

**The role of coaching in supporting team leader
development and team performance:
Skippers of a global sailing race
as a microcosm of
organisational team leadership**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements of the award of
the Professional Doctorate in Coaching and Mentoring
at Oxford Brookes University

September 2017

Acknowledgements

This research would not have been completed without the support of Clipper Ventures and Mission Performance and the race participants. I would like to convey my thanks to everyone who participated in the research.

My thanks also go to the academic staff at Oxford Brookes University, with special thanks to Elaine Cox, my director of studies; Ioanna Iordanou, my supervisor; David Bowen, Adrian Myers and the rest of the academic team who supported the journey with their wisdom and encouragement. I would also like to thank my colleagues on the programme, for their support, sharing of experience and friendship and to Jeanne Enslin and Ronel Gallie, my language and technical editors.

I give my final thanks to Bernard, my husband, who provided the support, motivation and love to keep me going through the journey. And to Arnaud, my son, who found the humour in the long process of studying as he completed his GCSEs in the final stretch of the journey.

Abstract

Coaching has developed into the fastest growing leadership development practice as organisations shift towards team-based organisational design. Despite the growth in coaching, a lack of clarity exists around developing team leadership. An evidence base is needed to support the development of both the coaching and team leadership development fields. However, the study of team leadership development is complex, as tensions exist in developing conceptual clarity in socially embedded contexts and understanding the temporal dimension of development. Gaps exist between leader and leadership development and between leadership and team coaching in both the sport and organisational contexts. There is also a gap between individual leader development and organisational performance, resulting in scepticism around the contribution of leadership development to organisational sustainability.

This exploratory research focused on a novel, real world instrumental case of coaching skippers in the turbulent context of a global sailing race, to offer a microcosm of team leadership development. A multi-level, temporal perspective contributes to understanding the complexity of developing transitioning leaders in socially embedded team contexts. A social constructionist perspective is considered relevant in interpreting the complexity and the findings are presented in thematic networks to illustrate the complexity.

Four findings were generated, which describe how coaching supports team leader development and team performance. Firstly, coaching supported team leader development for transitioning leaders by addressing the tension between expectations and experience. Secondly, coaching provided a protected space to make sense of experience. Development occurred across cognitive, affective and behavioural skills dimensions resulting in individual, relational and collective leadership. Thirdly, the experience of being coached contributed to the development of team

coaching capability, which supported the emergence of a coaching web and resulted in a coaching culture. Fourthly, by integrating team well-being, development and performance, the coaching aligned individual leader development with team performance. The Performance Development framework encapsulates the findings and offers a conceptual “compass” to guide practitioners and researchers in navigating the complexity of team leadership development to support team performance. More research is required to develop the conceptual framework to further integrate the coaching, leadership development and experiential learning theory.

Key words: coaching, team leadership, leader development, leadership development, team performance.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

BA	Bachelor of Arts
CCI-Q™	Clarity Culture Interdependence
CEO	chief executive officer
CVs	curricula vitae
GROW	Goal, Reality, Options and Will
ICF	International Coach Federation
ILM	Institute of Leadership and Management
IMOI	input-mediator-output-input
IPO	input-throughput-output
IT	Information technology
MAIB	Marine Accident Investigation Branch
MBA	Master of Business Administration
NLP	Neuro Linguistic Programming
PIS	Participant Information Sheet
QDAS	qualitative data analysis
RFU	Rugby Football Union
ROI	return on investment
RTW	Round the World
SCORE	Symptoms, Causes, Outcomes, Resources and Effects
SDI	Strengths Deployment Inventory
UK	United Kingdom
USD	United States Dollar

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Organisations invest significantly in leadership development, yet there is no clarity on how this contributes to organisational development and employee well-being. Whilst the body of leadership theory supporting leadership development is well developed and diverse, the focus is often individualistic, hierarchical, one-directional and decontextualised (DeRue, 2011). Several authors (Kolb, 2015; Hawkins, 2014; Kellerman, 2012; Kegan & Lahey, 2009) have questioned the legitimacy of the extant body of leadership theories and leadership development practices, and cited numerous examples of leadership and corporate failure in recent times. Copeland (2014:105) highlighted this issue by suggesting that the emergence of the 21st century was “plagued with extensive, evasive and disheartening leadership failures”. The evidence of leadership failures suggests that a knowledge gap exists in relation to how to develop leaders in contemporary organisations. Hackman and Wageman (2007:46) captured an emerging consensus in proposing that the key question in leadership studies is not “what should be taught in leadership courses, but *how* can leaders be helped to learn?”

There also appears to be no consensus on *what* constitutes leadership in the context of teams. Petrie (2014:6) posited that leadership development has become too “individually focused and elitist” and has called for the democratisation of leadership. Hackman (2012:428) proposed that researchers should “become more inventive in developing conceptual models and research strategies that respect the fact that groups are social systems”. Researchers studying leader development have started to respond to these challenges, although research on the topic lags behind the research and practice of leadership and is still in the early stages of

scientific development (Day & Dragoni, 2015). The specific challenges of developing team leaders are not adequately addressed, particularly for emerging team leaders. This challenge is becoming more crucial with the shift towards team-based organisational structures. This shift is recognised as the leading global human resource challenge for 2017, closely followed by leadership development, learning and improving the employee experience (Malley, 2017).

The conceptualisation of leadership extends beyond the individualistic, leader centric perspective, with scholars proposing a relational perspective to leadership. Day, Harrison and Halpin (2009:159) proposed that “leadership exists in the connections between individuals and is a function of the quantity and quality of relationships among a networked group of individuals”. McLaughlin and Cox (2016) have also recognised that there has been a shift in leadership towards a relational perspective and claimed that there is insufficient emphasis on developing this perspective in the literature at present. This view builds on Kegan’s (1994) and Kegan and Lahey’s (2009) assertion that leaders are in “over our heads”, as the growing demands placed on leaders are beyond the current understanding of leadership practice. This perspective is also supported by other scholars (McLaughlin & Cox, 2016; Tourish, 2012; Hawkins, 2014; Kellerman, 2012; Kolb, 2015).

It can be argued that this shift towards a relational perspective of leadership has contributed to the conceptual crises in the field of leadership, which is undermining the practice of leadership and leader development. There is no clarity on how, where or when to develop team leaders for the future. A further challenge for practitioners is *where* to focus leadership development efforts in team-based structures. Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm and McKee (2014) make a valuable distinction between leader and leadership development, with the former focusing on individual development and the latter focusing on system development. This distinction suggests a gap between individual leader development, and team development, which can

have consequences for the development of team leaders embedded in socially dynamic contexts.

It is in this mixed lack of clarity that exists around leader and leadership development that coaching has emerged as the fastest growing leader development process. Coaching has expanded exponentially over the past three decades, with the focus primarily on individual leader development, which mirrors the dominant focus on the individual leader in leadership theory. The estimated total global revenue from coaching in 2015 was 2,356 billion USD, representing a 19% increase over the 2011 estimate (International Coach Federation, 2016). The rapid growth in coaching calls for an evidence base to support practice (Theeboom, Beersma & Van Vianen, 2014; Hawkins, 2014; Grant, 2013). Criticism has been levelled at the decontextualised nature of leadership and executive coaching (Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Western, 2012). Team coaching has emerged in response to this critique, to address the challenges associated with supporting team development and performance in socially dynamic contexts. However, the practice of coaching teams has remained relatively unexplored in organisational contexts (Hawkins, 2014), which contrasts to the sports context, where team coaching is well developed. There is also an emerging focus on the team leader in the sports context, as it is recognised that the team leader is a key influencer of team performance.

A gap exists between leadership and team coaching, as leadership coaching addresses individual leader development, whilst team coaching addresses the collective development of a team, without specifically addressing the role of the team leader in the team. This gap is considered significant, as the 2016 International Coach Federation (ICF) survey indicated that over half of the professional coaches work with team leaders, yet there is no clarity on how to coach leaders who are socially embedded in teams. There also appears to be no research focused on the role of coaching in supporting leaders as they transition from technical specialist to team leader. Team leaders are often chosen for leadership positions

because they are in some way technically gifted (McLaughlin & Cox, 2016:10), without due attention being given to the skills required to lead a socially, dynamic team.

Although the fundamental concept of learning is inherent to coaching and most human development theories (Debebe, 2011; Kegan, 1994; Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Kolb, 1984, 2015; Cox, 2013), there is no clarity on how leaders learn, particularly in a team context and how this contributes to team performance. Grint (2010:8) proposed that coaches can support leaders in challenging them to “step outside our world to see something differently – to act experimentally”. Furthermore, Torrez and Rocco (2015) suggested that effective leadership requires less focus on tactile skills and outcomes, and instead centres on learning as a critical capacity, or what Fink (2013) calls “learning how to learn”. Kolb (2015:2) suggested that a “frontloaded” educational strategy is obsolete and that learning to adapt to the new “rules of the game” is becoming as critical as performing well under the old rules as the world shifts towards a “future learning society”.

Whilst coaching has emerged as the fastest growing leadership development process, there is no clarity on which type of coaching is relevant in developing leaders in a team context. Further, Tourish (2012) and Hawkins (2014) recognised the need to link leader development to team performance, as coaching has been criticised for a lack of rigour in assessing the outcomes of interventions. This research study has addressed the knowledge gaps surrounding the role of coaching in supporting leader development and team performance and is situated within the team leadership development literature in both the organisational and sports contexts.

1.2. Motivation for the research

Theory development is motivated by the need to make sense of experience. Dubin (1976) suggested that theory development is an attempt to model some aspect of the empirical world. The underlying motivation is

that the complexity of the real world needs to be conceptually simplified in order to understand it; or that observation alone does not reveal ordered relationships amongst the different individuals. Building on Dubin's (1976) perspective, I was motivated by the lack of clarity around effective team leader development processes for contemporary organisations. The research has been a persistent, disciplined effort to make sense and order out of the phenomena of subjective experience to contribute to Kolb's (2015) vision of a future learning society.

1.3. The aim of the study

The aim of the research was to explore the role of coaching in supporting the development of race skippers in leading their teams during a global, amateur sailing race to contribute to team performance. The research question that guided the study is: How can coaching support team leader development and team performance in the context of a global sailing race and how can this contribute to our understanding of developing team leadership in an organisational context?

The objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To critically review the literature relating to the development of team leaders, with a particular focus on team and leadership coaching in both the organisational and sports contexts;
2. To conduct an empirical case study to understand the role of coaching in supporting the development of team leaders and how this contributes to team performance; and
3. To contribute to the theory of coaching and team leader development by developing a conceptual framework to guide future practice and research.

1.4. Pre-existing knowledge and assumptions

The research was informed by my experience of leading dynamic teams for 28 years in South Africa and being a crew member on the 2013/2014 Clipper Round the World Sailing Race (Rio to Cape Town). In comparing and contrasting my experience of team leadership with the experiences of the race skippers, common challenges can be identified. Firstly, the team leader has the responsibility of balancing team well-being with performance. Secondly, the team leader is expected to develop adaptive skills to manage the complexity arising from a dynamic context. Thirdly, there is the expectation that the team leader will coach the team, often in a challenging context which is not conducive to supporting learning and development. These common challenges suggest that the sailing context offers a relevant microcosm to study team leadership.

During the race, I was surprised at the different perceptions that team members had of the skipper and the race experience and how these shifted as the race progressed. This awareness contributed to my understanding that one reality does not exist; rather, we each make sense of our experiences in relation to our previous experiences and worldview. As a consequence of this experience, I chose constructionism as a research epistemology, to ensure that the assumptions guiding the research were informed by the insights of others involved in the race. As a constructionist, I am aware that the research was influenced by my experience and underlying assumptions and that these informed the study. Key assumptions include the following:

Leadership and intellect are not fixed constructs; rather these constructs are developed through the emergent process of learning that generates development over time. It is assumed that experience does not automatically result in learning and development. Development by its very nature involves a process of change that unfolds over time and any research of leader development needs to recognise the temporal dimension of development. Leader and leadership development are holistic and not

limited to the development of leadership skills and competencies, as leaders cannot be understood solely in terms of their component parts or skills and competencies. Coaching provides the potential to support learning and development, by offering a supportive relationship.

1.5. The context

Leadership does not exist in a vacuum and any theory development requires contextualisation (Holton & Lowe, 2007; Geier, 2016). Johns (2006:386) defined context as the “situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organisational behaviour as well as the functional relationship between the variables”. Kihl, Leberman and Schull (2010:243) suggested that leadership should be “considered in the context within which it occurs and take into account the socially constructed meanings associated with leadership”. Porter and McLaughlin (2006) also found that while there has been greater recognition of the importance of context in leadership research in the past 15 years, context has continued to be neglected as a major factor in empirical leadership research.

As leadership is contextually embedded and socially dynamic (DeRue, 2011), challenges exist for researchers in defining the scope of the research as organisational boundaries are blurred. Environmental contingencies exist and there are multiple contributing factors influencing performance (Day, Harrison & Halpin, 2012). For this reason, a global sailing race was considered relevant as this context offered a clearly bounded context where the central themes have been simplified and amplified. The novel setting offered the opportunity to study the temporal dimension of team leader development, which is recognised to take time (Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Kolb, 2015), and addressed the call from Tannenbaum, Beard, McNall and Salas (2010:20) for more case study research of team leader development “in the wild”. The study focused on the coaching interaction between the external coaching team and the race skippers of the Clipper Round the World sailing race. The race is the longest round the world race (40 000 nautical miles) and is recognised as

one of the biggest challenges of the natural world, testing the endurance of the skippers and crews. The leadership challenge is complicated by the fact that the race skippers have professional sailing experience and their key challenge is to manage a dynamic, diverse crew of amateur sailors.

By recognising the importance of context, attention is drawn to the fact that leadership theories cannot necessarily be transferred from one environment to another, and that people within different settings influence the leadership that they experience (Kihl *et al.*, 2010). In another study, Graça and Passos (2015) drew attention to the central role of context in researching team leadership and called for theoretical leadership models that are grounded by contextual characteristics. Graça and Passos (2015) recognised that most studies that mentioned context focused on individual approaches to leadership, or on the interpersonal level, and did not consider the role of team leadership. Morgeson, DeRue and Karam (2010) also drew attention to the contextual dimensions of team structure, composition, and design. Porter and McLaughlin (2006), in their review of the literature on the influence of contextual influences on leadership, which ranged from 1990 to 2005, concluded that 65% of all the reviewed articles had no emphasis at all on organisational context, whilst only 16% of the articles strongly emphasised contextual dimensions, such as: culture/climate; goals/purposes; people/composition; processes; state/condition; structure and time.

Researchers (Day, Gordon & Fink, 2012, Wolfe, Weick, Usher, Terborg, Poppo *et al.*, 2005; Kiedl, 1987) view sport as a simplified, microcosm of larger society. Day, Gordon *et al.* (2012) identified over 40 empirical studies situated in the sports context, which have been published in the organisation sciences from 1963-2011, which is double the volume identified by Wolfe *et al.* (2005) in their review. Day, Gordon *et al.* (2012) contended that sport offers a type of controlled “living laboratory” to study individuals and groups, as sports contexts are defined by explicit and agreed-upon rules, clearly defined boundaries where the action occurs and

clear performance indicators. Further, the gap between the sports and organisational contexts is blurring with the professionalisation of sport, where sports coaches must demonstrate leadership (Burnes & O'Donnell, 2011). Business leaders are also now considered as corporate athletes (Loehr & Schwartz, 2001). Both contexts are concerned with the central themes of competition and cooperation, with leadership being considered influential on performance. Competition is endemic in organisations and Day, Gordon *et al.* (2012) confirmed that the knowledge base represented by the empirical research is heavily skewed in the direction of studying performance, highlighting the need for deeper understanding of the role of cooperation in competitive environments. The sports context thus provides a relevant microcosm for researching team leadership development and performance.

1.6. Research design

The research design was informed by an interpretivist, constructionist research position, which recognises the central role of context and multiple perspectives in influencing the research study (Crotty, 1998). The study was exploratory in nature, to develop understanding of the complex, multifaceted constructs of coaching, team leadership, leader development and team performance. An inductive, qualitative research design was considered appropriate and drew on Rogers' (1959:189) approach of trying to wrest from the phenomena of experience, the inherent order which is contained therein. An instrumental case study design (Stake, 1995) was chosen as it offers the opportunity to explore the complexity of team leader development in a clearly bounded (Crotty, 1998; Babbie & Mouton, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Yin, 2009) and natural setting, where a number of external influencing factors have been controlled by the race organisers, to ensure that performance is primarily determined by team work and the team leadership by the race skippers.

Multiple data sources were used to develop a multi-stakeholder perspective on the key themes within the case study. Participants were purposively selected from different groups, including the skippers, the crew, the race organisers and the coaching team. Interviews were conducted with 50 participants and data were also collected from the daily skipper blogs and company documents. The first phase of the research focused on developing an in-depth understanding of the race context by developing a case description and pre-fieldwork preparation. The second phase focused on reviewing the daily skipper blogs and interviewing the race organisers, the coaches and conducting pilot interviews. The third phase focused on interviewing a sample of crew and reviewing the final skipper blogs from the last ocean crossing. The final phase focused on interviewing the eight original race skippers and a skipper who had resigned from the race. Follow-up interviews with the coaches were also conducted to elicit member reflections. All interviews were semi-structured to allow the participants to express their perceptions of the race experience, team leadership and coaching. I transcribed all the interviews and the transcriptions were sent to the participants, who were invited to offer additional reflections. The data were analysed using a thematic analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2006), to develop themes and draw conclusions. These themes were developed into thematic networks (Attride-Stirling, 2001), which offered a visual representation of the data to facilitate the emergence of global themes. These themes informed the development of a conceptual framework to contribute to the fields of coaching and team leader development.

1.7. Definition of key terms

Day and Dragoni (2015) contended that the field of leadership development is being undermined by the lack of shared understanding of basic definitions, theoretical orientations, and relevant indicators of leadership development. To address this concern, the following definitions are offered to contribute to construct clarity:

Coaching can be defined as “a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the client and potentially for other stakeholders” (Bachkirova, Cox & Clutterbuck, 2014:1). Leadership coaching can be defined as a “one-to-one adult development process that uses appropriate strategies and techniques to optimise, enhance and transform individual leader understanding for the benefit of leaders themselves, their organisations and, ultimately, the society in which they operate” (McLaughlin & Cox, 2016:3). Knowles, Holton and Swanson (2011:11) defined adult learning as “the extension and clarification of the meaning of one’s experience”. These definitions highlight understanding as a critical development process but do not address the impact on teams. In contrast, Clutterbuck (2011) defined the role of the team coach as a catalyst who stimulates open dialogue in the team, providing support for the team to define its purpose and priorities, understand the environment, identify performance barriers, create a team learning plan, develop confidence, and internalise coaching. This definition addresses the team context, but does not take account of the role of the team leader in influencing the team. A central theme throughout these coaching definitions is facilitated learning and development to support understanding and action, which aligns to leader development. According to Day and Dragoni (2015:134), scholars have defined leader development as the “expansion of the capacity of individuals to be effective in leadership roles and processes”, whilst leadership development was defined by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010:20) as “the growth of a collective’s capacity to produce direction, alignment and commitment”.

