

ROI is a poor measure of coaching success: towards a more holistic approach using a well-being and engagement framework

Anthony M. Grant*

Coaching Psychology Unit, School of Psychology, University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW 2006, Australia

(Received 28 February 2012; final version received 1 March 2012)

In this article, it is argued that financial return on investment (ROI) is an unreliable and insufficient measure of coaching outcomes, and that an over-emphasis on financial returns can restrict coaches' and organisations' awareness of the full range of positive outcomes possible through coaching. Furthermore, poorly targeted coaching interventions that myopically focus on maximising financial returns may actually inadvertently increase job-related stress and anxiety. The well-being and engagement framework (WBEF) is presented as an example of a potential approach for evaluating the impact of coaching in organisational settings that can give a richer overview of coaching outcomes than financial ROI. Although financial ROI may well be an attractive metric for some managers and organisations, it is proposed that frameworks such as the WBEF and goal attainment can provide a far more comprehensive and meaningful metric than financial ROI.

Keywords: coaching; return on investment; ROI; well-being; workplace engagement; evidence-based coaching

Introduction

As financial uncertainty and constraints increasingly become central features of the economic and business landscape, those that provide coaching services to organisations tend to turn their attention to means of validating their coaching services and demonstrating that their coaching does indeed deliver value for money. One of the first metrics that may come to mind is the financial return on investment (ROI). After all, it might be argued, organisations are generally in business in order to make money, so organisational coaching initiatives are best evaluated by the amount of money they return to the organisation. This is especially poignant in tough economic times, and thus ROI may well be an attractive metric for some managers.

The view that financial ROI is a vital measure of organisational coaching success has received some considerable mileage in the coaching literature (Hernez-Broome, 2010; McGovern et al., 2001). Although the proposition that the success or failure of

This article is based, in part, on a presentation given at the Association for Coaching on 'Leadership Coaching: Developing Elite Performance' held at the University of East London, London, July 2010

*Email: anthony.grant@sydney.edu.au

an organisational coaching intervention can be reduced to a single financial metric may give some purchasers of coaching services some comfort and reassurance about the perceived value of coaching, the ROI metric is not without its critics (De Meuse, Dai, & Lee, 2009). Certainly, it is important that organisations are attuned to the amount they spend on coaching and are able to justify such expenditure: that point is not in debate. What is in debate is the notion that financial ROI can provide a fundamental or meaningful benchmark of coaching success.

In this article, I draw on past scholarship in this area (e.g., Anderson, 2010; Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010), and argue that although financial ROI is an accepted metric, flaws and weakness is in the overly simplistic way that it is calculated mean that financial ROI is an unreliable and insufficient measure of coaching outcomes. Organisational coaching initiatives should of course be evaluated, but we need far more comprehensive measures for this task than financial ROI.

As most organisational trainers and coaches who deliver training, education or coaching recognise, evaluation is not just about financial payback. The issue of how best to measure the impact of training and coaching has exercised researchers for a very long time. In this article, I aim to contribute to this debate. I initially explore the concept of financial ROI and show why financial ROI is indeed an unreliable and insufficient metric. I then present a humanistic framework that I argue has the potential to provide a taxonomy from which to more comprehensively evaluate organisation coaching interventions, and discuss some quantitative measures that might be effective in its operationalisation.

What is ROI?

The ROI metric is typically positioned as being an extension of Kirkpatrick's (1977) classic four-level taxonomy for evaluating training programmes which has often also been used for evaluating coaching programmes (e.g., Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; McGovern et al., 2001; Phillips, 2007; Rock & Donde, 2008).

In Kirkpatrick's original taxonomy *level one* is about evaluating trainees' *reactions* – how much a participant likes or enjoys a training programme. This level focuses on participants' feelings, rather than assessing if any learning has taken place.

Level two is about evaluating *learning* – measuring the knowledge acquired, skills improved or developed or changes in attitudes. *Level three* is about assessing change in *behaviour* – the extent to which learnings acquired are subsequently manifested in the workplace though observable behavioural change. *Level four* focuses on *results* that occur due to the training programme. These could include increased sales, reduced costs or any business-related metric.

