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The influences of attachment style and implicit person theories on employee coaching needs

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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 the field of Business Executive Coaching

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to learn more about what effects employees when it comes to employee coaching, specifically if their attachment style and implicit person theory would affect their coaching willingness and needs, predominantly within a South African context.

Employee coaching is one on one coaching by a manager with their employees. Theory and research have identified employee coaching as a potential key tool to drive development, employee satisfaction and improve performance. This research has drawn heavily on executive coaching literature with primary emphases on practical implementation and outcomes for the executive as coachee. Employee coaching literature places the manager as coach and the employee as coachee and therefore entails different dynamics. However, less is known about the dynamics and choices within the employee coaching relationship, such as, drivers of the employee's desire to be coached and perceived needs within coaching. This thesis seeks to address these questions.

This thesis chooses two psychologically derived major drivers of employee willingness to be coached and needs. The first antecedent is attachment theory which assesses the individual's foundational personal style of relationship forming and interaction which is widely believed to be formed early in life. Attachment styles vary from secure to insecure with various classifications. Theoretically, therefore, since employee coaching involves a relationship including the potential for intimacy with an authority figure theory suggests the attachment styles could play an important role. Implicit person theory measures the extent to which a person believes people can change or be changed. Since coaching is a developmental process, the employee's belief that he or she can change could be expected to again have an important effect on the employee's willingness to be changed and the type of coaching desired.

In order to address these research questions, a survey measuring attachment style, implicit person theory, coaching needs and coaching willingness was devised and distributed electronically with 441 respondents. Have established factor structure through reliability and confirmatory factor analyses, the main analyses employed correlations and structural equation modelling. Attachment theory and implicit person theory has some effect on employee coaching willingness and needs. These results are presented along with recommendations and future research questions.

KEY WORDS

Attachment style; implicit person theory; employee coaching; coaching needs; coaching willingness; mindset

DECLARATION

I, Margaret van Steenderen, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in the field of Business Executive Coaching at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Name: Signature:

Signed at ……

On the …….. day of ……. 20…..

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- Greg Lee, my supervisor, who went above and beyond with late nights via Team Viewer despite having a young family. He supported me in the statistical modelling giving me crash courses from basic stats to CFAs and SEMs. His lecture during the course was inspiring and he reinforced the basics along with how to use Qualtrics.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ASQ	**Assessment Style Questionnaire**
CFA	**Confirmatory Factor Analysis**
CFI	**Comparative Fit Index**
EFA	**Exploratory Factor Analysis**
IPT	**Implicit Person Theories**
NNFI	**Non-normed Fit Index**
RMSEA	**Root Mean Square Error Approximation**
RQ	**Relationship Questionnaire**
RSQ	**Relationship Style Questionnaire**
SEM	**Structural Equation Modelling**
SRMR	**Standardized Root Mean Square Residual**

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to investigate and model the effects of attachment style and implicit person theories on employee coaching perceptions including willingness to be coached and coaching needs.

1.2 Context of the study

Businesses need to be able to respond proactively to the more complex business environments and develop management tools aimed at increasing employee performance and adaptability (Pousa & Mathieu, 2014). With technological advances and socio-economic changes companies are operating in a rapidly changing environment (Ye, Wang, Wendt, Wu, & Euwema, 2016).

Companies need to use proactive ways of developing their staff and increasing productivity. Employee development is also key to employee retention (Joo, Sushko, & McLean, 2012). One of these tools is that of coaching (Joo et al., 2012; Ying & Abdullah, 2015) which has become a significant part of employee development in many organisations (Joo et al., 2012).

When working with knowledge workers influence and relationships are more important than hierarchical structures to create engagement and high performing teams. A key to developing these working relationships is through employee coaching.

Employee coaching is the coaching of an employee by their manager or supervisor (Gregory & Levy, 2010). "Employee coaching entails managers providing one-on-one feedback and insights aimed at guiding and inspiring improvements in an employee's work performance" (Heslin, Vandewalle, & Latham, 2006, p. 3). Employee coaching overlaps with the increasingly popular field of executive coaching in that many of the principles are similar, such as goal focussed guidance towards performance improvements in the person being coached (Heslin et al., 2006).

Employee coaching can benefit the employee through adding to their development and performance but this is not a provision that all managers make available to their employees (Heslin et al., 2006). The benefits of employee coaching have been recognised and add to employee learning, development and engagement (Gregory & Levy, 2010; Heslin et al., 2006). Employee coaching has also shown an improvement in employee goal setting and performance (Lin et al., 2016; Neupane, 2015) and is seen as an effective tool to drive employee and therefore team and company performance (Ye et al., 2016).

This research considers the following question: to what extent do employees want to be coached? While organisations may offer various interventions, this does not mean that employees will want to participate. Coaching is a dyad made up of both the coach and coachee, needing two willing participants (Cunningham, 2017) and a 'readiness for coaching' on the part of the coachee (Tee, Shearer, & Roderique-Davis, 2017). In addition, a key predictor of a

successful coaching experience is the coaching relationship (Coultas & Salas, 2015; Gregory & Levy, 2010).

This research investigates what may impact willingness to be coached as well as coaching needs, specifically using attachment theory and Implicit Person Theory (IPT). Attachment styles are built from the work of Bowlby and Ainsworth who researched infant attachment styles, identified as secure, anxious and avoidant (Blalock, Franzese, Machell, & Strauman, 2015); which carry through into adulthood (Dahling & Librizzi, 2015; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). While attachment style of both the manager and the employee interact to form the relationship (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007), this research focusses on the employee's attachment style.

Implicit theories are "schema-like knowledge structures that individuals use to effortlessly process current stimulus cues and choose responses" (Detert & Edmondson, 2011, p. 463). People get a lot of stimuli and these knowledge structures allow stimulus cues to be processed quickly and without too much cognitive effort. These theories tend to last as stimuli are automatically processed that support them (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Implicit theories also encompass individual's beliefs about themselves and others known as IPT.

IPT is an unconscious belief of the stability of characteristics such as intelligence, personality and ability (Heslin & Keating, 2016). The stability of characteristics is seen as fixed or unchanging, known as entity theory or is seen as malleable and flexible, known as incremental theory (Heslin & Keating, 2016; Knee, Patrick, & Lonsbary, 2003). Incremental theorists are more likely to

develop goals for personal growth and development and may be more amenable to coaching.

This research concentrates on the attachment style and therefore leans more on the research of Heslin et al. (2006). The work of Heslin et al. (2006) is used to measure coaching needs. Implicit person theory is included with the hypothesis that an employee with an entity person theory, that is seeing characteristics as fixed (Heslin & Keating, 2016), may be less likely to want to be coached (Naficy & Isabella, 2008).

A component of the success of coaching is that of a willing participant (Tee et al., 2017), therefore the focus is on the client side of the engagement. This research investigates attitudes and values using attachment theory and IPT and the potential quality of engagement and resultant coaching needs. This may add to the success of employee coaching through ensuring that adjustments are made for the attachment style and IPT of the employee.

1.3 Research questions

What are the effects of attachment style and implicit person theories on employee coaching perceptions, specifically willingness to be coached and coaching needs?

The expected associations are presented diagrammatically in Figure 1 and are listed in Table 1.

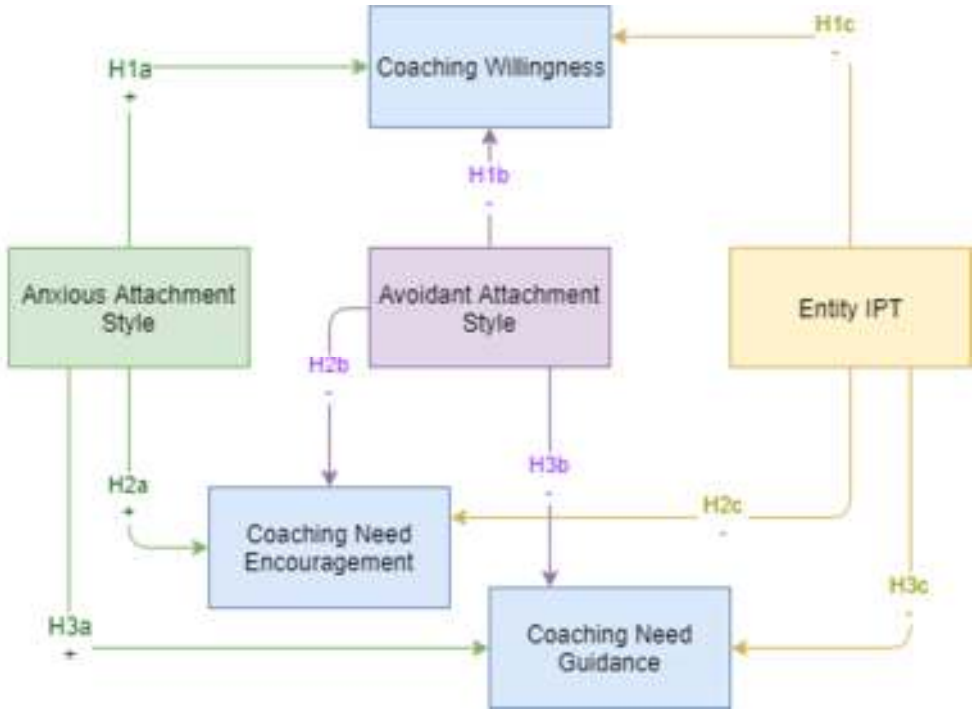


Figure 1 - Diagram of Hypotheses

Table 1 – List of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description
H1a	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with coaching willingness
H1b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with coaching willingness
H1c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with coaching willingness

Hypothesis	Description
H2a:	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H2b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H2c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H3a:	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need guidance
H3b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance
H3c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance

1.4 Significance of the study

The aim of this study is to add to the literature on employee coaching and by extension to executive coaching. These findings may contribute to preparation and training of employee coaching as well as testing for employee willingness for coaching which may be extrapolated to Executive Coaching. The study may add to the understanding of how attachments and implicit person theory interact on employee coaching willingness and needs enhances the understanding of behaviour. Contributions may be made to the potential conditions under which coaching works.

This research can also add to the literature by re-using and comparing research instruments, as well as add to the literature as at the time of writing coaching needs had not been combined with IPT and attachment styles in the way which is proposed.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

Delimitations are as follows:

i. Self-report data is being used via an electronic questionnaire.
ii. To assist with statistical analysis, open ended questions are not used.
iii. The questionnaire is aimed at employed people as the potential coaching relationship with their / a new manager is being examined.
iv. The research will focus on the coaching needs of employees and not on the quality of their general relationships or employee engagement.
v. While the input and effort of both the coach and coachee are important the focus is on the coachee.

1.6 Definition of terms

Term	Definition	Reference
Attachment theory	Attachment theory works along dimensions of secure to insecure (avoidant and anxious) attachment, explaining thoughts, feelings and behaviours in interpersonal relationships; developed from sensitivity and	(Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013; De Sanctis & Karantzas, 2009)

	responsiveness of an infant's original attachment figure.	
Employee Coaching	Employee coaching (also referred to as managerial or supervisor coaching) is a developmental, non-directive, goal focussed intervention led by the manager to improve job performance and enhance the employee's capabilities through a trust-based relationship, as well as guidance and facilitation.	(Gregory & Levy, 2010, p. 111; Heslin et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2016; Pousa & Mathieu, 2014)
Entity theorists	"People who are inclined to believe that their personal characteristics are largely fixed are labelled as entity theorists."	(Heslin, 2003, p. 269)
Implicit Person Theory (IPT)	IPT is an unconscious belief of the malleability of characteristics such as intelligence, personality and ability.	(Heslin, 2003; Heslin & Keating, 2016)
Incremental theorists	People that implicitly believe that their personal attributes, or characteristics, are malleable and can be developed are labelled as incremental theorists.	(Heslin, 2003, p. 269; Heslin et al., 2006)

1.7 Assumptions

A key assumption is that the tools identified for measurement will provide generalizable data and will be understood by participants. It is also assumed that participants will endeavour to self-report as closely as possible to their actual beliefs of themselves. Another assumption is that employee coaching has benefits and that companies are spending time and money on developing these skills, therefore knowing what employees need will be useful. Demographic data has been added to screen for potential confounding variables and as an aspect that may add depth to the research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The following section provides a literature review on the topics of employee coaching, attachment theory and IPT. One of the questions around coaching is "how and why does coaching work" (Coultas & Salas, 2015). Part of the why is the readiness of the participant for coaching and this research looks at some characteristics of potential participants to test for willingness and what they want from the coaching relationship.

While very little literature has combined IPT and attachment theory so far. Dweck (2012) does give a nod to Bowlby's model of infant learning in that attachments are learned behaviours; infants learn early on how to react and act towards others. Both theories may contribute significantly to how and why coaching works.

2.2 Employee coaching

2.2.1 *Overview*

Coaching in organisations can be traced back to the 1930s with a steadily increasing interest (Pousa & Mathieu, 2014). Employee and executive coaching has become more popular over the last two decades (Joo et al., 2012; Ye et al., 2016). Leadership coaching is becoming part of a leader's skill sets. Companies are investing in coaching programme development and

deployment, with leaders taking three to six months to develop and use workplace coaching skills (Bashir, 2017; Grant & Hartley, 2013).

When an organisation has a coaching culture this is often multi-level, so not only can an employee be coached they may also be a coach particularly if they are at supervisory or middle management levels (Agarwal, Angst, & Magni, 2009). Employee coaching itself may become a practice in organisations due to the benefits (Bashir, 2017). The growth of employee coaching has followed the success of executive coaching and external mentoring (Joo et al., 2012) as well as the expectation that managers develop their employees (Ye et al., 2016)

2.2.2 *What is employee coaching?*

Gregory and Levy (2010, p. 111) define employee coaching as "A developmental activity in which an employee works one-on-one with his/her direct manager to improve current job performance and enhance his/her capabilities for future roles and/or challenges, the success of which is based on an effective relationship between the employee and manager, as well as the use of objective information, such as feedback, performance data, or assessments."

Pousa and Mathieu (2014, p. 3) define (managerial) coaching as "a non-directive, goal-focused and performance-driven intervention led by the manager." Coaching itself has an implicit intent of behaviour change as those being coached move towards their goals (Coultas & Salas, 2015).

Combining the above with the questionnaires discussed below a definition can be draw up as follows: Employee coaching (also referred to as managerial or

supervisor coaching; manager-as-coach or leader-as-coach) is a developmental, non-directive, goal focussed intervention led by the manager to improve job performance and enhance the employee's capabilities through a trust-based relationship, guidance and facilitation.