For the context of this study, team leader development draws on the definition of leader development and refers to the specific development of the team leader, who is socially embedded in a team. Further, leadership is defined as “the dynamic, enabling-constraining process that occurs between people rather than the sole function of the individual leader” (Kartoch, 2013:164). Day and Dragoni (2015:135) support this perspective

and recognise that leadership, at its most fundamental level, is a “social influence process”. According to Salas, Stagl and Burke (2004:343), the focus is shifting to team leadership, which is recognised as distinct from organisational leadership and has emerged as a form of “social problem solving that promotes coordinated, adaptive team performance by facilitating goal definition and attainment”. Leaders and followers play important and interdependent roles in generating leadership. Leadership can be described as a mutually influencing process (DeRue, 2011; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; McCauley *et al.*, 2010) that enables teams and organisations to “navigate the complexity of their internal and external environments” (Day & Dragoni, 2015:146). Further, leadership is a system of adaptation and coordination, which emerges through harnessing the dynamic tensions within the team to forge broader capacity for direction, alignment and commitment (Ancona, Backman & Isaacs, 2015). Day and Dragoni (2015:135) distinguished between leadership development and leadership effectiveness, which is a performance-based outcome and can take myriad forms, depending on the particular context and underlying challenges. Team performance is considered a multi-stakeholder construct and refers to the team’s performance, relative to competitors. For the context of this study, performance is represented by the overall race position after completing the race.

Teams are defined as “intact social systems that perform one or more tasks within an organizational context” (Clutterbuck, 2011:38). Kozlowski and Bell (2013:5) suggested that teams consist of individuals who share one or more common goals and accomplish tasks in an interdependent way. McGrath, Arrow and Berdahl (2000) recognised teams as complex, adaptive, dynamic systems, which draws attention to the social dynamics of team leadership. In the sports context, athlete leadership has emerged to define the role of the team leader, which is defined as “an athlete, occupying a formal or informal role within a team, who influences a group of team members to achieve a common goal” (Loughead, Hardy & Eys, 2006:144). For the context of this study, a team is defined as the sailing

team, led by a professional race skipper. The research was informed by studies in which i) the teams and/or the team leader were used as the focus of the study in a work or sports context; ii) the team leader was part of the team and assigned the formal authority of being the team leader; iii) the coach was external to the team; iv) the team was spatially bounded, not virtual; v) the team members were not considered a group of experts (for example medical operating teams, airlines teams) or self-managed; and vi) the teams were adults in work and/or sports contexts, as the study focused on adult development.

1.8. A guide to the chapters in the thesis

The next chapter provides an overview of the literature, which informed the study. The literature review presents theoretical perspectives and empirical studies on coaching (leadership and team), team leadership, leader development and team performance in organisational and sporting contexts.

Chapter 3 reviews the research strategy, including the theoretical foundation which informed the research, the research design and methodology. An overview is provided of the participants that were selected for the study, the data collection methods, and the process of data analysis.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the research context, as context is considered central to understanding the relationships between coaching, team leadership, and team performance. The description of the context represents the first phase of the data analysis, as the development of the context description required the crafting of voluminous data from multiple sources into a coherent account of the race context.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 provide an overview of the research findings that were informed by the data analysis and include *verbatim* quotations from the data to support the core findings. The findings within these chapters are

visually represented by the thematic networks, to describe the complexity associated with each area of interest.

Chapter 8 concludes the research study with a discussion of the findings, which are integrated into a conceptual framework to contribute to an evidence base for coaching team leaders and to inform future practice. The chapter indicates how the research question has been answered and outlines the contribution that the study has made to theoretical, practical, and methodological knowledge, and highlights areas for future research. The limitations of the study are also outlined.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the literature relating to coaching, team leadership, leadership development and team performance across both the organisational and sporting contexts. The review highlights the emergent themes, the knowledge gaps and areas requiring further research. Scholarly work was reviewed to compare and contrast the theory and empirical research across both contexts. The review was conducted using computerised searches with the following search terms in a series of combinations: coaching and leader development; team or athlete leader(s)* or race skippers; organisational or work or sports or sailing context. Peer reviewed articles were sourced from Google Scholar and a range of databases, including Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Education Research Complete, Emerald Insight and PsychINFO to develop an understanding of how coaching supports team leaders and enables performance in different contexts. The ProQuest database for dissertations and theses was also used to search for unpublished research reports. Additional articles were sourced from the reference lists of relevant articles to further explore themes.

The structure of the literature review is described in Figure 2.1. The first section focuses on the purpose, process and outcomes of coaching team leaders, and draws on the literature of leadership coaching, team coaching, and sport coaching. Attention is given to the emergence of team coaching in the organisational context, which is considered a distinctive form of coaching to address the social dynamics relating to a team context. The next section reviews team leadership across both the sport and organisational contexts and includes an overview of the challenges that skippers face in leading teams in an ocean race. The third section reviews the field of leader development in both the organisational and sports'

contexts, as it is recognised that teams exist in context and perform across time (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson & Jundt, 2005). The final section reviews the relationship between team leader development and team performance.

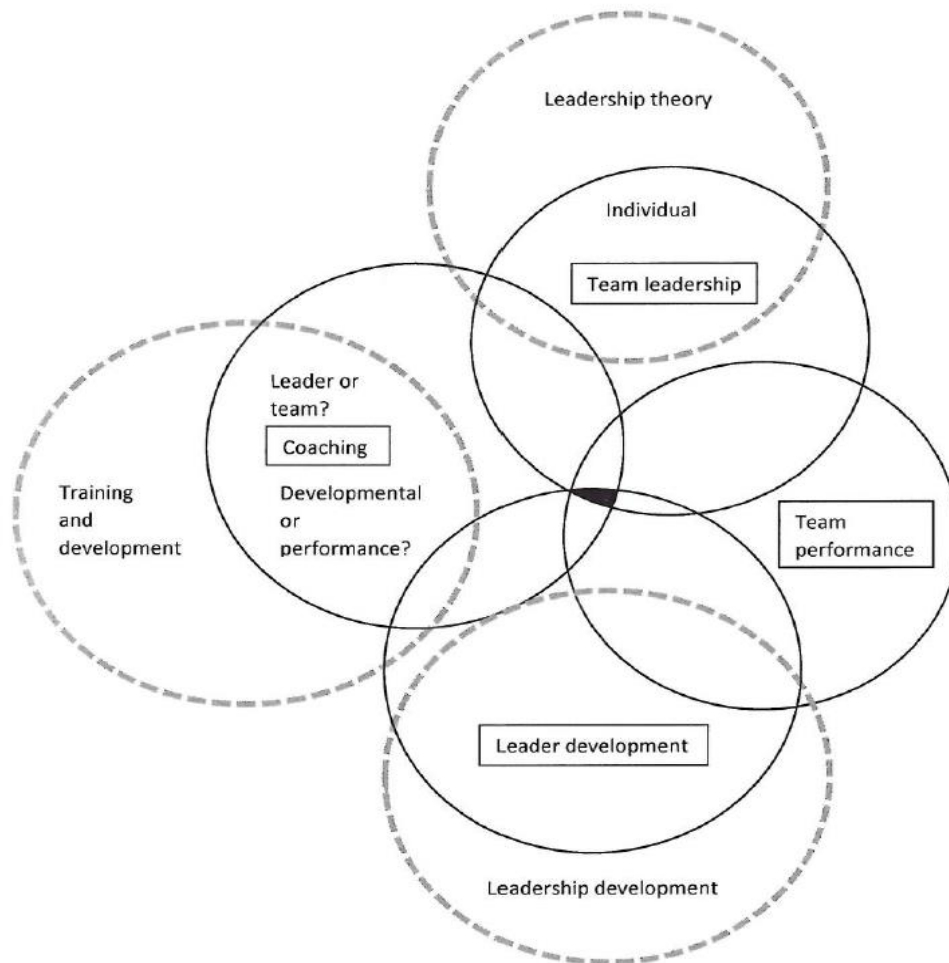


Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework describing the literature review

2.2. Coaching in organisational contexts

Coaching is considered useful for both individual and organisational development (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2014; Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh & Parker, 2010) and is also considered a critical leadership

competency (Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Grant & Hartley, 2016). Theeboom *et al.* (2014) recently completed a critical review of coaching, which builds on the previous review of Fillery-Travis and Lane (2006). These scholars concluded that coaching is effective and that it is time to shift attention from the question “does it work?” to “how does it work?”

Scholars offer a range of outcomes that can be achieved from coaching. Grant (2013), for example, focused on engagement and well-being, while Cox (2013) drew attention to the learning and development that can be achieved with coaching. Bozer and Sarros (2012) contended that the lack of a systematic empirical review of research on coaching outcomes raises scepticism about the effectiveness of coaching. Other scholars recognise that there is no consensus on the outcomes that can be achieved by coaching (Fillery-Travis & Passmore, 2011; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). Grant (2013) contributed to this debate and noted that most studies are conducted by practitioners, where validated outcome measures are seldom used. Further, he suggested that studies often lack a firm theoretical foundation.

The meta-analysis conducted by Theeboom *et al.* (2014) focused on the effects of coaching on individual level outcomes. They identified only one previous quantitative review of coaching outcomes by De Meuse, Dai and Lee (2009), which focused on assessing the success of coaching in terms of its return on investment (ROI). They challenged this outcome measure of coaching, as it ignores contextual dimensions such as team input. Further, performance measures are seldom available and difficult to link directly to the coaching intervention. They cited research studies that support the inclusion of proximal indicators of functioning, such as team well-being, coping, work and career-related attitudes, and goal-directed, self-regulation. The key coaching outcomes identified by Theeboom *et al.* (2014) include performance/skills, well-being, coping, work attitudes, and goal-directed self-regulation. Whilst they cited the work of De Haan, Culpin and Curd (2011) who identified that the ultimate aim of coaching is to

facilitate deep-level changes and learning, the key outcomes in their review did not include learning. The outcome of learning and personal growth was identified as an outcome in only three of the 18 studies included in the meta-analysis. Learning is implicitly assumed to occur in coaching, without sufficient attention being given to the process of learning and development that occurs within coaching.

In reviewing the literature on coaching outcomes, the outcomes can be grouped into two distinct groups: individual development/well-being and goal-directed, collective performance coaching. There appears to be a gap between developmental coaching, which is focused on individual growth and development (Cox & Jackson, 2014) and skills and performance coaching (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Theeboom *et al.* (2014) also identified limitations in the coaching research, including the lack of a temporal dimension to the studies. These authors also called for the incorporation of perspectives from a range of disciplines to address the need for more theoretical development to support the field of coaching. Further, they suggested that research concerning the design of coaching interventions may benefit from the theories of adult learning and development. Their study was limited to assessing the impact of individual-level benefits of coaching, without consideration for the 'spillover' effects that coaching could have on other people in the team/organisation. The authors support Grant's (2013) contention that the biggest overall limitation of the coaching literature is the lack of rigorous examinations showing the causal mechanisms by which coaching interventions are effective.

The review of these meta-studies highlights the complexity of studying the outcomes of coaching. However, most of these studies have neglected the role of context in influencing coaching outcomes. In broadening the scope of the literature review, an inductive, qualitative study by Petriglieri, Wood and Petriglieri (2011) was identified, which highlighted the role of context in leader development. Whilst this empirical study focused on the role of counselling, it does offer some insight into the role of context in influencing

leader development. The study identified the theoretical constructs of a regressive domain, which is defined as a social context that provokes and amplifies individuals' experience, and the existence of a holding environment to enable personal learning. Further, the study highlighted the potential to reframe challenges in the regressive domain into growth opportunities for leader development. This research design suggested the potential to study the role of coaching in supporting the race skippers to address the challenges of leading their teams, by contrasting the potentially regressive environment of race sailing with the holding environment provided by the coaching. McLaughlin and Cox (2016) support this contextual perspective and suggested that the coach can hold the right kind of environment for the leader.

Whilst the literature on leadership coaching is relevant to organisational leaders, there appears to be a gap in the literature on how to coach team leaders who are embedded in the social dynamics of teams. This gap in addressing team dynamics has resulted in the emergence of team coaching, as an emerging trend in coaching. Authors on team coaching (Clutterbuck, 2009; Thornton, 2010; Hawkins, 2014) recognise the role of the team leader in team coaching. However, there is no clarity on how coaches should engage with the team leader, when considering team development.

Peters and Carr (2013) confirmed that the academic literature on team coaching has not grown much since Grant's annotated bibliography in 2009, at which time there were only six studies out of 518 total coaching studies that specifically had the term "team coaching" in their description. Further, Peters and Carr (2013) confirmed that four general academic studies have concluded that team coaching does have a positive impact on a team's performance and processes. Tannenbaum *et al.* (2010) suggested that teams must become more proficient at learning from experience, by taking advantage of informal, learning opportunities. This requires a conscious intent to learn, gather feedback, and reflect upon experience.

However, these authors did not explore the role of the team leader in team development.

Hackman and Wageman (2005) developed a theory of team coaching, which focuses on the functions that coaching serves for a team, and describes the types of coaching required, the temporal dimensions and the impact of context on team coaching. These authors described the behaviours of team leaders, which include structuring the team and establishing its purpose, arranging for the resources needed by the team, and removing organisational roadblocks to performance, helping individual members strengthen their personal contributions to the team and working with the team as a whole to help members use their collective resources well in pursuing team purposes. Further, the authors suggested that team coaching is a distinct and consequential aspect of team leadership. The theoretical model is informed by a study of 268 task-performing teams in 88 organisations, where Wageman, Hackman and Lehman (2004) found that coaching the team as a whole came in last as a team leadership activity. The evidence suggests that leaders focus their behaviour less on team coaching than on other aspects of team leadership, which could be the result of underestimating the potential benefits of coaching or a lack of 'leader as coach' skills. Whilst the model highlights the role of leader as coach, it does not explicate how to develop these leadership skills in a team context.

To address this knowledge gap, Stacey (2007) called for more focus on the actual processes of interdependence, rather than focusing on the process perspective suggested by Hackman and Wageman (2005). Hawkins (2014:28), however, argued against this approach and warned against an overemphasis on the personal and interpersonal dimensions. He suggested a greater focus on the team raising its collective performance. "We often act in the belief that if we create an effective team they will create a great endeavour, whereas increasingly I realise it is a great challenging endeavour that creates the high-performing team". This perspective

highlights the complexity in understanding the interrelationships, processes and causal relationships between coaching, team leadership, leader development and team performance.

Practitioners have also contributed some case studies to the team coaching literature (Carr & Peters, 2012; Haug, 2011; Woodhead, 2011; Anderson, Anderson & Mayo, 2008; Blattner & Bacigalupo, 2007; Clutterbuck, 2011; Kegan & Lahey, 2009; Mulec & Roth, 2005). Key outcomes identified in these case studies included learning, decision making, information sharing, communication, improved positive regard for each other, and individual contributions (Peters & Carr, 2013). These case studies offer insight into the role of coaching in supporting and developing teams and also offer a foundation for exploring how coaching can support race skippers in the context of a global sailing race. A comparison of the practitioner-based case studies with the academic studies highlights that case study participants most often focused on the interpersonal relationships and communication benefits they experienced (Peters & Carr, 2013), which contrasts with Hackman and Wageman's (2005) process-based perspective to team development.

Clutterbuck (2013) noted that some observers contest the validity of team coaching as a genre, on the basis that it is no more than facilitation or team development, and that the essence of coaching is an individual process. This debate suggests the focus of team coaching should be on developing the team leader, who has ultimate responsibility for the team's performance. Hawkins (2011) recommended that coaching the team leader is important to team coaching and the development of the team leader's coaching skills.

In summary, coaching is considered useful for both individual and team development and more research is required to understand how coaching works. A range of coaching outcomes exists and there appears to be a gap between individual, developmental and goal-directed performance coaching. There are different coaching genres and it appears that a gap

exists between leadership and team coaching. Team coaching is emergent and questions have been raised about the validity of this coaching genre. Whilst the literature acknowledges the impact of the context and social dynamics on team performance, there does not appear to be any evidence of the importance of coaching the team leader, to address the specific challenges of managing the social dynamics within the team context.

2.3. Sports coaching

Sports coaching has been recognised as a key influencer of organisational coaching (Gallwey, 1974; Whitmore, 1992) and includes a range of behaviours. Barnson (2014) cited a number of sport coaching researchers to describe these behaviours, including: instructing (Gallimore & Tharp, 2004); motivating (Becker, 2009); goal-setting/talent development (Christensen, 2009; Christensen & Henriksen, 2013); and organising/planning (Abraham, Collins & Martindale, 2006). Whilst sports coaching is well established as a field of coaching, the role of coaching the athlete leader is under-researched (Chelladurai, 2013; Cotterill & Fransen, 2016). Most athlete leadership research to date has focused on leadership analysis before or after the game and Cotterill and Fransen (2016) suggested that more elaborate knowledge is required on how leaders impact their teammates during the game and across time. These authors also suggested studying the flow of emotions and the impact of these emotions on the team over time.

Multiple tensions exist as part of the sport coaching process. Examples of tension include individual versus collective goal setting (Jones & Wallace, 2005); collaboration versus competition; and formal versus informal coaching education contexts (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001). As sports contexts become more pressurised, fast paced and competitive, the expectations on coaches become more complex and the contradictory tensions become increasingly relevant and persistent (Barnson, 2014). Some scholars (Palmer, 2007; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989; Lewis, 2000) have embraced paradox as a powerful and provocative lens for understanding the different

tensions that arise in coaching. In fact, Lyle and Vergeer (2013) argued that a generalised definition of coaching is implausible, given the divergence of perspectives in coaching science and the range of coaching behaviours. Barnson (2014) proposed that a theory of coaching paradox offered a unifying framework as a response to the diversity in coaching approaches and theories. Without this unifying framework, the field of sports coaching science “may well become a hodge-podge of theoretical camps that only foster the divide between researchers and more troubling, between theorist and practicing coaches” (Barnson, 2014:381). He suggested that researchers should ask what tensions are embedded within the coaching approach and how/why these tensions are experienced and managed by coaches.

Educational scholar, Parker Palmer (2007:65), also highlighted the potential of paradox theory: “in certain circumstances, truth is found not by splitting the world into either-or but by embracing it as both-and”. Despite an increase in research from a paradox perspective in other domains, such as organisational/business management (Griswell & Jennings, 2009; Smith & Lewis, 2011), researchers in the field of sports coaching have been less explicit in describing tensions from a paradox perspective. Barnson (2014) proposed a conceptual framework that describes the process of coaching, where coaches appear to use the paradoxical energy of past versus future, inner versus outer, and beliefs versus action to encourage reflection and behaviour change. Coaches achieve a sense of accomplishment through a compounding process by employing different actions, simultaneously pushing athletes to see future possibilities while also re-setting the environment to reflect on past learned skills.

In summary, team coaching is well established in sports coaching, but there appears to be a gap in coaching team leaders in the sports context. Further, this field recognises that a general definition of coaching is implausible, given the divergence of perspectives. The theory of coaching

paradox is offered as a unifying framework to address the paradoxical tensions that exist in the field of coaching.