It is of note that Kirkpatrick argues that, in order to fully understand the impact of a specific training programme, all four levels should be evaluated, and that it is important that the relative costs and benefits of specific training programmes be evaluated, although he did not use the term 'return on investment' (for a detailed discussion see Kirkpatrick, 1996).

The notion of a 'Level Five' as being an explicit ROI step is typically credited to Phillips (1997) and is now commonly viewed as a logical extension of Kirkpatrick's model.

Calculating ROI for coaching

In brief, the standard formula for calculating ROI involves subtracting the costs of coaching from the estimated value of the outcomes of coaching and then expressing this as a percentage ((estimated coaching benefits – costs of coaching/costs of coaching) × 100%).

However, there are number of different applications of this formula reported in the literature; for example, deliberately underestimating the financial return figure, thereby producing a ‘conservative’ estimate, or including a rating of the coachee’s level of confidence that all or some of the perceived benefits were in fact due to coaching (De Meuse et al., 2009; Parker-Wilkins, 2006; Phillips, 2007). The impact of these varied applications is that the meaning of the ROI metric varies considerably between different studies, making the ROI metric unreliable and this makes meaningful comparisons between studies difficult if not impossible.

A broad range of ROI figures for coaching has been reported. These include estimates of 221% (Phillips, 2007), 545% (McGovern et al., 2001) and 788% (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001), with figures of between 500% and 700% commonly reported as being ‘the’ ROI for executive coaching (Anderson, 2008).

Why ROI is an unreliable and insufficient outcome measure

In understanding why ROI is an unreliable and insufficient coaching outcome measure, it is important to note that the ROI metric depends on two things: (1) the total costs of the coaching intervention including the amount charged by the coach and (2) the financial benefit obtained.

Using an extreme and highly simplistic example: Organisation X employs a coach who charges \$5000 for the coaching engagement. The coach works with an executive who is working on a deal that will produce \$10 million profit. The deal is successful, and in retrospect the executive estimates that 50% of the result is due to the coaching (and let us assume that the executive is correct in making this estimate). Using our standard formula, this would result in an ROI for executive coaching in the region of 99,900%. This would undoubtedly seem attractive to management, but we must acknowledge that the metric is probably misleading because of the flaws in the way it is calculated.

At best this figure might be indicative of the ROI for this specific engagement. Even that is not clear. It must be noted that a key factor in determining a ROI figure is the degree to which revenue can be attributed to the actual work of the coachee and the extent to which such work has been enhanced by the coaching. Where the coaching engagement with one individual is aimed at enhancing a predefined specific set of behaviours that are directly linked to a specific outcome that is in turn directly linked to a financial value, it may be possible to draw a reliable direct causal line between coaching and financial return. However, whilst organisations often seek to improve financial performance as a result of coaching, clearly defined financial metrics are typically not the direct focus of coaching interventions and the estimated financial benefits often represent highly subjective and contextually bound variables (Grant, Green, & Rynsaardt, 2010).

Furthermore, where the coachee's work involves managing or directing others in order to attain organisational goals, the causal chain between coaching and eventual financial outcomes become even more tenuous. It is often extremely difficult to delineate specific causal relationships between a coaching intervention and improvements in organisational metrics. In addition, ROI calculations tend to ignore the impact of other variables such as market context and team input (e.g., Rock & Donde, 2008). Moreover, while there can be reasonable certainty about the direct costs of coaching, indirect costs (e.g. opportunity costs) tend not to be included. It should be noted that these issues have not typically been satisfactorily factored into ROI studies to date (Grant et al., 2010).

Even if such factors can be satisfactorily accounted for, at best a financial ROI metric can only be indicative of the actual coaching engagement in question. In order to meaningfully compare ROI across different coaching studies – to determine *the* financial ROI of coaching – all facets of the coaching engagement must be similar across the studies, including coaching costs and the opportunities that the coachee has to shape the outcomes of the revenue stream.

Unless such issues are specifically and adequately addressed, the financial ROI metric has limited validity. *If* these issues can be satisfactorily addressed in any specific intervention, then ROI *may* be able to provide some indications about the financial impact of that specific coaching intervention. However, whilst this metric might be a useful means of approximating the financial benefit of a specific coaching engagement, I would argue that it is not a comprehensive measure of the broader impact of coaching interventions in the way that it is currently applied.