2.2.1 *Executive and employee coaching*

It appears as if there are three streams of one on one developmental approaches: executive coaching, manager-as-coach and mentoring (Joo et al., 2012). Coaching and mentoring are at times used interchangeably but have quite different intent. Coaching is a goal driven relationship where guidance and listening skills (amongst others) are provide whereas mentoring is a relationship between an expert (the mentor) and the employee (the mentee) that guides the employee's professional growth (Neupane, 2015). So coaching can be seen as targeting specific improvements while mentoring is providing experienced guidance (Neupane, 2015).

Executive coaching is still more well-known and researched and may be useful as a reference point, there are some key differences between employee and executive coaching as outlined in Table 2.

Table 2 – Differences between employee and executive coaching

Employee	Executive	Reference
No choice in coach, the person you report to, and there may be a lack of coaching experience.	Can sometimes choose and generally an external, professional consultant.	(Agarwal et al., 2009; Gregory & Levy, 2010; Joo et al., 2012)
Pre-existing employee / manager relationship	Built purely as a coaching relationship	(Gregory & Levy, 2010)
Ongoing, possibly day-to-day relationship	Limited period, generally short term	(Agarwal et al., 2009; Joo et al., 2012)
Less structured, can be both formal and informal	Structured and systematic, formal	(Joo et al., 2012)

Although there are differences the methodologies and research of executive coaching and how to coach as well as understanding the coaching environment are relevant to employee coaching. The six stages for effective coaching as listed by Baron and Morin (2010, p. 20) are useful both for employee and executive coaching:

"(1) establishing a relationship of trust between the coach and the coachee;

(2) evaluating the coachee and the professional setting in which he or she works;

(3) providing feedback on this evaluation to the coachee;

(4) establishing a development plan and setting goals;

(5) implementing the behaviours to be developed or improved; and

(6) evaluating the progress achieved."

Figure 2 illustrates the coaching elements that are important in the coaching engagement (Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014, p. 142). Cox et al. (2014) note that all four elements are of equal importance. This is important to note in an employee coaching engagement, and elements should not be disregarded.

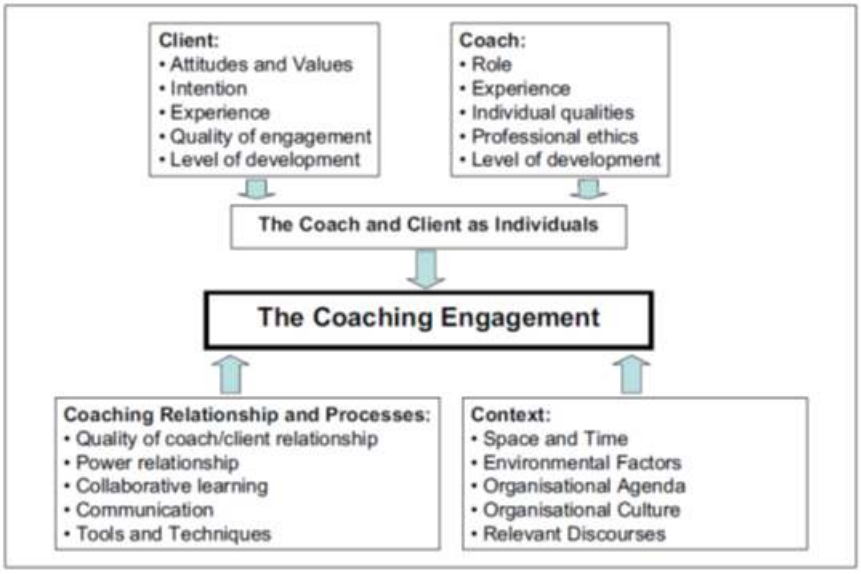


Figure 2 – The coaching engagement

It is noted above that in employee coaching the coach is not specifically chosen, the relationship exists and will be an ongoing relationship which is not only based on coaching, there is manager / staff relationship that is also at play. An advantage of an employee coach is that they know the work environment and can use the coaching to drive a performance based, goal driven relationship. However, an external coach may have more objectivity (Baron & Morin, 2010) and there is a greater assurance of confidentiality as well as less potential relationship baggage. These two bodies of research can lean on each other and contribute back to the other.

2.2.2 *Client willingness and needs*

The clients of coaching (in this case the employees) can be seen as an “active ingredient” in the potential successful outcomes of coaching (Tee et al., 2017). The willingness of the person to be coached not only affects the actual coaching (Cox et al., 2014) but can increase the coaching effects, such as increased productivity (Bashir, 2017) as well as lead to a more positive coaching relationship (Cunningham, 2017).

While the coach is important the coachee is the one attaining goals and improving performance. The coaching relationship is made up of the inputs and efforts of both parties, with the coachee’s information processing playing a key role (Coultas & Salas, 2015). The individual factors of the person coming into coaching, such as self-awareness, openness, self-efficacy and emotional stability impact on the success of coaching (Coultas & Salas, 2015).

There are several skills associated with employee coaching, such as “listening, analytical skills, interviewing, questioning, observation skills, feedback, setting and communicating; expectations, and establishing an environment in which coaching can take place” (Milner & McCarthy, 2016, p. 3). Gregory and Levy (2010) recognised the relationship, effective communication, and comfort of the relationship as well as facilitating development as important to successful employee coaching.

Heslin et al. (2006, p. 878) identified three components for coaching employees:

1. “Guidance: The communication of clear performance expectations and constructive feedback regarding performance outcomes, as well as how to improve.
2. Facilitation: Helping employees to analyse and explore ways to solve problems and enhance their performance.
3. Inspiration: Challenging employees to realise and develop their potential.”

While Heslin et al. (2006) identified three key components for coaching, coaching is also about encouragement (Heslin et al., 2006; Ying & Abdullah, 2015) through accommodation, feedback and support (Ying & Abdullah, 2015). Encouragement can be seen as the most common supportive behaviour (Wong, 2015). Encouragement, while expressed in facilitation and inspiration, is a positive message which is “challenge-focused” or “potential-focused” and are motivated by the well-being of the receiver (Wong, 2015), a key element of coaching.

The relationship between a manager and an employee is not just a coaching relationship there are previous interactions, expectations of work roles and history, meaning that the coaching relationship is one aspect of the existing manager / employee relationship (Gregory & Levy, 2010).

While coaching success relies on multiple factors (Cox et al., 2014) this research looks at the client and what may affect their willingness to be coached.

2.2.3 *The benefits of employee coaching*

One of the growing methods of developing companies' competitiveness through increased organisational performance is through coaching (Bashir, 2017; Gilley, Dixon, & Gilley, 2008). Coaching and mentoring of employees have several benefits. Employee coaching is effective in improving employee performance (Bashir, 2017; Pousa & Mathieu, 2014) .

Lin et al. (2016) also found that employee coaching acted as a positive moderator on employee's perception of their future work selves with engagement and sales performance leading to their recommendation that employers should provide coaching skills to supervisors, particularly around enhancing engagement and performance. So employee coaching develops, motivates and can lead to the retention of employees through increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Joo et al., 2012).

The following human resources issues are addressed successfully through coaching according to Cox et al. (2014, p. 141): "developing the next generation… keeping corporate knowledge by retaining workers and retaining workers". Coaching can be more effective than training, a study cited by Baron and Morin (2010) showed organisational improvements of 22% after three days of management skills training and 88% after a coaching programme. Part of this effectiveness could be due to the on the job training available to the manager through the employee coaching (Joo et al., 2012).

The above benefits are partly due to developmental feedback being provided rather than the "traditional command-and-control form of managerial supervision" (Agarwal et al., 2009, p. 2110). Coaching can provide a more

personal response to individual development needs (Agarwal et al., 2009) as well as assist with resolving conflict (Bashir, 2017). Employee coaching leads to a two-way communication which increases creative solutions and discussions around implementing change and innovation (Gilley et al., 2008).

Research by Neupane (2015) found a positive relationship between coaching and overall organisational performance, measuring organisational performance on five dimensions: revenue and profitability, market growth, employee retention, team efficiency and service / product quality. Part of this increase in organisational performance may be because employee coaching assists with employee goal setting within the realities of the organisation (Lin et al., 2016). Employee coaching can also strengthen relationships between the managers and the employees (Beattie et al., 2014).

There are also benefits to the managers, as “managers who more frequently applied coaching advice reported more work satisfaction and a tendency toward more life satisfaction” (Joo et al., 2012, p. 25). The techniques also encourage the managers to reflect on their own goals and practices as well as heighten their awareness of themselves and others.

Milner and McCarthy (2016) argue that managerial coaching is a gateway towards becoming a transformational leader, which is a well-researched style and still identified as one of the most beneficial styles. Transformational leadership highlights individualised consideration, that is, devoting one on one time to subordinates (Gregory & Levy, 2010), which is a direct outcome of employee coaching.

Milner and McCarthy (2016) identify several similarities between employee coaching and transformational leadership, summarised in Table 3.

Table 3 – Employee Coaching and Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leadership Dimension	Employee Coaching
Trust, respect and high ethical standards	Critical success factor of coaching, continuously proven through high ethical standards of confidentiality.
Consistency	Balance consistency and flexibility in approach but showing consistency in support, encouragement and guidance
Providing vision and mission	Employee coaches ensure there is regular goal setting, and assist employees align their vision with the organisation's while keeping the goals personally aligned.
Inspiration, motivation and enthusiasm	Expected to inspire goal setting and facilitate the personal symbols the employee needs to focus efforts.
Inclusive solutions and encouragement	Coaching allows the employee to come up with their own solutions while the manager encourages them to generate new and different ideas.
Individualised Consideration	Employee coaching gives a direct opportunity for one on one reaction with employees.

This is further illustrated in Figure 3 (Milner & McCarthy, 2016, p. 11) highlighting the overlaps between transformational leadership and executive coaching.

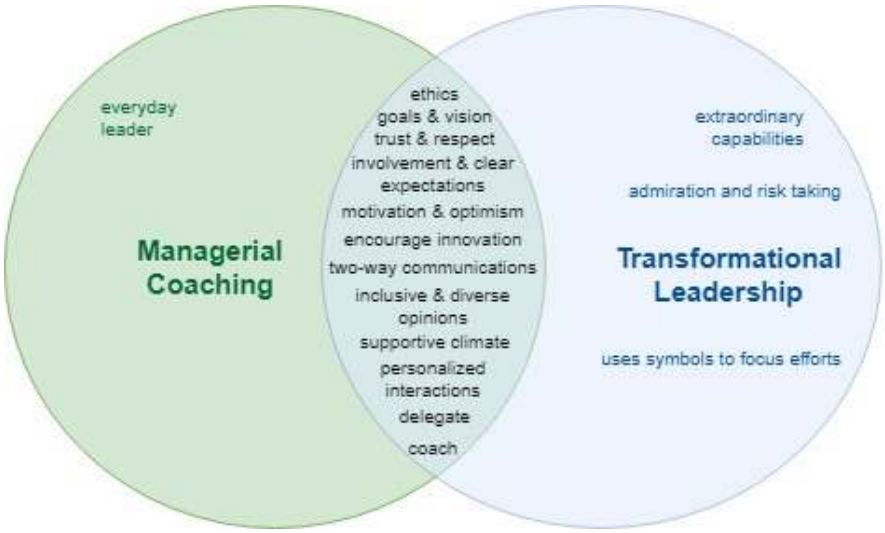


Figure 3 – Managerial Coaching and Transformational Leadership

The skills that need to be developed for employee coaching by the manager can lead to improved leadership outcomes and assist transactional leaders with making the change to transformational leadership.

A key retention strategy for employees is development, career growth and their work environment, all three of which employee coaching contributes towards (Joo et al., 2012). A recommendation is for companies to consider employee coaching as a worthwhile development investment. One way to encourage growth and change is to ensure that managers are aware of their employees motivational needs (Rao, 2015).

Employee coaching provides increased interpersonal skills to the manager as well as the employees they will be coaching. HR professionals can support their organisations through implementing relevant practices, employee

coaching is one of these (Joo et al., 2012). Training managers on employee coaching could also be a key step in moving them towards transformational leadership (Gregory & Levy, 2010; Milner & McCarthy, 2016).

2.3 Attachment theory

2.3.1 *Overview*

John Bowlby, combining several theories, constructed attachment theory to explain early childhood interactions between infants and caregivers (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Attachment theory is based on a biosocial behavioural system in which there is an evolutionary purpose for infants to stay close to caregivers as they cannot survive on their own (Popper & Amit, 2009). The caregiver is therefore potentially seen as a secure base from which to explore. This exploration leads to the infant learning to interact with their environment and other members of the community or family (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

This attachment is formed through the caregiver's responsiveness to the infant's needs and the infant's ability to signal a need for closeness (Popper & Amit, 2009). This caregiver responsiveness (or lack thereof) leads to an internal working model of attachment which appears to be carried through to adulthood (Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000).

Bowlby originally identified the attachment styles as part of a working models of what to expect in interactions between the self and caregivers and proposed that these would be continuous across situations and ages (Hazan & Shaver,

1987), for which evidence has been built over the years. Ainsworth built on this theory through studies of mother-infant attachment (Davis, Shaver, & Vernon, 2003). While attachment theory was originally developed to explain parent-child relationships the theory was built to include other relationships, initially focussing on romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Attachment styles impact relationships, such as, people with a secure attachment style see people as inherently trustworthy and good (Mikulincer, 1997). Secure attachment style leads to openness to new information, workings towards autonomy and flexibility in beliefs which leads to openness to coaching (Mikulincer, 1997).

Figure 4 provides a summary of the theoretical development of the attachment styles (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013; De Sanctis & Karantzas, 2009; Popper & Amit, 2009).

