1990). From these findings, it can be inferred that managerial coaching that does not give employees more autonomy and sense of ownership is unlikely to increase their commitment to the organisation (Mottaz, 1988), nor believed that the manager's coaching skills show a high level of ability, success in motivating goal achievement in their staff, or superior to those who are unskilled and infrequently coached (Dahling et al., 2016).

Research studies by Hagen and Peterson (2014) and Dahling et al. (2016a) found that employee engagement and managerial coaching have a direct, positive, and significant relationship. The results of these studies indicated that manager coaching skills showed did not show a high level of competence, thus contradicting the finding that those managers who were more successful at encouraging goal achievement in their staff were those who were skilled and frequently coached (Dahling et al., 2016). The research by Mottaz (1988) on managers' support in the development of employees, and Dahling et al. (2016) on the respondents' work association with high levels of relationship genuineness, effective communication, comfort with the relationship and facilitation of development respectfully, were not supported by the study findings.

The results of the current study on the manager-employee coaching relationship contradicts the social exchange theory of reciprocity and principle, which holds that if one person does something for another, he hopes to receive something back in the future. Instead it provides evidence against organisational support (Dai & Qin, 2016). Several studies indicate that employees can only contribute to the organisation, participate in it, and change their behaviour actively or in response to organisational goals if they feel the organisation cares about them (Asiedu-Appiah & Addai, 2014).

The importance of the manager's role in enabling and inspiring workers to complete both their assigned tasks and newly mandated creative ones cannot be

underestimated (Mom et al., 2015). Managerial coaching can assist employees in better understanding the duties and responsibilities of their jobs (Hui et al., 2013), while at the same time creating an environment of empowerment and support by giving staff members the freedom to experiment with new concepts and reflect on developing oneself independently (Heslin et al., 2006). These results urge managers to take on the challenge posed by transformational leadership, which is equated to managerial coaching, and thus requires entails coaching with an individual's background in mind (Milner & McCarthy, 2016).

5.4. Self-leadership and performance behaviours.

The objective of Hypothesis 2 was to assess whether self-leadership skills practice had a significant influence on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The study results supported this prediction by confirming a positive significant relationship between self-leadership and performance behaviours. These findings are consistent with those of earlier studies which investigated the influence of self-leadership skills practice on performance behaviours and used coaching to encourage people to create, inspire and guide the required performance-related behaviours, clear goals, and potential results should be adjusted (DiLiello & Houghton, 2006; Ho & Nesbit, 2014; Manz, 2015; Neck et al., 2006; Rega, 2012).

Table 4.36 results demonstrate that self-cuing (SLC) and visualising successful performance (VSP) were the only predictors of performance behaviours. The self-cuing results show that respondents monitor their individual commitment and progress on specific tasks through documentation and practice behaviour prior to the performance, thus avoiding costly mistakes (Alves et al., 2006). The mindful practice of the desired actions that must be activated as part of the visualising successful performance (VSP) process include imagining scenarios, creating mental deceptions, imagining drills, and envisioning the events as they were experienced through imagination (Houghton & Neck, 2002). These results

confirm earlier research findings that self-cuing necessitates some decisions that must be made with the aid of tangible objects in order to avoid expensive mistakes (Alves et al., 2006; Neck et al., 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010). Environmental cues such as motivating hangings on walls, sticky-notes and checklists of tasks, can help focus on intentionality and success in the current task (Neck & Manz, 2010). By employing memory-improving techniques, people can maximise their performance while efficiently managing their time.

The study findings confirm and highlight the significance of the relationship between self-leadership and performance. While developing self-leadership skills has a significant impact on performance behaviours, it is also expected that organisations need to establish a culture that encourages personal leadership among employees by laying a framework of principles that motivate workers to establish individual goals in order to create and modify specific objectives and related contingencies (Şahin, 2011). Houghton, Dawley, and DiLiello (2012) assert that self-goal setting (SGS) encourages employees to establish and modify precise goals and the associated conditions to improve and direct necessary performance related behaviours. This view is supported in a study by Lunenburg (2011) which concluded that setting goals affected performance behaviours through additional processes like action and attention.

The coefficient results in Table 4.36, show the self-leadership the coefficients table for performance behaviours,

Table 4.36 shows the coefficients obtained for performance behaviours. The self-leadership constructs, self-cuing (SLC) and visualising successful performance (VSP) had a positive significant influence on performance behaviours. These findings are consistent with the research of Neck, Neck, Manz, and Godwin (1999), which demonstrated that training in constructive thought patterns increased positive affect and job satisfaction while lowering negative affect in comparison to those who did not receive training. Sahin (2011) asserts that self-

leadership strategies significantly influenced tests of self-efficacy, which has a direct bearing on performance. The idea that self-efficacy, self-leadership and work ethic have an impact on employee performance concurrently is supported by Mujanah and Utami (2023).

The results of self-punishment (SPN), self-talk (SLT), and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (EBA) in Table 4.36, presented a negative non-significant relationship with setting own goals for performance. They showed that respondents were hard on themselves mentally and felt guilty when they performed a task poorly, experienced a pessimistic negative self-talk and negatively conducted self-evaluation based on their philosophies and assumptions. These unfavourable emotions affected their cognitions, which in turn affected their autonomy and psychological wellbeing. These unfavourable emotions show how corporate graduate interns observe their own growth and effectiveness. They accomplish this by utilising self-correcting techniques that entail contemplation of and regret for their performance shortcomings. These negative emotions are in line with the conclusions of Houghton et al. (2012) who point out that self-punishment is frequently ineffective and should be rejected (Chinn, 2018; Manz & Sims, 2001; Manz & Sims Jr, 2010; Neck & Houghton, 2006a). Self-reinforcement (criticism) and self-punishment (self-correcting feedback) are basically the same since both involve applying penalties to particular, irrational self-criticism (Manz, 2015, p. 135).

However, self-observation, self-assessment, self-goal setting, self-cuing and self-reward are examples of leadership behaviours that allow employees to focus on how, why and when to act in a certain way in these situations. This finding was supported by Neck and Manz (2013) who believes it to be a crucial step in altering or eradicating unproductive behaviour. This is consistent with the idea that people can effectively set goals for changing their behaviour when they have accurate knowledge of their own behaviour and performance levels.

Politis (2006) found that self-leadership as behaviourally focused strategies and job satisfaction have a direct, advantageous, and sincere relationship, while Neck and Houghton (2006) and Neck and Manz's (1996) studies showed that people who exhibited self-leadership behaviours were more likely to improve their performance and as a result, organisational performance, than those who did not. Given the requirement for self-leadership among corporate graduate interns, they should resist or challenge unhelpful and ineffective leadership techniques in addition to cooperating, rallying on, and following their leaders.

5.5. Conclusion of Chapter 5

This objective of this chapter was to offer an overview and clarify the results of the statistical evaluation. The relationship between manager-employee coaching relations and performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns was not confirmed, according to the study. However, it was discovered that practicing self-leadership skills had a positive significant influence on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The practice of self-leadership was perceived as playing a critical role in their personal growth and development, more specifically in their career advancement in organisations. It is suggested that organisations, particularly in the South African context, equip managers with coaching skills to enable them to assist graduate interns develop appropriate performance behaviours and achieve both personal and organisational goals.

Previous studies have shown that self-leadership and the manager-employee coaching relationship play a part in how employees behave when it comes to performance. Given the criticality of these two factors in influencing performance, corporate graduate interns are encouraged to question ineffective leadership. The conclusions, suggestions, implications for practice and policy, and suggestions for further research are all found in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

The goal of this study was to investigate the impact of self-leadership and manager-employee coaching relationships on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns, and to establish a measurement of the link between the variables of manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and performance behaviours. This chapter will conclude the study by summarising the answers to the major research questions, pointing out similar findings in earlier studies, making suggestions for manager-employee and self-leadership coaching in a South African corporation, and outlining potential areas for future study.

6.2. Conclusions – Impact of manager-employee coaching relationship on performance behaviours

The findings demonstrated that the coaching relationship between a manager and employee did not impact on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns. The organisational support theory, which contends that the relationship between employers and employees is critical (Dai & Qin, 2016) was not supported by this finding. Managerial coaching is one of the demanding requirements for leaders to improve employees' skills, motivate them to use discretionary effort, and give them job opportunities to use their knowledge, skills, and attributes (Anderson, 2013). Results from earlier studies by Passmore and Fillery-Travis (2011) and Grant (2013) which discovered a positive relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and employees' work performance, were not congruent with those of the current study.

However, a growing body of research on coaching effectiveness (Burt & Talati, 2017; de Haan, 2021; de Haan & Nilsson, 2023; Jones et al., 2016; Sonesh et al., 2015) suggest that workplace coaching does not always achieve its intended

level of effectiveness. Working on the alliance, trust and mutual influence contributes to coaching effectiveness, according to Gessnitzer and Kauffeld (2015) while Ianiro et al. (2013) believe that coaching behaviours like primary openness and perceived feelings of compassion can further strengthen the relationship. Furthermore, it is unknown if this assessment of coaches is a reflection of their capacity or deficiency to pay attention to the emotional processes of their clients (de Haan & Nilsson, 2017). Future studies that aim to comprehend why the study result did not reject the null hypothesis may consider these factors.

Further investigation is required in light of the interesting finding that manager-employee coaching has no effect on performance behaviours. In order to understand the fundamental assumptions held by the corporate graduate interns regarding managerial coaching and how it relates to their performance behaviours, future qualitative research could be conducted in a South African context.

6.3. Conclusions – Influence of self-leadership on performance behaviours

The research findings showed that self-leadership significantly influenced corporate graduate interns' performance behaviours. This finding supports the contention by Neck and Houghton (2006a) that self-leadership operates within a framework of normative models of self-regulation and cognitive theory, which are more descriptive and deductive theories. Self-leadership emphasises a person's desire to be in charge of their own work, including their motivation and methods (Stewart et al., 2011, p. 185) and undoubtedly affects how people perceive their abilities to have an impact on the results related to their jobs. Self-leadership has a massive effect on one's relationships, professional life, and wellbeing in addition to being linked to the leadership competencies of self-observation and self-management (Manshi & Mishra, 2019). A leader has the self-direction and self-determination necessary to accomplish both personal and organisational goals.

Self-leaders are propelled to act by their inner drive. It comes from a perspective of interest in how people operate and handle themselves (Manz & Sims Jr, 1980). The self-leadership approach contends that actions are eventually managed by internal than external factors, and behaviour is most often shaped by outside forces, such as leaders and people (Manz, 1986).