Is ROI primarily about marketing, rather than measurement?

There are other contextual issues at play that may be further undermining the credibility of the ROI metric. Virtually, all ROI research is conducted by organisations that supply coaching services, or by the human resources professionals that have contracted them to supply coaching services to their organisation. It is also clear that much of the ROI literature that is presented as being academic research bears more resemblance to marketing material promoting a specific proprietary coaching service rather than a rigorous peer-reviewed scientific evaluation.

In this literature, then, due to vested interests in emphasising commercial success it is possible that there is some level of unconscious bias at play when reporting the results of the coaching intervention. Of course, this is not to imply purposeful misrepresentation of data. However, there may be some unrecognised and unintended demand characteristics at play which effect participants' responses and the way that data are collected, reported and interpreted (Grant et al., 2010).

The use of non-validated questionnaires of uncertain reliability is an issue of particular concern. Much ROI research is conducted by practitioners who may not have explicit training in developing reliable questionnaires, increasing the risk that the questionnaires used may elicit-biased responses (for a detailed and thorough discussion on the development of customised assessments of coaching interventions and some of the major potential pitfalls see Peterson & Kraiger, 2004).

Furthermore, where there is a particularly close relationship between the coach, coachee and organisational representatives, respondents may unconsciously feel under pressure to report favourable results or overstate the effect of coaching. This is

particularly the case in retrospective studies, a category within which most ROI studies fall. The negative effects of recall bias have been well-established in a wide range of areas (Chouinard & Walter, 1995; Infante-Rivard & Jacques, 2000; Mathews & Bradle, 1983).

In addition to the problems presented by recall-based retrospective research, is the fact that many ROI studies fail to adequately detail the methodology by which they arrive at the supposed ROI figure. For example, Rock and Donde (2008) claim an ROI of 17 times the organisational investment, yet beyond reporting a single 'dollarised ROI' amount (p. 79) they provide no details of how this figure was calculated. For this reason, such research should be interpreted with some caution. In contrast, there are a number of studies that exemplify good practice in this area. For example, Levenson (2009) and Phillips (2007) both provide detailed and thorough accounts of how ROI data are obtained and calculated, and future researchers might like to include such detailed analyses in future studies of ROI in coaching.

Towards a more comprehensive approach to measuring coaching success

Given that financial ROI can be considered a somewhat unreliable measure of organisational coaching outcome, what might be a more appropriate means of evaluating organisational coaching success?

To answer this question, we need to recognise that overly focusing on the potential monetary gains to be made from coaching gives an extremely limited view of the potential benefits of coaching. Furthermore, poorly targeted coaching interventions that myopically focus on ensuring financial returns may inadvertently increase job-related stress as the coachee struggles to achieve unrealistic or inappropriate goals (for an informative discussion on the effects of inappropriate goal setting in organisational contexts see Ordóñez, Schweitzer, Galinsky, & Bazerman, 2009; Schweitzer, Ordóñez, & Douma, 2004)

Such outcomes are avoidable as it is clear from the literature that well-targeted workplace coaching has the potential to deliver a wide range of positive outcomes including increased workplace engagement (Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007), decreased stress (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005) depression and anxiety, increased resilience and well-being (Grant et al., 2010), as well as goal attainment (Linley, Nielsen, Gillett, & Biswas-Diener, 2010). It is important to note that all of these variables can be satisfactorily assessed using pre-existing, validated measures which are preferable to the non-validated questionnaires typically used in assessing ROI.

Two important variables for coaching in organisational settings are well-being and workplace engagement. Organisations function better with mentally healthy employees who are engaged in their work activities, and these I argue should be some of the key metrics in evaluating coaching success. These humanistic metrics are able to give a far more meaningful and holistic view of the impact of a coaching intervention than a single monetary figure.