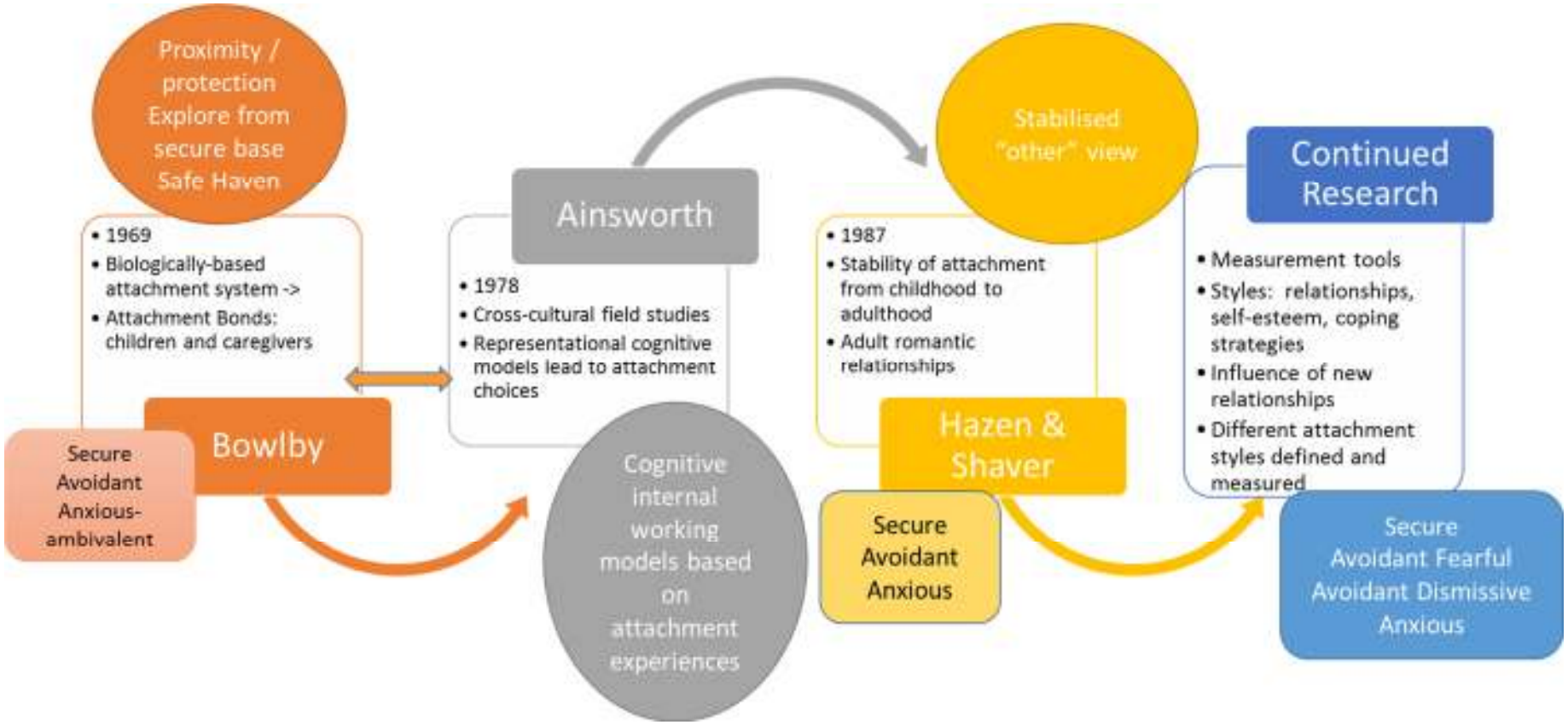


Figure 4 – Development of attachment styles

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2.3.2 *The Attachment styles*

Through his research Bowlby observed different reactions of infants to the departure of their caregiver. He found that when looking for their caregivers that infants scan for, or cry or search, sometimes frantically (Harms, 2011). Mary Salter Ainsworth further developing his theories and introducing the concept of a secure base (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007) through observing infants reaction to a “strange situation” where the infant was separated from their parent for a short time (Harms, 2011). Ainsworth’s research found that when infants were separated from their parents they showed varying behaviour (Harms, 2011):

- Were distressed and once reunited were easily soothed (secure)
- Were distressed and once reunited continued showing distress (anxious / insecure)
- Failed to show distress when separated and once reunited avoided contact (avoidant / insecure)

Attachment styles are not only developed through interactions with the parents, or primary caregivers, but are an interaction between the infant’s responses, the parents, the parent’s own attachment styles and the familial environment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Intergenerational attachment has been observed and there is some debate as to whether this is genetic, behavioural, or a combination of both (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

The actual types of attachment styles have been debated in the literature with various measures being used to try to distinguish these. The styles were originally defined as secure, ambivalent and avoidant (Popper & Amit, 2009). Then there were three mutually exclusive attachment types identified by Hazan and Shaver through the work of Ainsworth, which were: securely, anxiously and avoidantly attached (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kurdek, 2002). Secure attachment has been referred to as those that are comfortable with intimacy (Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). It has been recognised that these styles are on a continuum (Collins & Feeney, 2000). These types are described in the following sentences (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007, p. 27):

i. "Secure: "I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me."
ii. Avoidant: "I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close and others often want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being."
iii. Anxious: "I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to get very close to my partner and this sometimes scares people away."

A summary of three styles based on various sources is provided in Table 4 (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Davis et al., 2003; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Popper & Amit, 2009).

Table 4 – Summary of three attachment styles

Factor	Secure	Anxious	Avoidant
Relationships	Move towards	Move towards, preoccupied, contradictory behaviour	Move away
Coping strategies (with loss)	Use of safe havens such as friends and family	Ruminating, may use drugs and alcohol	Self-reliant
Leadership	Inclined to lead and provide secure base and be sensitive to after follower's needs.	More concerned with their own needs and look for acceptance from followers; leads to lower levels of performance.	Less likely to pay attention to follower needs and prefer to be self-reliant and to show task-oriented superiority; leads to lower levels of performance.

Bartholomew revised these attachments and suggested four classifications, splitting avoidant into two, distinguishing between the dismissive style who avoid attachments because they don't value them and the fearful style who avoid attachments as they fear rejection (Stein et al., 2002). Bartholomew's attachment styles can be described along four continuums, linked to the view of self and others, which are secure, preoccupied (anxious-ambivalent), dismissive (avoidant) and fearful (avoidant) (Blalock et al., 2015). The various

aspects of the attachment styles have been summarised into the below figure initially based summary of attachment styles of Schmidt (2016), also bringing in other sources (Blalock et al., 2015; Harms, 2011; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Stein et al., 2002).

Table 5 – Summary of four attachment styles

		Model of Self	
		Positive	Negative
Model of Others	Positive	**Secure** Worthy of love Trusting of others Regulate emotions Describe relationships as more happy, trusting and friendly Low anxiety	**Preoccupied - Anxious** Unworthy of love Trusting of others React more strongly to negative emotions Fear of being distant from others High anxiety
	Negative	**Dismissing - Avoidant** Worthy of love Untrusting of others Difficult to disengage from negative emotions Actively avoid close relationships Low anxiety	**Fearful-Avoidant** Unworthy of love Untrusting of others Difficult to disengage from negative emotions Actively avoid close relationships High anxiety

Other subscales for defining attachment have been “close” which measures how comfortable the person is with intimacy; “depend” which measures comfort with depending on others and anxiety, that is the extent of worry of being unloved or rejected (Collins & Feeney, 2000).

Further research showed how attachment styles can be applied to other relationships which fulfil the following criteria: “the maintenance of proximity, the provision of a safe haven and the provision of a secure base, all of which contribute to confident environmental exploration and skill acquisition.” (De Sanctis & Karantzas, 2009, p. 17).

2.3.3 *Attachment in adulthood*

While Bowlby predominantly studied infants he did acknowledge the importance of studying attachment in adulthood (Collins & Feeney, 2000). Attachment theory “explains individual differences in interpersonally-oriented thoughts, feelings, and behaviours, and is one of the most comprehensive models of social functioning in close relationships” (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013, p. 385).

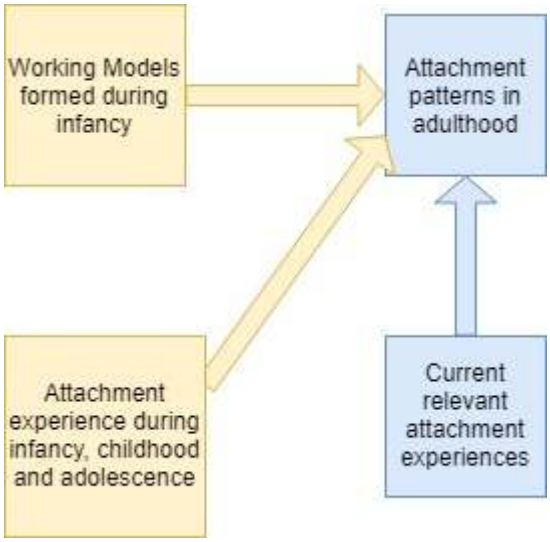


Figure 5 – Attachment development in adulthood

Figure 5 from Mikulincer and Shaver (2007, p. 120) outlines the prototype view of how adult attachment is developed. While attachment can change depending on later experiences in adult life they are still based on the working models formed in infancy (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Adults can have dimensional changes in attachment depending on the relationship they are in, but these are ultimately underlined by infant and childhood experiences.

Attachment relationships may include those of parents, romantic relationships, possibly work colleagues, coaches, mentors and those of leaders. This indicates that attachment styles could have an impact on working relationships, particularly with leaders. Attachment styles carry from childhood into adulthood (Blalock et al., 2015; Davidovitz et al., 2007; Harms, 2011; Popper & Amit, 2009), with the secure attachment style being linked to higher quality relationships and overall better functioning (Blalock et al., 2015).

There have been studies on the effect of a leader's attachment on their followers with secure attachment being related to transformational leadership

and anxiety and avoidance being related to transactional leadership (De Sanctis & Karantzas, 2009). There is further research on leadership and attachment styles with secure attachment showing benefits such as increased trust and an increased perception of effectiveness (Harms, 2011). Attachment-anxious leaders also seem to be more focussed on their own needs seeking approval and attachment-avoidant leaders tend to ignore the socio-emotional needs of their followers and demonstrate more self-reliance and superiority (Davidovitz et al., 2007).

The attachment style of an employee will also impact on the leader, in that people that are insecurely attached appraise others more negatively, and are less likely to seek support and may even distrust their leader and reject the leader's attempts to form a relationship (Davidovitz et al., 2007). Avoidant followers will also be more critical and have more negative views of their leader (Davidovitz et al., 2007).

Attachment styles provide useful insights into emotional, behavioural and motivational features (Hayden, Müllauer, & Andreas, 2017) of people, which can be applied to a working environment. Overall in working relationships employees with a secure attachment will have an easier time with adaptive relationships; fearful employees will have more insecure relationships with few relationship management skills; preoccupied employees while seeking relationships will find them difficult and dismissive employees will not actively seek working relationships (Stein et al., 2002). Secure attachment is also associated with encouraging and supporting others while maintaining boundaries; and are thoughtful about working relationships (Kilburg, 2004).

2.3.4 *Attachment and culture*

Bowlby originally perceived attachment styles as an evolved behavioural system, so attachment styles should be able to be applied universally (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013) across cultures. Ainsworth investigated attachment in Uganda and observed that genetic as well as cultural, environmental and social factors affect attachment styles (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013). While attachment styles are found across most cultures, there are varying distributions of the attachment styles (Mesman, van IJzendoorn, & Sagi-Schwartz, 2016). Worldwide attachment styles have been estimated at: 58% secure, 24% avoidant and 18% anxious (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013).

In South Africa attachment based studies, predominantly in impoverished townships, showed percentages of attachments as: 50% secure; 23% avoidant; 22% resistant and 2% disorganised / other (Mesman et al., 2016). Agishtein and Brumbaugh (2013) found that attachment anxiety was positively related to collectivism, as there is more dependency on the in-group and therefore fear of rejection.

2.3.5 *Attachment and employee coaching*

While coaching has the implicit drive towards behaviour change, not everyone will actively accept this attempt at influence (Coultas & Salas, 2015). Coultas and Salas (2015) propose combing social information processing models with a model of conflict and information sharing. This research proposes using attachment style to better understand the social interactions with an attachment

figure, in this case the manager. It is noted this attachment figure can also be an external coach.

Curiosity has been used as measure for openness to new information and information seeking, with secure and anxious-avoidant attachments being more curious and avoidant attachment preferring to focus on objects to avoid social interactions (Mikulincer, 1997). Secure attachment style also leads to openness to new information, workings towards autonomy and flexibility in belief revision leading to openness to coaching (Mikulincer, 1997).

People with the preoccupied-anxious attachment style are concerned with the perceptions of others, their relationships and find it important not to be separated from, showing high levels of attachment behaviour (Hayden et al., 2017). However, “both avoidant and anxious attachment styles are associated with greater difficulties in interpersonal contact” (Hayden et al., 2017, p. 5).

Secure attachment is associated with extraversion, agreeableness and low neuroticism; anxious attachment associated with neuroticism and avoidant with disagreeableness, introversion and neuroticism (Harms, 2011). While this may give some insight into attachment styles, according to Harms (2011) attachment styles have better predictability for relationships than the big five personality factors. This comparison can assist with how the different attachment styles may react to coaching.

Secure attachment style being agreeable may adapt to coaching as another relationship that provides support. Anxious attachment will likely want coaching as they want to develop relationships, but the coach may find that relationship

confusing and the anxiously attached person may become preoccupied with the relationship. Avoidant attachment style is likely not to want coaching.

This study hypothesizes that avoidant attachment style will not be willing to be coached, and that anxious attachment style will be willing to be coached they may show anxiety about the actual coaching content.

2.4 Implicit Person Theory

2.4.1 *Overview*

People hold implicit beliefs about themselves and others. Implicit beliefs are held internally and may not be expressed by people, as they act as guiding principles and are not something that are thought about explicitly. Implicit person theories (IPT) help people to structure their beliefs and frameworks about their world to assist with understanding complex information (Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997). When related to analysing ourselves and others, implicit theories are the beliefs that people hold about the pliability of characteristics such as intelligence, character, abilities and personality (Vandewalle, 2012). These theories create a framework through which interpretations are made (Heslin et al., 2006) about the self and others.

2.4.2 *Development of IPT*

As can be seen in Figure 6 this research model by Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995, p. 267) found “its intellectual roots in Kelly's (1955) theory of personality and in Heider's (1958) field theory of social perception.” So this theory is founded in how people process information about themselves and others to

build up a model which is used to guide how information is processed and interpreted (Dweck et al., 1995).