6.4. Recommendations, Practical and Theoretical Implications

6.4.1. Implications for coaching practice

The results of this study showed that the respondents thought less about the connection between corporate graduate intern work engagement and the manager's coaching skills. This is part of a larger, more intricate interaction in which work engagement is impacted by a variety of other variables, including workload, organisational culture, and an employee's individual efficiency (Dahling et al., 2016a). It is necessary to conduct more research on how these elements interact, as well as the significance of the manager's role in driving employee development and organisational performance (Gregory & Levy, 2011; Stanleigh, 2012).

The literature suggest that significant changes do occur in general wellbeing coaching (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011) and there is a significant positive relationship between managerial coaching and corporate graduate interns' work engagement (Grant, 2013). Therefore, educational programmes and training initiatives should work to increase the understanding of this managerial competency. It is still necessary to improve managers' capacity to demonstrate essential coaching skills in their managerial roles.

Although there were significant differences in the coaching abilities of the sampled individuals, with some displaying a higher level of competency and others not, the overall mean coaching competence was above the midpoint, suggesting that managers' coaching abilities could be enhanced. On a variable

frequency basis, coaching managers who were more successful in encouraging goal achievement in their teams than those who were less skilled and coached infrequently (Dahling et al., 2016a). Therefore, it is beneficial to offer managers training and development opportunities so they can acquire adequate managerial coaching skills.

These results imply that organisations should invest in manager coaching programmes to help them become better coaches. Additionally, the research supports the notion that coaching enhances organisational performance indicators (Hagen & Peterson, 2014). It also implies that there is a favourable correlation between managers who coach their employees and the employees' level of job engagement.

The study acknowledges that it serves as a foundation for an approach that contends that members of a group or organisation can share or distribute leadership responsibilities (Pearce & Conger, 2003). This offers a fresh perspective on informal leadership and internal coaching in organisations (Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003b), where individuals are given the authority to decide how to carry out their own job-related tasks (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

6.4.2. Implications for corporate graduate interns

A critical success factor for interns is their attitude (Galloway, Marks, & Chillas, 2014). Successful internship experiences are correlated with high quality mentoring, changing assignments, giving of feedback, and having more autonomy (Sanahuja Vélez & Ribes Giner, 2015). According to Holyoak (2013) Community of Practice (CoP) could be advantageous for internships. Its goal is to generate knowledge, manage it, and share it with others in the community so that both groups and individuals can benefit. CoP encourages learning to help people advance from the margins to the centre of knowledge production

(Holyoak, 2013). However, graduate interns' own motivation and interest determine whether they move from the periphery to the centre.

6.4.3. Implications for graduate intern recruitment industry

Concerning performance behaviours and practical self-leadership skills, this study aimed to close the knowledge gap between corporate graduate interns and experienced coaches. These challenges are brought on by the fact that human resources' recruitment of corporate graduate interns occurs in a South African environment that is rapidly changing and competitive. Therefore, graduate recruitment agencies must continue to recruit, develop, and retain talent to grow and maintain their organisational competitive advantage.

The manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership practice, and performance behaviours relate to work, the working environment, and the bottom line. This is because elevated levels of need, are to be understood by graduate recruitment industry to be effective. This is due to the positive effects of self-leadership practice and managerial coaching on performance behaviours, which suggest an improvement in organisational performance. Employees receive managerial coaching and managers are essential. According to some theories, managerial coaching is an essential practice that improves worker productivity, performance, contribution and learning (Ratiu et al., 2017).

6.4.4. Theoretical implications

According to the earlier review and synthesis of the literature, the coaching process that affects the relationship between the supervisor or line manager and the employee is what is meant when manager-employee coaching relationship is focused on (Gregory & Levy, 2010**)**. Due to the influence of the manager as coach, even though it was not connected to the idea of managerial coaching, using the coaching approach, considering delegation of individual development,

growth process, including fostering employee ownership and development can be achieved (Dahling et al., 2016a; Milner & McCarthy, 2016).

In order to coach employees, a manager must exhibit behaviours that will enable them to develop their knowledge and abilities at work (Ellinger et al., 2018). Coaching effectiveness is frequently cited in literature as requiring the following behaviours and skills: productive and honest feedback, interpersonal, critical, observational, and rapport building skills (Hamlin et al., 2006). Grant (2010)**,** and Griffiths and Campbell (2008), claim that goal setting, performance orientation, development orientation, and the capacity to empower the coachees to address issues or take on new challenges have also been promoted (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2008). Future research many concentrate on figuring out why respondents did not view the coaching relationship between employees and managers as crucial, based on the findings of these earlier studies.

Self-leadership was defined as the behaviour of influencing oneself that motivates someone to perform when tasks are either satisfying or unenjoyable (Stewart et al., 2011). According to research (Curral & Marques-Quinero, 2009; Courtright & Manz, 2011; Hauschiildt & Konradt, 2012) self-management has an effect upon worker efficiency. Although numerous studies found a link between the three variables under study (manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and performance behaviours) when viewed separately, the mainstream literature was unclear about how these variables were interrelated and could be applied to corporate graduate interns in South Africa. For this reason, the current study was conducted.

6.5. Study's contribution to coaching, psychological and organisations

The conclusions of this study may have a significant influence on the development of a new organisational coaching strategy by integrating concepts and lessons from the coaching, psychology and organisational knowledge fields:

- The study findings on manager-employee coaching relationship and performance behaviours, challenges organisations to consider all factors that are critical to manager and employee coaching. Building an internal coaching policy, plan and programme that is informed by inputs and feedback from graduate interns would make it more relevant and responsive to their backgrounds and needs. Additionally, this will help organisations to implement advanced and transformative coaching programmes.
- The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge in South Africa, by examining and defining the three-way relationship that exists between the manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviours among corporate graduate interns. The study results share some of the perceptions held by corporate graduate interns about internal organisational coaching and how it contributes to their development within the organisation. A better comprehension of the programme may result from the knowledge that development involves the engagement of staff ideas, input and suggestions in building a successful coaching programme.
- The influence and impact of demographic profiles on performance behaviours was not the focus of the study. However, an increase in knowledge of the influence that employee demographic profiles have on their opinions of the organisation, as well as on their own drive and job satisfaction, will deepen the understanding of how demographics impact and influence opinions held by graduates regarding manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership and performance behaviours.
- The study findings necessitate reviewing, reflecting and revalidating applicable theories underpinning the study, namely organisational support theory, theories of managerial and leadership coaching, and social cognitive theory, which were built up through an enormous body of earlier research. Such a process creates an opportunity to understand how contextual and background issues relating to corporate graduate interns likely influenced the way they responded to the research instruments. The next step would be to

think about modifying the theories to facilitate and clarify scientific inquiry among this group in a South African environment.

6.6. Limitations of the study

There are some limitations, which were discussed in earlier chapters, even though this study advances both theory and practice in the literature on South African corporate graduate interns.

- The sample size was small, and it only included corporate graduate interns from a telecommunications organisation with a sizeable international footprint. A larger sample of respondents from a range of different corporate organisations would have increased the findings' generalizability.
- The study only focused on two predictor variables and left out many other variables that could have had a significant impact on the prediction of performance behaviours. This constrains the study's ability to present a comprehensive framework for performance behaviours.
- The sample framework resulted in a sample that was predominantly African and highly educated. Such a skew in a sample introduces the possibility of bias, and it is therefore important to exercise caution when extrapolating the results from the sample.
- Because of the cross-sectional nature of the study, causality cannot be inferred with sufficient certainty from the findings.
- The measurement tool was difficult because the study required cross-correlation of a variety of both independent and dependent variables, and data was gathered using the same tools and respondents. The results still need to be carefully interpreted, even though the tests were done to make sure there were no common method or response bias issues.

6.7. Research suggestions for the future

Conclusions of this study were used to support the following recommendations for future investigations:

While the study's conclusions apply to corporate graduate interns who received extensive on-the-job coaching, they do not accurately reflect the situation for corporate graduate interns nationwide or across industries. It is unlikely that this study can be applied to corporate graduate interns throughout South Africa because there are fewer studies that combined the effects of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours. Future research should therefore concentrate on a national study that includes graduate interns from both the public and private sectors.

The effects of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership variables on performance behaviours were investigated using a quantitative research approach. Although correlation and regression analyses have limited explanatory power and cannot fully explain why the relationship between variables emerges in the manner it does, they were used to identify relationships and the predictive effects of independent variables. Deeper explanations for the variable relationships might be offered, for example, by a qualitative research approach or a mixed method approach. Future studies could think about using mixed methods to complement quantitative research strategies, enabling more in-depth probing and case clarification as needed.

Although the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship, self-leadership, and performance behaviours was the focus of this study, the influence of demographic factors on these constructs was not taken into consideration because they were not the investigation's main objective. To identify factors that could advance both managerial and self-leadership coaching, future research should focus more on demographic effects of these variables.

Future research may also combine the effects of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership variables on performance behaviours.

The study may be repeated in the future and look at how self-leadership and managerial coaching relate to other aspects of performance. This knowledge could aid in identifying any possible differences between human capital inputs and outputs and their impact on performance behaviours. This study is significant because it addresses a current and under-studied topic, the highly important areas of development in the coaching and managerial industries. The almost sequential relationship between the manager-employee coaching relationship and the concept of self-leadership is most interesting, and a focused research article on the most important findings based on de Haan's work may be extremely beneficial and enlightening.

REFERENCES

Allenbaugh, G. (1983). Coaching... a management tool for a more effective work performance. *Management Review, 72*(5), 21-26.

Alves, J. C., Lovelace, K. J., Manz, C. C., Matsypura, D., Toyasaki, F., & Ke, K. G. (2006). A cross-cultural perspective of self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 338-359.

Anderson, J. S., & Prussia, G. E. (1997). The self-leadership questionnaire: Preliminary assessment of construct validity. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 4*(2), 119-143.

Anderson, V. (2013). A Trojan horse? The implications of managerial coaching for leadership theory. *Human Resource Development International, 16*(3), 251-266.

Anjum, S. (2020). Impact of internship programs on professional and personal development of business students: A case study from Pakistan. *Future Business Journal, 6*(1), 2.

Aral, S., Brynjolfsson, E., & van Alstyne, M. W. (2006). Information, Technology and Information Worker. *Productivity. NBER WP, 13172*.

Arbuckle, J. L. (2006). *17.0 user's guide.* Paper presented at the Crawfordville, FL. Amos Development Corporation.

Armstrong, M., & Murlis, H. (2007). *Reward management: A handbook of remuneration strategy and practice*. London: Kogan Page Publishers.

Asgari, M. H., & Vakili, M. (2012). The Relationship between locus of control, creativity and performance of the educational department employees in the west of Mazandaran. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences, 3*(17), 255-256.

Asiedu-Appiah, F., & Addai, H. (2014a). An investigation into the causal relationhsip between employee's locus of control and contexual perforamnce. *ASBBS Proceedings, 21*(1), 40.