Well-being is more than the absence of mental illness, and involves high levels of a number of facets of psychological well-being, including self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations with others, environmental mastery and autonomy (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Individuals high in well-being are designated as 'flourishing' in life, whereas those low in mental health symptoms are designated as 'languishing' (for

further information on the concepts of ‘flourishing’ and ‘languishing’ see Keyes & Haidt, 2003).

Workplace or employee engagement, the positive opposite of job burnout, can be understood as a state of high energy, strong involvement and strong sense of commitment to the performance of work functions (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

The well-being and engagement framework

The well-being and engagement framework (WBEF; Figure 1) first articulated by Grant and Spence (2010) and outlined below has two dimensions: a *well-being* dimension (high-low) and a *workplace engagement* dimension (high-low). Please note that the areas within this diagram are qualitatively representative only and are not meant to reflect the quantitative distribution of individuals across the various quadrants.

Area of flourishing

The area of flourishing is located in the upper right area of Figure 1, where individuals experience elevated well-being and high levels of engagement. Individuals in this area would be highly involved with and absorbed in their work, have a well developed sense of work-related meaning and purpose and enjoy positive relations

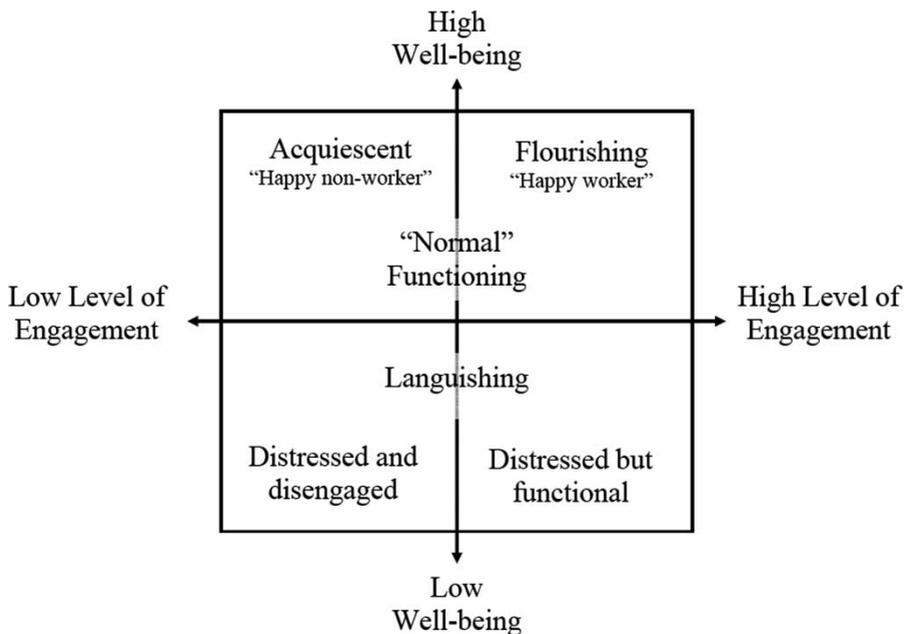


Figure 1. The well-being and engagement framework for assessing organisational coaching interventions.

Note: The WBEF may be freely used for coaching and consulting practice and research provided that appropriate authorship acknowledgments are made.

with work colleagues. In an organisational or workplace coaching context, this area may well represented the ideal (or target) state.

Area of acquiescence

The upper left quadrant represents individuals who have good levels of well-being but low levels of workplace engagement. Employees who acquiesce can be described as 'happy but disengaged'. These are employees who are physically and emotionally present but who are not actively engaged with the organisation's goals or its day-to-day work. Although some individuals may well prefer employment in contexts that do not demand such engagement, it can also be expected that those in this quadrant would become increasingly cynical about their work over time, eventually drifting into a state of languishing.