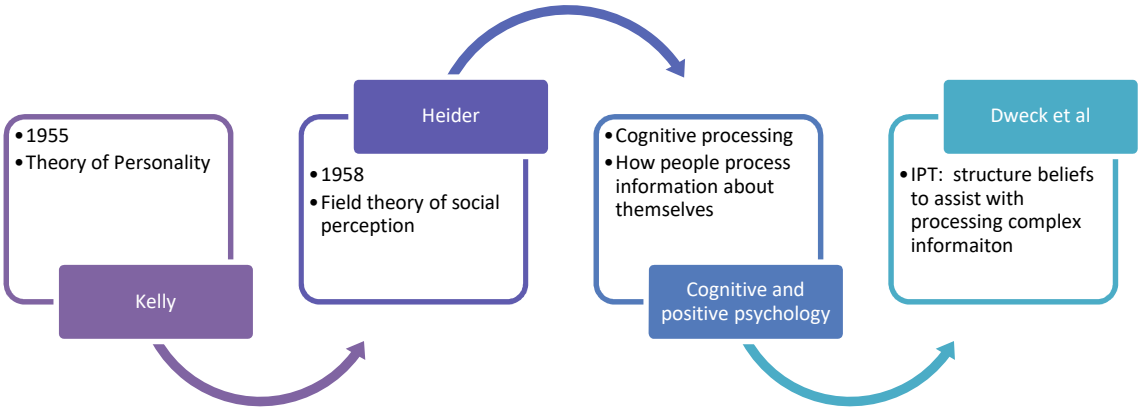


Figure 6 – Development of IPT

Implicit person theory then built up from positive psychology. Positive psychology is about "well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present). At an individual level it is about positive individual traits: the capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skills, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness , originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom" (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 5).

Positive psychology moved away from the disease model towards what makes successful people different and what helped people survive in very difficult circumstances. This stemmed from the 2nd World War, where while some people were reduced to "hollow shells" others "kept their integrity and purpose despite the surrounding chaos" (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 6).

Dweck's research originally focussed on what made some students more willing to try new, challenging tasks and persevere longer when faced with a challenge (Dweck, 2006). This research led her to IPT and eventually to fixed and growth mindsets. She found that some students would lie about having a difficult puzzle at home, so as not to 'look stupid' and defined this as a fixed mindset (Dweck, 2006). Others would ask for harder puzzles and look forward to learning as they tried to accomplish solving them, this she termed as a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006). While mindsets are the more commonly known term, and have become popular in education and literature, these were originally built on Implicit Person Theory's incremental and entity lay theory.

2.4.3 *Entity and incremental theories*

Implicit person theories are either an entity theory, where characteristics are fixed or incremental where characteristics are seen as changeable (Vandewalle, 2012). These have been reframed as either fixed (entity) or growth (incremental) mindsets by Dweck (2006).

Figure 7 provides a broad summary of the entity and incremental theories (also referred to as mindsets) that people can hold. People with an entity mindset pay more attention to looking smart than they do to actual learning, and prefer to try to conceal their weaknesses (Dweck, 2009). Part of the reason people with an incremental IPT prefer to conceal their weakness is because they interpret success and failure as tied to their own innate abilities, so effort should not be necessary, and they will not want to tackle difficult learning tasks (Conklin & Hartman, 2014).

People with an incremental mindset actively look for learning opportunities, and prefer to be aware of their weaknesses so they can develop them (Dweck, 2009).

These mindsets have an impact on learning agility as well as willingness to learn and to experiment; which in turn may affect their willingness to be coached. Learning agility and learning how to process information differently to reach goals and develop are key factors of coaching. Table 6 has been summarised from Vandewalle (2012, pp. 302-306) to show the differences between the personal theories, or mindsets.

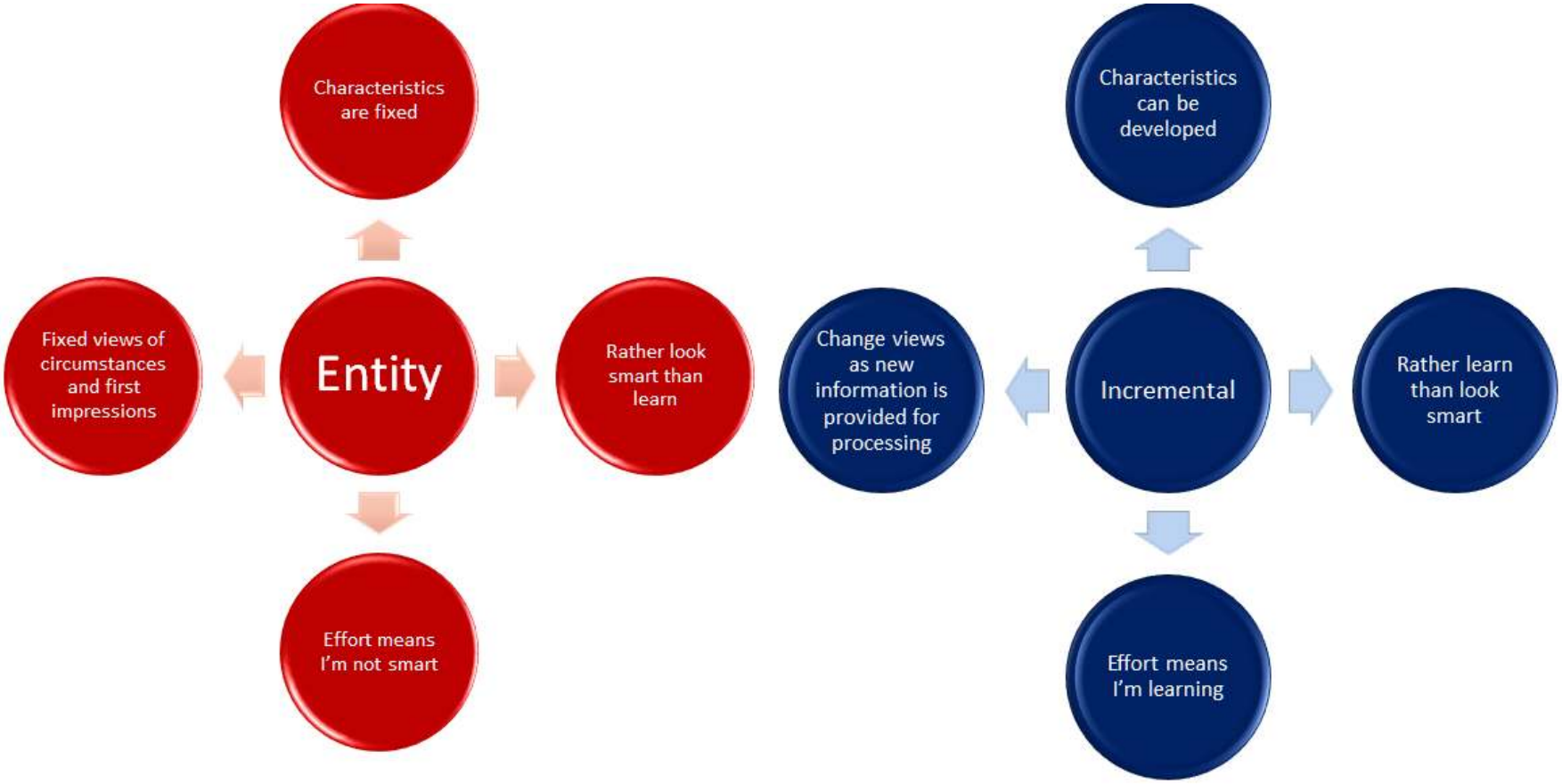


Figure 7 – Summary of Entity and Incremental theories

Table 6 – Differences between entity and incremental theories

Process	Entity (Fixed) Mindset	Incremental (Growth) Mindset
Pattern Recognition	More rapid predictions and judgements about others; may be quicker but at risk of less accurate pattern recognitions on data observed.	Better at using pattern recognition when learning a new skill, e.g. negotiation.
Counterfactual Thinking	Less likely to revise initial negative judgements about an individual and will pay greater attention to information that is congruent with the initial stereotype.	More Likely to revise initial negative judgements and "paid greater attention to information that was inconsistent with the stereotype".
Anchor effect	Fixed mindset gave lower performance ratings based as they retain the original information received.	Likely to give ratings based on old and new information.
Information processing style	Attach stronger positive and negative labels to information when this is first encoded.	Do not have as strong an attachment to previous labels, more likely to use the new information when processing a new situation.
Halo effect biases	More prone	Less prone
Feedback Seeking Behaviour	Use feedback as information to be used change behaviours / learning / tackling tasks.	See feedback as a "judgement of their talent" and therefore tries to avoid feedback.
Experimentation	More willing to experiment, seen as opportunities for learning	Reduced willingness (fear failure as they see this as an exposure of perceived inadequate ability)
Reflection	Enhances attention to mistakes which improves performance	Less reflection on mistakes

IPT's are generally stable, although a specific IPT can be temporarily stimulated (Heslin, 2003), and they can gradually change over time through learning about IPTs or mindsets. A growth mindset can be fostered in students through praising their effort and learning processes and not their intelligence (Dweck, 2009). Students can also be taught about the growth mindset and how their brains create new connections leading to an increased growth mindset (Dweck, 2009). Figure 8 illustrates simply Dweck's theory as well as how these effect learning and taking on new challenges (Holmes, 2018). This illustration can be used to assist coaching managers in supporting their employees with the knowledge of where on the continuum the employee is with regards to IPT.

With the popularity of mindsets and entire companies embracing the concept, Dweck (2016) has been very clear in ensuring that the concepts are clearly understood and not oversimplified. Three common misconceptions she addresses are Dweck (2016, p. 3):

i. "I already have it, and I always have": a growth mindset is not about being flexibly and open minded, and everyone has a mixture of mindsets, which continually evolve
ii. "A growth mindset is just about praising and rewarding effort": outcomes matter, it is more important to praise learning and progress than effort.
iii. "Just espouse a growth mindset, and good things will happen": this mindset is less about lip service and more about encouraging risk taking and rewarding learning and ensuring ongoing development of the employees.

People are not polar opposites on entity or incremental IPT, they are on a continuum (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008).

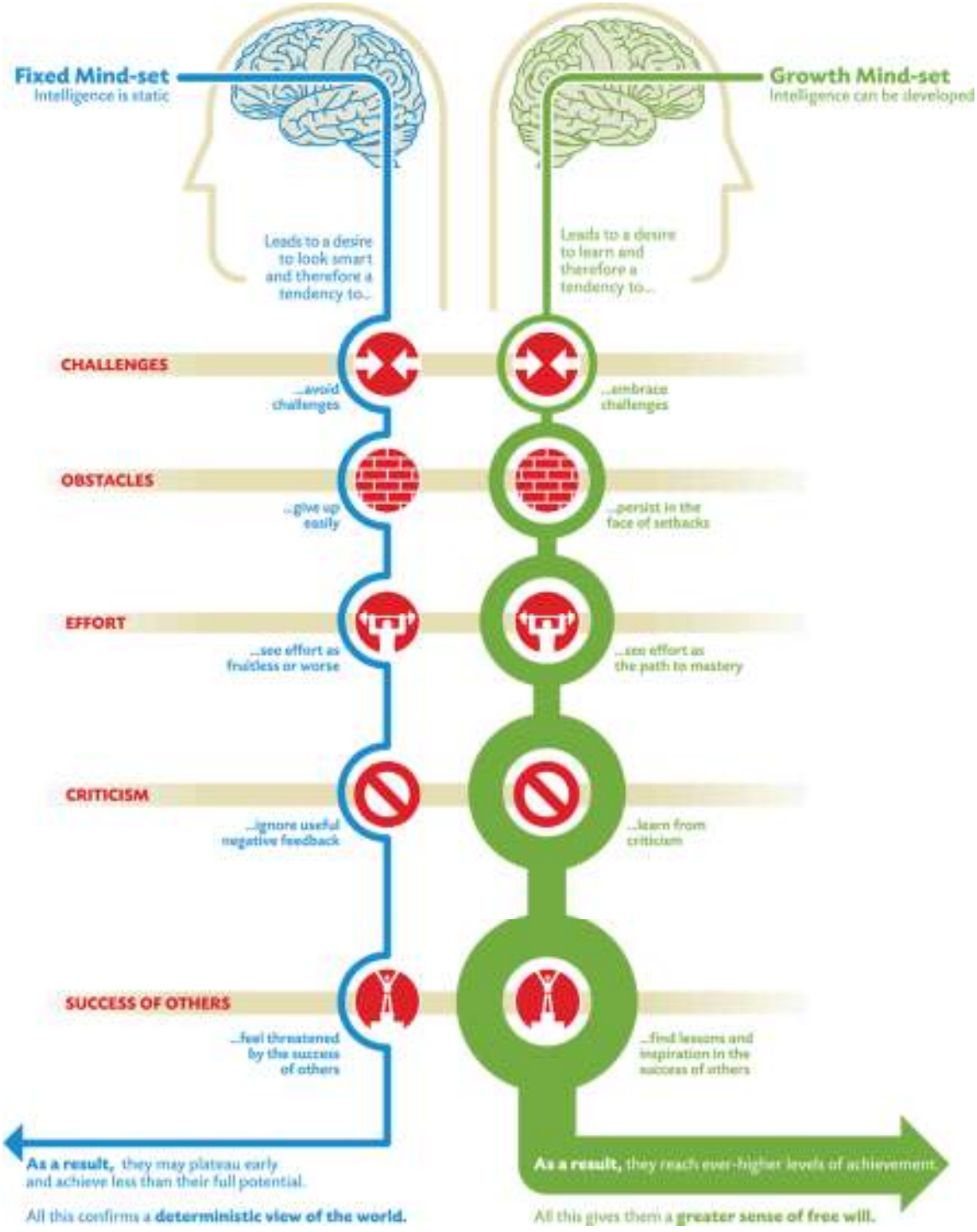


Figure 8 – Two Mindsets

2.4.4 *IPT at work*

Implicit person theory affects interactions in a work environment where performance is quite often judged in some way, by self, peers and managers. Due to entity theorists seeing their personal characteristics as fixed they will look for advantageous feedback relative to others, whereas incremental theorists will emphasize past accomplishments and personal aspirations (Heslin, 2003). People with an incremental IPT are more likely to engage with feedback and see challenges as something they can work towards and overcome (Han, Stieha, Poitevin, & Starnes, 2018). An incremental IPT has even been indicated to enhance willpower, creativity, increase well-being and assist with reducing stress (Han et al., 2018).

Managers with an implicit mindset or more likely to engage in coaching with their staff and foster an environment of insight and innovation (Kristjansson & Tashjian, 2016). Entity mindset managers can come across as less developmentally oriented and overbearing, leading team members to worry about being judged rather than the key success factors of the organisation (Kristjansson & Tashjian, 2016).

The IPT of the manager will also affect performance appraisals of employees, particularly future performance appraisals (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008). Managers with an entity theory or more likely to not recognise changes in performance over time as well as be less likely to coach employees to make changes (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008; Heslin et al., 2006). When interacting amongst each other, team members with an incremental IPT are more likely to

use less gender stereotypes when assessing other team members (Han et al., 2018).