2.4. Team leadership

Team leadership has emerged as an important competency for managers in contemporary organisations. Scholars (Day, Zaccaro & Halpin, 2004; Kozlowski, Mak & Chao, 2016) have recognised the distinctiveness of team leadership from organisational leadership and there has been a consistent increase in research on team-centric leadership over the past two decades (Day, 2012). Although teams are a common structure required in workplaces today, many leaders are unaware of how best to lead their teams to high performance (Wageman, Nunes, Burruss & Hackman, 2008). Day *et al.* (2004) contended that the broader, extant leadership literature focuses on how leaders manage individual subordinates, without describing the social dynamics that impact on the relationship between the leader and the team. Further, they confirmed that traditional leadership theory assumes team member roles and linkages are loosely connected, whereas team leadership is characterised by tight interdependencies and subsequent coordination requirements of team members. Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cohen (2012:20) recognised that the research on team dynamics has developed, but they raised the question of whether research and practice are evolving fast enough to address the changes in teams, relating to more fluid, dynamic and complex environments than in the past. They advocated for rich case studies where teams are examined “in the wild”, under extreme conditions, as this places heightened pressures on their strengths and vulnerabilities.

DeRue (2011) presented a theory of team leadership, which illustrates how this interdependence is fundamental to understanding how leadership processes emerge and evolve in groups. The multi-level theoretical model depicts the emergence and evolution of leading-following processes in groups, which describes the fluid, interactional process of contextually embedded leadership and identifies the outcomes of identities and

relationships, which define the group-level structures. The interacting acts of leading and following are embedded within an environment that spans across at least three levels of analysis: task, relational and organisational. Further, the model draws on the theories of complex social systems (Buckley, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Weick, 1979) which recognise that effectiveness is a function of the organisation of components and how these components, through their reinforcing interactions, enable the social system to develop and adapt. The model disputes the assumption of a shared goal offered by scholars (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010) in routinely defining leadership as a social process of mutual and reciprocal influence in service to accomplishing a collective goal. Rather, the model draws on the work of Wallace (1970), which suggests that social structures emerge as individuals realise that, in order to achieve their individual goals, they must come together and engage in a common and interdependent set of actions. The issue of causality is also addressed, suggesting that leadership may be the result of followership, which aligns with Kellerman's (2012) call for focusing on followership.

Consensus is also forming around conceptualising team leadership from a functional perspective (Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro, Levin, Korotkin *et al.*, 1991; Hackman, 2012; Zaccaro, Rittman & Marks, 2001; Kozlowski *et al.*, 2016), which can be described in terms of task and developmental roles (Kozlowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1996). Team leaders display either task accomplishment behaviour or serve to create an enabling performance environment for the development of team members (Salas *et al.*, 2004).

A different perspective is offered by Morgeson *et al.* (2010), who proposed a framework of leadership functions, which is integrated into two different phases – transition and action performance cycles, corresponding to the different task cycles of a team. Graça and Passos (2015) recognised the relevance of this framework, as attention is drawn to the temporal aspects of team functioning, and to the consideration of the context that teams

operate in. These authors drew on this framework to explore team leadership across the contrasting contexts of multidisciplinary child protection teams in the non-profit sector and teams from an international information technology (IT) company. Both sectors were chosen for their turbulent operating environment and the study highlighted the need for coaches and leader development practitioners to consider context when they intervene in team development. Their findings indicated that there are differences in team leadership functions, depending on the purpose of the team. The study called for further research in exploring team leadership in other contexts, and also studying the sources of leadership within a team.

2.4.1. Team leadership in the sports context

Whilst team coaching is well developed in the sports context, there is a knowledge gap around the role of the team leader. Chelladurai (2013) identified this knowledge gap and noted that scholars have not studied leadership in the sports sciences, despite the existence of extensive team coaching. Chelladurai (2009) developed a multidimensional, theoretical model of leadership for the sports' context, which recognises the role of context, leader and team member characteristics in influencing team leadership. Performance is defined by both the team's performance and team members' satisfaction. More recently, Cotterill and Fransen (2016) explored the role of the team leader in the sports context and recognised that leadership is a fundamental aspect of sports performance, particularly within team sport environments. Athlete leaders can have a significant impact upon a range of team-related factors, including team confidence (Fransen, Coffee, Vanbeselaere, Slater, De Cuyper *et al.*, 2014; Fransen, Haslam, Steffens, Vanbeselaere, De Cuyper *et al.*, 2015; Fransen, Steffens, Haslam, Vanbeselaere, Vande Broek *et al.*, 2015); team resilience (Morgan, Fletcher & Sakar, 2013, 2015); team functioning (Edmonds, Tenenbaum, Kamata & Johnson, 2009); team satisfaction and team dynamics (Aoyagi, Cox & McGuire, 2008; Eys, Loughhead & Hardy, 2007); task and social cohesion (Loughhead, Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck,

Hoffmann & Boen, 2015); performance (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011); external perceptions of effective leadership (Schneider, Ehrhart & Ehrhart, 2002); and the motivational climate within the team (Crozier, Loughhead & Munroe-Chandler, 2013; Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck, Loughhead, Vanbeselaere, De Cuyper *et al.*, 2015, Fransen, Vanbeselaere, Exadaktylos, Vande Broek, De Cuyper *et al.*, 2012; Price & Weiss, 2011, 2013; Vincer & Loughhead, 2010). Athlete leaders have also been shown to ensure high standards and a strong work ethic, to help the team to handle adversity, to help to develop better team chemistry, to help the coach to better understand the team, and to help minimise and manage conflict (Dupuis, Bloom & Loughhead, 2006). Task-related behaviours such as effective communication skills, guiding group tasks, and fostering goal attainment have also been established as key elements for leader effectiveness (Price & Weiss, 2011).

Cotterill and Fransen (2016) drew attention to the importance of emphasising that athlete leaders do not lead in a social vacuum, but instead are embedded in a web of interpersonal relationships with their teammates and coach. They suggested that leadership in a sports context is thus a socially constructed phenomenon, which is highly dependent on the surrounding context. A study by Kihl *et al.* (2010) explored stakeholders' constructions of leadership within the context of an intercollegiate athletic department and drew attention to the multiple, context-specific perspectives on leadership. Kihl *et al.* (2010) confirmed that the linking of stakeholders' perceptions of leadership appears to be absent in the sporting context. One approach to addressing the social complexity of team leadership is the social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which originated in organisational settings and focused on team identification as the essential key to influencing followers (Haslam, Reicher & Platow, 2011). Team identification refers to the extent to which team members define themselves in terms of the group membership. Although the social identity approach originated in organisational settings, recent findings in sport settings also demonstrate that effective athlete leaders strengthen their teammates' identification within their team

(Steffens, Haslam, Reicher, Platow, Fransen *et al.*, 2014). By creating a shared sense of 'us' within the team, athlete leaders strengthen their impact on teammates' team confidence and performance (Fransen, Coffee *et al.*, 2014; Fransen, Haslam *et al.*, 2014).

Whilst the role differentiation theory, introduced by Bales and Slater (1955), has existed for a long time, only a few researchers have integrated the different roles into athlete leadership research (Cotterill & Fransen, 2016). Cotterill and Fransen (2016) noted that two types of athlete leaders have been distinguished in work groups according to their function: leaders with an instrumental function, who are focused on the accomplishments of the group tasks; and leaders with an expressive function, who are concerned with interpersonal relationships. Loughhead *et al.* (2006) extended the categorisation to include a third external leadership role, where the leader represents the team's interests in communication with the external team environment. Fransen, Vanbeselaere *et al.* (2012) developed a four-fold athlete categorisation, including two leadership roles on the field (task and motivational), and two roles off the field (social and the external). Chelladurai (2013) synthesised two contrasting approaches to leadership in sport. The one approach, hard leadership, advocated for a more demanding and directing type of leadership focused on task performance (Chelladurai, 2007; Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985; Chelladurai, Haggerty & Baxter, 1989; Chelladurai & Quek, 1995), whilst the autonomy-supportive, soft leadership approach (Amorose & Horn, 2000, 2001; Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Vallerand, 2007) focused on motivation and commitment to participation, by cultivating a sense of autonomy and competence in the individual, which in turn fostered a sense of team well-being. These two approaches to some extent parallel the functional perspectives on task-centred and people-centred approaches. In another study, the functional perspective on team leadership was explored by Fransen, Vanbeselaere, De Cuyper, Vande Broek and Boen (2014), who conducted an empirical study with 4 451 participants across nine different team sports. The study highlighted the

existence of the four team leadership functions and also identified that the leadership roles are not limited to the formal leader. A recent study by Collins and Cruickshank (2015) addressed the role of sports psychologists in supporting elite performance teams in addressing the social dynamics embedded in the team context. The study draws attention to the inherently contingent, conflicting, and contested modes of interaction that occur within a team context. Whilst the study recognised the complexity of team leadership in a sporting context, it did not offer insight on how to support team leaders to address these challenges. Further research is required to develop our understanding of how coaching can support team leaders in extreme contexts, such as a global sailing race.

2.4.2. Race skippers as team leaders

Three practitioner studies of race skippers completing a global sailing race and a personal account of a winning race skipper (Hall, 2012) were also reviewed to understand the challenges faced in leading an amateur crew. The first study of race skippers focused on identifying the winning behaviours of the skippers in the BT Global Challenge in 1996, where 14 identical yachts took part in a global sailing race, with amateur crews (Walters, 1997). This study informed the next study of the BT Global Challenge in 2000/1 (Cranwell-Ward, Bacon & Mackie, 2002), which focused on team leader behaviours and the skills of the winning team skippers. The second study drew attention to the growing complexity of leadership, which was evident between the staging of the two races and also noted that the top performing skippers adapted their leadership as the race progressed, which highlights that learning and development are critical competencies of the top performing skippers. Further, these studies described that the key challenge facing the skippers was the team leadership of the crews. Another study conducted by the Ashridge Business School Research Department (West, 2013) on a previous edition of the sailing race, highlighted that the key challenge for the race skippers was managing the social dynamics on board. Whilst these studies identified the

behaviours and skills of winning skippers and recognised that the skippers developed these skills during the race, no insights were provided on how these skippers developed their skills and/or what support the skippers received during the race. Another recent study by Soane, Butler and Stanton (2015), conducted on the 2007/2008 Clipper race, explored the impact of followers' personality on perceptions of athlete leadership and performance in a team sailing context. The results of this mixed methods study confirmed that followers' perceptions of leaders correlated with team performance, which draws attention to the influence of team dynamics on athlete leaders and team performance. This study addresses the knowledge gap identified by Kihl *et al.* (2010), who suggested that studies on stakeholders' perceptions of leadership were absent in the sporting context.

In summary, the review of the team leadership literature suggests that team leadership is distinct from organisational leadership and a functional perspective is considered relevant in addressing the social dynamics of leading teams in both the organisational and sports contexts. The functional perspective on team leadership is more developed in the sports context, where the leader is recognised as influential on team performance. Four key functions are identified: task, social, motivational, and external leadership. The literature on race skippers recognises the complexity of leading teams in challenging conditions and learning and development are identified as critical competencies for the top performing skippers. Whilst conceptual models of team leadership exist, more empirical evidence is required to understand how team leadership develops across contexts to address the social complexity inherent in teams.

2.5. Team leader development

There is a gap in the literature on developing team leaders in both the organisational and the sports contexts. To address this gap, I focused on the broader field of leadership development, which Day and Dragoni (2015) suggested is emerging as a scholarly discipline, separate and distinct from

the more traditional approaches to studying leadership. Scholars (Day *et al.*, 2014; DeRue & Myers, 2014) have conducted comprehensive reviews of the scholarly literature on leader and leadership development. These reviews highlight that leadership development has emerged primarily over the last 10 to 15 years as an active field of theory building and research. Further, these reviews recognise that the field of leader development occurs in the context of ongoing adult development, which differs from the broader field of leadership theory and research, where the predominant focus has been on linking personality and/or behaviour with leadership. There has been a shift away from leadership theory toward understanding the developmental processes, which calls for a greater focus on understanding the complexity of how the development process unfolds. Researchers have identified identity (Lord & Hall, 2005), cognitive and metacognitive skills (Marshall-Mies, Fleishman, Martin, Zaccaro, Baughman *et al.*, 2000) as key influencers of leader development. The reviews also explored the role of experience, skills, personality, and self-development. Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola-Merlo and Richter (2004) examined the role of learning and individual differences in the development of facilitative leadership behaviours. Findings from this research confirmed that a leader's level of experience will influence the extent of learning. Further, a time lag ranging from four to eight months exists between leadership learning and facilitative leadership behaviour enactment. Day *et al.* (2014:80) recognised that the "ongoing practice through day-to-day leadership activities is where the crux of development really resides" and they called for research to explore the ongoing ways in which people practise to become more expert leaders.

DeRue and Myers (2014) proposed a conceptual framework to organise and synthesise the key insights on leadership development. This framework addresses Avolio's (2007) call for more integrative theory building, as the field lacks a coherent, integrative framework to inform leadership development. The framework calls attention to the strategic purpose and desired results of leadership development. Three broad

themes of development outcomes are identified from the existing literature: cognitive, affective/motivational, and behavioural. The framework also focuses on leveraging developmental experiences for enhancing leadership capabilities at multiple levels: individual, relational, and collective. DeRue and Myers (2014:848) also argued that the current literature has largely overlooked how the “social context shapes the behaviours and practices that enable individuals and collectives to learn from experience”, and called for research that develops a more contextually embedded model, which integrates leader and leadership development. This call supports Day’s (2000:605) suggestion that the “preferred approach is to link leader development with leadership development such that the development of leadership transcends but does not replace the development of individual leaders”. DeRue and Myers (2014:840) also called for research that examines the “developmental interventions that alter the leadership-structure schemas of individuals and collectives”. Further, the authors called for aligning leadership development with organisational strategy, to address the scepticism surrounding the value of leadership development. Ibarra, Snook and Guillen (2010:668) supported this view and suggested that the link between personal development and leadership effectiveness remains “unexploited in both the theory and practice of leader development”. DeRue and Myers (2014) also highlighted that most leadership development research has focused on individual leader development, with very little research examining the leadership process, particularly in terms of social identity formation, relationships and the development and evolution of team structures over time.

The complexity of studying leader development is expanded on by Day and Sin (2011), who recognised the importance of researching the developmental trajectory (Nagin, 2005) of leader development. They found differences in the initial leadership effectiveness levels across participants and differences in development trajectories. Further, adopting a leader identity with a learning orientation could be considered important factors in enhancing leadership effectiveness. These authors also noted that little is

known empirically about the longitudinal processes of leader development. It is reasonable to expect different developmental trajectories, as adult development is a function of experience (Moshman, 2003; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans & Harms, 2008). Scholars (Day *et al.*, 2009; Lord & Hall, 2005; Mumford & Manley, 2003) have also proposed that the observable, behavioural level of leadership skills and competence is supported by deeper level processes associated with more Gestalt-like mental structures and frameworks. Other influencing factors of leader development include inherited characteristics (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhang & McGue, 2006; DeRue & Myers, 2014); an individual's identity as a leader (Hiller, 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005; DeRue & Myers, 2014); the personal orientation of how individual goals are managed in the context of developmental experiences (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Dragoni, Tesluk, Russel & Oh, 2009); and the willingness to learn (Day, 2010; DeRue & Myers, 2014).

The research findings from Day and Sin (2011) confirm that leader development does not only involve positive growth. These authors cited the work of DeRue and Wellman (2009), who suggested that it is possible for developmental experiences to be too challenging. When this occurs, learning ceases or reaches a point of diminishing returns unless additional support mechanisms such as access to feedback are in place, which highlights the potential role of coaching in leader development. In summary, there appears to be a gap between leader and leadership development, with the former construct relating to individual development, whilst leadership development is a collective construct. Scholars have called for more integrative theory building, and a recent conceptual model offers the potential to organise and synthesise the key insights on leadership development. There is the potential to use this integrative model to also develop clarity on the role of coaching in developing team leaders. More research is needed to understand the temporal perspective on leadership development.

2.6. Athlete leader development

Athlete leader development has recently emerged in the sport management literature and is considered relevant to this study, which is situated in a sports context. Scholars (Loughead *et al.*, 2006; Cotterill & Fransen, 2016) have identified that a considerable gap exists between the importance assigned to athlete leadership and the efforts made to understand leadership in the sports context. Further, Cotterill and Fransen (2016) contended that there is minimal evidence of structured development programmes being designed or applied in the literature and very little consensus regarding the approaches that should be adopted in developing athlete leaders. Voight (2012) also argued that there is little focused research exploring both the challenges that athlete leaders face and the necessary ongoing development needs.

In the United States, Voight (2012) implemented a 15-stage leadership development programme with two regional volleyball teams. While the programme proved to be effective, the author recommended that future research should explore the delivery of similar intervention programmes at different levels. In Belgium, Fransen, Coffee *et al.* (2014) conducted an online survey of 2 867 players and coaches from nine different teams. Their findings suggested that coaches and athlete leaders in sports teams should primarily focus on enhancing collective efficacy processes, which in turn may foster the team's outcome confidence. They also recommended that coaches should conduct leadership workshops with sports teams focusing on how athlete leaders can develop and fulfil their leadership role optimally. The researchers suggested that future research needs to explore how the relations change over time, as their study focused on a cross-sectional approach, which did not take account of longitudinal shifts. In the United Kingdom (UK), Cotterill (2015) developed a leadership development programme for elite professional cricketers playing at international level. Reflection by the participants suggests that a formal development programme can be both beneficial and impactful on developing the

leadership capabilities of elite players. Cotterill and Fransen (2016) called for the development of a conceptual framework to underpin leadership development projects. Whilst studies of athlete leader development have been identified, more research is required to understand *how* to develop leaders in sports teams.

2.7. Team performance

There is a growing body of organisational research that highlights the importance of leader behaviours for team performance (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Zaccaro *et al.*, 2001). In the sports context, research by Price and Weiss (2011, 2013) has established the importance of developing high-quality athlete leaders for the effective functioning of sports teams. However, there is no clarity on how to develop team leaders to contribute to team performance in either the organisational or the sports contexts. In assessing the value of coaching as a leader development process, traditional ROI measures of coaching effectiveness have been challenged (Grant, 2012). To address the challenge of assessing coaching, Hackman and Wageman (2005) proposed team effectiveness as a more relevant outcome measure for team coaching. These authors defined team effectiveness across three dimensions: the output of the team, the social processes the team uses to enhance their performance and improve their capability of working interdependently in the future, and how the group experience contributes to the learning and personal well-being of the individual team members. Team contexts can offer “sites for personal learning and can spawn satisfying interpersonal relationships, but they can also deskill, frustrate, and alienate their members” (Hackman & Wageman, 2005:272).

Another perspective is offered by Ronglan (2007), who suggested that effective leaders can affect team members’ team confidence. Higher levels of team confidence have been found to be positively related to several performance-enhancing outcomes (Edmonds *et al.*, 2009; Stajkovic, Lee & Nyberg, 2009). Athlete leaders hold the key for optimal team performance

by being able to influence team members' team confidence by creating a shared sense of "us" (Fransen, Coffee *et al.*, 2014). Two types of team confidence have been distinguished in the sports context (Collins & Parker, 2010; Fransen, Kleinert, Dithurbide, Vanbeselaere & Boen, 2014). The first type of team confidence is termed "collective efficacy", which is defined as the "group's shared belief in its conjoint capability to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment" (Bandura, 1997:477). The second type of confidence, team outcome confidence, relates to the team's abilities to win the game or obtain a goal which refers to outperforming the opponent (Fransen, Kleinert *et al.*, 2014). Athlete leaders have been found to influence both collective efficacy (Price & Weiss, 2011, Ronglan, 2007) and team outcome confidence, with collective efficacy considered a precursor of team outcome confidence (Fransen, Van Beselaere *et al.*, 2012; Fransen, Haslam *et al.*, 2014). In another study, Nicolaides, LaPort, Chen, Tomassetti, Weis *et al.* (2014) analysed the impact of collective team confidence and found it mediated the leadership to team performance relationship. In contrast, when athlete leaders do not fulfil their leadership role positively, their behaviour might have detrimental consequences for team confidence and performance (Fransen, Haslam *et al.*, 2014; Fransen, Steffens *et al.*, 2015). It can be argued that confidence offers a proximal indicator of team performance.