Area of languishing

The area of languishing spans the lower quadrants of the framework and represents individuals who have relatively low levels of well-being but not high levels of depression, anxiety and/or stress and also have only moderate levels of workplace engagement. Individuals who are languishing may be trying to become more engaged and involved with their work (possibly with the assistance of a coach or mentor), but in general their working lives are lacking the vigour, energy and resilience usually associated with high levels of workplace engagement and personal flourishing (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

Area of the distressed but functional

The lower right area is the area that delineates distressed but functional individuals who have comparatively high levels of workplace engagement. Individuals here are highly functional in terms of work performance but they may also be dysthymic (a form of mild but chronic depression), have high levels of anxiety or be chronically stressed. Depending on the nature of the organisation, there may well be a significant percentage of the organisations' employees in this category. Mental health issues in this quadrant can range from moderately dysthymic or distressed to high levels of distress. Coaching in this quadrant can be a significant challenge for coaches who do not have clinical or counselling training in issues related to mental health (Cavanagh, 2005). This is because, contrary to popular belief, it is often quite difficult to identify depression or anxiety. Indeed coachees in this area may not even be aware that they have mental health problems and are thus not likely to seek out treatment. It is more likely that coachees here will present with issues in line with the coaching context such as delegation, motivation, time management, staff retention or interpersonal communication difficulties or conflicts (Grant et al., 2010).

Area of burn-out and psychopathology: the disengaged and distressed

The lower left area in the model is the area of burn-out and psychopathology. Individuals in this area may well have relatively high levels of mental illness, and these might include major depression, major anxiety disorders, chemical dependencies

or alcoholism, self-defeating behaviour patterns or major personality disorders. Individuals in this area also would have very low levels of workplace engagement and may well be experiencing major symptoms of job burnout, high levels of cynicism and physical and mental exhaustion. Individuals in this quadrant may be more suited for counselling or a therapeutic intervention than coaching. Coaches and consultants should to be able and prepared to refer such individuals to appropriate mental health professionals for help with such issues rather than trying to address them within a coaching relationship.

Using the well-being and engagement framework

On an individual level, the WBEF or similar approaches could provide useful evaluative frameworks which could allow coaches, and those evaluating coaching interventions, to track coachees progress over time, assuming that the goal of the coaching intervention is to move individuals into the area of flourishing. It could also be used as a diagnostic tool to help determine whether individuals would benefit from counselling or coaching. In addition, it could be used to help determine the focus of the coaching intervention; that is, if the coaching should be primarily aimed at relieving stress, increasing well-being or enhancing engagement through the pursuit of workplace goals that are meaningful and poignant for the individual.

In relation to the evaluation of coaching interventions on an organisational level, by using aggregate well-being and engagement metrics the WBEF might provide a useful heuristic from which to categorise work groups, managerial teams and even whole organisations, benchmarking the extent to which an organisation is flourishing, languishing or in a collective state of psychological distress.

The WBEF builds on and extends the core facets of Kirkpatrick's (1977) taxonomy, conjointly placing Kirkpatrick's emphasis on; level one: emotions and reactions; level two: learning; level three: behavioural change; and level four: the results that occur due to the coaching programme, within a more contemporary organisational framework of well-being and engagement.

Measurements relevant to the well-being and engagement framework

As regards the operationalisation of the WBEF. At present, the WBEF is primarily a conceptual model and a specific WBEF measure has not yet been developed. However, there are a number of pre-existing quantitative measures that could be used to operationalise the WBEF.

The horizontal axis of the WBEF represents the well-being dimension. Individuals in the upper section of this dimension would be high in positive affect and low in negative affect. Conversely, individuals in the lower sections of this dimension would be low in positive affect and high in negative affect. The Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), a well-used and reliable 10-item questionnaire that measures the presence of positive and negative affect, could be used to operationalise the well-being dimension. Other measures that could be used on this dimension would included the Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scales (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) for the lower section of this

dimension and the Warwick–Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (Tennant et al., 2007) for the upper section.

The vertical access of the WBEF represents the engagement dimension. Individuals on the right-hand section of this dimension would be high in engagement, and individuals in the left-hand section of this dimension would be low in engagement. There are a number of short questionnaires that measure workplace engagement. One of the better known is the 12-item Gallup Q12 and this could be used to assess this dimension (for full details of the Gallup Q12 workplace engagement survey see Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003). Other measures could include the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006).

An individual's scores on these measures would locate them within a specific quadrant in the WBEF, and by taking repeated measures over time it may be possible to track changes and thus calculate the impact of a coaching intervention on well-being and engagement.