2.4.5 *IPT and coaching*

Effective coaching relies on the ability of the coachee to “hear, process and act on what the coach has to say” (Coultas & Salas, 2015, p. 302) which makes an assumption of an incremental theory of change. Gregory and Levy (2010) assert that an incremental theory is essential for a person that is coaching. This could apply to both the coach and the coachee.

The belief that change is possible through effort could lead to more stretches in goal setting and more commitment to achieving those goals. In addition, the coachee’s IPT is important as incremental theory increases active learning. The transfer of skills such as “leadership, communication and interpersonal relationships” is through active learning (Joo et al., 2012).

Coaching itself can lead to an increase in an incremental theory of change. Franklin and Franklin (2012) found that students coached with the “Preparation, Action, Adaptive Learning” framework showed a significant increase in incremental theory of change as well as decisional balance and self-compassion. A move towards an incremental IPT is a move away from the “judge-and-be-judged” framework towards a “learn-and-help-to-learn” framework (Conklin & Hartman, 2014).

An entity theory may make a person less interested in investing time and effort in increasing performance (Heslin et al., 2006), therefore making them less

likely to want employee coaching, and vice versa for incremental theorists, leading to the hypothesis that this will impact willingness to be coached.

2.5 Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description
H1a	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with coaching willingness
H1b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with coaching willingness
H1c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with coaching willingness
H2a:	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H2b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H2c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
H3a:	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need guidance
H3b:	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance
H3c:	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance

2.6 Conclusion of Literature Review

Dweck (2012, p. 614) says: “the hallmark of human nature is how much of a person’s identity is not built in; rather, it is humans’ great capacity to adapt, change, and grow”. Her theory around mindsets encourages people to grow, adapt and reach for intellectual stimulation (Dweck, 2012). Understanding IPT and how to frame coaching efforts is a step towards helping people achieve their potential. IPT may also have an impact on seeking and engaging in

coaching based on whether the employee has an incremental or entity implicit person theory.

The debate as to whether attachment styles are nature or nurture, or both does not negate that this well researched phenomena can predict reactions to relationships. Attachment styles influence interpersonal interactions and expectations from relationships. IPT influences engagement with new learning as well as reactions to challenges. Combining these two psychologically derived theories will add to learning more about people's interactions with relationships and will add to academic literature.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research approach

The research approach is quantitative. Quantitative methods can be used to explain, predict and interpret, and to answer the question “what is”, what is the effect of assessment styles on coaching needs and willingness, what is the effect of IPT on coaching needs and willingness. Two of the constructs used, attachment theory and implicit person theory, are well researched.

3.2 Research design

A cross-sectional, descriptive and survey-based approach was used. Primary data was collected directly from employed people that answered the survey. Once the data was collected this was run through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and then through structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM provides a flexible modelling approach (Lee, 2015) which is widely used in behavioural research (Henseler, 2017) and particularly relevant to this research because the main constructs are not directly measurable, that is, they are latent variables. Latent variables are measured through construct variables, that is, the items that make up the measure of the latent variable (Lee, 2015).

In this research the latent variables are the attachment styles, IPT and coaching willingness and coaching needs. SEM is used to draw information about these latent variables through factor analysis (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King,

2006). To stay away from the controversy of causal modelling this thesis will discuss the effect amongst constructs in the model (Schreiber et al., 2006).

In terms of ethics the research has been reviewed and accepted by Wits Business School. Participation was voluntary, and participants could withdraw at any time. Anonymity was guaranteed and no distinguishing characteristics were used to identify a participant. Participants were asked to provide consent for their results to be used in academic research.

3.3 Population and sample

The population is those that are employed. The actual sample is a convenience sample of people that responded to the Qualtrics survey. While direct contacts and social networks were used the effect of possible snowball sampling is mitigated as paid advertisements were placed with Facebook and LinkedIn therefore widening the social network beyond that of the researchers. Snowball sampling has the possibility of bias due to the research respondents not being randomly selected but responding as they are part of a social network (Osmo et al., 2018).

While there is no one rule on sample size Schreiber et al. (2006) use 10 per estimated parameter. There were 441 respondents which is an acceptable sample size. Where there was missing data SAS excluded the missing data out of the model when needed.

3.4 The research instruments

The distributed questionnaire is available in APPENDIX A. Research Instrument. Three instruments were used to measure: Attachment Style; entity / incremental IPT's and coaching needs. In addition, there is a demographic questionnaire. The demographic information is to assist with describing the sample and provided some differentiation in the results which is discussed in the next chapter.

These questions for the IPT, RSQ and Attachment measures were grouped together. The data was randomised when presented to each new person answering. The items used in the final analysis are outlined in section 3.8 Data Capture and Analysis.

The Relationship Style Questionnaire was originally used to measure attachment style, developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994). While reliability can be improved by increasing the number of items per factor, practicality plays a role in choosing a shorter questionnaire. The RSQ uses a 5 point Likert scale and in this study the items were reduced to 18 to measure 4 subscales, namely secure, preoccupied, dismissing and fearful, through using the mean score across the applicable items (Stein et al., 2002). While this can be used to differentiate between secure and insecure styles it is noted that the styles are continuous. This scale was chosen as it doesn't focus on romantic relationships and can be used across general relationships.

The IPT scale developed by Dweck (2006) is used. As IPT can be domain specific (Scott & Ghinea, 2014), therefore broader questions are used to asses

an overall view of IPT. Due to social desirability in answering as well a tendency to want to answer incremental questions positively (Chiu et al., 1997) only the entity questions were used. Three entity questions were used (Chiu et al., 1997; Dweck, 2006).

This originally used a 6-point Likert scale (ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree) with 8 questions which was adapted slightly to use a sliding scale.

Coaching needs are measured based on the three dimensions of guidance, facilitation and inspiration, using the scale developed by Heslin et al. (2006). The measure was developed using a 5-point Likert-type scale from “not at all” to “a great extent”, this has been adapted slightly to use a sliding scale.

3.5 Procedure for data collection

Data was gathered through:

- Social media sites, specifically Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn.
- A request sent to HR managers to distribute the instrument staff.
- Request sent to personal contacts (this yielded the highest percentage of responses to e-mails sent).

3.6 Limitations of the study

Participants may change some of their reporting particularly on attachments to what they perceive to be more socially acceptable responses (Stein et al., 2002). To assist with results not being influenced by impression management

concerns the responses will be anonymous (Heslin, 2003). Generalisability is a limitation, a bigger sample size and a research aimed at each construct could add to this.

This research looks at characteristics of the coachee and does not look at the actual outcomes of coaching or the impact of other variables such as motivation and self-efficacy.

Using the RSQ as a measure could be replaced with a lengthier measure such as the ASQ. There may be some explanatory variables that cause relationships that are not accounted for.

3.7 Validity and reliability

It was assumed that the capability of the respondents to answer will be high as staff are generally knowledge workers, also reducing the occurrence of method bias (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012).

3.7.1 *Validity*

To address validity, the accuracy of the measurement (Sullivan, 2011), mostly well-established research instruments have been chosen, such as those for attachment styles and implicit or entity person theories. Validity has been well established for the IPT measure through numerous studies (Heslin, 2003).

External validity refers to the generalisability of the research across different populations and settings (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). As many respondents as possible were reached, and analysis against the demographic features of

respondents was carried out see if there are reasons for variation in those, reducing generalisability for example to include gender.

Internal validity refers to the extent that differences in the dependant variable are due to the identified independent variable and not based on reacting to other variables (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). As people responding to the survey may fall into trying to provide what they perceive to be socially satisfactory answers (satisficing) by responding stylistically to the scales (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). Common method bias also occurs when stylistic answers are used due to the shared answer methods of the measurements as the responder uses consistent answers across surveys (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010).

3.7.2 *Reliability*

Reliability, put in simple terms, refers to the consistency of results that an instrument produces (Sullivan, 2011). The entity / incremental assessment has a "test-retest reliability of .82 over 1 week and .71 over 4 weeks" (Heslin et al., 2006, p. 882), high internal consistency and construct validity. In order to address reliability with balancing the length of the questionnaires and the debate around the continuous or categorical nature of attachment styles (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007) two questionnaires are used, the RQ and RSQ. The variables are treated as continuous in this study.

3.7.3 *Global fit statistics*

Table 7 summarises the statistics used to test for the global fit. These are based on those provided by SAS and selected on the recommendations for a

spread of SEM global fit statistics provided Lee (2015). Chi-square tests remain a popular non-parametric test,(Sharpe, 2015) and assesses the overall model fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). The Chi-Square test is used to check that the variables are due to chance or due to the tested variables, that is, “whether the actual and predicted covariances are similar” (Lee, 2015, p. 20).

The SRMR measures actual and predicted covariances differences using the scales of the each indicator (Hooper et al., 2008). The smaller this measure is, the closer the model is to predicting the data (Lee, 2015). While the Chi-Square test is sensitive to sample size, the RMSEA is less so and penalises the model if there are too many coefficients as well as providing a confidence interval (Lee, 2015). The CFI and NNFI test the model without allowing correlations and are incremental fit indices (Lee, 2015).

Table 7 – Global Fit Statistics

Measure	Good Fit (Lee, 2015)	All Factors	Willingness Model	Encouragement Model	Guidance Model
Pr > Chi-Square	Non-significant chi-square < 0.5	<.0001	<.0001	.01	.00
SRMR	SRMSR < .05	.03	.04	.03	.03
RMSEA Estimate	RMSEA < .05	.04	.05	.03	.03
Bentler Comparative Fit Index	CFI > .95	.98	.97	.99	.98
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Index	NNFI > .95	.96	.96	.98	.98

3.8 Data Capture and Analysis

Data was collected through Qualtrics and transferred via Excel into SAS version 9.4.

The original CFA using the results from the RSQ was not corresponding to the theory, therefore an EFA was run which allowed the manifest variables to group into constructs. The variables that grouped did not belong to one construct, such as secure, preoccupied, dismissing and fearful but were crossing between the constructs they were meant to measure. In addition, in the EFA the data grouped into three constructs, not the four that were expected. While the model developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) has 30 items to measure the different theoretical classifications of attachment theory, the 18 measuring 4 dimensions had been used. The fit of the indices also added some interesting dimensions to the model, such as anxiety and avoidance influencing IPT.

The model tested by Kurdek (2002) based on the work by Feeney and Hohaus (2001) was used. This was building on the consensus that "individual differences in attachment style are best conceptualized in terms of two continuous dimensions: attachment related anxiety and avoidance" (Collins & Feeney, 2000). This model uses specific items to measure anxiety and avoidance, with the respondents being deemed secure when they measure low on the anxiety and avoidance scales (Mayseless, 2010).

The original three coaching needs variables as tested in Heslin et al. (2006), that is guidance, facilitation and inspiration did not provide robust statistical

results, and after further analysis these were divided into two variables: guidance and encouragement. To remove any possible relationship impacts of the current relationship this section of questions had the following caveat:

> "Imagine that your current manager has quit, and you are getting a new manager about whom you know nothing other than the person has sent an email to everyone in your team indicating that they want to coach you. Without knowing anything more about the person, please use the slider scales below (you can choose anywhere along the scale) to rate your preferences on what you would like the new manager to do in such coaching."

It was also found that the variables for coaching needs based on the work by Heslin et al. (2006) grouped into two constructs. Instead of the original three constructs proposed, that is, guidance, inspiration and facilitation two constructs were used, that is, guidance and encouragement.

Coaching Willingness was made up of two questions both aimed at the current manager that is: whether the employee felt they could benefit from coaching and would like their manager to coach them.

Table 8 outlines the latent variables and the measures that were used in the final analysis.

Table 8 – Latent variables with their measures

Construct	Measure
Anxious	I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.
Anxious	I worry about being alone.
Anxious	I find it difficult to trust others completely.
Anxious	I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.
Anxious	I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like.
Anxious	I worry about having others not accept me.
Avoidant	I find it difficult to depend on other people.
Avoidant	It is very important to me to feel independent.
Avoidant	I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.
Avoidant	I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others.
Avoidant	I prefer not to depend on others.
Encouragement	Act as a sounding board for you to develop your ideas
Encouragement	Facilitate creative thinking to help solve problems
Encouragement	Encourage you to explore and try out new alternatives
Encouragement	Express confidence that you can develop and improve
Encouragement	Encourage you to continuously develop and improve
Encouragement	Support you in taking on new challenges
Entity IPT	The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them, and it can't be changed very much.
Entity IPT	People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.
Entity IPT	Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that they can do to really change that.
Guidance	Provide guidance regarding performance expectations

Construct	Measure
Guidance	Help you to analyse your performance
Guidance	Provide constructive feedback regarding areas for improvement
Guidance	Offer useful suggestions regarding how you can improve your performance
Willingness	I would like my manager to coach me.
Willingness	I could benefit from my manager coaching me.

Once the key variables and their potential effects were found then various SEM's were run, bringing in demographic information to see if these had an impact on the model. Where the variables had an impact, they were left in the models discussed in the next chapter.

3.9 Demographic profile of respondents

Out of the 441 responses 395 (90%) of the respondents are working in South Africa. 265 (60%) are female and 172 (39%) are male, with 4 (1%) preferring not to say. In terms of race 216 (49%) classified as white, 180 (41%) as black and 45 (10%) as other or preferred not to answer. Note that the race was divided into white and black (using the employment equity definition of black, that is: African, Coloured and Indian).

There were more people that had not been coached previously at 264 (60%) versus 177 (40%).

Professional levels are measured in ordinal ranges from 1 – 4, grouped as executive, middle management, professional and other. Other is the group of

those that identified as: supervisors (31), not doing professional work (22) or who chose none of the above (27).

Professional levels are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 – Professional levels of respondents

Occupational Level	Count	% of Total
Executive / Senior Management	132	30%
Middle Management	106	24%
Professional / technical specialist	123	28%
First level supervisor	31	7%
Not in management / not doing professional work	22	5%
None of the above	27	6%
Total	441	

Educational levels appear to be quite high in this group, quite possibly because many of the contacts used reached out to other students and academics, or qualified, professional people were specified in the paid for advertisements on social media. Educational levels are measured in ordinal and are outlined in Table 10.

Table 10 – Educational level of respondents

Education level	Total	% of Total
Doctoral degree	32	7%
Master's degree	110	25%
Honours or postgraduate diploma	85	19%
Professional degree (E.g. MD / CA)	15	3%
University Degree or equivalent	88	20%
Technical Diploma	59	13%
High school graduate (matric or equivalent)	48	11%
Less than high school degree	4	1%
Total	**441**	

Tenure with current boss is also measured in original and was calculated on month and year is as per the following frequency table (one entry was blank).