2.8. Chapter summary

The literature review has focused on the key areas of coaching, team leadership, leader development and team performance in both the organisational and sports contexts. The review confirms the extensive, fragmented multidisciplinary nature of the literature relating to these fields and has highlighted the similarities between the two contexts. The results of the literature search suggest that the topic of coaching team leaders in both the organisational and sports context is under-researched, with seminal work referenced by researchers over time difficult to identify. More general literature exists, which has been integrated into a cohesive review, to

contrast and compare practice and theory across organisational and sports contexts, as sport is considered an appropriate microcosm for researching organisational challenges (Day *et al.*, 2012). The review confirms that coaching has grown exponentially as a leader development process. Whilst leadership coaching is well developed in the organisational context and team coaching is well developed in the sports context, there is no clarity on how to develop leaders within a team context.

Team leadership is considered from a functional perspective in both the organisational and sports literature, as the approach is explicitly team centric (Kozlowski *et al.*, 2016) and recognises the temporal dynamics associated with both the task cycle (Morgeson *et al.*, 2010) and the developmental dynamics of the team (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). The approach offers broad behavioural themes (rather than specific leader behaviours) that are similar to the people development and task performance perspectives on coaching. Further, the approach aligns team leadership to team performance, as the approach originated in the team effectiveness research. The approach offers a useful taxonomy, which provides a practical heuristic framework for both researchers (Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Morgeson *et al.*, 2010) and practitioners, without constraining the specific functions to an individual leader. Functional leadership is recognised as the oldest team-centric approach and much of the conceptual work over the past 30 years has taken a functional perspective. However, less empirical work has been conducted in this area as the conceptual frameworks are often “big, complex and dynamic” (Kozlowski *et al.*, 2016:40) and extend beyond the scope of quantitative studies. More research is needed to understand the complexity of team leadership development across time.

The focus of this study is on how coaching can support team leaders and address the gaps that exist in the literature, as illustrated in Figure 2.2. There are gaps between developmental and performance coaching (gap 1), leadership and team coaching (gap 2), between organisational leadership

and team leadership (gap 3), and leader and leadership development (gap 4). More research is needed to understand both the temporal developmental perspective and contextual embeddedness of team leader development. There is also a paucity of literature linking leader development to team performance (gap 5). Further, the literature highlights that the outcomes of coaching are not clearly identified and there is no clarity on *how* coaching works, which is undermining the profession of coaching. There is a lack of alignment between leader development and team performance, which is resulting in scepticism in assessing the value of coaching.

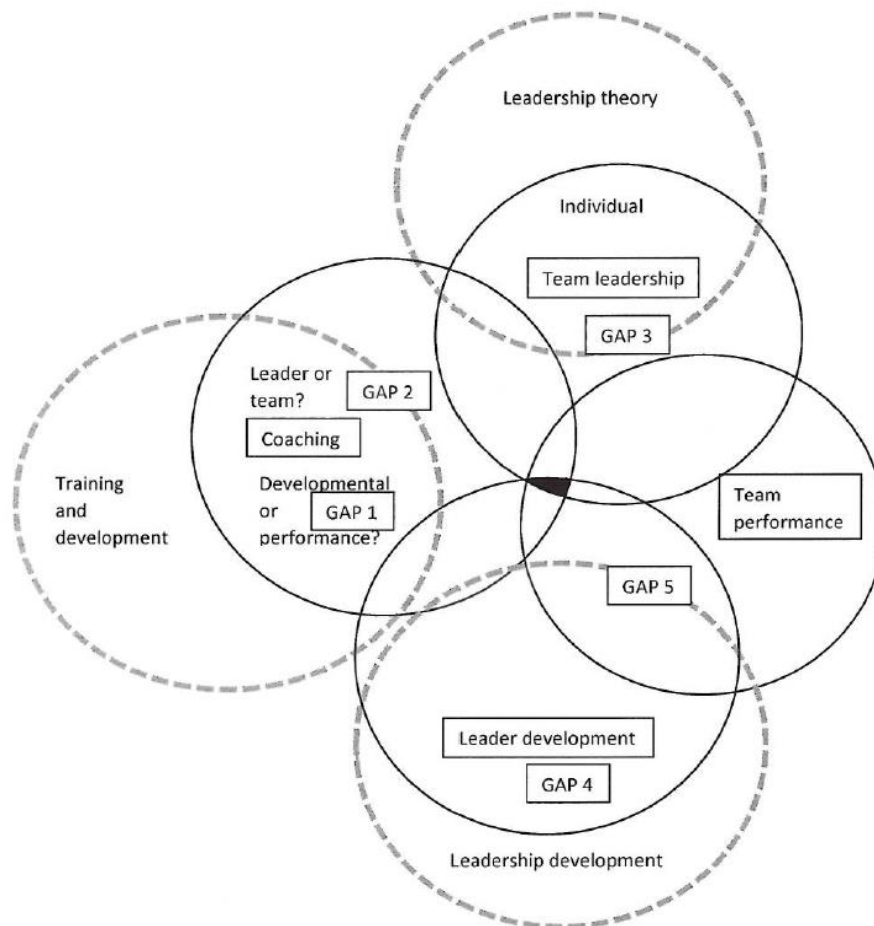


Figure 2.2: The gaps identified in the literature review

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research strategy to answer the research question of how coaching can support team leader development and team performance in the context of a global sailing race. The overview describes the theoretical foundation and the research design, which includes the methodological choice, selection of participants, data sources and collection methods and the process of data analysis. Ethical issues, research limitations, and reflexivity are also discussed in the chapter.

3.2. Research approach

The research approach was informed by a constructionist epistemology, which recognises both the role of context and multiple perspectives in influencing the research study. Crotty (1998:44) expanded on this perspective and suggested that “we do not create meaning; we construct meaning from our interaction with the world and the objects in the world”. Meaning is not discovered; it is constructed. Constructionism mirrors the concept of intentionality, when the mind becomes conscious of something, when it “knows” something, it reaches out to, and into, that object (Crotty, 1998). Intentionality refers to the interaction between the subject and the object, and it is “in and out of this interplay, that meaning is born” (Crotty, 1998:45). Constructionism can be contrasted to constructivism and social constructivism. Whilst constructionism incorporates the context and the social engagement as relevant to the construction of meaning, constructivism considers the individual perspective. Social constructivism (Creswell, 2003) was also considered as a research approach as this is defined as “the individual human object engaging with objects in the world and making sense of them” (Crotty, 1998:79). This approach highlights that stakeholders have different perspectives. Parker and Carroll (2009:267)

suggested that constructionism and constructivism exist in a “fuzzy or ambiguous relationship with each other”. Constructivism is essentially an individualistic perspective originating from psychology, whilst constructionism originates from sociology and offers a collective perspective.

A tension existed in the initial choice of epistemology, as a duality exists in studying the development of the individual leader within a collective team context. As development occurs at an individual level, whilst being informed by the social context in which the team leader is embedded, both the individual and collective approaches could be considered appropriate for this study. Both concepts focus on the construction of meaning, with constructivism offering an individual and largely cognitive perspective, and constructionism offering a social and relational stance. As both the context and social meaning making were considered relevant to the research, constructionism was chosen as the preferred approach.

Seng (1998:45) suggested that qualitative researchers “do not really discover ‘truth’.....rather we glean facts that contribute to socially situated, tentative, temporary understandings”. This perspective is relevant as it considers that meaning is also influenced by a temporal dimension. Thus, as Crotty (1998) argued, the subject and object of the research emerge as partners in the generation of meaning. Schall, Ospina, Godsoe and Dodge (2004:3) supported this view by suggesting “that it becomes compelling to invite the people engaged in the work to stand with the researcher and inquire together about its meaning, thus studying the work of leadership from the inside out”. The study explored different participants’ experiences of the race, team leadership and coaching by interpreting their articulation of that experience across a temporal dimension. The research design was also guided by an interpretivist theoretical perspective (Crotty, 1998). Prasad (2005:13) suggested that all interpretive traditions emerge from the scholarly position that “takes *human interpretation* as the starting point for developing knowledge about the social world”. An interpretivist theoretical

perspective recognises that there is no objective truth as meaning arises from engagement with each other and the realities of the world.

As the research was exploratory in nature, I considered an inductive, emergent, qualitative research design appropriate for exploring the multiple perspectives on coaching and team leadership, which are embedded in a dynamic, real-world contemporary context. Bachiochi and Weiner (2002) proposed a qualitative research design for exploratory research, where context is central to the study; where the participants' interpretation is central to the research question; and when the depth of data is essential. As the research was embedded within a complex social system, the research explored the emergent dynamic properties and interrelationships, rather than several cause-effect relationships or a linear combination of factors that drive team performance and explain the impact of coaching. Bazeley and Jackson (2013) suggested that qualitative research be chosen when a detailed understanding of a process or experience is required, where more information is needed to understand the characteristics or boundaries of the issue being researched, which typically necessitates the gathering of intensive data from a purposefully derived sample. Johns (2006) drew attention to the potential of qualitative research to reveal the full range of context effects and how behaviours and attitudes can be affected by context. Pratt (2009) also recognised the potential of qualitative research for answering "how" questions in unexplored research areas (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Taking a qualitative approach using an interpretative stance enables the exploration of different perceptions and experiences of participants to allow them to create their own meaning, in relation to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998).

Two possible methodological approaches were given consideration for the study: grounded theory and case study. The grounded theory approach was considered as it offered the opportunity to research the relatively unexplored area of coaching team leaders in a sport context. The approach offered a systematic method for coding and conceptualising data that

aligned to the interpretive perspective (Charmaz, 2008). However, grounded theory does not draw on pre-existing knowledge to frame the research study. I agree with Bazeley and Jackson (2013), who suggested that approaching research without being influenced by prior reading of the literature is no longer seen as feasible. Grounded theory was rejected as an approach for this reason. Further, the approach does not take sufficient account of the context, which was recognised as crucial for this study to understand the boundaries between the context and the phenomena.

Case study methodology was defined by Yin (2009:18) as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”. This methodology is distinctive from an experiment as it emphasises the rich, ‘real-world’ context in which the phenomena occur. The case study methodology maps effectively onto the exploratory, constructionist research design, with a singular focus on the case of coaching team leaders in challenging conditions. This study focused on a single instrumental case (Stake, 1995) identified through theoretical sampling, as the global sailing race is particularly suitable for illuminating the challenges of team leadership and understanding the relationships between coaching, team leadership and team performance.

While there is some debate around what constitutes a case study (Buchanan, 2012), this methodology offers the opportunity to use a case as the basis from which to develop theory inductively (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) suggested that the methodology is described primarily by its sampling mode and the singularity of focus on an individual case that can illuminate the research phenomenon. Whilst many of the claims for the benefit of case study research can also be attributed to other forms of qualitative research (Haunschild & Eikhof, 2009), it is particularly useful for the ability to select cases that are unusually revelatory, extreme exemplars, or opportunities for unusual research

access (Yin, 2009). Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:27) supported the view that single-case research provides the opportunity to explore a significant phenomenon “under rare or extreme circumstances”.

This idiographic approach (Willig, 2010) commences with careful and individual exploration of the particularity and complexity of an individual case and then moves to cautious engagement with theory development (Stake, 1995). The methodology employs recursive cycling between the case data, emerging theory, and extant literature (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). As the extant literature is limited and the research question is phenomenon driven, the research question is broadly scoped to enable the emergence of theory (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). The theory is “emergent in the sense that it is situated in and developed by recognising patterns of relationships among constructs within and across cases and their underlying arguments” (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:25). These authors argued that, central to building theory, is the replication logic, where one case serves as a distinct experiment that represents a single analytic unit. The case study’s usefulness as a study of the particular has the potential to lead to broader theory development (Scholz & Tietje, 2002). The tension between an in-depth study of the particular and the shift to a more universal and holistic understanding describes the paradox of the case study methodology (Simons, 1996). To resolve the tension, a process of integrative evaluation (Scholz & Tietje, 2002) is used, which draws on multiple viewpoints and close adherence to the data in a real world setting. This theory-building approach, which is deeply embedded in rich empirical data, contributes to the emergence of theory that is surprisingly “objective” (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007:25), as the close adherence to the data creates the discipline of generating theory that is “accurate, interesting and testable”.

The decision to use a case study methodology was based on four considerations, the first of which was the usefulness in exploring new topic areas (Eisenhardt, 1989). Whilst team coaching has emerged as a

distinctive coaching genre, the topic area of coaching to support the development of team leaders is relatively unexplored in both the organisational and sport contexts. The second consideration was the appropriateness for exploring “how” questions (Yin, 2009). There is no clarity on how coaching can support team leaders in challenging conditions. The third consideration was the fact that the case study methodology draws on pre-existing knowledge to focus the study, which is considered appropriate for managing the complexity associated with an exploratory, emergent research design, as there is the potential to lose focus on the purpose of developing theory. Strauss and Corbin (1998:47) recognised that “insights do not happen haphazardly; rather they happen to prepared minds during the interplay with the data”. Fourthly, the case study provides the opportunity to explore a phenomenon in a real-life context. The case study is useful where the phenomenon being studied is not isolated from its context, but is of interest precisely because the aim is to understand the interrelationship between the context and the phenomenon being studied (Crotty, 1998; Babbie & Mouton, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Yin, 2009; Buchanan, 2012).

The research was situated in the ‘real-world’ context of the Clipper race, which offered the opportunity to explore complex phenomena within a challenging context and across time. The race offered an unusual and extreme case in a sports’ context, where coaching is often limited to a season or game. The temporal dimension offered the opportunity to explore how team leadership developed over time and how coaching supported this development. The race also offered a microcosm for studying team leadership, which is difficult to study in an organisational context, where boundary management is challenging. The Clipper Race is unique in that it has clear boundaries of time and space.

The research design of this study is broadly aligned, yet different in scope, to the doctoral research studies of Harding (2012) and Davis (2015). Both these studies explored the role of coaching during organisational change.

Harding (2012) used a qualitative, interpretive case study approach to explore the role of coaching in supporting academic staff, whilst Davis (2015) used a qualitative case study approach, informed by a critical realist perspective to explore the role of coaching and leadership development in the Royal Mail (UK). The research design has transposed these approaches to the specific case study of a global sailing race, to offer a contrasting perspective on coaching leaders, specifically embedded in a team context. The design of this study was also informed by an empirical, qualitative study conducted by Graça and Passos (2015), which explored team leadership across two different contexts (non-profit and profit sectors). These authors also recognised the relevance of qualitative design in exploring the influence of context and “elucidating the complex nature involved in team leadership” (Graça & Passos, 2015:490).

The research design presented in Figure 3.1 highlights the methodological framework which guided the research process. The framework illustrates the linkages between the research question, approach, design and methodology, the data sources, selection of participants and the data collection process.

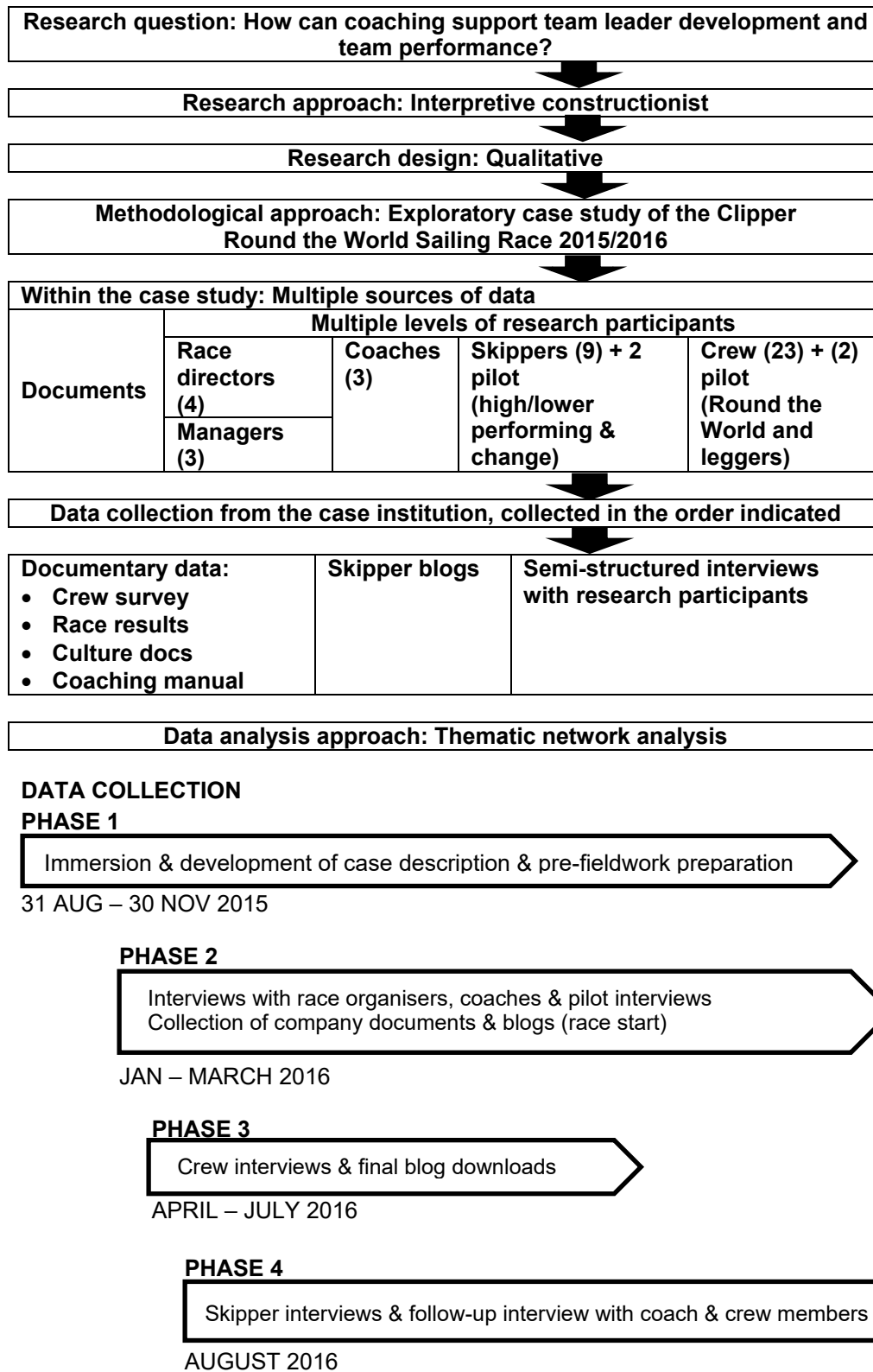


Figure 3.1: Research design

3.3. Selection of participants

The research design focused on a multi-level perspective and incorporated four stakeholder groups: the race organising team, the coaching team, the skippers and the crew from three different groups of competitors: high-performing, lower-performing and teams where there was a change of skipper. The top four teams were considered high performing as the race statistics indicated that these teams were closely matched throughout the race. To ensure anonymity, the participants' names were replaced with codes, with the first two letters indicating whether they were on a high (HP), lower (LP) performing team or a team with a change of skipper (CHANGE). Further, the crew were identified by whether they circumnavigated (RTW) or took part in one or more legs (LEG). Skippers were identified as SKIPPER, directors as DIRECTOR, managers as MANAGER and coaches as COACH. Numbers were randomly assigned to show different participants within each group. Three teams also completed the team coaching later in the race and were identified as team blue, green and orange. Colours were chosen to ensure that the team identifiers did not reflect any performance status as teams blue and green were both high-performing teams, whilst team orange was considered a lower-performing team.