Aspinwall, L. G., & Taylor, S. E. (1997). A stitch in time: Self-regulation and proactive coping. *Psychological Bulletin, 121*(3), 417.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research: South African edition.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Babbie, E. R. (2020). *The practice of social research* (15 ed.): Cengage learning.

Baines, P., & Chansarkar, B. (2002). *Introducing marketing research*. West Sussex, England: Wiley.

Baliyan, S. P. (2016). *An investigation into factors influencing students' choice to enrol at private higher education institutions in Botswana*. University of South Africa, South Africa.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action. *Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1986*, 23-28.

Bandura, A. (1988). Self-efficacy conception of anxiety. *Anxiety Research, 1*(2), 77-98.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 248-287.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A., & Cervone, D. (1986). Differential engagement of self-reactive influences in cognitive motivation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 38*(1), 92-113.

Barkhuizen, E. N., & Schutte, N. E. (2015). Factors affecting the application of talent management. Paper presented at the Proceedings of International Academic Conferences.

Barr, J., & Busler, B. (2011). Service-learning in a marketing research course: the benefits that accrue to students. Paper presented at the American Institute of Higher Education–The 6th International Conference.

Basow, R. R., & Byrne, M. V. (1992). Internship expectations and learning goals. *The Journalism Educator, 47*(4), 48-54.

Bassman, E. S. (1992). *Abuse in the workplace: Management remedies and bottom line impac*t: Quorum Books Westport, CT.

Beattie, R. S., Kim, S., Hagen, M. S., Egan, T. M., Ellinger, A. D., & Hamlin, R. G. (2014). Managerial coaching: A review of the empirical literature and development of a model to guide future practice. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 16*(2), 184-201.

Bennett, J. L. (2006). An agenda for coaching-related research: A challenge for researchers. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 58*(4), 240.

Bhardwaj, B., & Kalia, N. (2021). Contextual and task performance: role of employee engagement and organizational culture in hospitality industry. *Vilakshan-XIMB Journal of Management, 18*(2), 187-201.

Bhorat, H., Cassim, A., & Tseng, D. (2016). Higher education, employment and economic growth: Exploring the interactions. *Development Southern Africa, 33*(3), 312-327.

binti Ibus, S., & binti Ismail, F. (2018). Conceptual framework: The mediating effect of self-efficacy in the relationships of self-leadership, knowledge sharing, and innovative work behaviour. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 8*(11), 1859-1876.

Bist, S. S., Mehta, N., Mehta, D., & Meghrajani, I. (2020). Employers' Perception Regarding Employability Skills of Management Students Undergoing Internship. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning, 21*(2), 145-161.

Blaikie, N. (2000). *Designing social research.* Cambridge, England: Polity Press.

Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., & Tight, M. (2010). *How to research*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Boateng, G. O., Neilands, T. B., Frongillo, E. A., Melgar-Quiñonez, H. R., & Young, S. L. (2018). Best practices for developing and validating scales for health, social, and behavioral research: A primer. *Frontiers in Public Health, 6*, 149.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 99-109.

Boss, A. D., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2008). Everyone fails! Using emotion regulation and self-leadership for recovery. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(2), 135-150.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1992). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. *Sociological Methods & Research, 21*(2), 230-258.

Buhler, P. (1994). Motivating the employee of the 90s. *Supervision, 55*(7), 8-10.

Burt, D., & Talati, Z. (2017). The unsolved value of executive coaching: A meta-analysis of outcomes using randomised control trial studies. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 15*(2), 17-24.

Busby, G. D., & Gibson, P. (2010). Tourism and hospitality internship experiences overseas: A British perspective. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education (Pre-2012), 9*(1), 4.

Cai, Y. (2013). Graduate employability: A conceptual framework for understanding employers' perceptions. *Higher Education, 65*(4), 457-469.

Cardon, M. S., & Stevens, C. E. (2004). Managing human resources in small organizations: What do we know? *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(3), 295-323.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. New York: Cambrdge University Press.

Chandel, B. S. (2016). Skills vs. behaviour! How important is it for preforamnce? Retrieved from https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/skills-vs-behaviour-how-important-performance-bobby-sigh-chandel

Chinn, K.-A. (2018). The difference between manager-employee perforamnce and behaviour. Retrieved from https://www.go1.com/en-za/blog/post-the-diffrence-between-manager-employee-pefromance-and-behaviour

Cho, Y., & Egan, T. (2013). Organizational support for action learning in South Korean organizations. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 24*(2), 185-213.

Chong, C. W., Yuen, Y. Y., Tan, B. C., Zarim, Z. A., & Hamid, N. A. (2016). Managerial coaches, are they ready? The case of Malaysian telecommunications industry. *The Learning Organization, 23*(2/3), 121-140.

Cilliers, J., & Aucoin, C. (2016). Economics, governance and instability in South Africa. *Institute for Security Studies Papers, 2016*(293), 1-24.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education (6th Ed.)*. New York: Routeledge.

Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2013). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. New York: Macmillan International Higher Education.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review, 13*(3), 471-482.

Conrad, C. F., & Serlin, R. C. (2011). *The Sage handbook for research in education: Pursuing ideas as the keystone of exemplary inquiry*. London: Sage Publications.

Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. S. (2011). *Business research methods*. McGraw-Hill. Americas, New York.

Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S., & Sun, J. (2006). *Business research methods* (Vol. 9): Mcgraw-Hill New York.

Cooper, L., Orrell, J., & Bowden, M. (2010). *Work integrated learning: A guide to effective practice*. London, UK: Routledge.

Costa, C., Breda, Z., Pinho, I., Bakas, F., & Durão, M. (2016). Performing a thematic analysis: An exploratory study about managers' perceptions on gender equality. *The Qualitative Report, 21*(13), 34-47.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage

Dahling, J. J., Taylor, S. R., Chau, S. L., & Dwight, S. A. (2016). Does coaching matter? A multilevel model linking managerial coaching skill and frequency to sales goal attainment. *Personnel Psychology, 69*(4), 863-894.

Dai, K., & Qin, X. (2016). Perceived organizational support and employee engagement: Based on the research of organizational identification and organizational justice. *Open Journal of Social Sciences, 4*(12), 46-57.

de Haan, E. (2021). *What works in executive coaching: Understanding outcomes through quantitative research and practice-based evidence*. New York: Routledge.

de Haan, E., Culpin, V., & Curd, J. (2011). Executive coaching in practice: what determines helpfulness for clients of coaching? *Personnel Review, 40*(1), 24-44.

de Haan, E., Grant, A. M., Burger, Y., & Eriksson, P. O. (2016). A large-scale study of executive and workplace coaching: The relative contributions of relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 68*(3), 189.

de Haan, E., & Nilsson, V. O. (2017). Evaluating coaching behavior in managers, consultants, and coaches: A model, questionnaire, and initial findings. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 69*(4), 315.

de Haan, E., & Nilsson, V. O. (2023). What can we know about the effectiveness of coaching? a meta-analysis based only on randomized controlled trials. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*(Feb), amle. 2022.0107.

De Vos, A., Delport, C., Fouche, C., & Strydom, H. (2011). *Research at grass roots: A primer for the social science and human professions*. In: Van Schaik Publishers.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Devlin, A. S. (2006). *Research methods: Planning, conducting and presenting research*: Thomson/Wadsworth Belmont, CA.

Devroe, R. (2016). How to enhance the external validity of survey experiments? A discussion on the basis of a research design on political gender stereotypes in Flanders. Paper presented at the ECPR General Conference.

Díaz de Rada Igúzquiza, V., Casaló Ariño, L. V., & Guinalíu Blasco, M. (2016). The use of online social networks as a promotional tool for self-administered Internet surveys. *Revista Española de Sociología, 25 (2), 189-203*.

DiLiello, T. C., & Houghton, J. D. (2006). Maximizing organizational leadership capacity for the future: Toward a model of self-leadership, innovation and creativity. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 319-337.

Donaldson, S. I., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2002). Understanding self-report bias in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(2), 245-260.

Druckman, J. N., Green, D. P., Kuklinski, J. H., & Lupia, A. (2011). Experimentation in political science. *Cambridge Handbook of Experimental Political Science*, 3-11.

Du Toit, M., De Witte, H., Rothmann, S., & Van den Broeck, A. (2018). Contextual factors and the experience of unemployment: A review of qualitative studies. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences, 21*(1), 1-11.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(1), 51.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 500-507.

Eisenberger, R., Shoss, M. K., Karagonlar, G., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., Wickham, R. E., & Buffardi, L. C. (2014). The supervisor POS–LMX–

subordinate POS chain: Moderation by reciprocation wariness and supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(5), 635-656.

Ellinger, A., Beattie, R., & Hamlin, R. (2018). *The manager as coach*. *In The Complete Handbook of Coaching (pp. 262-278).* London: SAGE Publications.

Ellinger, A. D., Ellinger, A. E., Hamlin, R. G., & Beattie, R. S. (2010). *Achieving Improved Performance Through Managerial Coaching.* In *Handbook of Improving Performance in the Workplace: Selecting and Implementing Performance Interventions*. San Francisco: Pfeffer.

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.

Ellis, A. (1977). The basic clinical theory of rational-emotive therapy. *Handbook of Rational-Emotive Therapy, 1*, 3-34.

Elloy, D. F. (2008). The relationship between self-leadership behaviors and organization variables in a self-managed work team environment. *Management Research News, 31*(1), 801-810.

Emory, C., Cooper, P., & Schindler, P. (2002). *Business research methods, 8t h edition*. In: New York: McGraw-Hill.

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4.

Evered, R. D., & Selman, J. C. (1989). Coaching and the art of management. *Organizational Dynamics, 18*(2), 16-32.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS: Introducing statistical method*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*: Sage.

Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics (5th ed.)*. In: Sage.

Fletcher, J. K., & Kaufer, K. (2003). Shared leadership. In C. L. a. C. Pearce, J. A. (eds) (Ed.), *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 21-47). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gage, N. (2007). *The paradigm wars and their aftermath*. London: Sage Publications, .

Galbraith, D., & Mondal, S. (2020). The Potential Power of Internships and the Impact on Career Preparation. *Research in Higher Education Journal, 38*.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational Research: An introduction*. In (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.

Galloway, L., Marks, A., & Chillas, S. (2014). The use of internships to foster employability, enterprise and entrepreneurship in the IT sector. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 21*(4), 653-667.

Garman, A. N., Whiston, D. L., & Zlatoper, K. W. (2000). Media perceptions of executive coaching and the formal preparation of coaches. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 52*(3), 201-205.