Table 11 – Tenure with current boss

Years	Total	% of Total
0-1	97	22%
1-2	47	11%
3-5	123	28%
6-10	83	19%
11-15	40	9%
16-20	19	4%
21-30	24	5%
30+	7	2%
Total	**440**	

The means statistics are provided for the demographic variables in Table 12.

Table 12 – Means Statistics for demographics

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum	25th Pctl	75th Pctl	Median
Gender	0.60	0.49	-	-	-	-	-
Education	4.56	1.49	1.00	7.00	3.00	6.00	5.00
Tenure (years)	6.21	7.12	0.01	36.71	1.21	8.13	3.77
Exec	0.30	0.46	-	1.00	-	1.00	-
Middle	0.24	0.43	-	1.00	-	-	-
Professional	0.28	0.45	-	-	-	-	-
Race	0.40	0.49	-	1.00	-	1.00	-
Coached	0.40	0.49	-	1.00	-	1.00	-

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results found while researching the initial hypotheses. As outlined in the previous chapter several CFAs were run and SEMs were generated to show the results. This chapter outlines the results only, conclusions based on the results and literature survey are presented in the next chapter.

4.2 Analysis

CFAs were used to test the model fits in order to produce the SEMs that best fits the data. SEM models were run to test the analysis of the variables, and some variables were rescaled to allow for a workable covariance matrix (Lee, 2015). A CFA was then run again for each model to test the fit, so three models have been produced. Table 8 presents the correlation table and descriptive statistics for the overall data.

The results between the different measuring scales were averaged. Anxiety 1and Avoidance items were used to measure attachment style. A higher response on the averaged IPT scale shows an entity mindset and a lower number shows an incremental mindset. The items selected for encouragement and guidance were also averaged and higher scores show a higher need for encouragement and guidance through coaching.

Table 13 – Correlations and descriptive statistics

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Anxiety	40.67	19.69	(.78)												
2. Avoidance	48.36	18.25	.66***	(.68)											
3. IPT	50.16	25.97	.42***	.41***	(.81)										
4. Coach Will	68.09	26.18	.24***	-.07	.00	(.89)									
5. Guidance	73.75	21.32	.10*	.02	-.08	.55***	(.89)								
6. Encourage	77.83	18.68	.12**	.00	-.09*	.48***	.89***	(.92)							
7. Gender	.60	.49	.15***	.16***	.10*	.12**	.19***	.20***	-						
8. Education	4.56	1.49	-.21**	-.14**	-.23***	-.13**	-.10*	-.09*	-.12**	-					
9. Tenure	6.21	7.12	.01	-.07	.02	-.07	-.03	-.09*	-.05	-.07	-				
10. Exec	.30	.46	-.07	-.11**	-.10*	-.05	.01	-.00	-.12**	.18***	.04	-			
11. Middle	.24	.43	-.01	-.02	-.02	.02	-.05	-.03	.08*	.01	-.03	-.36***	-		
12. Professional	.28	.45	-.08	.05	.03	-.08*	-.05	-.02	-.03	.04	-.08*	-.41***	-.35***	-	
13. Race	.40	.49	.07	.10*	.01	-.02	-.00	.05	.10**	-.08*	.03	-.03	.02	-.01	-
14. Coached	.40	.49	.01	-.02	.01	.04	.00	-.01	-.02*	-.01	-.02	.01	.00	-.01	-.02

Notes: Gender Female = 1 Male = 0; Race White = 1 Black = 0; Tenure with Boss is in years; Coached Yes =1 No = 0; p*** < 0.01; ** < 0.05; * < 0.1

4.3 Coaching Willingness

After the CFAs were run to test the hypothesized coaching willingness model's fit some statistically significant associations were found. The model is shown in Figure 9. Decomposition of Effects from Final Coaching Willingness Model shown in Table 15.

The coaching willingness was specific to the manager the person responding to the questionnaire is currently working with. Gender (female) has a small effect on both anxious attachment style (r = .19 and p =0.004) and avoidant attachment style (r = .14 and p = 01).

Anxious attachment style has a small negative direct effect on education (r = -.19 p = .02), with a small indirect effect (r=-.05 p = .02) providing a moderate total effect (r = -2.4 and p = .003). Entity IPT has a small negative effect education (r = -.17 and p = 0.002).

Anxious attachment style (r = .29 and p = .0004) and avoidant attachment style (r = .22 and p = .01) both have a moderate positive effect on entity IPT. Entity IPT has a small negative effect on coaching willingness (r = -.10 and p = .09) with a small positive indirect effect (r = .02 and p = .11). Anxious attachment style has a moderate effect on coaching willingness (r = .39 and p < .0001). Avoidant attachment style has a moderate negative effect (r = -.25 and p = .006) with a very small additional indirect effect (r = -.03 P =.13) with coaching willingness. Both education (r -.09 and p = .06) and tenure with boss (r = -.08 and p = .08) have small negative effects on coaching willingness.

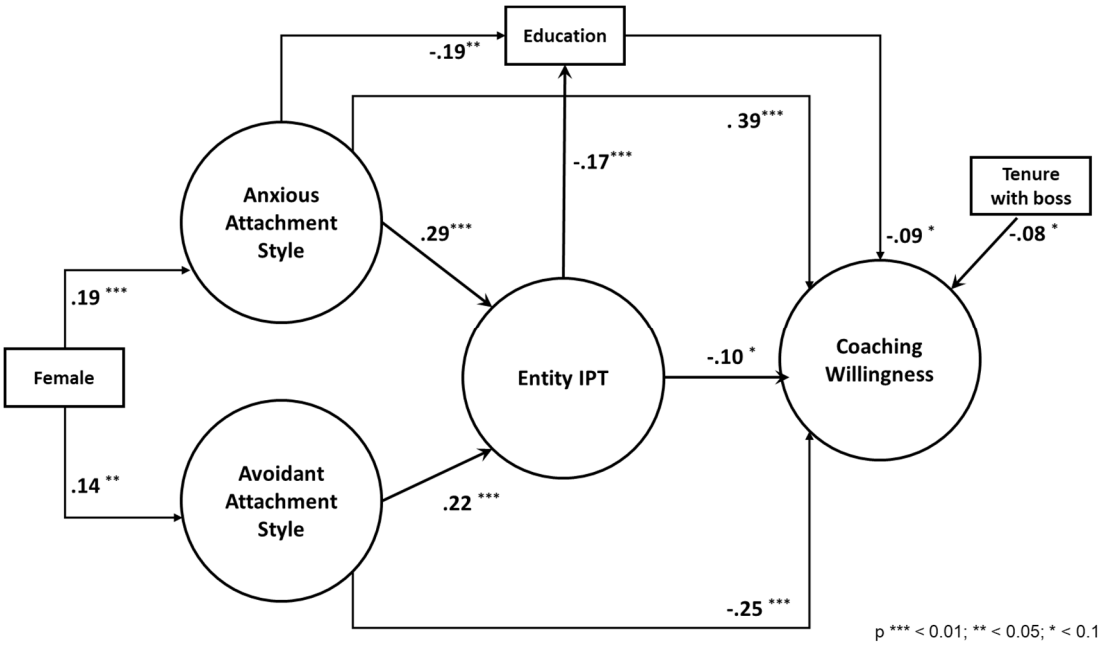


Figure 9 – Coaching willingness SEM

Using the total effects to assess the hypotheses it is noted that H1a and H1b are supported while H1c is not supported.

Table 14 – Hypothesis 1

Supported	H1a:	r = .38 p <.0001	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with coaching willingness
Supported	H1b:	r = -.27 p =.002	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with coaching willingness
Not supported	H1c:	r = -.09 p = .15	Entity IPT is negatively associated with coaching willingness

Table 15 - Decomposition Table of Effects for Coaching Willingness Model

		Variables									
		Education		Anxious		Avoidant		IPT		Coaching Willingness	
		β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Anxious											
	Direct effect	-.19**	.08	-		-		.29***	.08	.39***	.09
	Indirect effect	-.05**	.02	-		-		-		-.01	.02
	Total effect	-.24***	.08	-		-		.29***	.08	.38***	.08
Avoidant											
	Direct effect	.06	.09	-		-		.22**	.09	-.25***	.09
	Indirect effect	-.04*	.02	-		-		-		-.03	.02
	Total effect	.02	.09	-		-		.22**	.09	-.27***	.09
Education											
	Direct effect	-		-		-		-		-.09*	.05
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		-	
	Total effect	-		-		-		-		-.09*	.05
Female											
	Direct effect	-		.19***	.05	.14**	.06	-		-	
	Indirect effect	-.04***	.02	-		-		.08	.03	.03	.02
	Total effect	-.04***	.02	.19***	.05	.14**	.06	.08	.03	.03	.02
IPT											
	Direct effect	-.17***	.06	-		-		-		-.10*	.06
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		.02	.01
	Total effect	-.17***	.06	-		-		-		-.09	.06
Tenure w boss											
	Direct effect	-		-		-		-		-.08*	.05
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		-	
	Total effect	-		-		-		-		-.08*	.05

Notes: SE = Standard Error. p *** < 0.01; ** < 0.05; * < 0.1

4.4 Coaching needs: Encouragement

Coaching needs was defined through two variables: encouragement and guidance. To try to reduce some potentially confounding variables around coaching needs the concept is that the person is imagining being coached by a new manager, so that their current perceptions of their manager do not have too much of an impact. The SEM model is in Figure 10 and the decomposition effects are in Table 17.

Gender (female) has a small effect on anxious attachment style (r = .15 and p = .006) and avoidant attachment style (r = .18 and p = .0008). Anxious attachment style (r = -.14 p = .02) and entity IPT (r = -.16 and p = .01) have a small negative effect on education. The effect of anxious attachment style on education is both direct and indirect (r = -.05 and p = .04) slightly increasing the total effect (r = -.19 and p = .0005). There was a negligible effect of avoidance on education and including the effect was slightly to the detriment of the good fit of the model, so this was removed.

Anxious attachment style (r= .31 and p = .0002) and avoidant attachment style (r = .21 and p = 0.2) have a moderate effect on entity IPT. Anxious attachment style (r= .24 and p = .006) has a moderate effect on encouragement, with a small negative indirect effect (r = -.05 and p = .04) with a small total effect (r = .19 and p = .03). Avoidant attachment style (r = -.15 and p = .09) has a small negative effect on encouragement with an indirect effect (r = -.03 and p = .06) increasing the total effect (r = -.19 and p = .04). Entity IPT (r = .16 and p = .009)

has a small negative effect on encouragement. Gender (female r= .20 and p < .0001) was included due to the moderate effect on encouragement.

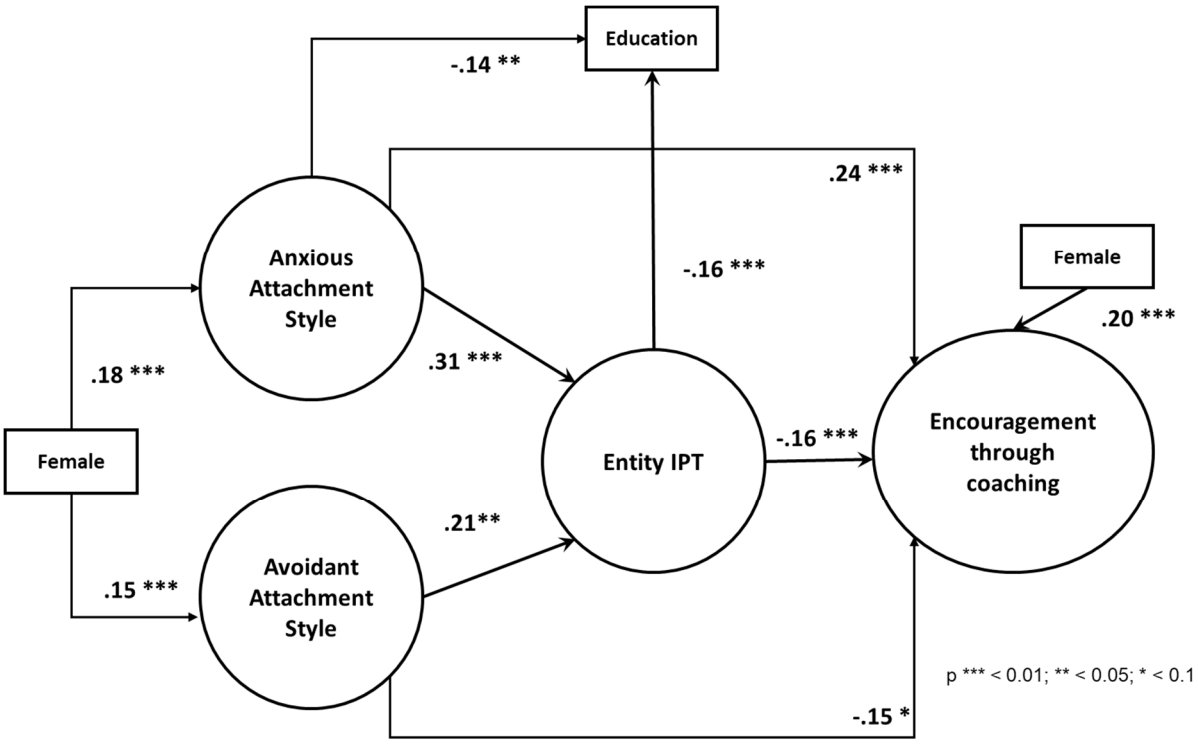


Figure 10 – Encouragement (coaching needs) SEM

Using the total effects to assess the hypotheses it is noted that H2a, H2b and H2c are supported.

Table 16 – Hypothesis 2

Supported	H2a:	r = .19 p = .03	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need encouragement
Supported	H2b:	r = -.19 p = .04	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
Supported	H2c:	r = -.16 p = .009	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement

Table 17 - Decomposition Table of Effects from Encouragement Model

		Variables									
		Education		Anxiety		Avoidance		IPT		Encouragement	
		Beta	SE	Beta	SE	Beta	SE	Beta	SE	Beta	SE
Anxiety											
	Direct effect	-.14**	.06	-		-		.31***	.08	.24***	.09
	Indirect effect	-.05**	.02	-		-		-		-.05**	.02
	Total effect	-.19***	.05	-		-		.31***	.08	.19**	.08
Avoidance											
	Direct effect	-		-		-		.21**	.09	-.15*	.09
	Indirect effect	-.03	.02	-		-		-		-.03*	.02
	Total effect	-.03	.02	-		-		.21**	.09	-.19**	.09
Female											
	Direct effect	-		.18***	.05	.15***	.06	-		.20***	.05
	Indirect effect	-.04***	.01	-		-		.09	.03	.00	.01
	Total effect	-.04***	.01	.18***	.05	.15***	.06	.09	.03	.21***	.05
IPT											
	Direct effect	-.16***	.06	-		-		-		-.16***	.06
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		-	
	Total effect	-.16***	.06	-		-		-		-.16***	.06

Notes: SE = Standard Error. p *** < 0.01; ** < 0.05; * < 0.1

4.5 Coaching needs: Guidance

The guidance model also investigates the potential impact of attachment style and IPT on the guidance coaching needs, with some demographics included that added to the overall model. Figure 14 illustrates the SEM model while Table 19 provides the decomposition effects.