Invitations to participate in the research were extended to key directors of the race organiser and the coaching organisation and approval was granted by these parties. All participants received a participant information sheet and were asked to sign a consent form as acknowledgement that they were aware that the interviews were voluntary and would be recorded (examples of documents included in Appendix H).

An overview of the different groups of participants is included in Table 3.1 and described in the following sections.

Table 3.1: Overview of the participant groups

Race organisation	Coaching organisation	Skippers (11)				Crew (25)			
4 directors	3	Pilot	Performance			2 Pilot	Performance		
3 managers			High	Low	Change		14 High	6 Low	3 Change
		2	4	4	1	2 RTW 1HP/1LP	7 RTW 7L	2 RTW 4L	1 RTW 2L

Participants from the race organising team included the chief executive officer (CEO), the race and deputy race directors, the crew director and three managers, who engaged with the crew on a regular basis. All coaches were invited to participate in the research, as the initial interaction with the coaches indicated that each coach had a different approach to supporting team leadership, depending on their experience and area of interest. Three coaches were interviewed to gain their perspectives on coaching the skippers during the race.

The eight original skippers were selected, together with one of the skippers who resigned from the race. A decision was made not to include the replacement skippers in the sample as they had not taken part in the initial four-day coaching programme. There were five English skippers, one French, one Canadian, one Australian and one Scottish skipper. These skippers had a range of backgrounds, including professional skipper, sailing instructor, IT project manager, fire fighter and military background (see Appendix C for details). Two previous race winning skippers (2009/2010 and 2013/2014) were recruited for pilot interviews.

I selected a sample of 25 crew members comprising two RTW crew members from the previous race (one from the winning team and another from a lower-performing team) for the pilot interviews and 23 crew members from the 2015/2016 race. The crew selection included 10 Round the World crew members and 13 crew members who took part in one or

more legs of the race. The sample included 14 crew members from high-performing teams, six from lower-performing teams and three from teams where the skipper was changed. There were 10 men and 13 women in the sample. Three of these crew members had also taken part in the previous race. Nine of the 43 nationalities and 14 of the 347 occupations were represented by the sample (see Appendix D for an overview of all nationalities and occupations). Sampling was based on a combination of purposive criterion sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2007), even crew representation from the different teams, reaching theme saturation and participant willingness to participate in the study. The purposive sampling was informed by the initial interaction with stakeholders during the first phase of the research. The crew director and alumni manager offered to assist in recruiting crew members to volunteer for interviews. Three cases were also chosen from the team coaching to compare and contrast experiences. These cases were chosen as there was no evidence that they had any coaching experience prior to the coaching being introduced. These cases contrasted to the other two cases of high-performing teams, where the skippers had experience of coaching prior to the coaching intervention.

3.4. Data collection

Flexibility is required in using an exploratory case study during the data collection stage (McDonnell, Lloyd Jones & Read, 2000) to facilitate the emergence of theory. Case studies typically start out by identifying the “who, what and where” and then proceeding to “how” and “why” (Yin, 2009). Multiple data sources were identified during the data collection phase to explore the different perspectives on coaching, team leadership and performance. These data sources included a range of documentary data and interviews with different stakeholders. The first phase of the research design focused on developing a context description of the race. The second phase included participant interviews with the race organising team and the coaching organisation, to understand the rationale for introducing the coaching. The daily skipper blogs were also collected. The

third phase, which overlapped the second phase, included face-to-face and Skype interviews with a purposive sample of crew. The final stage of the research included retrospective interviews with the race skippers, after race completion, to ensure that they were not under stress when completing the interviews and to provide a temporal perspective on their experience. Additional crew interviews were also conducted via Skype to ensure theme saturation was reached. Follow-up interviews were also conducted with the coaches.

3.4.1. Documentary data

Documents provide background information and set a case study within its contextual framework (Swanborn, 2010). Documents are also unobtrusive and not affected by the questions asked by the researcher (Robson, 1997). The documents provided insight into the race context for the study, and also offered a temporal perspective to the study. Further, the documents provided relevant background to inform the interview process. Several documents were amassed from the race organiser and the coaching organisation. The documents provided an overview of the challenges facing the skippers, crew statistics, team performance during the race, crew expectations and experience of the race, the theory informing the coaching process design, and the culture informing the race context.

Table 3.2: Documents for data analysis

Document source	Public/private	Purpose
Skipper blogs race 1	Public	Assess mood/reflections of skippers
Skipper blogs race 8	Public	Review for changes to mood/topic
Race standings	Public	Performance indicator for teams
Crew survey	Private	Crew experience

Document source	Public/private	Purpose
Skippers' handbook from coaching	Private	Overview of coaching foundation
Notes from coaching sessions	Private	Coaches' reflections on coaching
Clipper branding guide	Private	Overview of clipper culture
News articles on clipper website	Public	Key factors influencing the race
Crew blogs	Public	Background to crew interviews
Race statistics	Public	Overview of race context
Overview of race	Public	Overview of race context/structure
Notes from previous race: crew feedback	Private	Overview of crew experience

The documents included data on the skippers' race experiences in the form of daily skipper blogs from the first week of the first leg of the race (September 2015) and from the first week of the last ocean crossing (June/July 2016), which occurred a month before the completion of the race. These blogs are shared on the race organiser's website and provided a real-time overview of life on board and described some of the challenges that the skippers faced during the race. The blogs also offered insight into the dynamic, affective states of the skippers whilst leading their teams. The data from the first week was for the first six days prior to the first fatality that occurred, out of ethical considerations for the skippers and the teams, who had experienced a traumatic event.

Race performance data was sourced from the race standings on the race organiser's public website. The secondary data from the crew survey (166 respondents) conducted post-race was also sourced from the race organiser. Coaching information included the skippers' handbook, minutes

from the coaching sessions and notes from the previous race coaching sessions with crew. Information on the crews' race experience was also sourced from news articles and crew blogs on the website. Information on the race context was sourced from the head of brand from the race organiser, who provided a copy of the corporate brand guide, which described the preferred culture.

3.4.2. Interviews

Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:28) proposed that interviews are “a highly efficient way to gather rich, empirical data”, but cautioned that impression management and retrospective sense-making can occur. An interview guide (Patton, 2002) for each group of participants was prepared for the semi-structured interviews, which were informed by the literature review, crew observation at race stopovers, the daily blogs and the development of the context description, which was informed by personal experience as a crew member. Broad, open-ended questions were chosen to more deeply understand which concepts would emerge from the participants. Sjöstrand and Tyrstrup (2001) suggested that first-hand accounts of local understandings of occurrences are required to explore stakeholders' socially constructed meanings. Probing questions were used to seek deeper understanding of perspectives and experiences. The interview guide was tested with pilot interviews and the questions were reduced and reframed after the initial interviews (final interview guide included in Appendix I). The interview guide was structured according to four main focus areas: the race experience, the coaching experience, engagement with the skipper/crew and team performance.

Preparation for the interview process included conversations with researchers of team coaching at the Oxford Brookes University Coaching and Mentoring conference (2016); an academic focused on team coaching in sports contexts (Cotterill, 2016); and the lead researcher exploring followers' perceptions of team leadership in the 2007/2008 Clipper race (Soane *et al.*, 2015). Consideration was given to which categories of

participants to interview first and how this would impact on developing understanding of the different perspectives, as there is a risk of contamination of perspectives, as the interviews proceeded. The decision was made to interview key stakeholders before the race skippers as this developed my understanding of the context, the challenges facing the race skippers and the motivation for introducing the coaching process.

Interviews of approximately an hour each were conducted either face-to-face or over Skype with a total of 50 individuals (including the pilot interviews) between March 2016 and October 2016. The skipper interviews were arranged by the race office and eight skippers were interviewed in the race office boardroom within the first week of completing the race. A Skype interview was also conducted with the skipper who had resigned on the second leg of the race, as two of the original skippers referred to this issue in their interviews. Pratt (2009) suggested that there is no “magic number” of interviews, so crew interviews were conducted until theme saturation was achieved and no theoretical novelty was found. One crew interview was conducted six months after the race to check for theme saturation and to explore if any additional developments had occurred after a period of time. No new themes were identified in this data.

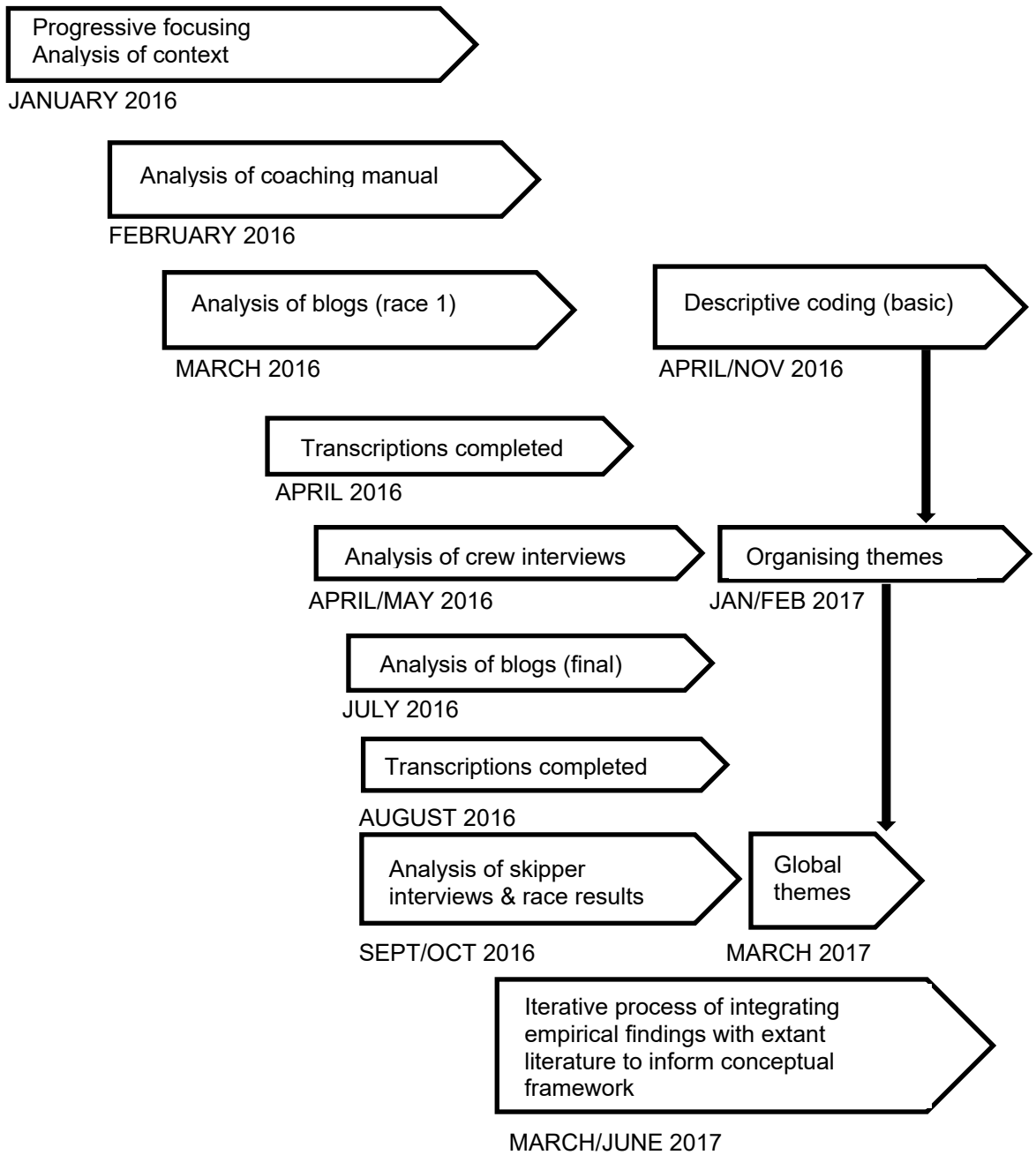
A romanticism position was adopted in interviewing participants. According to Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012:242), this approach advocates for a more “genuine” human interaction, which seeks to develop interpersonal relations founded on trust, rapport, commitment and “warmth” between the researcher and the participant, to encourage the participant to express their experiences more freely. This approach aligns with a constructionist epistemology, which recognises that knowledge is constructed inter-subjectively, and was considered relevant as the participants had experienced a significant event in their lives. The interview offered them the opportunity to reflect and make sense of their experience.

A tension existed between maintaining the focus on the research question and allowing the participants to focus on their lived experience. Platt (1981) addressed this dilemma by suggesting that the researcher allow the participants time to contextualise their answers, so that understanding can develop about the interrelationship between the context and the experience. I recorded and transcribed all the interviews *verbatim*, to build familiarity with the data, as recommended by Bazeley and Jackson (2013). Transcripts were sent to the participants to elicit member reflections. Transcription resulted in a corpus consisting of 78 383 words.

3.5. Data analysis

Whilst data collection and analysis are described separately, there is a constant comparison occurring as collection and analysis are being done simultaneously (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Qualitative data analysis (QDAS) (Yuen & Richards, 1994) was used to analyse the data and the process involved getting up close to the data to understand the multidimensionality of the coaching experience and standing back from the data to understand the holistic experience of coaching and the interrelationships between the core themes and the context. Buchanan (2012:364) argued that it is useful to expose the “many voices, many meanings” and disputed Yin’s (2009) positivist approach to triangulation, as this approach constrains the emergence of multiple perspectives. The recursive process of data analysis and integration are illustrated in Figure 3.2.

DATA ANALYSIS



Ongoing literature review: January 2015 – June 2017

Figure 3.2: The data analysis process

The first phase focused on developing a case description, which offered a form of data reduction, by crafting the data overload into a coherent account. Buchanan (2012:362) recognised the challenge of integrating multiple sources of data to “interpret the holistic integrity of a case” and suggested developing a case description as a useful first step. The process involved a progressive focus on analysing the context, as the literature review highlighted the issue of de-contextualisation in leadership coaching. Drawing on Buchanan’s (2012) methodology, a base document was generated, from which analyses could flow with selective descriptions, explanations, and new themes emerging from the data. According to Stake (1981:1), progressive focusing requires the researcher to be “well acquainted with the complexities of the problem before going into the field, but not too committed to a study plan”. The initial emphasis was on the pre-fieldwork preparation and openness to emergent issues from both the field and the literature review and included recursive, iterative, and repeatable steps. Sinkovics and Alfoldi’s (2012) theoretical progressive focusing model was used to guide the process from the initial observation of the race, to further enquiry, which became more focused on the key factors influencing the coaching, team leader development and performance.

3.5.1. Documentary data analysis

Different data analysis methods were considered for the documentary analysis. Template analysis (King, 2012) was initially considered relevant, as the flexible approach aligned with the emergent research design appropriate for an exploratory case study. Flexibility is required to explore the complex phenomena and the inter-relationships with the context. The technique suggests the use of *a priori* codes drawn from either the literature or from the researcher’s experience of the context, as an initial framework to provide a focus for the study. However, I decided that thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was more suited to the exploratory, constructionist nature of the research. The codes are data driven, facilitating the emergence of themes from the data to address the inherent researcher

subjectivity. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is recognised as a method for identifying and reporting patterns within the data, which are socially produced, aligning this method with both the case study methodology and a constructionist epistemology. Further, these authors recognise that this method of analysis can be considered “contextualist”, as individuals “make meaning of their experience, and, in turn, the ways the broader social context impinges on those meanings” (Braun & Clarke, 2006:81). A theme captures something significant about the data, relative to the research question, and represents “some level of *patterned* response or meaning within the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82). Fine (2002:218) supports this perspective and argued that the approach “involves carving out unacknowledged pieces of narrative evidence that we select, edit and deploy to border our arguments”.

Whilst thematic analysis is not clearly demarcated as a method of data analysis, it has been widely used in qualitative research. The active role of the researcher is recognised in the analysis process, in balancing the tension between providing a rich description of the data set with a more detailed and nuanced account of the core areas of interest. Braun and Clarke (2006) asserted that the researcher needs to acknowledge the decisions that are made in thematic analysis and these authors proposed a step-by-step guide to completing thematic analysis, which was used to guide the analysis process.

The review of the daily skipper blogs from the first and the last ocean crossing offered the opportunity to compare and contrast the skippers’ experience to provide a temporal perspective over a 10-month interval. The review of the daily blogs was informed by the principles of online research methods (Harricharan & Bhopal, 2014) and longitudinal processes of leader development as used by Day and Sin (2011) in longitudinal tests of leader development. The blogs were first read in date order, with all blogs for a specific day being read together, to gather a sense of the collective challenges facing the skippers. This reading offered insight into the

differences in communication patterns that emerged between the individual skippers. The next stage focused on reading the blogs of individual skippers in date order, to get a sense of emerging themes for each skipper. The boat reference number was used when reading the blogs, to avoid any interpretation occurring from linking the blogs to the particular personalities of the skippers, as initial perceptions had developed around the skippers' personalities. This was followed by polar type, theoretical sampling of high and lower-performing skippers in analysing the blogs, in order to more easily observe contrasting patterns in the data. Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007:27) confirmed that this sampling method "leads to very clear pattern recognition of the central constructs, relationships, and logic of the focal phenomenon". A preliminary set of data-driven codes was developed and these were reviewed to develop understanding of the challenges faced by the race skippers. The blogs were uploaded onto NVivo software and the data were explored, using word frequency searches and visual content mapping to check against the initial manual analysis. No additional themes were identified but this process highlighted the basic coding themes already identified in the data.

NVivo was also used to categorise the feedback from the crew survey, which provided comparative data to the data sourced from the crew interviews. The crew survey data analysis was completed after the interview data had been analysed, to ensure that the crew interview data was not contaminated by the crew survey feedback. Other documentary analysis included a review of the race performance data and the coaching documents. The race standing table was analysed to assess consistency of performance and shifts in performance during the different legs of the race. The coaching documents were reviewed to develop an understanding of the core coaching themes introduced to the skippers prior to race start and identified by the coaches during the coaching sessions.