As previously mentioned, at present the WBEF is primarily a conceptual model. Clearly, further development is needed, but in time frameworks such as the WBEF may provide a means of conceptualising the impact of coaching in organisations that goes beyond the monetary viewpoint inherent in the use of financial ROI. Using models such as the WBEF we may in time even see a humanistic ROI developed which could be used in conjunction with the existing financial ROI metric. This would allow organisations to assess the impact of coaching on well-being as well as their finances – surely a more meaningful and comprehensive approach than can be obtained by a myopic focus on financial ROI.

Final thoughts and key points

An explicit focus on well-being and engagement, rather than monetary issues, is important because people tend to pay attention to what is measured, and such measurement tends to change behaviour (Morwitz & Fitzsimons, 2004). Thus, the primary metrics used to assess coaching interventions can have a significant impact on the coaching agenda. The research clearly shows that coaching has great potential to enhance the performance, productivity and well-being of individuals, organisations and the people that work for them (e.g., Grant, 2003).

Organisations and workplaces are more than just money-making machines. They are social and psychological contexts in which people live, work and relate (Bates & Thompson, 2007). Of course, money-making is important. But so is the development, growth and well-being of the people that constitute organisations and workplaces (Baptiste, 2008). We do our clients, ourselves and the coaching industry a great disservice by overly focusing on the financial outcomes of coaching.

Although a monetary appraisal of the financial viability of coaching engagements is an essential part of the natural due diligence that organisations should conduct, a myopic focus on financial issues runs the risk of client organisations being blinded to the very real potential of coaching to create a broad range of positive humanistic outcomes. With coaching being able to deliver a such rich array of potential human benefits, financial ROI is indeed a poor and impoverished measure of coaching success.

Notes on contributor



Anthony M. Grant, PhD, is widely recognised as a key pioneer of Coaching Psychology and evidence-based approaches to coaching. He is the Director of the Coaching Psychology Unit at Sydney University, a Visiting Professor at the International Centre for Coaching and Leadership Development, Oxford Brookes University, Oxford, UK, a Senior Fellow at the Melbourne School of Business, Melbourne University, Australia, and an Associate Fellow at the Säid School of Business, Oxford University, Oxford, UK. In 2007, Anthony was awarded the British Psychological Society Award for outstanding professional and scientific contribution to Coaching Psychology and in 2009 he was awarded the ‘Vision of Excellence Award’ from Harvard University (McLean Hospital) for his pioneering work in helping to develop a scientific foundation to coaching. He also plays loud (but not very good) blues guitar.

References

- Anderson, M.C. (2008). What ROI studies of executive coaching tell us. *The Linkage Leader*. Retrieved from http://www.linkageinc.com/thinking/linkageleader/Documents/Merrill_C_Anderson_What_ROI_Studies_of_Executive_Coaching_Tell_Us_1004.pdf
- Anderson, M.C. (2010). Evaluating the ROI of coaching. *Advancing Executive Coaching: Setting the Course for Successful Leadership Coaching*, 29, 351.
- Arakawa, D., & Greenberg, M. (2007). Optimistic managers and their influence on productivity and employee engagement in a technology organisation: Implications for coaching psychologists. *Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(1), 78.
- Baptiste, N.R. (2008). Tightening the link between employee wellbeing at work and performance: A new dimension for HRM. *Management Decision*, 46(2), 284–309.
- Bates, J., & Thompson, N. (2007). Workplace well-being: An occupational social work approach. *Illness, Crisis, Loss*, 15(3), 273–284.
- Cavanagh, M. (2005). Mental-health issues and challenging clients in executive coaching. In M. Cavanagh, A.M. Grant, & T. Kemp (Eds.), *Evidence-based coaching (vol. 1): Contributions from the behavioural sciences* (pp. 21–36). Bowen Hills: Australian Academic Press.
- Chouinard, E., & Walter, S. (1995). Recall bias in case-control studies: An empirical analysis and theoretical framework. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 48(2), 245–254.
- De Meuse, K.P., Dai, G., & Lee, R.J. (2009). Evaluating the effectiveness of executive coaching: Beyond ROI? *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(2), 117–134.
- Grant, A.M. (2003). The impact of life coaching on goal attainment, metacognition and mental health. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 31(3), 253–264.
- Grant, A.M., Green, L.S., & Rynsaardt, J. (2010). Developmental coaching for high school teachers: Executive coaching goes to school. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research* September, 62(3), 151–168.
- Grant, A.M., Passmore, J., Cavanagh, M.J., & Parker, H. (2010). The state of play in coaching today: A comprehensive review of the field. *International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 25, 125–168.
- Grant, A.M., & Spence, G.B. (2010). Using coaching and positive psychology to promote a flourishing workforce: A model of goal-striving and mental health. In P.A. Linley, S. Harrington, & N. Page (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of positive psychology and work* (pp. 175–188). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gyllensten, K., & Palmer, S. (2005). Can coaching reduce workplace stress: A quasi-experimental study. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 3(2), 75–85.