Gashaw, Z. (2019). Challenges facing internship programme for engineering students as a learning experience: a case study of Debre Berhan University in Ethiopia. *IOSR Journal of Mechanical and Civil Engineering (IOSRJMCE), 16*(1), 12-28.

Gessnitzer, S., & Kauffeld, S. (2015). The working alliance in coaching: Why behavior is the key to success. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 51*(2), 177-197.

Gill, J., & Johnson, P. (2002). *Research methods for managers.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications: Sage.

Gilley, J. W. (2000). Manager as learning champion. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 13*(4), 106-121.

Gillham, J. E., & Seligman, M. E. (1999). Footsteps on the road to a positive psychology. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 37*(1), S163.

Godwin, J. L., Neck, C. P., & Houghton, J. D. (1999). The impact of thought self-leadership on individual goal performance. *Journal of Management Development, 18*(2), 153-169.

Goodwin, J. C. (2002). *Research in psychology: methods and design*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Graham, S., Wedman, J. F., & Garvin–Kester, B. (1993). Manager coaching skills: Development and application. *Performance Improvement Quarterly, 6*(1), 2-13.

Grant, A. M. (2006). Workplace and executive coaching: A bibliography from the scholarly business literature. *Evidence Based Coaching Handbook: Putting Best Practices to Work for Your Clients*, 367-398.

Grant, A. M. (2010). It takes time: A stages of change perspective on the adoption of workplace coaching skills. *Journal of Change Management, 10*(1), 61-77.

Grant, A. M. (2013). The efficacy of coaching. *Handbook of the Psychology of Coaching and Mentoring*, 15-39.

Grant, A. M. (2017). The third 'generation'of workplace coaching: creating a culture of quality conversations. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 10*(1), 37-53.

Greenstein, T. N., & Davis, S. N. (2012). *Methods of family research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Gregory, J., & Levy, P. (2009). Coaching in a performance management context: A review and research agenda. Paper presented at the Poster presented at the 25th Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

Gregory, J. B., & Levy, P. E. (2010). Employee coaching relationships: Enhancing construct clarity and measurement. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 3*(2), 109-123.

Gregory, J. B., & Levy, P. E. (2011). It's not me, it's you: A multilevel examination of variables that impact employee coaching relationships. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 63*(2), 67.

Griffiths, K., & Campbell, M. (2008). Regulating the regulators: Paving the way for international, evidence-based coaching standards. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 6*(1), 19-31.

Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of research*. New York: Pallgrave Macmillan International Higher Education.

Grover, S., & Furnham, A. (2016). Coaching as a developmental intervention in organisations: A systematic review of its effectiveness and the mechanisms underlying it. *PloS one, 11*(7), e0159137.

Grover, V. (2015). Research approach: An overview. *Golden Research Thoughts, 4*(8), 1-8.

Graduate School Alliance for Executive Coaching. (GSAEC). (2018). Academic stnadrds for graduate level educational programs in profesional coaching: Executive summary. Retrieved from https://gsaec.org/resources/documents/Exec%20

Guba, E. G. (1990). *The alternative paradigm dialog*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of Qualitative Research, 2*(163-194), 105.

Gyllensten, K., & Palmer, S. (2007). The coaching relationship: An interpretative phenomenological analysis. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 2*(2), 168-177.

Hagen, M., & Gavrilova Aguilar, M. (2012). The impact of managerial coaching on learning outcomes within the team context: An analysis. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 23*(3), 363-388.

Hagen, M. S., & Peterson, S. L. (2014). Coaching scales: A review of the literature and comparative analysis. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 16*(2), 222-241.

Hahn, H. J. (2016). *The effects of managerial coaching on work performance: The mediating roles of role clarity and psychological empowerment*. University of Minneapolis, MW, USA.

Hair, J. F., Bush, R. P., & Ortinau, D. J. (2000). *Marketing research: A practical approach for the new millennium*: Irwin Professional Publishing.

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.

Hamlin, R. G., Ellinger, A. D., & Beattie, R. S. (2008). The emergent 'coaching industry': A wake-up call for HRD professionals. *Human Resource Development International, 11*(3), 287-305.

Hankins, C., & Kleiner, B. H. (1995). New developments in supervisor training. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.

Harrison, R. (1993). *Human resource management: Issues and strategies*. Singapore: Addison Wesley Publishing Company.

Harvey, L., Harvey, L., Locke, W., & Morey, A. (2002). *Enhancing Employability, Recognising Diversity: Making Links Between Higher Education and the World of Work*: Main Report: Universities UK.

Hauschildt, K., & Konradt, U. (2012a). The effect of self-leadership on work role performance in teams. *Leadership, 8*(2), 145-168.

Hauschildt, K., & Konradt, U. (2012b). Self-leadership and team members' work role performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Hawkins, P. (2012). *Creating a coaching culture: Developing a coaching strategy for your organization*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Hawkins, P., & Smith, N. (2013). *Coaching, Mentoring And Organizational Consultancy: Supervision, Skills And Development: Supervision, Skills and Development*: McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Hay, M. (2002). Strategies for survival in the war of talent. *Career Development International, 7*(1), 52-55.

Heslin, P. A., Vandewalle, D., & Latham, G. P. (2006). Keen to Help? Managers' Implict Person Theories and Their Subsequent Employee Coaching *Personnel Psychology, 59*(4), 871-902.

Ho, J., & Nesbit, P. L. (2014). Self-leadership in a Chinese context: Work outcomes and the moderating role of job autonomy. *Group & Organization Management, 39*(4), 389-415.

Holbrook, A. L. (2011). Attitude change experiments in political science. *Cambridge Handbook of Experimental Political Science, 1*, 141-154.

Holtzman, S., & Vezzu, S. (2011). Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling of noncognitive assessments using PROC CALIS. *NorthEast SAS Users Group (NESUG), 2011 Proceedings*, 11-14.

Holyoak, L. (2013). Are all internships beneficial learning experiences? An exploratory study. *Education+ Training, 55*(6), 573-583.

Houghton, J., Wu, J., Godwin, J. L., Neck, C., & Manz, C. (2012). You can't control the wind but you can adjust the sails: Self-leadership as a method to cope with stress. *Journal of Management Education, 36*, 220-238.

Houghton, J. D., Dawley, D., & DiLiello, T. C. (2012). The abbreviated self-leadership questionnaire (ASLQ): A more concise measure of self-leadership. *International Journalof Leadership Studies, 7*(4), 216-232.

Houghton, J. D., & Neck, C. P. (2002). The revised self-leadership questionnaire. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* (17), 672-691.

Hui, R. T. y., Sue-Chan, C., & Wood, R. E. (2013). The contrasting effects of coaching style on task performance: The mediating roles of subjective task complexity and self-set goal. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 24*(4), 429-458.

Hull, J. (2004). *An investigation of customer satisfaction. (MBA)*. Thames Valley University, London.

Hunt, J., & Weintraub, J. (2011). *The coaching manager development top talent in business*. In. Thousand Oaks, Carlifornia: Sage.

Ianiro, P. M., Schermuly, C. C., & Kauffeld, S. (2013). Why interpersonal dominance and affiliation matter: An interaction analysis of the coach-client relationship. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 6*(1), 25-46.

International Coach Federation. (ICF). (2017). International Coaching Federation. Retrieved from https://coachingfederation.org

Jiménez-Buedo, M., & Miller, L. M. (2010). Why a Trade-Off?: the Relationship between the External and Internal Validity of Experiments. *Theoria: An International Journal for Theory, History and Foundations of Science, 25*(69), 301-321.

Johari, J. (2011). *The structural relationships between organizational structure, job characteristics, work involvement, and job performance among public servants.* Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok.

Jones, R. J., Woods, S. A., & Guillaume, Y. R. (2016). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 89*(2), 249-277.

Joppe, M. (2000). The Research Process. Retrieved December 16, 2006. In. Jung, J., & Lee, S. J. (2017). Impact of internship on job performance among university graduates in South Korea. *International Journal of Chinese Education, 5*(2), 250-284.

Kang, D. s., & Stewart, J. (2007). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership and HRD. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 28*(6), 531-551.

Kasli, M., & Ilban, M. O. (2013). The Influence of Problems Faced during Internships on Interns' Views of Their Profession and Their Intention to Work in the Tourism Industry. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 52*, 79-95.

Keller, R. T. (2012). Predicting the performance and innovativeness of scientists and engineers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(1), 225.

Kelley, K., Clark, B., Brown, V., & Sitzia, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal for Quality in health care, 15*(3), 261-266.

Kemper, E. A., Stringfield, S., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Mixed methods sampling strategies in social science research. *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*, 273-296.

Kim, S. (2014). Assessing the influence of managerial coaching on employee outcomes. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 25*(1), 59-85.

Kirk, J., & Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research (Vol. 1)*. Beverley Hills: Sage.

Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education, 6*(5), 26-41.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Koerber, A., & McMichael, L. (2008). Qualitative sampling methods: A primer for technical communicators. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 22*(4), 454-473.

Koskinen, K., & Anderson, K. (2023). Managerial mind-set and behaviours that shape effective relationship building in employee coaching: An integrative literature review. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring, 21*(1).

Kuhn, T. S. (2012). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago University of Chicago press.

Kurtessis, J., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M., Buffardi, L., Stewart, K., & Adis, C. (2015). Perceived Organizational Support: A Meta-Analytic Evaluation of Organizational Support Theory. *Journal of Mamangement, XX(X)*, 1-31.

Ladyshewsky, R., & Taplin, R. (2017). Employee perceptions of managerial coaching and work engagement using the measurement model of

coaching skills and the Utrecht work engagement scale. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 15*(2), 25-42.

Ladyshewsky, R., & Taplin, R. (2018). The interplay between organisational learning culture, the manager as coach, self-efficacy and workload on employee work engagement. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 16*(2), 3-19.

Ladyshewsky, R. K. (2010). The manager as coach as a driver of organizational development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.

Lakshman, S. (2016). Nurse turnover in India: factors impacting nurses' decisions to leave employment. *South Asian Journal of Human Resources Management, 3*(2), 109-128.

Lamb, C., Hair, J., McDaniel, C., Boshoff, C., & Terblanche, N. (2000). *Marketing* (2nd ed.). Cape Town, South Africa: Oxford University Press.

Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Self-regulation through goal setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 212-247.

Lawrence, P. (2017). Managerial coaching-a literature review. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 15*(2), 43.

Leibowitz, Z. B., & Schlossberg, N. K. (1981). Training Managers for Their Role in a Career Development System. *Training and Development Journal, 35*(7), 72-79.

Levinson, H. (2009). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. *Pyscnet.apa.org*.

Lewis, J. R., & Sauro, J. (2018). Item benchmarks for the system usability scale. *Journal of Usability Studies, 13*(3).

Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research, 4*(2), 97-128.

Loeb, S., Dynarski, S., McFarland, D., Morris, P., Reardon, S., & Reber, S. (2017). Descriptive Analysis in Education: A Guide for Researchers.

NCEE 2017-4023. *National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance*.

London, M., & Smither, J. W. (2002). Feedback orientation, feedback culture, and the longitudinal performance management process. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(1), 81-100.

Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). Goal-setting theory of motivation. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration, 15*(1), 1-6.

Lutabingwa, J., & Auriacombe, C. (2007). Data analysis in quantitative research. *Journal of Public Administration, 42*(6), 528-548.

Mabeba, S. (2019). The impact of internship programme on skills development in the South African public institutions: are internships still relevant? Paper presented at the International Conference on Public Administration and Development .

Maher, J. M., Markey, J. C., & Ebert-May, D. (2013). The other half of the story: effect size analysis in quantitative research. *CBE—Life Sciences Education, 12*(3), 345-351.

Maio, J. (2018). Reasons why an internship is important to all students. *June, 29*.

Malhotra, N. K. (2009). *Marketing Research-An Applied Orientation. 6th edification* (6th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Manshi, Y., & Mishra, S. K. (2019). Self-Leadership as a Tool For Enhancing Preformance at Workplace. *GIS Buiness, 14*(6 Nov-Dec), 76-88.

Mantz, C. (1986). Self-leadership: towards an expanded theory of self-influence processes in organisations. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 585-600.

Manz, C., & Sims, H. (1989). *Leading others to lead themselves: Superleadership*. In: New York: Prentice-Hall.

Manz, C. C. (1986). Self-leadership: Toward an expanded theory of self-influence processes in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(3), 585-600.

Manz, C. C. (1992). *Mastering selfleadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence:* . Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Manz, C. C. (2015). Taking the self-leadership high road: Smooth surface or potholes ahead? *Academy of Management Perspectives, 29*(1), 132-151.

Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (2001). *The new superleadership: Leading others to lead themselves*. San Franscisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Manz, C. C., & Sims Jr, H. P. (1980). Self-management as a substitute for leadership: A social learning theory perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 5*(3), 361-367.

Manz, C. C., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2010). *The New Super Leadership: Leading Others to Lead Themsleves*.

Martins, J. H., Loubser, M., & Van Wyk, H. d. J. (1996). *Marketing research: A South African Approach*. Pretoria, RSA: Unisa Press.

Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2009). *Human Resources Management*. Mason, OH, USA: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2011). *Human resource management: Essential perspectives*: Cengage Learning.

Matsuo, M. (2018). How does managerial coaching affect individual learning? The mediating roles of team and individual reflexivity. *Personnel Review*.

May-Varas, S., Margolis, J., & Mead, T. (2023). Social Cognitive Theory. *Educational Learning Theories*.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-Based inquiry*. MyEducationLab Series. *Pearson*.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Tousand Oaks, CA: sage.

Milner, J., & McCarthy, G. (2016). Managerial coaching: A practical way to apply leadership theory? *The Psychology of Effective Coaching and Management*, 353-365.

Mmaditla, T., & Ndlovu-Hlatshwayo, E. N. (2022). The Perceived applicability of coaching skills among human resource business partners of South African

State-Owned Entities. *Journal of Management and Entrepreneurship Research, 3*(2), 106-120.

Mohaidin, N. J., Supar, M., Ibrahim, M. A., & Sidik, M. H. J. (2017). Employers' Perception on Internship Programme. Paper presented at the SHS Web of Conferences.

Mom, T. J., Fourné, S. P., & Jansen, J. J. (2015). Managers' work experience, ambidexterity, and performance: The contingency role of the work context. *Human Resource Management, 54*(S1), s133-s153.

Motowidlo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance*(10), 71-83.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Kell, H. J. (2012). Job performance. *Handbook of Psychology, Second Edition, 12*.

Mottaz, C. J. (1988). Determinants of organizational commitment. *Human R*ah, S., & Utami, C. (2023). The effect of self-efficacy, self-leadership, and work ethic on employee performance in manufacturing companies. *KnE Social Sciences*, 947–958-947–958.

Musselwhite, C. (2008). Three ways to build successful manager employee relationships. *Talent Management*.

Mutz, D. C. (2011). *Population-based survey experiments*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Nachmias, D., & Nachmias, C. (1976). Research methods in the social sciences.

Nagy, M. S. (2002). Using a single-item approach to measure facet job satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 75*(1), 77-86.

Naude, D. (2007). *The degree of organisational performance measurement in SME's-A focus on ICT enterprises.* University of South Africa,

Neck, C. P., & Cooper, K. H. (2000). The fit executive: Exercise and diet guidelines for enhancing performance. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 14*(2), 72-83.

Neck, C. P., DiLiello, T. C., & Houghton, J. D. (2006). Maximizing organizational leadership capacity for the future. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 319-338.

Neck, C. P., & Houghton, J. D. (2006). Two decades of self-leadership theory and research. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 270-295.

Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. (2013). *Mastering self-leadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence* (6 ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.

Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (1992). Thought self-leadership: The influence of self-talk and mental imagery on performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(7), 681-699.

Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (2004). *Mastering self-leadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence* (3rd Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice-Hall.

Neck, C. P., & Manz, C. C. (2010). *Mastering self-leadership: Empowering yourself for personal excellence* (5 ed.). Upper-Saddle-River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Neck, C. P., Neck, H. M., Manz, C. C., & Godwin, J. (1999). “I think I can; I think I can” A self-leadership perspective toward enhancing entrepreneur thought patterns, self-efficacy, and performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 14*(6), 477-501.

Neck, C. P., Nouri, H., & Godwin, J. L. (2003). How self-leadership affects the goal-setting process. *Human Resource Management Review, 13*(4), 691-707.

Neuman, W. L. (2003). T*he meanings of methodology: Social research methods*. Boston: Allyn.

Newman, I., Benz, C. R., & Ridenour, C. S. (1998). *Qualitative-quantitative research methodology: Exploring the interactive continuum*: SIU Press.

Ng, J. (2017). *Unleashing the Greatness in You: The Power of Self-leadership*: World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd.

Noe, R., Hollenbeck, J., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. (1997). *Human Resource Management: Gaining a Competitive Advantage*. Chicago: Irwin.

Oyedokun, G. (2016). Management thoughts: The review of social action theory. *Available at SSRN 2912274*.

Ozturk, A. (2015). Organizational Climate, Effect of SelfLeadership Research and Development Performance, Job Satisfaction. *The Russian Academic Journal, 32*(2).

Park, S., McLean, G. N., & Yang, B. (2008). Revision and Validation of an Instrument Measuring Managerial Coaching Skills in Organizations. *Online Submission*.

Passmore, J., & Fillery-Travis, A. (2011). A critical review of executive coaching research: a decade of progress and what's to come. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 4*(2), 70-88.

Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2003). *Shared Leadership: Reframing the Hows and Whys Leadership*. Thousand Oaks, Carlifornia: Sage.

Pietersen, J., & Malatjie, I. (2022). Efficacy of the internship programme in the South African public service with a particular focus on the National School of Government. *Journal for New Generation Sciences, 20*(1), 14-22.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.

Politis, J. D. (2006). Self-leadership behavioural-focused strategies and team performance: The mediating influence of job satisfaction. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27*(3), 203-216.

Pop, C., & Barkhuizen, N. (2010). The relationship between skills training and retention of graduate interns in a South African information, communication and technology company. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal, 1*(2), 75-83.

Postmes, T., Haslam, S. A., & Jans, L. (2013). A single-item measure of social identification: Reliability, validity, and utility. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 52*(4), 597-617.

Pratoom, K., & Savatsomboon, G. (2012). Explaining factors affecting individual innovation: The case of producer group members in Thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 29*(4), 1063-1087.

Prochaska, F. (2017). Internal and external validity. *San Jose, CA: San Jose State University. Accessed online on, 7*.

Prussia, G. E., Anderson, J. S., & Manz, C. C. (1998). Self-leadership and performance outcomes: the mediating influence of self-efficacy. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 19*(5), 523-538.

Putnam, H. (2002). *The collapse of the fact/value dichotomy and other essays*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.

Queirós, A., Faria, D., & Almeida, F. (2017). Strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research methods. *European Journal of Education Studies*.

Rahi, S. (2017). Research design and methods: A systematic review of research paradigms, sampling issues and instruments development. *International Journal of Economics & Management Sciences, 6*(2), 1-5.

Ratiu, L., David, O. A., & Baban, A. (2017). Developing managerial skills through coaching: Efficacy of a cognitive-behavioral coaching program. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy, 35*(1), 88-110.

Raza, B., Ali, M., Ahmed, S., & Ahmad, J. (2018). Impact of managerial coaching on organizational citizenship behavior: The mediation and moderation model. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 7*, 27-46.

Rega, J. (2012). How to improve self-leadership performance using Neck and Houghton's Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire. In: Session.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 698.

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*(3), 617-635.

Rima, S. D. (2000). *Leading from the inside out: the art of self-leadership*. Grand Rapids: Baker Books.

Robbins, S. P. (1995). *Supervision Today*. Englewood Cliff, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Şahin, F. (2011). The interaction of self-leadership and psychological climate on job performance. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(5), 1787-1794.

Sanahuja Vélez, G., & Ribes Giner, G. (2015). Effects of business internships on students, employers, and higher education institutions: A systematic review. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 52*(3), 121-130.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003). *Research methods for business students*. London: Pitman.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research methods for business*. London: Pitman, 124-126.

Schneider, J. W. (2013). Caveats for using statistical significance tests in research assessments. *Journal of Informetrics, 7*(1), 50-62.

Schreuder, D., & Coetzee, M. (2008). A multi-cultural investigation of students' career anchors at a South African higher education institution. *South African Journal of Labour Relations, 32*(2), 45-65.

Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3), 580-607.

Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader–member

exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(3), 219.

Shaughnessy, J. J., Zechmeister, E. B., & Zechmeister, J. S. (2000). *Research methods in psychology*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Shondrick, S. J., Dinh, J. E., & Lord, R. G. (2010). Developments in implicit leadership theory and cognitive science: Applications to improving measurement and understanding alternatives to hierarchical leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(6), 959-978.

Shore, L. M., & Bloom, A. J. (1986). Developing Employees through Coaching and Career Management. *Personnel, 63*(8), 34-38.

Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7*(4), 422.

Sileyew, K. J. (2019). R*esearch Design and Methodology*. In *Cyberspace*: IntechOpen.

Smith, S., & Mazin, R. (2004). *The hr answer book: an indispensable guide for managers and human resources professionals*. New Yor: Amacom.