3.5.2. Interview data analysis

The analysis of the interview data commenced with reflective journaling directly after the interviews, followed by interview transcriptions. I made notes as I transcribed the interviews to highlight potential themes. Bird (2005) suggested that this process is a key stage of data analysis within the interpretive qualitative methodology. The transcription process was followed by active reading of the transcripts to look for patterns of meaning and issues of potential interest in the data that corresponded with the research question. The immersion stage was followed by initial coding of the transcripts using line by line open coding on paper, which is similar to the approach recommended by King (2012) in conducting template analysis. The theme identification process involved moving back and forth between the entire data set, manually coding extracts of data and writing research notes as the research progressed, to ensure interpretation consistency and transparency in the theme development process (Hayllar, 2005). Van Manen (1990:79) recognised that interpreting meaning from lived experience is more accurately a process of “insightful intervention, discovery or disclosure – grasping and formulating a thematic understanding is not a rule-bound process but a free act of ‘seeing’ meaning”. The naming of concepts aids both the organisation of the data and the analytic process, as the verbatim transcripts reflect the “undigested complexity of reality” that needs to be organised so that order can be created from the chaos (Patton, 2002:463). The initial manual, coding phase was followed by coding using the NVivo software, to develop some general categories, which were then coded in more detail.

The development and refinement of codes and themes continued throughout the data analysis process, with some themes being data driven, whilst others were theory driven. Copies of coding classifications were dated and archived to keep a record of the development of the coding structure. This stage was followed by the development of thematic networks, web-like illustrations which Attride-Stirling (2001) considered

useful in depicting and summarising the main themes. These networks enabled a methodological organisation of the analysis, which allowed exploration of the text's overt structures and depiction of the underlying patterns and interconnectivity throughout the network. The process systemised the extraction of lowest-order, basic themes, which were then grouped together to summarise more abstract, organising themes. This process involved a number of iterations before establishing the organising themes and was fraught with tension in deciding how to dissect the data into clear categories, which reflected the complexity within the data. These organising themes were then grouped into global themes, which encapsulated the central areas of research interest. The initial coding categories and development of the thematic networks are included in Appendix F and the web-like maps depicting the themes are included in the chapters describing the findings.

The initial semantic approach, which identified themes within the explicit and surface meanings of the data, was followed by the next stage where I looked beyond the descriptive themes to explore the underlying ideas and tensions within the data. I interpreted these latent themes to theorise about the significance of the patterns and the broader meanings and implications. Burr (1995) recognised that the analysis of latent themes reflects a constructionist paradigm where broader meanings are theorised as underpinning what is actually articulated by the participants and socially produced. The focus was on theorising about the sociocultural context and the structural conditions that gave rise to the individual perspectives.

I reviewed the data analysis process against the 15-point checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), and the eight criteria for conducting qualitative research (Tracy, 2010) to contribute to research rigour. Rigour is evident in the description of the theoretical constructs, the case context and methodological choices, data sources, collection processes and development of thematic networks, which can be logically traced back to the emergent themes (Appendices F and G). Rigour

was also developed through the use of pilot interviews, self-reflexivity and engagement with “critical friends” (fellow researchers, coaches and team leaders). Credibility was attended to by providing thick description (Geertz, 1973), eliciting member reflections and illustrating the multiple-vocality of participants. The writing up of the research was also considered a significant stage of the analysis process as decisions were made about what literature was considered relevant to the research question, and how to structure the presentation of the findings. This process was checked against the guidelines on writing up qualitative research in management learning and education (Köhler, 2016).

3.6. Limitations of the methodology/data collection

It is recognised that qualitative research is subjective and statistical generalisations cannot be made from complex bodies of data. However, the case study facilitates the “conveying of experience”, providing the opportunity for vicarious experience. Naturalistic generalisations (Stake & Turnbull, 1982) can be developed, as we “come to know what has happened partly in terms of what others reveal as their experience” (Stake, 2005:454). I recognise that interpretation is subjective and addressed this issue by focusing on data-driven coding methods, rather than the development of *a priori* codes, in order to remain close to the data. Further, the interview guide was designed to allow the participants the opportunity to share their interpretations of the race experience and multiple perspectives were elicited from different stakeholder groups.

As the research was situated in an ocean sailing race context, it was challenging to access the skippers and the crew during the race. To address the issue of retrospective sense-making (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007), I reviewed the daily skipper blogs in real-time during the race and conducted the skipper interviews within a week of completing the race. Crew interviews were completed either during the race or within three months of race completion.

The volume of data generated by an exploratory case study can be overwhelming and can potentially distract from the research purpose. I followed Eisenhardt and Graebner's (2007) suggestion of maintaining a disciplined focus on the research question to guide the analysis process and balanced flexibility and rigour through recursive iterations between extant theory and data to identify patterns. Whilst multiple perspectives from participants can present challenges in attributing meaning, this approach contributes to generating more robust theory. Different perspectives encourage the emergence of alternative interpretations to contribute to the building of new theory. The presentations of findings include anonymised quotations to substantiate interpretations, allowing for transparency and offering evidence of the multiple perspectives on coaching that exist across the different stakeholder levels.

3.7. Critical self-reflection

No one comes to interpretation with an open mind as there is a pre-understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Duberley, Johnson & Cassell, 2012). Haynes (2012:73) described researcher reflexivity as "thinking about how our thinking came to be", and noted that pre-understanding is constantly revised as new understandings emerge, which in turn affects the research process. I am aware that my pre-existing understanding of team leadership and coaching influenced the research process and a research journal was used to surface assumptions about the research. This self-reflexivity helped identify and deal with any risks to the credibility of the study relating to my identification with both the team leaders and the crew during the race.

A tension existed between my tacit knowledge as a researching professional and my subjective view of "the truth". Kvale and Brinkman (2009:192) contended that a natural tension exists between maintaining researcher distance and seeking to co-author events. During the interviews, I was conscious of the need to suspend the 'inter-subjective' elements of the interview (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009), where a decision was taken to

'bracket out' (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009:27) my experience as crew member and team leader, rather than interrupt the flow of the interview. A challenge existed in balancing the tension between strangeness and familiarity, to render the familiar strange and develop understanding of the strange (Tietze, 2012:60). A tension was also evident in data analysis, between preserving a holistic perspective and deconstructing the data in an attempt to develop clarity on the core constructs. These challenges were addressed with research colleagues during supervision.

3.8. Ethical issues

The study was approved by the Oxford Brookes University Research Ethics Committee prior to the data collection phase commencing and was conducted in accordance with the Oxford Brookes University Code of Practice for the Ethical Standards for Research involving Human Participants. Participant sourcing and approval were secured by using the Oxford Brookes recommended documents: Consent Form, Invitation to Participate and Participant Information Sheet (Appendices H and J). I felt a responsibility towards the different stakeholders to offer a comprehensive and balanced account of their experiences.

Participants were offered confidentiality and anonymity and all names were removed from the data. I was also aware of the extreme nature of the challenge that the participants had lived through and was sensitive to respecting their experience. Hammersley and Traianou (2012:12) drew attention to the issue of intimacy when interviewing participants, and recognised the risk of the research being "denounced as surveillance". This issue had been expressed by a previous race skipper, who felt that the coaching was a form of surveillance by the race organisers.

Ethical challenges were experienced during the research process, which included addressing the request for a change in the research focus by the coaching organisation and the request to disclose participants' information by one of the race directors. These challenges were addressed by drawing

attention to the research strategy approval processes and ethical guidelines provided by the Oxford Brookes University Research Ethics Committee.

3.9. Presentation of findings

The next chapter describes the research context, which is considered central to the exploration of coaching and team leadership in a sports context. The chapter is followed by the results of the data analysis. These findings are presented in three chapters to separate the findings, based on major themes: coaching, team leadership, team leader development and team performance. The final chapter concludes the research study, by integrating the findings into a conceptual framework to contribute to addressing the knowledge gap that exists around coaching, team leader development and team performance.

CHAPTER 4

THE CONTEXT

4.1. Introduction

The chapter offers an overview of the research context to ensure the holistic integrity of the case. Buchanan (2012) suggested that this step is necessary to avoid a fragmented approach to data analysis. The review of the context is in response to Kuhn's (1962) assertion that all knowledge is dependent on context. Fish (1990:186) also recognised the importance of identifying institutions, which precede us and in which we are "already embedded". The overview of the race was informed by observing crews at the race start and second race stopover and engagement with past skippers and crew, the coaches and the race organisers. I also drew on my experience of competing in the second leg of the 2013/14 race. News stories, crew blogs and articles on the Clipper Round the World website (<https://www.clipperroundtheworld.com>) and the Mission Performance website (<http://mission-performance.com>) were reviewed. I also reviewed the experience of a past race winning skipper (Hall, 2012).

4.2. Overview of the race

The first Clipper Round the World race set off in 1996 and has since taken place every two years with the 2015/2016 race representing the tenth edition. The race is the only competitive, global circumnavigation by 12 amateur sailing teams where the race organisers supply a fleet of identical, 70-foot racing yachts, each receiving the same routing and weather information. Communication with the external world is controlled by the race office, to ensure that no team receives information that can offer a competitive advantage. The 11-month race is divided into eight legs and 14 individual races (see Appendix B for details of the route). Each race ranges from four to 31 days with approximately a week (depending on boat arrival times) in each stopover for maintenance, crew changeover and food

provisions for the next race. During the stopovers, the skippers are expected to participate in various activities, including media interviews, presentations and sponsor events. The skippers are also expected to conduct debriefs with their crews and attend debriefs with the race directors.

The race comprises stages of close match racing between the crews at the race start and also towards the end of the race, followed by long stretches of solitary ocean racing, where the boats are spread out across the ocean. It is possible to sail for two to three weeks without seeing another competitor. The race routine is characterised by the structured watch system, where the two watches take turns to crew the boat and rest. The skippers are solely responsible for both watches and find it challenging to get sufficient rest between managing the watches. Some watches are characterised by periods of routine, with low levels of activity on board. At other times, the crew are stretched to their limits, particularly when weather conditions or errors result in a crisis situation with an “all hands on deck” call. These situations are characterised as high risk and stressful, with general confusion on board and the skipper shouting instructions, which can result in an emotional backlash on the crew and the skipper. The weather conditions are a key influencer of race performance and the team dynamics as the conditions challenge the crews in different ways. Light and hot weather conditions in the Doldrums and other areas cause frustration and boredom, whilst turbulent conditions impact crew confidence and increase physical risk. Two fatalities occurred in the race; prior to the 2015/16 race, there had been no fatalities. There are also a number of reports of crew injuries and sea-sickness occurring as a result of rough weather conditions and fatigue. Research participants have commented on the impact of the weather on their ability to regulate their emotions. The close living conditions challenged the crew and the shared meals/water source also raised the risk of infection spreading on board.

Team performance is primarily influenced by crew management and skipper decision making, including routing and sail configuration in response to the weather information. Race performance is reflected in podium positions, yet some crew sign up for the social experience of being part of the team. This duality of purpose is a source of conflict between the skippers and the crews and within the crews. The top boats are defined by a racing ethos, whilst the boats lower down on the rankings are generally considered to be the “happy” or “party” boats. The top four teams are consistently on the podium, whilst some of the lower ranking teams have not had the experience of being on the podium for the entire race (see Appendix E for the race rankings). In the 2013/14 race, the top six teams were closely matched with 0.2 knots difference in average speeds for the entire race.

4.2.1. The skippers

Skippers are recruited from a group of over 200 global applicants, with a range of technical sailing and team leadership experience. The responsibilities, qualifications, and experience/skills required by the race organisers are detailed in Appendix A. The skippers are interviewed and the selection process includes skipper trials with the race directors. The skippers are selected five months prior to race start and a crew allocation event is held a month later, where the skippers meet the crew allocated to their team. The skippers commit to an 18-month contract, to allow for race preparation and crew training prior to the race start. For the 2015/2016 race, 12 skippers were appointed, comprising 10 men and two women. The average age of the skippers at race start was 39 years with ages ranging from 28 to 50. Four of the original skippers left the race, with two skippers leaving after the second leg, one skipper leaving after leg four and another skipper after leg six. The reasons for these departures included issues with crew, lack of confidence in dealing with the race challenges, and the impact of two fatalities during the race. The high turnover rate of skippers (33,3%) highlights the challenges that they face in leading amateur crews.

The skippers appoint watch and assistant watch leaders, to assist in leading the watches. Crews are allocated to two watches. Some skippers change the watch formation after each race. Initially watch leaders are chosen based on their technical experience of sailing, and shifts may occur as the crews' technical expertise develops and people skills take precedence. A team co-ordinator is also appointed by the skipper, to assist with crew communication and administration. Some skippers choose to specialise, allocating roles to specific crew members. Specialisation is not always popular with the crews, as there is an expectation that the crew get to experience all elements of racing.

Skippers are expected to complete a multitude of tasks, including crew management and development, navigation, boat maintenance and the management of medical emergencies on board. The skippers are also expected to be ambassadors for the race organisation, which can create additional tension on board, when the race office makes decisions that are in conflict with the crews' expectations. The two previous race winning skippers both commented on the physical impact of the race and the need to reflect on the race for a few months after the race to make sense of the race experience. One of these skippers wrote a book of his personal account as a sensemaking exercise (Hall, 2012). Previous skippers and crew have commented on the post-race "slump". The key challenge facing the skippers is managing a diverse crew of amateur sailors.

4.2.2. The crew

There were 704 crew members, ranging in age from the minimum qualifying age of 18 to 74 and representing 43 nationalities and 347 occupations (Appendix D). The male:female ratio was just below 2:1 (444:260). Forty percent of the crew had never sailed prior to the race training. Crew were allocated into different teams, each with a medic and a qualified yacht master, and balanced by age, gender, physicality (height and fitness) and sailing experience. The skippers were not involved in the crew allocation. Crew members self-selected into either Round the World

(RTW) crew who opt for the circumnavigation or “leggers”, who participate in one or more “legs” of the race. For the 2015/2016 race, there were 106 RTW crew and the balance of the crew changed at different stopovers, contributing to the complexity of the team dynamic. The average number of crew per leg was 18 with 30–39% of the crew changing after each leg.

All the crew, irrespective of their sailing experience, completed four separate weeks of training. The training was conducted by a range of training skippers, some of which applied for the position of skipper. The training offered the crew the opportunity to develop their sailing skills and also offered the skippers the opportunity to develop team leadership skills. The training focus was on technical skills and safety procedures. The final week of training was conducted in the teams that the crews were allocated to, to provide the skippers with the opportunity to develop their teams and assess their team competencies. Some crew commented that the training is satisfactory but that “nothing can prepare you for ocean racing conditions”.

Within the crews, there is the potential to form separate groups, which aligns with the recent research by scholars (Martin, Evans & Spink, 2016; Wagstaff, Martin & Thelwell, 2017), who studied the existence of “groups within the group” in sport coaching. There are a number of dimensions that influence the formation and development of these groups, including the level of commitment to the race, sailing experience, similar demographics and social status, the network of relational connections within and across the teams, the watch formation, bunk allocation, delegation of tasks on board and the level of competitiveness and collaboration. Crew members have commented that there are some people that they would walk into a burning building to save, and some crew that they would try and run over if they saw them walking down the road. This anecdote highlights the intensity of the relationships that exist within the teams.

4.2.3. The race organisers

The race is organised by Clipper Ventures Plc, an international marine events company founded in 1995 by the legendary yachtsman, Sir Robin Knox-Johnston, and the CEO, William Ward, an experienced entrepreneur who has started and managed a range of businesses. The race was founded on the premise that “sailing should be for everyone [...] to experience the challenge of ocean racing” (<https://www.clipperroundtheworld.com>). The race is marketed as “one of the biggest challenges of the natural world and an endurance test like no other”, encouraging crew members to embark on the adventure of a lifetime. The marketing highlights the elements of adventure (“a thirst for adventure into the unknown” and “seize the moment, unleash the adventure”) and the social engagement of being part of a racing crew, as illustrated in the quote from the race organiser’s website:

“an unparalleled challenge where taxi drivers rub shoulders with chief executives, vicars mix with housewives, students work alongside bankers, and engineers team up with rugby players and bond with an international crew creating lifelong memories” (<http://clipperroundtheworld.com/about/about-the-race>).

The crew are also provided with distinctive, red corporate branded clothing, which encourages a sense of social identity and association with the race. Crew members have commented on the “Clipper bubble” and way of life, highlighting the similarity to a real world laboratory experiment, where the participants are isolated from external influences.

The race is directed by the race director, assisted by a deputy race director, who were both skippers in previous races and have experience in leading race teams. The race director was appointed for the 2013/2014 race, after being the deputy race director for the previous two years. He had previously been a race skipper in the 2002/2003 and 2009/10 editions of the race. The deputy race director was appointed for the 2013/2014 race

and had been a race skipper in the 2011/2012 race. The crew are recruited and managed by a crew recruitment team. The crew director completed the 2002/2003 race and then joined as crew recruitment manager in 2005, before becoming the crew director in 2014.

The race has grown significantly since inception, with greater demands being placed on the race skippers. These demands include the development of faster yachts (top speeds now in excess of 30 knots) and increasing demands from the crew in response to the rising cost of the experience (£45 200 for the Round the World race experience and different legs starting from £9 800). There is also more attention from the media and the sponsors. The increasing complexity resulted in the race organisers appointing a coaching organisation to support the skippers and contribute to improving the crew experience of the race.

4.2.4. The coaching organisation

Mission Performance (sometimes referred to as 'Mission' or 'MP' in the interviews) is the formal learning and development partner for the race. They agreed to provide coaching in exchange for the sponsorship rights to one of the teams, as they recognised the synergy between team sports in challenging conditions and the challenges faced by leading organisations. They also recognised the value of experiential learning in extreme conditions and their corporate culture reflects this focus on experiential learning.

The company was founded in 2001 by the two founding members, who were also the lead coaches for the coaching programme with the skippers. The managing director is an economics graduate with a post graduate degree in development and education and has over 20 years of leadership training and coaching experience at senior management and executive team level across both the sports and organisational contexts. The second founding member also has extensive consulting experience across a range of contexts, including high risk oil and gas field service industries and

sports teams. The third coach, the commercial director of Mission Performance, completed a Master of Business Administration (MBA) in the mid-1990s. He has substantial experience in leading teams through change initiatives and has led over 35 teams globally. He has worked with teams at all levels, and his expertise lies in improving performance through effective leadership and culture change. All three coaches have a background in the marines, which is reflected in their strong values-based coaching approach. The fourth coach involved in the initial skipper coaching session has a background in acting and trained as an actor at the Guildhall School of Music and Drama (2004). He focused on engaging the skippers in developing their communication skills. The final coach, a Mission Performance partner, has 12 years of leadership and development training experience and 16 years of previous experience as an officer in the Royal Navy. All the coaches are accredited with the Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM). Mission Performance has also partnered with Personal Strengths Publishing (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) and the Centre for Creative Leadership to provide an evidence base foundation and feedback tools to their programmes. These organisations have researched leadership practice for over 30 years. Kouzes and Posner (2006) have received feedback from over five million practitioners globally.

The coaching organisation defines coaching as a non-directive, development technique based on the use of one-to-one discussions to enhance an individual's skills, knowledge or work performance. Whilst learning is not specifically identified, they recognise that coaching is a developmental process that targets high performance and improvement of specific short-term skills and goals. The coaching is essentially model agnostic, but draws on a range of coaching frameworks, including the Clarity Culture Interdependence (CCI-Q™) model, the World Class Basics of Coaching Model (Anderson, 2011), the Goal, Reality, Options and Will (GROW) model (Whitmore, 2002), the Symptoms, Causes, Outcomes, Resources and Effects (SCORE) model of coaching from the neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) field and the work of Clutterbuck (2011) to

inform their team coaching practice. The coaching programmes combine the structure of endorsed business coaching with pragmatism drawn from elite team sports, global organisations and the military. The coaching focuses on supporting leaders in delivering results through others, by adopting an effective coaching style of leadership that enables the leaders to coach in the moment. The team coaching focuses on three core concepts: clarity and alignment to the overall vision, mission and objectives; culture, where teams are encouraged to focus on values to guide behaviour; and capability to work interdependently.