Gender (female) has a small effect on both anxious attachment style (r = .15 and p = .008) and avoidant attachment style (r = .18 and p = .0007). Anxious attachment style (r = -.18 and p = .03) and entity IPT (r = -.18 and p = .002) both have a small negative effect on education. The effect of avoidant attachment style (r = .06 and p = .48) on education is insignificant with the high p score.

Anxious attachment style has a moderate effect on entity IPT (r = 0.31 and p = .0002) and avoidant attachment style has a smaller but still moderate effect (r = .20 and p = .02).

Anxious attachment style has a small effect on coaching guidance (r = .15 and p = .09) while avoidant attachment style is virtually insignificant with a high p score (r = -.06 and p = .51). IPT has a small negative effect on guidance (r = .17 and p = .006) while education has a very small effect (r = -.09 and p = .08) with female have a close to moderate effect (r = .19 and p = .0002).

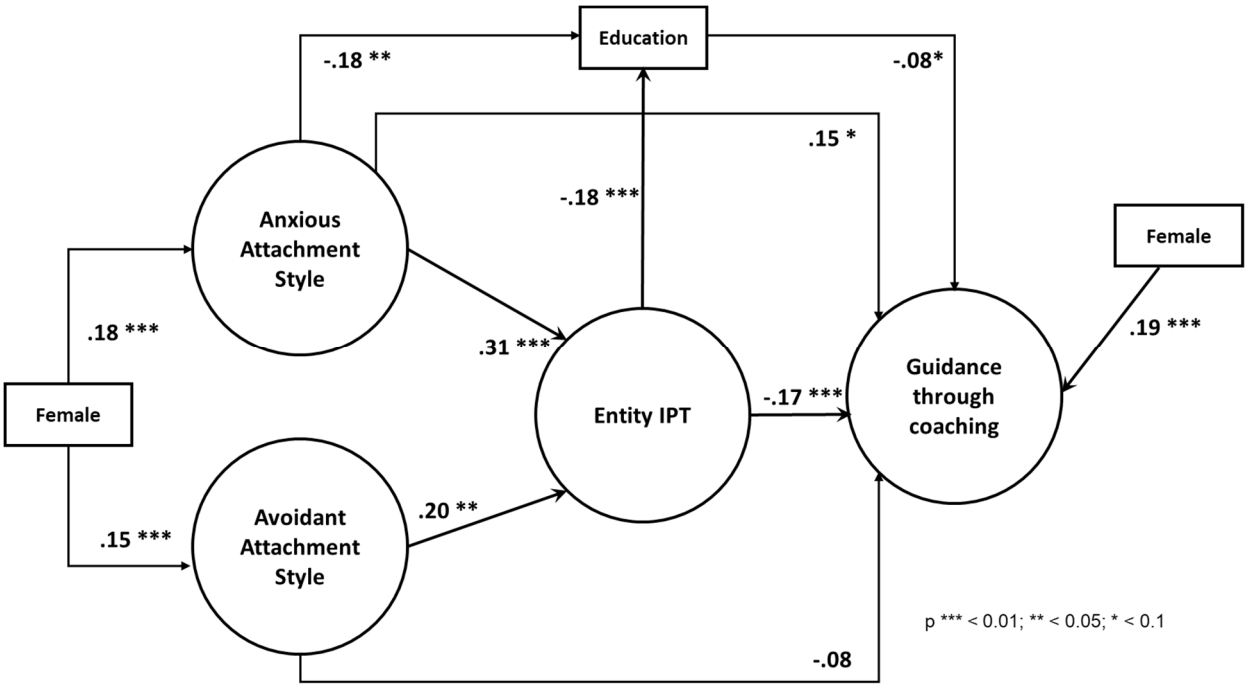


Figure 11 – Guidance (coaching needs) SEM

Using the total effects to assess the hypotheses it is noted that H3a and H3b are supported while H3c is supported.

Table 18 – Hypothesis 3

Not supported	H3a:	r = .12 p = .17	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need guidance
Not supported	H3b:	r = -.10 p = .29	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance
Supported	H3c:	r = -.15 p = .01	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance

Table 19 - Decomposition Table of Effects from Guidance Model

		Variables									
		Education		Anxiety		Avoidance		IPT		Guidance	
		β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Anxiety											
	Direct effect	-.18**	.08	-		-		.31***	.08	.15*	.09
	Indirect effect	-.05**	.02	-		-		-		-.03	.03
	Total effect	-.23***	.08	-		-		.31***	.08	.12	.09
Avoidance											
	Direct effect	.06	.09	-		-		.20**	.09	-.06	.09
	Indirect effect	-.04*	.02	-		-		-		-.04*	.02
	Total effect	.03	.09	-		-		.20**	.09	-.10	.09
Education											
	Direct effect	-		-		-		-		-.09*	.05
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		-	
	Total effect	-		-		-		-		-.09*	.05
Female											
	Direct effect	-		.18***	.05	.15***	.06	-		.19***	.05
	Indirect effect	-.04**	.01	-		-		.08***	.03	.01	.01
	Total effect	-.04**	.01	.18***	.05	.15***	.06	.08***	.03	.19***	.05
IPT											
	Direct effect	-.18***	.06	-		-		-		-.17***	.06
	Indirect effect	-		-		-		-		.02***	.01
	Total effect	-.18***	.06	-		-		-		-.15**	.06

Notes: SE = Standard Error. p *** < 0.01; ** < 0.05; * < 0.1

4.6 Conclusion

As will be discussed in the next chapter the CFA's showed statistical effects from some of the demographics such as education and gender which added effects to the model. Not all the original hypotheses are accepted, although the majority were as while some of the effects were small, they are statistically significant, and have a cumulative effect in the model. While the direct effect was used for modelling the total effect is used to test the hypotheses.

The supported hypotheses are modelled in Figure 12.

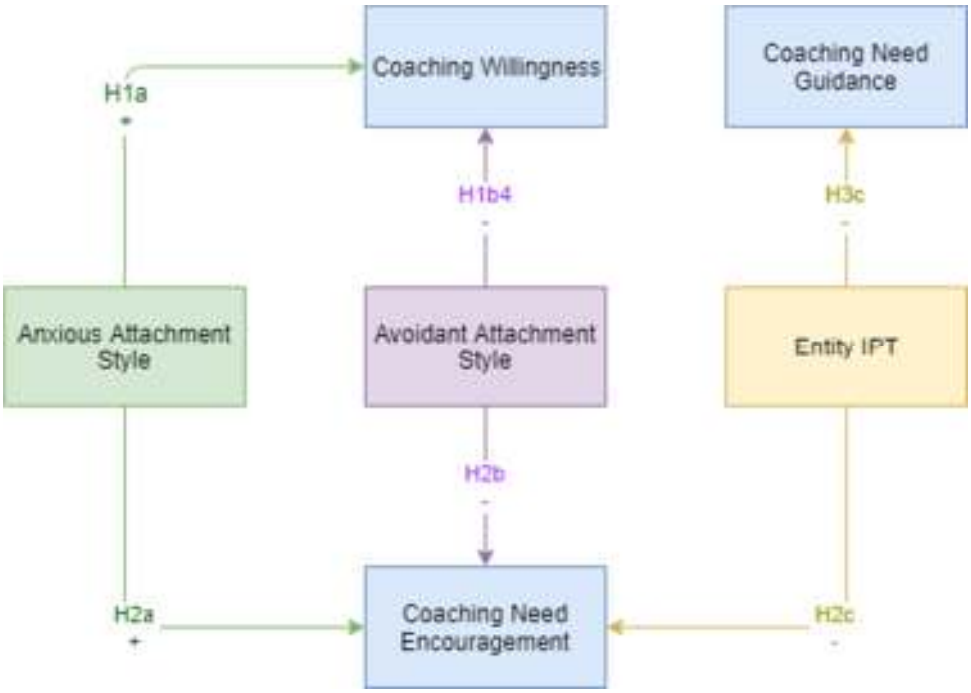


Figure 12 – Model of Hypotheses

The hypotheses and findings are outlined in Table 20.

Table 20 – Summary of hypotheses

Status	Hypothesis		Description
Supported	H1a:	r = .38 p <.0001	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with coaching willingness
Supported	H1b:	r = -.27 p =.002	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with coaching willingness
Not supported	H1c:	r = -.09 p = .15	Entity IPT is not substantially associated with coaching willingness
Supported	H2a:	r = .19 p = .03	Anxious attachment style is positively associated with the coaching need encouragement
Supported	H2b:	r = -.19 p = .04	Avoidant attachment style is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
Supported	H2c:	r = -.16 p = .009	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need encouragement
Not supported	H3a:	r = .12 p = .17	Anxious attachment style is not substantially associated with the coaching need guidance
Not supported	H3b:	r = -.10 p = .29	Avoidant attachment style is not substantially associated with the coaching need guidance
Supported	H3c:	r = -.15 p = .01	Entity IPT is negatively associated with the coaching need guidance

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter takes the results and applies these to the original questions, which assisted in answering the hypotheses in Chapter 4. A literature review is brought back into the results of the study and some additional research is added to discuss some of the findings. This study used a questionnaire-based approach to collect data to model effects on coaching willingness and needs. A simplified version of the model is included in the discussion. This chapter ends with recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Discussion

Demographics were not integrated into the hypothesis due to some theory which is unknown in the South African context. The SEMs as well as the direct, indirect and total effects potentially provide an integrated picture of the data used for this research. It appears as if attachment theory and IPT has some influence on coaching willingness and needs. However, as with most human interactions, this is not a straightforward influence and there are other factors that come in to play as well as the different effects. These are discussed as part of the model overviews below. There is then some theoretical discussion around some of the findings.

5.2.1 *Overview of the models*

The research has been illustrated from the perspective of a practitioner-oriented overview of the model.



Figure 13 – Coaching Willingness

Figure 13 reflects the impact of attachment style and Entity IPT on coaching willingness. People with a secure attachment style are not included as they are neutral about being coached, quite possibly because of the social networks already available to them (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). People with an anxious attachment style are willing to be coached and are more likely to be support seeking (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). People with an avoidant attachment style are less willing to be coached. Due to the belief that they cannot change people with an entity IPT are less likely to want to be coached, and this can influence the style that is adopted in providing coaching (see 5.2.3 IPT effect on coaching).

Anxious attachment theory and entity IPT both appear to have a negative effect on education level, which while discussed in section 5.2.5, have some

implications for coaching. Following in Table 21 is a brief overview of the characteristics affecting Figure 13 to be kept in mind when providing employee coaching (Dweck, 2006, 2009; Han et al., 2018; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Table 21 – Effects to be considered for coaching willingness

Secure	Less focussed on the relationship and more focussed on goals and activities. Comfortable with being open and builds trust in the coaching relationships easily.
Anxious	Preoccupied with the relationship, more so than on goals. May give mixed signals, want to be close but fear rejection, may be uncomfortable with being open and take a long time to trust the coaching relationship.
Avoidant	Not invested in relationship prefers to be independent. May be very focussed on goals and seem to resent input. Will not be comfortable with being open and unlikely to trust the coaching relationship.
Incremental IPT	Likely to avoid challenges, give up easily and ignore feedback, more likely to hold onto perceptions that have already been formed.
Entity IPT	Sees challenges as learning experiences, perseveres when challenged, motivated to achieve learning goals.

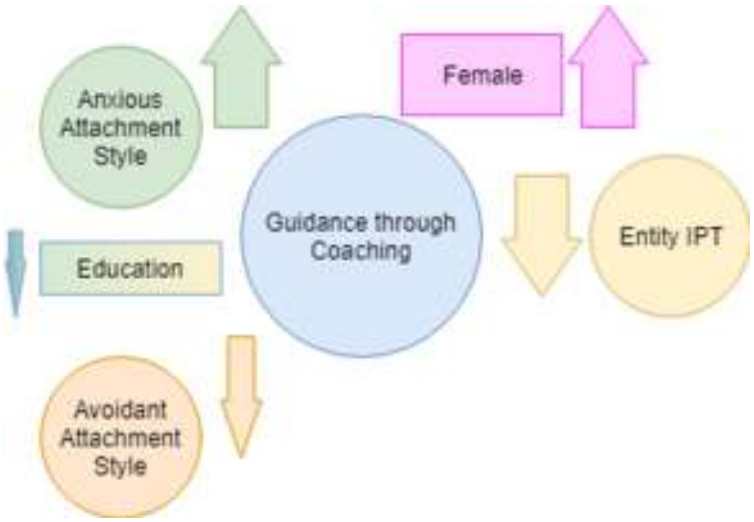


Figure 14 – Guidance coaching needs

Figure 14 shows possible reactions to guidance through coaching. In this context guidance the definition provided by Heslin et al. (2006, p. 878) to "the communication of clear performance expectations and constructive feedback regarding performance outcomes, as well as how to improve." Those with avoidant attachment style are ambivalent about guidance so don't care either way, and avoidant style has a weaker association with need for achievement and adopting mastery goals (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Anxious attachment style wants guidance, which could partly be due their fear of failure (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Those with an entity IPT do not, as they have no expectations of improvement. An interesting addition to keep in mind when coaching is that women at work want guidance from coaching more than men.