- Harter, J.K., Schmidt, F.L., & Keyes, C.L.M. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. In C.L.M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived* (pp. 205–224). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Hernez-Broome, G. (2010). *Advancing executive coaching: Setting the course for successful leadership coaching* (Vol. 29). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Infante-Rivard, C., & Jacques, L. (2000). Empirical study of parental recall bias. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 152(5), 480.
- Kampa-Kokesch, S., & Anderson, M.Z. (2001). Executive coaching: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4), 205–228.
- Keyes, C.L.M., & Haidt, J. (Eds.). (2003). *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kirkpatrick, D.L. (1977). Evaluating training programs: Evidence vs. proof. *Training and Development Journal*, 31(11), 9–12.
- Kirkpatrick, D. (1996). Great ideas revisited. *Training and Development*, 50(1), 54–59.
- Levenson, A. (2009). Measuring and maximizing the business impact of executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 61(2), 103–121.
- Linley, P., Nielsen, K.M., Gillett, R., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010). Using signature strengths in pursuit of goals: Effects on goal progress, need satisfaction, and well-being, and implications for coaching psychologists. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 5(1), 6–15.
- Lovibond, S.H., & Lovibond, P.F. (1995). *Manual for the depression anxiety stress scales*. Sydney: Psychology Foundation of Australia.
- Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 7(1), 63–74.
- Mathews, A., & Bradle, B. (1983). Mood and the self-reference bias in recall. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 21(3), 233–239.
- McGovern, J., Lindermann, M., Vergara, M.A., Murphy, S., Barker, L., & Warrenfelz, R. (2001). Maximizing the impact of executive coaching: Behavioral change, organizational outcomes and return on investment. *The Manchester Review*, 6(1), 1–9.
- Morwitz, V.G., & Fitzsimons, G.J. (2004). The mere-measurement effect: Why does measuring intentions change actual behavior? *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(1 & 2), 64–74.
- Ordóñez, L.D., Schweitzer, M.E., Galinsky, A.D., & Bazerman, M.H. (2009). Goals gone wild: The systematic side effects of over-prescribing goal setting. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, February, 6–16.
- Parker-Wilkins, V. (2006). Business impact of executive coaching: Demonstrating monetary value. *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 38, 122–127.
- Peterson, D.B., & Kraiger, K. (2004). A practical guide to evaluating coaching: Translating state of the art techniques to the real world. In J.E. Edwards, J.C. Scott, & N.S. Raju (Eds.), *The human resources program-evolution handbook* (pp. 262–282). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Phillips, J.J. (1997). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programs*. Woburn, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Phillips, J.J. (2007). Measuring the ROI of a coaching intervention. *Performance Improvement*, 46(10), 10–23.
- Rock, D., & Donde, R. (2008). Driving organisational change with internal coaching programmes: Part two. *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 40(2), 75–80.
- Ryff, C.D., & Keyes, C.L.M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719–727.
- Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4), 701–716.
- Schweitzer, M.E., Ordóñez, L., & Douma, B. (2004). Goal setting as a motivator of unethical behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3), 422–432.

- Tennant, R., Hiller, L., Fishwick, R., Platt, S., Joseph, S., Weich, S., & . . . Stewart-Brown, S. (2007). The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS): Development and UK validation. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 5(1), 63.
- Watson, D., Clark, L.A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063–1070.