4.3. The coaching process

The design of the coaching process was informed by the experience of delivering the initial coaching programme during the 2012/2013 race and feedback received from the skippers and crew. A key design change to the coaching intervention was the introduction of an initial immersion programme, which was held in March 2015, four months prior to the race start and 24 hours after the skippers had been selected. The programme was attended by the 12 skippers, the race and deputy race director, and four coaches from Mission Performance. A group trip to the Brecon Beacons National Park, Wales, was organised by the coaching organisation and comprised four and a half days of learning group coaching (Thornton, 2010). The coaching started with the group completing experiential learning exercises, to explore and share their values, expectations, and race aims.

The programme aims included: equipping the skippers with additional competence and confidence to lead themselves and others consistently; to build and lead their teams effectively; and to manage their leadership communications more appropriately. Each skipper completed a Strengths Deployment Inventory (SDI) assessment and received a handbook outlining the key principles informing the programme design (Table of contents included in Appendix K). The key themes coached throughout the programme included developing self-awareness; effective leadership

communication and adaptive leadership styles, coaching skills and building high-performance teams. The coaching team drew on their experience of coaching the skippers and crew in the previous race, which aligned to the 'world class basics' of coaching, communication, leadership and teamwork (Anderson, 2011). The programme was also loaded onto a mobile learning platform, so that the skippers could access the learning material (a range of 90 second video & audio refreshers) during the race.

The initial immersion session was followed up with a half-day skipper coaching session before race start. A session was also held with two of the skippers and the race director, to address issues that had arisen during training. The coaching organisation expressed the desire for more time to coach both the skippers and the crew prior to race start. An introductory, one-day crew coaching session was also hosted in August 2015 prior to race start and was attended by 150 crew members, with Round the World crew offered precedence. The purpose of hosting a crew coaching session was to develop a common language around a coaching culture. The coaching organisation recognised that the timing constraint of one day limited the value of this intervention.

Skype coaching sessions were attempted after the completion of the first leg of the race, but there were unexpected issues, which undermined the coaching engagement. The skippers and crew were dealing with the aftermath of the fatality that had occurred during the race and counselling was offered by the race organiser. Two of the boats had also been marooned on the beach, which presented logistical challenges for the race organiser and contributed to the complexity of the race stopover. Further, there were issues with setting up the Skype coaching sessions, with limited broadband access, the lack of a dedicated coaching space and the use of a borrowed laptop. Some sessions were held with skippers, but the coaching was abandoned as a result of the implementation challenges and unexpected issues arising.

Face-to-face coaching sessions were held in Cape Town (October 2015) with 11 of the 12 skippers. One skipper had been delayed during the race and missed the coaching session. The sessions were limited to one hour, learning group coaching sessions, with three to four skippers in each session. The coach who conducted these sessions was a different coach to the coaches who had conducted the Skype sessions and he had not been involved in the initial four-day coaching session. Crew coaching was also conducted in three sessions with six to eight crew members per session. The coaching process used the Dilts' (1988) Logical Levels framework and the quadrant model (Anderson, 2011) from NLP.

Skype coaching was conducted in Albany (Australia) in November 2015 and DeNang (Vietnam) in February 2016. Eleven skippers and six crew members (evenly spread across three of the teams: Great Britain, Da Nang, and Visit Seattle) were coached by the same coach that had conducted the coaching in Cape Town. No coaching was conducted in Sydney, Hobart, Airlie Beach (Australia), or Qingdao (China). Face-to-face coaching was conducted by the two lead coaches in Seattle (April 2016). The crews were dealing with the second fatality on the race and were recovering from challenging racing conditions, which had resulted in significant damage to some of the boats. This coaching session was followed by face-to-face coaching in New York in June 2016, prior to the final ocean crossing of the race. Some team coaching was also conducted in Seattle and New York. No coaching was conducted after this session. The coaching programme was distinctive for the length of time between the different coaching sessions and the variety of modes used by the coaching organisation. The emergence of team coaching later in the race was also an interesting development. The external coaching process appeared to be an independent process to the skipper debriefs that were conducted by the race direction team.

4.4. Conclusion

The review of the context highlights the potential of a global sailing race to offer a “living laboratory” as the teams are isolated from the external world. The race offered a bounded (in time and space) case study, which provided a microcosm for exploring team leadership. Within this microcosm, some factors were simplified and others magnified, to explore the influence of coaching on team leadership, development and performance in a real world context. The review contributes to understanding the complexity of coaching team leaders in extreme contexts and highlights the implementation challenges, the temporal nature of the coaching process and the multi-stakeholder perspectives which need to be considered when designing coaching interventions.

CHAPTER 5

PERSPECTIVES ON THE COACHING EXPERIENCE

5.1. Introduction

In this first chapter of findings, I present the organising themes related to the multiple perspectives on the coaching experience. In analysing the data, I was drawn to how participants perceived coaching and how these perceptions influenced their expectations and experience of coaching and team leadership. The findings are illustrated in thematic network 1 (Figure 5.1), which is made up of three organising themes: the initial perceptions of coaching, which influenced the expectations and experience of coaching, which contributed to a multi-level perspective on coaching that emerged over time.

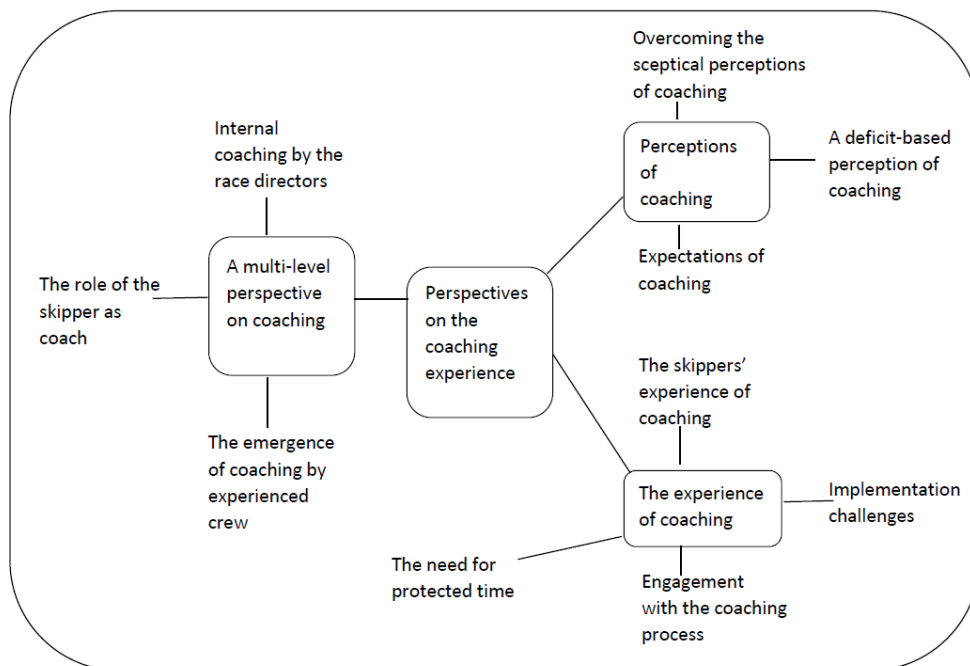


Figure 5.1: Thematic network 1: Perspectives on the coaching experience

5.2. Perceptions of coaching

This section describes *how* coaching is perceived by the different participants, to offer a holistic perspective on coaching. The initial focus was on the directors of the race organisation, as they were responsible for commissioning the coaching. Three basic themes were identified: overcoming the sceptical perceptions of coaching; a problem-solving, deficit-based perception of coaching; and the expectations of coaching arising from these perceptions.

5.2.1. Overcoming scepticism about coaching

The directors initially expressed scepticism about coaching. For example, a director stated:

“I’m a little cynical of it [...] I’m not sure I would have gone into coaching if it wasn’t for Mission, because I admire what they’ve done in their lives, because they’ve been at the serious coal face of life” – DIRECTOR4.

Consequently, one of the managers from the race organisation, who had prior experience of coaching, recognised the challenge of promoting coaching in this context:

“it must be a really hard sell for (the coaching organisation) [...] to talk about it, coaching, because if I look at the people who would have made that decision about coaching, none of them would have been exposed to coaching” – MGR1.

This participant recognised how the lack of exposure to coaching influenced the directors’ perceptions of coaching. Further, the manager shared questions about coaching that had been raised by a director:

“so, why would people want someone to tell them all the answers, do you think it would work?” and “I don’t understand why someone would pay, or want someone to tell them all the answers” – DIRECTOR4.

Another director shared this perspective:

“I guess it’s allowed them or taught them of a different avenue of attack if you like” – DIRECTOR3.

Skippers also referred to:

“the teachings from Mission Performance” – LPSKIPPER2.

“is pretty much how they taught it anyway” – LPSKIPPER4.

These comments suggest that coaching was perceived as prescriptive. This perspective contrasts with the coaching literature. For example, Whitmore (2003:8) referred to coaching as “helping them learn rather than teaching them”. There are several possible explanations for this perspective, including a possible power imbalance in the coaching relationship, or the perception that coaching presented a challenge to the skippers’ personal identity. Alternatively, this perception could be related to the focus in sports coaching on instructing (Gallimore & Tharp, 2004), particularly as some skippers had a background in sailing instruction.

Despite the initial scepticism, there was recognition that the coaching was valued:

“we’ve got to do more of it” – DIRECTOR4.

“If coaching wasn’t brought to my attention, I would say no [...] as I’ve gotten older and more experienced and opened up to the world of opportunities, I would certainly say now, that I am more receptive to, and open to it and it certainly has its place and its usefulness and it certainly does add value. It certainly adds value to any organisation. Do I think there should be more emphasis on it in the future – absolutely” – DIRECTOR2.

These extracts highlight the value of coaching and draw attention to the role of experience in influencing the perceptions of coaching, both as a

proxy measure of value and as an influencer of coaching engagement. A coach offered a different perspective:

“Once we explained the ideas, they began to open up” – COACH4.

The coach recognised that the resistance shifted as the skippers developed an awareness of coaching. The perceptions of coaching evolved from an initial scepticism to value adding as the participants engaged with the coaching process. Further, participants highlighted the need to have an open mindset to coaching, to overcome resistance to coaching.

5.2.2. A deficit-based perception of coaching

The second theme encapsulates *why* the coaching was implemented. Participants perceived coaching as being remedial to address problems. For example, one of the race directors suggested:

“some people respond to it more than others as they feel they have a need to respond to it or a deficiency in certain areas of management”
– DIRECTOR2.

This perspective exposes the underlying assumption that some people have a need for coaching. Another race director perceived the coaching as relevant to addressing problems:

“we seem to have as many problems, just different problems [...] I’m sure that’s any business that’s growing [...] I’m expecting them (coaches) to recognise problems as they arise and then look for guidance from us [...] also to be made aware of” – DIRECTOR4.

There is a clear expectation that the coaches will focus on recognising problems. This perspective is shared by a skipper:

“he (coach) was very much asking us what problems we had, what we wanted to do, and he had some, some good suggestions for helping [...] that was quite useful, but I didn’t really buy into the whole thing and I don’t think it changed how I worked with the team. I know, some

of the other teams, who weren't so happy, they would have Mission Performance sessions with or without the skipper. I don't think any of my guys ever did. I think they always, they were similar to me, they sort of thought, nothing was broken, so we don't need to fix it" – HPSKIPPER2.

The skipper recognised that other teams engaged with coaching to resolve problems within their teams. Further, the skipper highlighted the social construction of perceptions in explaining that the crew shared the perspective on coaching as a remedial process. A crew member from the same team agreed:

"initially the ones for crew were kind of sold to help sort out conflict in the team and we didn't have any" – HPRTW6.

Neither the skipper nor the team engaged with the coaching process, based on their perception that coaching was associated with fixing problems. This finding highlights the risk of positioning coaching as remedial, as this positioning can undermine engagement with the coaching process. A director expanded on this perspective:

"coaching shouldn't be a tool just to fix something. It needs to be pre-emptive and avoid us getting into the mess in the first place" – DIRECTOR3.

Coaching appears to have been implemented as a remedial strategy to solve problems and address deficits in team leadership. However, this remedial focus contributed to the scepticism around coaching and undermined engagement with the coaching and a more proactive approach is considered appropriate.

5.2.3. Expectations of coaching

The third theme related to understanding *what* is expected from coaching, as there is a lack of clarity around coaching outcomes in the literature. The directors offered contrasting perspectives:

“the pressures from the crew – you’re talking about CEOs and chairmen from major PLC companies giving you orders and some of those are nice people and some of them get a bit more heavy on the skipper, and that puts pressure on them – so they need a lot more help – and we didn’t realise it” – DIRECTOR4.

“ideally you want less dropouts and more people finished the race, and pleased with what’s they’ve done and I think that will come from the skippers and the race director” – DIRECTOR4.

A tension exists between a concern for the skippers’ wellbeing and improving the crew well-being to address the dropout rate. The influence of the skippers on addressing the dropout rate is highlighted, which suggests a link between the development of the skippers and to contributing to the organisational objective of improving the crew experience. This issue is similar to the challenge of employee retention, identified by Grant (2017) in an organisational context. The director explained how coaching can support the organisational agenda:

“I think it’s just about getting a better understanding with people that are on the coalface and managing crew to understand the whole of what’s expected of them. To a degree, what we expect from them. And so they don’t set off thinking it’s one thing, and the reality is something else” – DIRECTOR4.

There is a clear expectation that the coaching will contribute to the performance management of the skippers, by managing expectations relating to the team leader role for the skippers. Another director shared how the initial coaching session provided insight into the challenges facing the skippers:

“we take for granted that people can do certain things, and it’s very easy to put a race skipper in charge of a boat, a crew and say there you go, sail around the world [...] but actually the experience gave us quite an insight into what it involved to get the best out of the crew, to

motivate the crew and coach them and debrief them and deal with conflict” – DIRECTOR3.

Whilst this director focused on the team leadership aspects such as motivation, team coaching and conflict resolution, another director focused on the personal development of the skippers:

“I felt it would make a real difference to the skippers and I think it has, I think it’s shown that we have, more than ever, taken an interest in them, in their personal development by doing it” – DIRECTOR2.

A crew member also emphasised the individual development aspect of coaching:

“he’s probably like a lot of young people at that point in his growth, he’s kind of on the edge of his capability, it’s stretching him [...] so in the right circumstances, the right person coaching and mentoring him he can go a lot further than he already has, and he has already gone a damn long way already” – HPRTW1.

This crew member identified that the context offered a developmental challenge and highlighted the potential for coaching. Further, there is recognition that leader development had occurred during the race. A tension also existed between focusing on skipper development and the contrasting perspectives offered by a range of participants:

“how to get your boat to go faster – performance coaching” – HPSKIPPER4.

“very close to the podium, getting very frustrated with not quite getting that podium [...] some guidance” – LPSKIPPER1.

“about the last five percent, fine tuning things” – HPRTW1.

“all about the one percent for them [...] what a lot of elite teams do and that’s the difference between winning and not winning isn’t it?” – DIRECTOR2.

All these participants expected coaching to be focused on enhancing performance, which contrasts to the developmental perspective. Within this lack of clarity of purpose, a director explored the challenge of assessing the value of coaching:

“It always worried me that there’s a complicated cost to coaching [...] I’m not sure you ever really know until it’s happened, what you’ve got out of it, and it could be a long time afterwards. The general idea of coaching is it solves the problem [...] I think with coaching that would be the worry of not knowing [...] what good it’s doing, but with coaching, it can be very expensive” – DIRECTOR4.

This director reiterated that coaching is remedial and also highlighted the temporal dimension that needs to be considered when assessing coaching. This was also the only participant who considered the cost of coaching for the organisation. Most participants focused on how the coaching supported either the skippers or the crew, without considering the impact on the organisation. Further, the director reflected on the complexity of identifying the link between coaching and business success. The complexity is compounded by a lack of clarity on the purpose of coaching, where a tension exists between supporting the skippers and contributing to the crew well-being. The implication of this complexity is that coaching can be perceived with scepticism as it is difficult to assess the benefits associated with coaching. In the literature, Bozer and Sarros (2012) stated that a lack of a systematic empirical review of coaching outcomes raises scepticism about the effectiveness of coaching.

5.3. The experience of coaching

This section focuses on the organising theme: ‘the experience of coaching’ with the first section offering a review of the skippers’ experience of coaching. This section is followed by a description of the implementation challenges, the engagement with the coaching experience and the call for more protected time for the skippers.

5.3.1. The skippers' experience of coaching

Three of the four high-performing skippers rated the initial experience of coaching as:

“very good” (HPSKIPPER1),
 “good/very good” (HPSKIPPER3),
 “exceptional, worth its weight in gold” (HPSKIPPER4).

The fourth high-performance skipper was more sceptical about the experience:

“I didn’t really buy into it to be honest [...] there were maybe a few nuggets of information that were useful” – HPSKIPPER2.

This skipper had previous experience of instructing and perceived the coaching as deficit-focused, which undermined the engagement in coaching.

The lower-performing skippers also rated the initial coaching session strongly and recognised the benefit of the relationships that developed between the skippers during the initial coaching session. For example, a skipper commented:

“I think the bonding of the skippers was really important. Because you know they are out there, even though they are racing, you had a few that you were really good friends with, that you could bounce ideas off and stuff, so I think that was really important” – LPSKIPPER4.

The data highlights the value of coaching the skippers prior to the race to enable the development of supportive relationships, to encourage shared learning to occur. The central themes of collaboration and competition are evident. The tension between these themes is illustrated by a coach, who described the tension that existed between a high-performing skipper focused on racing and the crew:

“driving the boat very hard, still getting the results, but crew are having to work very hard, to dig in deep within themselves. (HPSKIPPER3) approach doesn’t necessarily unite everyone on board and (skipper) has had a few issues with certain individuals who have had major clashes with each other, which has distracted from the experiences of those on board” – COACH4.

The extract highlights the tension between performance and team well-being and how the social dynamics arising from this tension can undermine the crew experience. Within the coaching sessions, the coach recognised the existence of:

“classic themes of conflict and crucial conversations – dealing with singular personalities and their effect on the entire crew, personalities not gelling or becoming alienated from their peers and how to deal with that” – COACH4.

There was a tendency for the skippers to focus externally on the social dynamics, rather than on how the coaching impacted on them personally. There appears to be an imbalance between a focus on the skippers’ personal needs versus the social dynamics that dominated the coaching conversations.

5.3.2. Implementation challenges

The basic theme of ‘implementation challenges’ was evident during the race, which impacted on the coaching experienced by the skippers. For example, a director commented:

“I think it’s been difficult to implement, because of all the other pressures that are put on us [...] stopovers need to be longer, where we almost have a day just put over to coaching and mentoring – what is probably the most important element to having a happy crew and a safe crew” – DIRECTOR2.