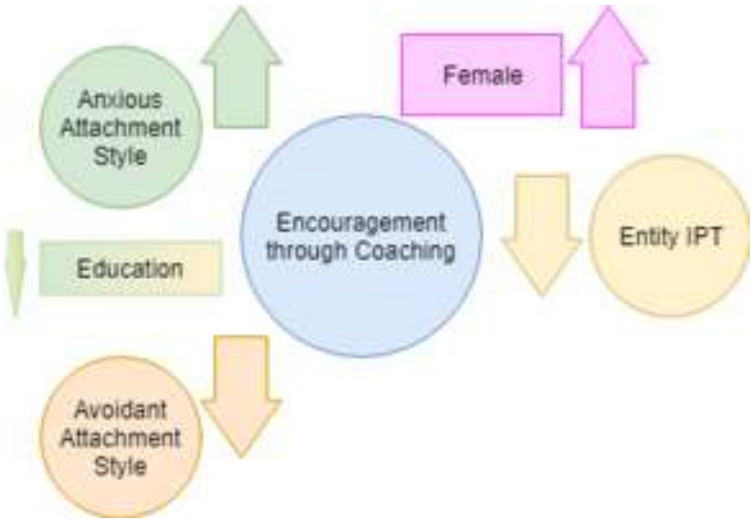


Figure 15 – Encouragement coaching needs

Figure 15 outlines the model for encouragement through coaching. As defined by Wong (2015, p. 182) encouragement is "the expression of affirmation through language or other symbolic representations to instil courage, perseverance, confidence, inspiration, or hope in a person(s) within the context of addressing a challenging situation or realizing a potential." In this model avoidant attachment style does not want encouragement, neither does entity IPT. Avoidant attachment style does and again woman want encouragement through coaching more than men.

5.2.2 *Attachment styles effect on IPT*

A finding that was not part of the original hypotheses is that that anxious and avoidant attachment styles effect entity IPT. This may be showing that these styles, through more rigid thinking can effect entity IPT. Gamble and Roberts (2005) found in a study with adolescents that attachment insecurity had

negative effects on cognitive styles. Coultas and Salas (2015) say that a person's sense of interpersonal relationships influences their information processing.

The model also showed a lower level education level effect stemming from anxious attachment style. With effect of attachment styles on IPT a combination of entity IPT and anxious attachment style could drive lower levels of education through a lack of resilience and a lack of growth beliefs when encountering difficulties (Scott & Ghinea, 2014)

5.2.3 *IPT effect on coaching*

A small effect of entity mindset on coaching willingness and needs was found. Entity mindset may be less likely to want to be coached (Naficy & Isabella, 2008) as they do not see the potential in themselves to change their characteristics (Dweck, 2009).

5.2.4 *Attachment effects on coaching*

While the coaching relationship is important, other relationships, such as mentors, friends and family will have an impact on a person's working environment (Ragins & Verbos, 2007). It was found that secure attachment had little effect on willingness to be coached quite possibly due to the additional social networks that are available to them.

It was found that anxiously attached people want coaching and are positively associated with coaching needs which ties in with their needs to be in relationships, and possible preoccupation with relationships (Blalock et al.,

2015). Avoidantly attachment either a negative effect on coaching willingness and the need for encouragement and none on guidance. Avoidantly attached followers are more likely to be negative about their leaders and less likely to seek support from them; anxious attachment had little effect on leadership evaluations (Mayseless, 2010).

5.2.5 *Effects on education*

The overall effect of anxious attachment on education has both negative direct and indirect effects however both were negative. The effects on avoidant style showed suppression, this variable had both direct and indirect effects that countered each other. Research by Cooper, Shaver, and Collins (1998) finding that anxious adolescents had lower educational aspirations and grades than did avoidant or secure adolescents. While education is often used as a demographic in later studies on attachment style there was little discussion of educations effects found in articles. This research provides some support that anxious attachment style effects education levels. An entity IPT has a negative effect on education which is well supported in academic literature (Han et al., 2018).

5.2.6 *Demographic influences*

While this study showed a small effect of being female on both anxious and avoidant styles, studies have showed mixed results with regards to gender and attachment style. In a study with adolescents by Gamble and Roberts (2005) who found that adolescent girls attachment style's as well as self-esteem, showed more sensitivity to the effects of adverse parenting than did the boys.

In this study the girls showed lower self-esteem as well as greater anxiety and avoidance attachment styles (Gamble & Roberts, 2005). A meta-analysis of studies showed high heterogeneity between males and females attachment styles, with men reporting slightly higher avoidance and woman reporting slightly higher anxiety (Cooper, Totenhagen, Curran, Randall, & Smith, 2017).

The study found that females have higher coaching needs of encouragement and guidance. This may be in line with the stereotype that woman lean more towards collaborative developmental interventions (Ye et al., 2016). The study by Ye et al. (2016) showed that female managers engage more in coaching practices. It would be interesting to find out if this is one influence on the effect of gender on coaching needs, possible as they want support while facing double standards in organisations (Ye et al., 2016).

Previous research has found differences in race and attachment style (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013; Mesman et al., 2016), possible based on collectivism and individualism. This research found no race-based effect in the generalised analysis and therefore took this variable out. This could be due to the continuously overlapping of cultures in South Africa particularly in the working environment.

5.2.7 *Conclusion*

This study examines the effects of IPT and attachment style on coaching willingness and needs. The observed model partially validates the original hypotheses that attachment styles and IPT can influences coaching needs and

willingness. The avoidant attachment style however did note provide an effect on coaching guidance.

The study found that education also had a small effect negative on coaching willingness. Gender influenced attachment styles as well as coaching needs, both encouragement and guidance.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 *Understanding the employee*

Testing for employee and attachment and IPT leads to further understanding of how to coach them and what challenges are likely to be. While formal testing is advised should this not be feasible managers can be trained on how to spot the attachment styles and IPT. Any psychological testing must be administered within the South African context. It was also found that the attachment measure was problematic (as can be seen in the Cronbach Alpha) so the measures should be reviewed before implementing.

In preparation for coaching, while no person is inherently unable to be coached, they do need to be in the right time, space and mindset for the coaching to be successful. Knowing that a person is ready for coaching and having an idea of their coaching needs is a step towards insuring successful coaching outcomes. With an understanding of these effects managers can focus on the following while coaching:

i. Being aware that people with an avoidant attachment style are less likely to want coaching and to focus rather on goals and implementation than the relationship;
ii. While entity IPT has a negative effect on coaching willingness and needs this can be addressed in coaching through an incremental approach, as other research has shown that coaching increases incremental IPT over the long term;
iii. Encouraging people with an anxious attachment style and an entity IPT towards further education and seeing how the coaching can assist the employee with education as a goal;
iv. While the research indicates a focus on guidance and encouragement for woman, it would be useful to find out what the coaching needs are of all employees in the initial discussion;
v. Finding alternative routes to formal employee coaching for longer standing employees and highly educated employees (who have a slight negative relationship with coaching willingness);
vi. Refer back to Table 21 for some additional effects to be kept in mind when preparing to coach while paying attention to attachment style and IPT.

As a leader understanding their own IPT and attachment can assist with reflecting on how and why they manage employees as they do. Understanding an employee's attachment and IPT will also assist with how to manage their goals.

Research by Sue-Chan, Wood, and Latham (2012) showed that coaching with a prevention orientation works better for people with an entity orientation and coaching with a promotion orientation works for people with an incremental orientation. A promotion focus is based on positive outcomes such as new ideas and outcomes which is how incremental theorists tackle new goals (Sue-Chan et al., 2012). A prevention focus is based on negative outcomes such as avoiding actions that could impact on their goal achievement and incremental theorists try to avoid failure (Sue-Chan et al., 2012). Both focuses can drive the employee towards their goals, it is up to the coach to couch the goals using this regulatory theory.

5.3.2 *Encouragement within employee coaching*

With the expression of a coaching need for encouragement it is worthwhile for encouragement to be specifically included in employee coaching programmes. This is being highlighted because the coaching needs were expressed as a need for guidance and encouragement. This could be based on the tripartite encouragement model developed by Wong (2015, p. 191) and reproduced in Table 22.

Table 22 – Tripartite Encouragement Model

Facets	Examples that can be used
"Facet 1: Foci of encouragement"	
1. Challenge-focused	"The situation is not as bad as it looks. And I know things will improve."

Facets	Examples that can be used
2. Potential-focused	"Have you ever considered a career in statistics? I know you'll be really good!"
"Facet 2: Features of effective encouragement"	
1. Framing of encouragement message	Effective encouragement messages focus on positive aspects of the recipient's progress, attitude, strategies, and effort.
Perceived trustworthiness of encourage	The recipient views the encourager as an expert or as someone who knows her or him well.
3. Perceived credibility of encouragement message	Recipients are likely to perceive messages that are sincere and realistic as credible
"Facet 3: Levels of encouragement"	
1. Interpersonal communication	Communicating an affirmation to instil confidence in a person who is feeling discouraged.
2. Character strength	Some individuals are better encouragers than others.
3. Group norm	Some organizations have a strong culture of encouragement than others."

Not only do the above examples provide some useful questions or comments for coaching, they tie up with expectations of coaches, which is establishing trust, building rapport and being authentic. It is noted that in coaching direct suggestions are not usually recommended so rather than saying "I know you

would be good at…" the coaching manager can use "What are you good at?" and encourage the employee to move towards that.

5.4 Suggestions for further research

Further research to address some of the limitations may add significantly to the literature, such as qualitative research to delve into reasons why employees may or may not want coaching from their managers. Qualitative research can also add to some of the other findings such as the effect of gender on coaching needs. This research is based on one survey and is cross-sectional, a longitudinal study can add to the effects of the variables over time.

There are further suggestions for future research. It would be interesting to find out how employees see their managers and the extent that this like or dislike may have on coaching willingness and needs and the extent to which attachment may impact this view of the manager. A dyadic approach gathering the styles, IPT and views of both parties should be examined.

Adding to the research by Popper and Amit an investigation of the long-term effects of attachment style on career development and whether this can be changed through coaching may be useful. In addition to this, while it appears that those identified for leadership and more likely to be successful leaders are secure, what about other career paths, such as highly technical careers, would attachment have an effect?

Further research on the effects of attachment on IPT and of both (joint) on education could add to the knowledge base and knock on effect on coaching as well as a further investigation of the gender influence on coaching needs.

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APPENDIX A. Research Instrument

Link to research survey:

https://wits.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_4PjWapDXBQqZoi1

To be coached or not to be coached – give us your opinion...

Start of Block: Default Question Block

Q1

To be coached or not to be coached – give us your opinion...

Thank you for taking part in our survey on employee elements of workplace coaching and coachees. As a busy working professional, you know how important it is to have tools that help you craft your career. Managers coaching their direct reports is becoming a popular workplace activity which can aid in this; however, employee coaching may not necessarily be for everyone. We are therefore conducting research to better understand some elements of coaching in the workplace.

Should you need to exit the survey you can re-enter at any time to complete it. This research has received ethical approval from Wits Business School and is for partial fulfilment of a Management Masters in Business Executive Coaching.

Q2 I consent to taking part of this survey and for the results to be used in academic research.

- ○ Yes (23)
- ○ No (24) *(if no selected the person is taken to the end of the questionnaire with no further questions)*

Q3 What is your e-mail address? (Optional)

_____

Q4 In which country do you currently work?

▼ South Africa (1358) ... Zimbabwe (1357)

Q5 What is your job title?

_____

Q6 Which Department do you work in?

_____

Q7 Please indicate your level of occupation:

- ○ Executive / Senior Management (1)
- ○ Middle Management (2)
- ○ Professional / technical specialist (3)
- ○ First level supervisor (7)
- ○ Not in management / not doing professional work (8)
- ○ None of the above (9)

Q8 In approximately what month and year did you start working for your current manager?

	Month	Year
Please Select: (1)	▼ January (1 ... December (12)	▼ 2018 (1 ... Before 1980 (39)

Q9 Has your current manager coached you in the recent past? By 'coaching' I mean: Employee coaching (also referred to as managerial or supervisor coaching) is a developmental, non-directive, goal focussed intervention led by the manager to improve job performance and enhance the employee's capabilities through a trust-based relationship, guidance and facilitation.

- ○ Yes (23)
- ○ No (24)

Q10

Imagine that your current manager has quit, and you are getting a new manager about whom you know nothing other than the person has sent an email to everyone in your team indicating that they want to coach you. Without knowing anything more about the person, please use the slider scales below (you can choose anywhere along the scale) to rate your preferences on what you would like the new manager to do in such coaching.

	Do not prefer	Prefer slightly	Prefer a moderate amount	Prefer a lot	Prefer a great deal
	0	10 20 30	40 50 60	70 80 90	100
Provide guidance regarding performance expectations ()					
Help you to analyse your performance ()					
Provide constructive feedback regarding areas for improvement ()					
Offer useful suggestions regarding how you can improve your performance ()					
Act as a sounding board for you to develop your ideas ()					

	Do not prefer	Prefer slightly	Prefer a moderate amount	Prefer a lot	Prefer a great deal
	0	10 20 30	40	50 60 70	80 90 100
Facilitate creative thinking to help solve problems ()					
Encourage you to explore and try out new alternatives ()					
Express confidence that you can develop and improve ()					
Encourage you to continuously develop and improve ()					
Support you in taking on new challenges ()					

Page Break

Q11 Please use the slider to indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them, and it can't be changed very much. ()											
People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed. ()											
Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that they can do to really change that. ()											
I find it difficult to depend on other people. ()											
It is very important to me to feel independent. ()											

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
I find it easy to get emotionally close to others. ()											
I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others. ()											
I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. ()											
I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others. ()											
I worry about being alone. ()											
I am comfortable depending on other people. ()											
I find it difficult to trust others completely. ()											

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
I am comfortable having other people depend on me. ()							
I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them. ()							
It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient. ()							
I prefer not to have other people depend on me. ()							
I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others. ()							
I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. ()							
I prefer not to depend on others. ()							

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
I worry about having others not accept me. ()							
I would like my manager to coach me. ()							
I could benefit from my manager coaching me. ()							

Page Break

Q12 Please complete the following demographic questions which are for research purposes only and assist with studying groups.

Q13 What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- ○ Less than high school degree (1)
- ○ High school graduate (matric or equivalent) (2)
- ○ Technical Diploma (3)
- ○ University Degree or equivalent (4)
- ○ Honours or postgraduate diploma (5)
- ○ Master's degree (6)
- ○ Doctoral degree (7)
- ○ Professional degree (E.g. MD / CA) (8)

Q14 What is your gender?

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Prefer not to answer (3)

Q15 What racial / ethnic group do you belong to?

_____

Q16 Thank you for clicking on the link, but you clicked no on providing consent so we can't use your answers. If this was a mistake, please press the back button below to return.

If you are indeed unwilling to provide your consent, please press the forward button below to exit the survey.

Q17 This is the end of the survey. Thanks you so much for completing it! If you are happy to record your answers, then please click yes below and then click the next button to finish.

- ○ Yes, I wish to finish the survey and click next below to record my answers (4)

End of Block: Default Question Block