Snape, D., & Spencer, L. (2003). The Foundations of Qualitative Research in Richie, J. and Lewis, J. *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers London: Sage*.

Sonesh, S. C., Coultas, C. W., Lacerenza, C. N., Marlow, S. L., Benishek, L. E., & Salas, E. (2015). The power of coaching: a meta-analytic investigation. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 8*(2), 73-95.

Song, M.-K., Lin, F.-C., Ward, S. E., & Fine, J. P. (2013). Composite variables: when and how. *Nursing Research, 62*(1), 45.

Stanleigh, M. (2012). Coaching is the new direction for perforamnce management. Retrieved from https://bia.ca/coaching-is-the-new-direction-for-perforamnce-management-2/

Stewart, G. L., Courtright, S. H., & Manz, C. C. (2011). Self-leadership: A multilevel review. *Journal of Management, 37*(1), 185-222. doi:10.1177/0149206310383911

Struwig, M., Struwig, F., & Stead, G. (2001). *Planning, reporting & designing research*: Pearson South Africa.

Subban, L. (2016). Talent management: past, present and future. *South African Board for People Practices, 16*(03), 2-15.

Suen, L.-J. W., Huang, H.-M., & Lee, H.-H. (2014). A comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *Hu Li Za Zhi, 61*(3), 105.

Surijah, A. B. (2016). Global environment, corporate strategy, learning culture and human capital: a theoretical review. *International Journal of Organizational Innovation, 8*(4).

Tabachnick, B. G., Fidell, L. S., & Ullman, J. B. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (Vol. 5). Boston: Pearson Boston, MA.

Tavares, O. (2017). The role of students' employability perceptions on Portuguese higher education choices. *Journal of Education and Work, 30*(1), 106-121.

Tenaw, Y. A. (2013). Relationship between self-efficacy, academic achievement and gender in analytical chemistry at Debre Markos College of teacher education. *African Journal of Chemical Education, 3*(1), 3-28.

Trueman, C. (2015). Social action theory. The history learning site. Retrieved from http;//www.historylearningsite.co.uk/sociology/theories-in-sociology/social-action-theory

Tutar, H., Altinoz, M., & Cakiroglu, D. (2011). The effects of employee empowerment on achievement motivation and the contextual performance of employees. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(15), 6318-6329.

Walliman, N. (2005). *Your research project: a step-by-step guide for the first-time researcher*. London: Sage.

Wargo, W. G. (2015). I*dentifying assumptions and limitations for your dissertation*. Menifee, CA: Academic Information Center.

Warwer, O. (2013). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation mediate self-leadership focussed behavior strategies and performance outcome. *International Journal Management, 4*(5), 191-203.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Linden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*, 82-111.

Will, T., Gessnitzer, S., & Kauffeld, S. (2016). You think you are an empathic coach? Maybe you should think again. The difference between perceptions of empathy vs. empathic behaviour after a person-centred coaching training. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 9*(1), 53-68.

Wolfswinkel, M. (2019). *Talent attraction and retention through brand building: An exploration of practices in companies that are top South African brands.* The IIE,

Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2008). Scale development research: A content analysis and recommendations for best practices. *The Counseling Psychologist, 34*(6), 806-838.

Yorke, M. (2006). Employability in higher education: what it is-what is not/Mantz Yorke. *Aberdine: The Higher Education Academy*.

Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(6), 708-722.

Zeffane, R. M. (1994a). Understanding employee turnover: The need for a contingency approach. *International Journal of Manpower*.

Zeffane, R. M. (1994b). Understanding Employee Turnover: The Need for a Contingency Approach. *International Journal of Manpower, 15*(9), 22-37.

Zigarmi, D. (2018). The Importance of Self-Leadership and How to Leverage it to Improve Organisational Leadership. Retrieved from https://@dzigarmi/the-

importance-of-self-leadership-and-how-to-improve-organisational-leadership

Zikmund, W. G., & Carr, G. (2003). *Business research methods*. 7th. Oklahoma, EUA: Thomson.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER

Graduate School of Business Administration
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

Wits Business School Ethics Committee
Constituted under the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical)

Ethics Clearance Certificate

Ethics protocol number: WBS/BE8609953P/589
This certificate is only valid with a legitimate ethics protocol number and signed by the Researcher (below).

This certificate is only valid if accompanied by formal permission from the relevant stakeholder(s).

Project title	The impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance of interns in South Africa
Investigator / Researcher	Mr Solomon Molekwa
Nature of Project	MM (Business & Executive Coaching)
Decision of the Committee	Approved, provided stakeholders and participants are guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality.
Issue Date of Certificate	2021-04-15
Expiry date	Date of submission of the project report
Chairperson	Prof Anthony Stacey ☎ +27 11 717 3587 +27 82 880 4531 anthony.stacey@wits.ac.za

Declaration by Researcher

One copy must be signed by the Researcher and returned to the Chairperson of the Wits Business School Ethics Committee.

I fully understand the conditions under which I am authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee.

Signature

08/09/2022
Date:

APPENDIX B: REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Graduate School of Business Administration
University of Witwatersrand

Permission to conduct research in MTN Group Research Project on the Impact of Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship and Self-Leadership on Performance of Corporate Graduate Interns in South Africa

Research Conduct by:

Solomon (Solly) Molefi Molekwa (8609953P)

Contact details (+27 83 401 5040; solomon.molekwa@za.bp.com

Dear Mr. Kagiso Malepe

The purpose of this letter is to request permission to conduct research within MTN Group. The study will be conducted by Solly Molekwa, a master's student from the Graduate School of Business Administration at the University of Witwatersrand. The study has received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of the Graduate School of Business Administration at the University of Witwatersrand. The purpose of the study is determining the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on corporate graduate interns in South Africa.

- **This study will involve coached graduate interns in responding to survey questionnaires. Names will not appear in the reporting of findings and all responses given in the surveys will be treated as strictly confidential. Respondents cannot be identified in person based on the answers they provided.**

- Respondents may choose to withdraw their participation at any time without any fear of negative consequences.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be shared with individual respondents who want to know the outcomes, and as well may be published in academic journals. The company will be provided with the summary of the findings on request.
- Please contact my lecturer and research promoter Dr Jabulile Galawe (jabulile.galawe@wits.ac.za), if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and applied your mind to the information provided above.
- You give permission for the study to be done in your organisation, subject to confidentiality agreement stipulated above.

_____ _____

Respondent Signature Date

APPENDIX C: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

MTN GROUP MANAGEMENT SERVICES PROPRIETARY LIMITED
Head Office: 216 14th Avenue Fairland 2195
Private Bag X9955 Cresta 2118 South Africa
Tel +2711 912 3000 Fax +2711 912 3003 Website www.mtn.com

To whom it may concern

On behalf of MTN, I am writing to formally indicate our awareness of the research (Impact of Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship and Self-Leadership on Performance of Corporate Graduate Interns in South Africa) proposed by Solomon Molefi Molekwa, a student at Universityof Witwatersrand.

We are aware that he intends to conduct his research by administering survey questionnaires to our graduates.

As Leadership and Career Consultant, I grant Solomon Molefi Molekwa permission to conduct his research at our organization.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact my office at 011 912 3000 | 083 214 6855

Sincerely,

KMalepe

Kagiso Malepe
MTN Group
Leadership & Career Consultant
31 August 2021

Director: RT Mupita & PD Norman
Company Secretary: FT Sithubo-Bonoyi
Reg No. 2004/000843/07
VAT No. 4060213263

APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT



Introduction:

Below is the informed consent agreement for the study. Please review the text below and click "***I agree***" to participate to continue.

Dear Participant,

My name is Solly Molekwa, and I am currently a master's student at the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. This research study is in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Business and Executive Coaching.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assist the researcher in gathering data to determine the relationship between manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in South Africa. Whilst there may be no monetary or physical benefit to the participants, there may be benefits both for coaches and organisations on how to coach and support corporate graduate interns to improve their performance behaviours.

To participate in this study, you should have undergone coaching within your organisation. You are required to complete the attached survey questionnaire which should take about 20 minutes. You will be asked questions about the quality of the manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills on how they influence your performance behaviour.

The results obtained from this research study may be published in the form of an article, research report and academic journals. However, no respondents' information will be shared, nor are they required to provide their names, addresses or any other personal information that may be used to identify them. Data collected via this survey questionnaire will be stored in Qualtrics for 5 years and all access to the system will be controlled via passwords.

By completing this survey questionnaire, you agree that you participated in this research study voluntarily and at your own free will. You may withdraw from this study at any given time. If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact me on solomon.molekwa@za.bp.com , or call +27 83 401 5040.

If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you may contact the University Human Research Ethics committee (non-medical), via an email at hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za or telephonically on +27 11 717 1408.

Yours sincerely,

Solly Molekwa

Consent

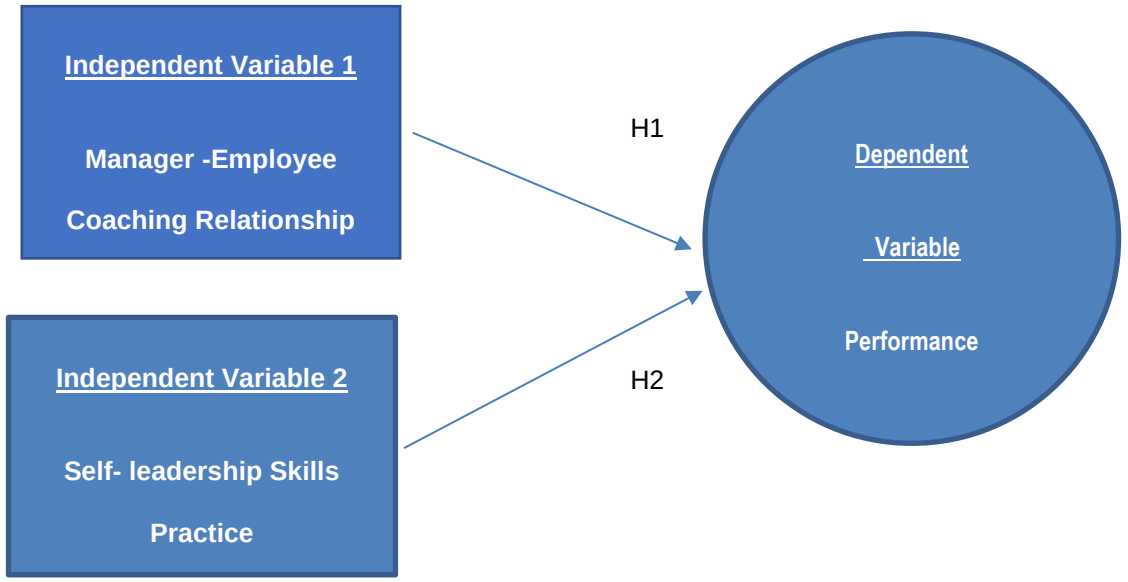
I agree to participate in the study.

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

APPENDIX E: CONSISTENCY MATRIX

Research Topic	The impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns in South Africa.						
Problem Statement	Corporates fail to empower managers and graduate interns with coaching skills to use manager-employee coaching relationships and self-leadership skills to advance organisational performance.						
Main Objective	To investigate the impact of manager-employee coaching relationship and self-leadership skills on the performance behaviours of corporate graduate interns						
Sub-Aims/Objectives	**Literature Review**	**Hypotheses**	**Research Questions**	**Variables (Independent & Dependent)**	**Source of data**	**Type of data**	**Analysis**
1. To investigate the impact of **perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship** on **performance behaviours** of corporate graduate interns.	Hahn 2016 Surijah 2016 Lakshman 2016 Hagan, (2012) Fissinger 2014) Benson & Yoder (2012) Gabriel et al. (2014) Yukl (2002) Gyllenstein & Palmer 2007 Vande-Walle 2006	**Perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship** impacts positively on performance **behaviours** of corporate graduate interns.	What impact does **perceived quality of manager-employee coaching relationship** have on performance of corporate graduate interns?	**IV1 = Manger-Employee Coaching Relationship**	Questionnaire	Ordinal Data (7 Likert Scale)	1. Descriptive 2.Correlation 3. Multiple Regression 4. Cronbach Alpha
				DV = Graduate Performance	Perception of the Quality Employee Coaching Relationship		
2. To examine the impact of **self-leadership skills practice** on **performance behaviours** of corporate graduate interns.	Zigami 2018 Ng 2017 Keller 2012 Phelan and Young (2003) Scoot and Bruce (1994) Houghton et al. (2003) Manz (1992;1986) Manz and Neck (1999)	**Self-leadership skills practice** has a positive impact on **performance behaviours** of corporate graduate interns.	To what extent does **self-leadership skills practice** impact on **performance behaviours** of corporate graduate interns?	**IV2 = Self leadership Skills Practice**	Questionnaire	Ordinal Data (7 Likert Scale)	
				DV = Graduate Performance	Revised Self Leadership Questionnaire		
Corporates need to empower managers and graduate interns with coaching skills on manager-employee coaching relationships and self-leadership to improve organisational performance.							
KEYWORDS - Self-leadership, Self-leadership strategies, Self-efficacy, Shared leadership, Coaching partnership, Performance behaviours., Developmental coaching, Managerial coaching, Employee development, Performance management, Performance behaviours, Performance behaviours, Graduate interns, and Internships.							

Figure 1: Relationship between Independent and Dependant Variables



APPENDIX F: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: *Kindly place* ***X*** *in the appropriate box according to how the information describes you.*

1. Gender
What is your gender?

Male	Female	Non-Binary
1	2	3

2. Age Group
What's your age? Kindly select from below age groups.

20 Years and below	21 – 35 Years	26 – 30 Years	31 – 35 Years	36 – 40 years
1	2	3	4	5

3. Marital status
What is your current marital status?

Never married	Married	Separated	Divorced	Widowed
1	2	3	4	5

4. Race
Which of the following best describes your race or ethnicity?

Bleck	White	Coloured	Indian	Other
1	2	3	4	5
If Other specify.				

5. Educational Status

Which of the following describes your current educational achievements?

Diploma	Degree	Honours	Masters	PhD	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6
If Other specify.					

APPENDIX G: PERCEPTION QUALITY OF THE EMPLOYEE COACHING RELATIONSHIP (PQECR)

Instruction:

*Kindly read each statement carefully and rate the performance of the employee by placing **X** in the appropriate scale box*.

No	Dimension	Statement / Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Genuineness of the relationship	My supervisor and I have mutual respect with each other							
2		I believe my supervisor truly cares about me.							
3		I believe my supervisor feels a sense of commitment to me.							
4	Effective Communication	My supervisor is a good listener.							
5		My supervisor is easy to talk to.							
6		My supervisor is effective at communicating with me.							
7	Comfort with the relationship	I feel at ease communicating with my supervisor about my job performance.							
8		I am content to discuss my concerns or troubles with my supervisor.							
9		I feel safe and being open and honest with my supervisor.							

10	**Facilitating Development**	**My supervisor helps me identify and build upon my strengths.**							
11		**My supervisor enables me to develop as an employee of our organisation.**							
12		**My supervisor engages on activities that help me unlock my potential.**							

APPENDIX H: REVISED SELF-LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Instruction: *Evaluate the following statements by placing an X* ***on*** *the appropriate response based on the scale below.*

No.	Descriptors	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Scale / Dimension	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
BEHAVIOUR FOCUSED								
	Self-Goal Setting	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	I establish specific goals for my own performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am consciously guided/informed by goals in the accomplishment of my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I work towards specific goals that I have set for myself doing work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	During work I constantly think about the goals that I intend to achieve in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I write specific goals for my own performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Self-Reward	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
6	When I do an assignment well, I like to treat myself to something or activity I especially enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	**When I do something well, I reward myself with a special treat/event such as a good dinner, movie, shopping, etc.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8	**When I have successfully completed a task, often reward myself with something I like.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
	Self-Observation	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
9	**I make a point to keep track of how I am doing at work.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10	**I am usually aware of how I am doing as I perform an activity.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
11	**I pay attention to how well I am doing in my work.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
12	**I keep track of my progress on projects on which I am working.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
	Self-Cuing	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
13	**I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
14	**I use concrete reminders (e.g., sticky notes and lists) to help me focus on things I need to accomplish.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
22	**I diarize all my future work-related activities.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
	Self-Punishment	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
23	**I tend to "beat myself up" when I have performed poorly.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
24	**I intend to be tough on myself in thinking when I have not done well on a task.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

25	I tend to have self-pity when I do not perform well on a task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	I often express self-resentment when I underperform on a task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I feel guilt when I perform a task poorly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I sometimes openly express displeasure with myself when I have done well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NATURAL REWARDS								
	Focusing on Natural Rewards	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29	I focus my thinking on the pleasant rather than the unpleasant aspects of my job activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I try surround myself with objects and people that bring out my desirable behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	When I have a choice, I try to do my work in ways that I enjoy rather than just trying to get over it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I seek out activities in my work that I enjoy doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CONSTRUCTIVE THOUGHT								
	Visualizing Successful Performance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
33	I use my imagination to picture myself performing well on important tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

34	**I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
35	**Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I actually do a task.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
36	**I purposefully visualize myself overcoming the challenges I face.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
37	**I often mentally rehearse the way I plan to deal with a challenge before I actually face the challenge.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
	Self-Talk	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
38	**Sometimes I find I'm talking to myself (aloud or in my head) to help me deal with difficult problems I face.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
39	**Sometimes I talk to myself (aloud or in my head) to work through difficult situations or task.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
	Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
40	**I do think about my own beliefs and assumptions whenever I encounter a difficult situation.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
41	**I try to mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs about situations I have problems with.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
42	**I openly articulate and evaluate my own assumptions when I have disagreement with someone else.**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

APPENDIX I: CONSTRUCT / DIMENSION CODINGS & SOURCES

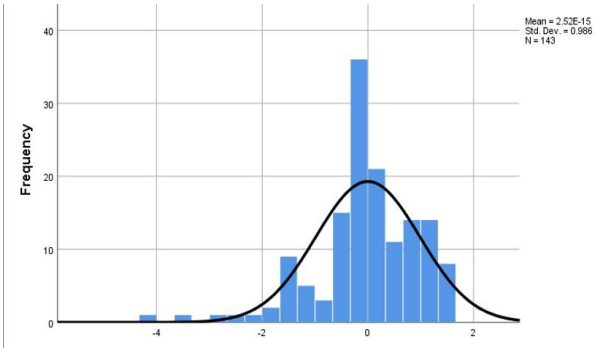
High Level Factors	Construct / Latent Factor	Code	Subcode	Item Statement	Sources
Performance Behaviours	Self-goal setting	SGS	SGS1	I establish specific goals for my own performance.	Motowidlo et al., (1997) Asiedu-Appah & Addai (2014) Anderson & Prussia (1977) Houghton & Neck (2002) Alvez et al., (2006 Godwin et al., (1999) Neck & Manz (2013) Gregory & Levy (2010) Agari & Valati (2012)
			SGS2	I am guided / informed by goals in accomplishment of work.	
			SGS3	Work towards specific goals set for my work.	
			SGS4	I think about the goals I intend to achieve.	
			SGS5	Write specific goals for my own performance	
Manager-Employee Coaching Relationship	Genuineness of the relationship	GRL	GRL1	My supervisor and I have mutual respect.	Hahn 2016 Surijah 2016 Lakshman 2016 Hagan, (2012) Fissinger 2014) Benson & Yoder (2012) Gabriel et al. (2014) Yukl (2002) Gyllenstein & Palmer 2007 Vande-Walle 2006
			GRL2	My supervisor genuinely cares about me.	
			GRL3	My supervisor feels a sense of commitment to me.	
	Effective Communication	EFC	EFC1	My supervisor is a good listener.	
			EFC2	My supervisor is easy to talk to.	
			EFC3	My supervisor is effective communicating with me.	
	Comfort in the Relationship	CRL	CRL1	I feel at ease communicating with my supervisor about my job performance	
			CRL2	I am content to discuss my concerns/ trouble with my supervisor.	
			CRL3	I feel safe and being open and honest with my supervisor.	
	Facilitating Development	FDV	FDV1	My supervisor helps me identify and build upon my strengths.	
			FDV2	My supervisor enables me to develop as an employee of our organisation.	
			FDV3	My supervisor engages on activities that unlock my potential.	
	Self-Reward	SRW	SRW1	I treat myself to something well after a good performance	

Self-Leadership			SRW2	I reward myself with a special treat for doing something well.	Zigami 2018 Ng 2017 Keller 2012 Phelan and Young (2003) Scoot and Bruce (1994) Houghton et al. (2003) Manz (1992;1986) Manz and Neck (1999)
			SRW3	I reward myself with something I like when I complete a task successfully.	
	Self-Observation	SOB	SOB1	I keep track of how well I am doing at work	
			SOB2	I am aware of how well I am doing as I perform a task.	
			SOB3	I pay attention how well I am doing my work	
			SOB4	I keep track of my progress on projects	
	Self-Cuing	SLC	SLC1	I use written notes to remind myself of what I need to accomplish.	
			SLC2	I use concrete reminders to help focus.	
			SLC3	I diaries all future work-related activities	
	Self-Punishment	SPN	SPN1	I tend to beat myself up when I perform poorly.	
			SPN2	In tend to be tough on myself in my thinking	
			SPN3	I tend to have self-pity when I do not perform well.	
			SPN4	I often express self-resentment when I underperform a task.	
			SPN5	I feel guilty when I perform a task poorly.	
			SPN6	I openly express displeasure rather than unpliant.	
	Focusing on Natural Rewards	FNR	FNR1	I focus my thinking on pleasant rather than unpleasant.	
			FNR2	I surround with objects and people that bring out desirable behaviours.	
			FNR3	I try work hard in a way that I enjoy.	
			FNR4	I seek activities in my work that I enjoy.	
	Visualizing Successful Performance	VSP	VSP1	I use imagination to picture myself well on important tasks.	
			VSP2	Sometimes I picture in my mind a successful performance before I do a task.	

			VSP3	I purposefully visualize myself overcoming the challenges.	
			VSP4	I often mentally rehearse the way I plan to deal with a challenge.	
	Self-Talk	SLT	SLT1	I sometimes talk to myself to help deal with difficult problems I face.	
			SLT2	Sometimes I talk to myself to deal with difficult situations or tasks.	
	Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions	EBA	EBA 1	I think about my own beliefs and assumptions, when I encounter a difficult situation.	
			EBA2	I mentally evaluate the accuracy of my own beliefs.	
			EBA3	I articulate and evaluate my own beliefs.	

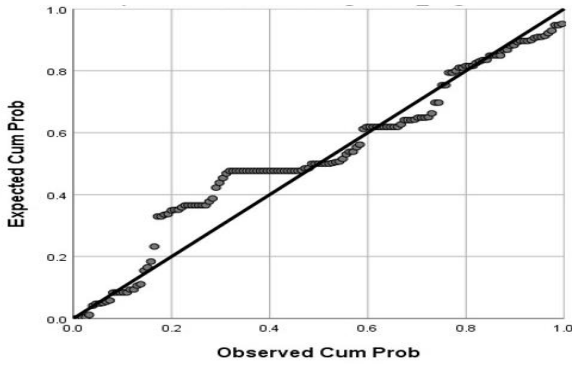
APPENDIX J: **FIGURE 4.9: HISTOGRAMS AND Q-Q PLOTS**

Histogram

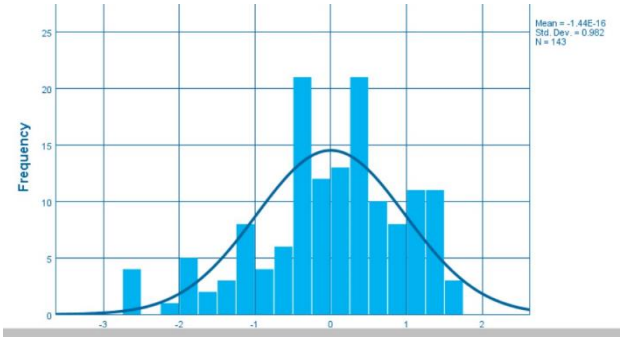


SGS

Normal Q-Q Plot -SGS

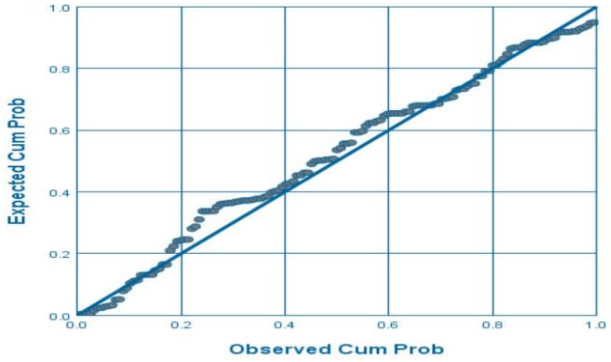


Histogram

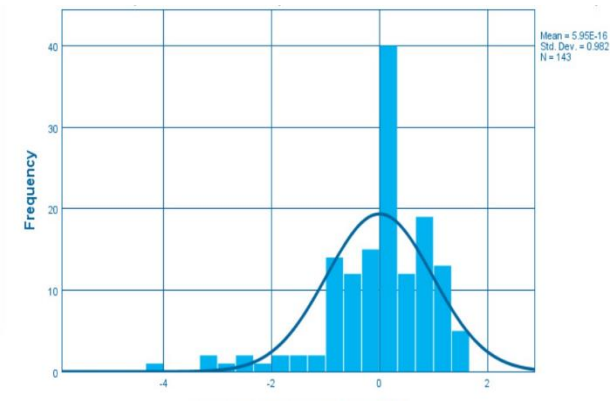


SRW

Normal Q-Q Plot - SRW

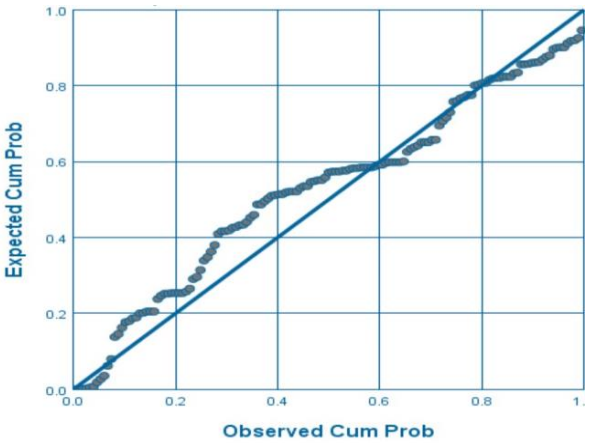


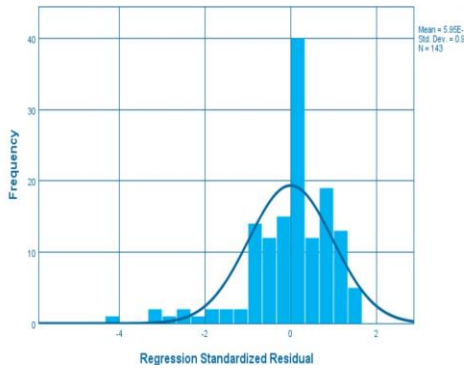
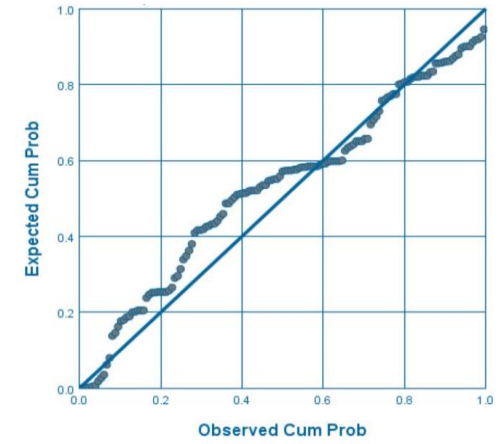
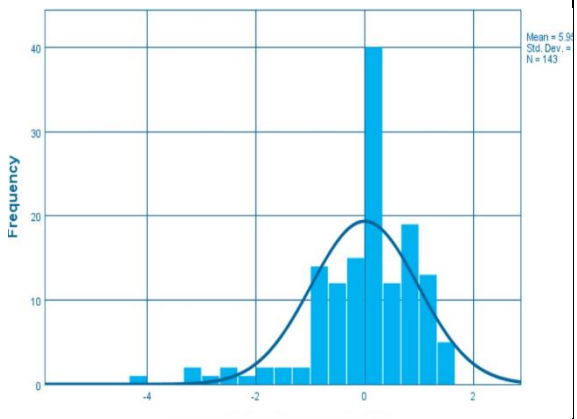
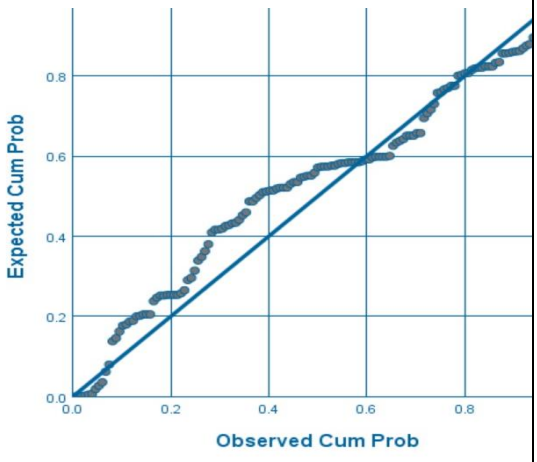
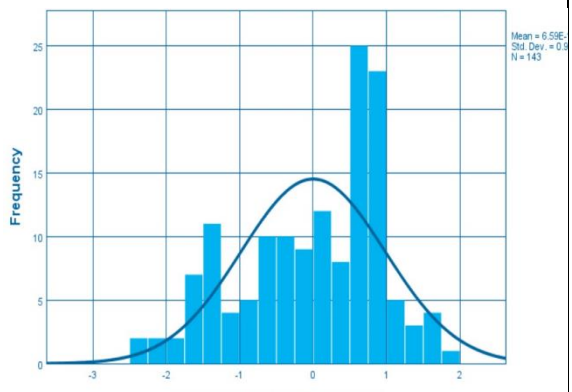
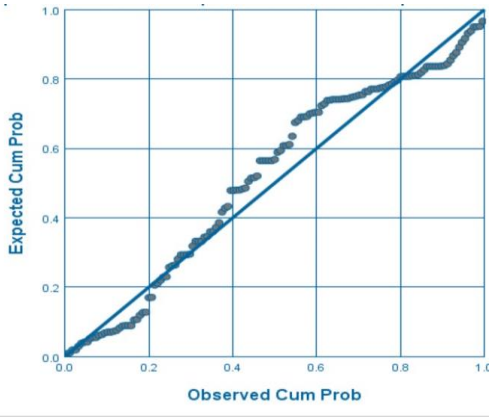
Histogram

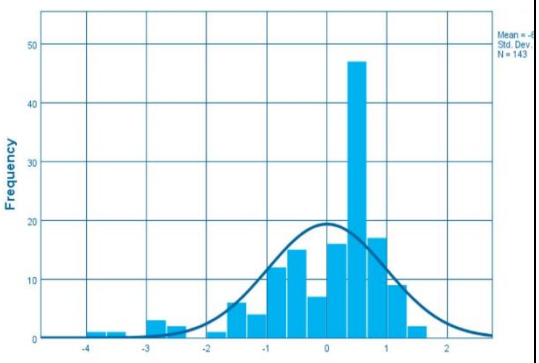


CRL

Normal Q-Q Plot - CRL



Histogram	Q-Q Plot of CRL
 CRL	
Histogram	Normal Q-Q Plot – SLC
 SLC	
Histogram	Q-Q PLT – SPN
 SPN	

Histogram	Q-Q Plot – EBA
 EBA	