The director acknowledged the challenge of prioritising the coaching and recognised the value of coaching in contributing to crew well-being. To offer the skippers more support, another director suggested:

“it (coaching) has to be constant, you can’t do something at the start of the race and then have two Skype sessions from 20 000 miles away [...] I think it has to be a real part of their job not a bolt on that becomes an inconvenience, because there are a million and one things going on in stopovers. If support for the skippers becomes an inconvenience, it gets dropped, we don’t find the time for it and the skippers think we’re paying lip service to it. That’s even worse as they know it’s taking their time and it’s not achieving anything and their time is precious” – DIRECTOR1.

The director recognised the importance of consistency and positioning the coaching as a priority to ensure engagement with the process. A skipper expanded on the timing constraints:

“the stopovers are so busy [...] I turned up at about 3 or 4 o’clock and I was still carrying a take away sandwich that I hadn’t managed to eat since lunch time and you are just so horrendously busy, you just have an extra hour and you’re walking towards Mission Performance and you’re thinking, you’re just shutting down from the boat and you’re right, Mission Performance, and you do it for an hour and the last 15 minutes, you’re probably thinking about getting back on the boat, so it wasn’t, it just wasn’t enough. It would be far better to take all those hours and do a day in Australia [...] so Mission Performance in the stopovers was not enough time to think about it – and yeah it became more of a chore to be honest, became problematic” – LPSKIPPER2.

One of the coaches also expanded on the implementation challenge:

“If (directors) really believed in it, they would make time for it [...] part fault from us of not demonstrating the importance of it and partly due to everything that happened: in Rio the groundings, the skipper

resignations and everything else, these are things that get in the way”
– COACH4.

This extract highlights organisational support as central to implementing coaching as a support strategy. Challenges also existed with the implementation of online, Skype coaching sessions:

“the sessions remotely over Skype, well the feedback I’ve had from the skippers, they’ve been worthless. They haven’t really provided much results and in fact, sometimes the skippers feel resentful about it” – DIRECTOR2.

Further, the director indicated that the skippers “appreciate the sentiment of support but they resent the intrusion into their time and into their schedule – and also the impersonal nature of it”, particularly when three or four skippers were doing joint Skype coaching sessions. These sessions created frustration amongst the skippers and the crews. This frustration was expressed by one of the lower-performing skippers, who struggled with transferring the coaching to a team context:

“the stuff that Mission did with the crew, it was over a bad Skype connection. In Rio, they had to cancel. Mission cancelled on them and it sort of fell apart [...] every time I mentioned Mission Performance, they were just shutting down,” – LPSKIPPER2.

Whilst the crew coaching is beyond the scope of the research study, this quotation highlights the impact of implementation challenges on the skipper’s ability to transfer the learning to the crew. One of the coaches acknowledged the implementation challenges:

“the remote coaching didn’t go down very well – had problems with the technical and all the stuff that happened in Rio – it wasn’t a great start to the race” – COACH4.

The same coach also recognised that the coaching process was undermined by:

“not building the rapport and the momentum [...] if we had worked with whole crews in Cape Town or Rio earlier. We would have laid down a marker/foundation as they went round the world. Key lesson for us” – COACH4.

This acknowledgement draws attention to the design of the coaching intervention over time, to ensure that the process is supported by a strong relational foundation and effective mode of delivery. A director recognised the relational dimension in coaching:

“It just so happens it (coaching) worked, because of the relationship but I don’t think we would have had coaching for the skippers in the same way, despite other crew members that we have come to know suggesting that we should” – DIRECTOR4.

The skippers also expressed mixed feelings about the coaching during the race stopovers. There were repeated references to the introduction of an unknown coach in the second race stopover:

“the guy who did it didn’t seem that familiar with the race and what we are about” – HPSKIPPER1.

“maybe if we knew him and knew what to expect” – LPSKIPPER2.

These extracts highlight the influence of the coaching relationship and contextual understanding on the experience of being coached. The skippers also commented on the content of the coaching:

“Around the world we had the sessions which were mostly good, couple of times a little bit hard to follow, or unrelatable slightly” – HPSKIPPER1.

“it was a little bit too wishy washy, and a little bit too – more like a therapy session rather than a debrief [...] performance enhancing discussion [...] although we were talking about those elements, I think” – HPSKIPPER4.

These extracts highlight the relevance of the coaching content in supporting the skippers and the value of aligning development with performance. Another skipper recognised the value of experience, but expressed doubts about the use of feedback tools:

“they are very experienced guys aren’t they? But it’s all this, biometric reading or whatever, psychometric testing that’s it – what use is that?”
– LPSKIPPER3.

The design of the coaching process is influential on the coaching experience, as implementation challenges can undermine engagement and impact the coaching. Further, the relevance of the coaching relationship, the content, tools and focus of the coaching are highlighted as key influencers on the coaching experience.

5.3.3. Engagement with the coaching process

Several participants commented on how the skippers engaged with the coaching process. For example, a high-performing skipper highlighted the importance of being open to coaching:

“Without a doubt, you get out of it what you put into it and what you want to get out of it. That’s a no brainer. So, if you’re interested in it and want to develop yourself, then all it can do is help”. HPSKIPPER4.

This skipper highlighted the personal development aspect of coaching and the relationship between engagement and the benefit received from the coaching. He expanded on the coaching benefits:

“Now I guess, on the flipside, even if an individual is kind of pushed into doing it, and they’re not that interested, I’m sure they will still get something out of it, even if they don’t admit to it” – HPSKIPPER4.

Not only did this skipper identify the potential for skippers who were reluctant to be coached; the skipper also shared a perception on the rationale for the reluctance:

“they don’t want to believe there’s a problem in the first place. And you think you can actually manage it and actually sort it out yourself rather than going to somebody for help – for sure” – HPSKIPPER4.

This perspective highlights the underlying vulnerability that can be present in coaching, as the process can impact personal identity. A director also explored the underlying motivation of some skippers, who were reluctant to engage in the coaching process:

“I guess certain characters are almost protective of the fact that they are a skipper. They must know and so if they’ve come up with a plan or an idea, they don’t like the thought of going back and changing their mind. You know, it can show a bit of a weakness in many people’s eyes, if you change your mind on something” – DIRECTOR3.

A skipper, who resigned from the race, shared this perspective:

“realised that I couldn’t show I wasn’t perfect – couldn’t show weakness to the other skippers” – CHANGESKIPPER1.

This skipper perceived the need to preserve a professional identity, whilst another skipper (LPSKIPPER4) admitted that there were times when the energy to be coached was lacking. Coaching engagement appears to differ between the skippers and is influenced by individual identity, a sense of vulnerability and openness to coaching.

5.3.4. The need for protected time

Participants drew attention to the need to offer the skippers support. For example, a director explained that skippers needed support when challenged:

“where do they go when they are having a hard time, basically? Can we pull them back to where they need to be, back to the status quo? [...] I think it’s always darkest at the midnight hour. In the cold light of day, things always seem a lot better and I suppose that’s what coaching is about. They get a different perspective on it and in that

pressurised environment, they can get their head out of the boat, and then things don't seem so bad. Do I think that we need more protected time? Yes I do" – DIRECTOR2.

This extract highlights that coaching offered the skippers 'protected time' to gain perspective and reflect on experience. The skippers valued the coaching time, as illustrated in this extract:

"it was a timed, dedicated period for us to sit down, without thinking about maintenance, without thinking about cleaning the boat, without thinking about time off, it was always voluntarily – to go and chat through a few bits and pieces, quite a few of the crew to realise what it's all about and different people's views [...] that was the biggest advantage, I think, a dedicated, having that dedicated time" – HPSKIPPER4.

In this extract, the skipper is expanding on the value of a dedicated time for the crew to focus on team development, without having to deal with the many distractions. The contextual challenges can be overwhelming, which highlights the importance of developing a relational foundation, appropriately designing the coaching programme, ensuring organisational support and providing dedicated time for coaching to encourage engagement with the coaching process.

5.4. A multi-level perspective on coaching

A temporal perspective on coaching was provided by retrospectively interviewing the participants, to understand how the coaching developed over time. This perspective illuminated some interesting, unanticipated phenomena, which emerged as the race progressed, including the emergence of internal coaching by the race directors, skippers, and experienced crew members.

5.4.1. Internal coaching by the race directors

During the interviews, the skippers repeatedly referred to the support received from the race director and deputy race director. For example, skippers commented:

“offer their advice from their experiences [...] it’s nice that they can relate” – HPSKIPPER1.

“have done the race before so they know what we’re up against and they understand completely what it is we have to go through. So they were very supportive” – LPSKIPPER1.

Both skippers recognised the value of the directors’ experience, empathy and ability to relate. Of particular interest is the feedback from a skipper, who resigned in the early stages of the race and who compared the external coaching to the internal support:

“would have been more useful to have that support from the race director, as he understands what you could be going through” – CHANGESKIPPER1.

Other participants also commented on this skipper’s resignation and suggested that this resignation may have been avoided if the skipper had felt more supported. Two directors expanded on the support:

“I have a lot of empathy for what they do as I’ve done it myself” – DIRECTOR2.

“they get to feel like they are not the only one in a certain situation, when things are tough. We will always advise and ask and try our best to get the skippers to talk to us and ask questions of us, and get advice from us” – DIRECTOR3.

These directors can relate to the sense of isolation and recognised the importance of creating a network of support for the skippers, to share experiences:

“to know that you are one of 12, all in the same situation, and what you’ve experienced, someone else has probably experienced or is about to, it’s important to know that you have someone you can rely on because you are racing against each other, but you are actually all part of one team, which is Clipper Ventures round the world.” – DIRECTOR3.

A skipper compared the support from the other skippers to the coaching support from the directors:

“I guess you could achieve the same result, well for me personally anyway, just chatting to the other skippers. That’s the time to vent about the crew and [...] you just chat honestly and those were the most beneficial kind” – HPSKIPPER1.

These extracts highlight the value of the internal coaching support, from both the directors and the skippers. A director agreed that the skippers found the internal coaching supportive:

“Skippers have definitely come back to me and said that the one-to-one was useful, that the Mission Performance session was useful. It’s given a slightly different perspective on things perhaps [...] and different manner of going about the problem. So, yes it has helped them,” – DIRECTOR3.

Whilst the skippers valued the internal coaching support, a director expressed doubt about coaching capability:

“when I think I’m speaking to the skippers, I guess you could call it coaching, but I don’t really see it as coaching [...] I’m not sure if it’s coaching or not as I said, I’m not an expert by any means [...] I think some of the skippers are more experienced at coaching than I am. So that’s a challenge” – DIRECTOR2.

To address the lack of confidence in coaching, the director suggested that a formal coaching qualification could be beneficial in supporting practice:

“I haven’t got an executive coaching qualification or anything like that – I just do it by my own experience really, so I think to be 100% effective and get the full value out of it – you probably do need to do it formally, I guess there are people out there that are great coaches, that don’t have any of those qualifications but I think it helps, fill up your tool box as it were” – DIRECTOR2.

The director recognised the value of experience as a foundation for coaching and called for support in enhancing coaching capability. Two directors also commented on the interrelationship between coaching, performance management and mediation:

“the difference between performance managing them and coaching them is [...] I don’t know [...] it’s more difficult to performance manage the skippers, particularly when they are so remote. It’s extremely difficult. I tend to focus on the coaching more [...] in terms of the performance management” – DIRECTOR2.

“we’ll have conversations with skippers like that [...] we will mediate with a skipper and a crew member and maybe even the skipper and the whole crew. You have a meeting and all we are trying to do is keep it on track [...] a lot of the time a skipper and crew members actually like to be listened to. I don’t think we are ever the people that come up with a magic formula, but we just [...] we are able to coach them a little bit and give them a bit of encouragement, to finding it themselves” – DIRECTOR3.

These extracts highlight the complexity of defining coaching as separate and distinct from other forms of management support. A director also expanded on how the internal coaching emerged:

“it’s generally as things develop and as things come up. After a one-to-one chat with the skipper and you find out there’s an issue or a concern and then the coaching can kick in [...] we want to do it more often, but then time takes over and we don’t do it as often as we should” – DIRECTOR3.

Internal coaching emerged spontaneously and was recognised as valuable by the director. Timing constraints suggest that more flexibility is required in integrating coaching and performance management.

5.4.2. The role of skipper as coach

There was more evidence of the high-performing skippers coaching their teams and being more present on deck, than the lower-performing skippers. For example, three high-performing crew members described the role of the skipper as coach:

“he’s a great communicator, he’s a teacher, he’s coming from a teaching background” – HPLEG2.

“he’s very passionate about winning and doing well but also he has a training background in his role – he wants for each person to expand on their knowledge throughout the year, so he’s put a lot of time into helping and developing people in the areas that they want to” – HPRTW6.

“on the whole, he did understand that we felt at times very vulnerable, and scared and it was difficult for us at times and he was supportive of us” – HPLEG6.

These extracts highlight the supportive role of the skipper in contributing to the crew experience. Further, the teaching and training backgrounds of the skippers were identified as foundational in supporting team development. A contrasting perspective was offered by the coach, who stated that some skippers did not grasp the full understanding of coaching after the initial coaching programme. This perspective was echoed by a lower-performing skipper:

“I didn’t know enough about it after three days [...] I couldn’t then go and repeat the course to my crew” – LPSKIPPER2.

A crew member offered a different perspective:

“he’s brilliant when he does it and he doesn’t do it often enough and we do tell him that. Yeah, some of the other guys are really good at coaching too. So we try and coach each other” – LPLEG5.

The crew member recognised that, while the coaching from their skipper was beneficial, he did not coach sufficiently and that this gap was filled by other crew members. The skipper from this team expressed surprise and satisfaction at the development that occurred within the team:

“It was very surprising [...] having never worked in that environment before with novices, complete novices – it was quite surprising and very satisfying, knowing that we as a team had coached them to that level so that they were pre-empting stuff that was going to happen” – LPSKIPPER1.

This skipper recognised that the coaching was a collective effort, between the skipper and experienced crew members.

5.4.3. The emergence of coaching by experienced crew members

Both skippers and crew commented on the emergence of coaching by experienced crew members. Two high-performing skippers shared their perspectives:

“we put in a lot of training and a lot of time, I think I had some good people in the leadership positions and they were more often than not, they would do most of the training with the new guys in the end. So, the training wasn’t all from me, so I put the leadership in – between the crew, they trained each other” – HPSKIPPER1.

“the team were coaching each other” – HPSKIPPER2.

This perspective was supported by a crew member from the same high-performing team:

“we also have some brilliant crews on the helm who coach other people, so it’s shared – we’re lucky that we have that experience on

board, to share that knowledge, so it's not just him, as others have equal, different knowledge to share and then we all shared our knowledge with people that have arrived [...] we've shared everything – I think we are all naturally, because the skipper's a natural person who wants others to learn and develop, we've all become those kind of people too" – HPRTW6.

These extracts highlight the influence of the skipper in enabling a coaching web to develop within a team context. A contrasting perspective was offered by another crew member:

"I probably learnt more from the experience of the crew members and sailors than directly from (HPSKIPPER3) to be honest – I don't mean that unkindly – it's just the way it was. It's almost like the learning process had to go from (HPSKIPPER3) to the watch leaders and then they used to re-interpret the instructions to something that we could all understand. That we could make sense of so that we could do it at the right pace and that's how we learnt" – HPRTW5.

The coaching web enabled the learning to be shared throughout the team. A lower-performing skipper acknowledged that the coaching was important, but not well developed on their boat:

"I think constant coaching was quite important and it was something that we didn't do initially [...] there wasn't nearly enough coaching on the boat initially. Obviously there was coaching from me to get the guys up to standard but then there was no further coaching from the watch leaders" – LPSKIPPER1.

The skipper recognised the value of constant coaching, but acknowledged that the coaching web was not well developed. A different perspective was offered by crew members, who recognised the value of coaching from the watch leaders and Round the World crew:

“I was with both watch leaders. I spent time with both of them. And I got on with them. They were nice guys and taught me well” – HPRTW4.

“we had one watch leader who was a very experienced sailor previously, had done instructing and [...] he took a lot of time to do stuff with you when he could” – HPLEG6.

“I had no problems being led by them, generally they were more experienced than me and they could always teach me something” – HPRTW5.

“when you talk about coaching [...] when the Round the Worlders have to take us under their wings” – HPLEG5.

These extracts are all from high-performing crew, where the coaching web was well developed, as illustrated in this extract:

“So there was a lot of mutual support, which just came out of friendships and bonds that grew on the boat. I don’t know if that’s coaching or mentoring. We would sort of analyse what we were feeling – that’s more pastoral care, than coaching and mentoring – but maybe it’s all part of the same thing really? It was spontaneous – it would grow” – HPRTW1.

The relationships between the team members were highlighted as supportive and allowed for the spontaneous sharing of learning. In contrast to these experiences, a crew member shared a negative experience of being coached:

“I would label this as a prime example of what not to do in coaching [...] when the watch leader is screaming at me, and he has no sailing experience. This is how not to create a cohesive team” – CHANGELEG2.

This extract highlights the impact of ineffective coaching on team cohesiveness. It also suggests that the skipper is influential in establishing

the coaching web, as the web was not well developed on the lower-performing boats or where there had been a change of skipper. The emergence of the coaching web on the high-performance boats suggests a link between coaching and team performance. Coaching enabled the development of relationships to support the emergence of a coaching web, generating a coaching culture within the team context. There is the potential to develop the internal coaching skills of the directors to address the complexity of balancing the coaching, mediation and performance management of the skippers. Timing constraints were also identified as impactful on the emergence of internal coaching, which suggests a more flexible coaching approach is required in challenging contexts.

5.5. Summary and discussion

An initial scepticism was found to exist around the construct of coaching, which was perceived as remedial or prescriptive “teaching”, which can undermine engagement. Mihiotis and Argirou (2016:459) suggested that coaches position coaching in a productive way that “diminishes second thoughts and misconceptions” to encourage engagement. The deficit-based perception of coaching contradicts with the extant theory, which defines coaching as a growth and development opportunity (Mihiotis & Argirou, 2016). However, the focus on problems provided an opportunity for the skippers to review action with the coaches and develop new approaches and processes to contribute towards growth and performance.

A lack of clarity also existed around defining the purpose of coaching, generating paradoxical tensions between development and performance and between an individual and collective perspective on development. Whilst the espoused purpose was to support the well-being and development of the individual skippers, the findings indicated that the focus was also on enhancing the collective crew experience, by focusing on performance managing the skippers. Within this lack of clarity, the complexity of assessing the value of coaching was explored, and the implications identified. The temporal dimension was also highlighted as a

consideration in assessing the value of coaching as a coaching web developed throughout the team.

A challenge exists for practitioners and researchers to overcome the scepticism associated with the lack of both awareness and clarity of coaching purpose. This finding highlights the importance of contracting as a process for managing expectations about coaching. A clear focus on aligning growth and development to team performance is necessary to shift the deficit focus of participants towards a growth-orientated, performance focus, to ensure that participants do not perceive coaching as being associated with problems. By framing challenges as opportunities for development, which are aligned to team performance, skippers are more likely to engage with the coaching process. The research aligns with the recent research by Grant (2017:37), which identified a third 'generation' of workplace coaching that extends beyond conceptualisations of coaching as remedial and "explicitly focuses on enhancing both the performance *and* the well-being of individuals and organisations in ways that are sustainable and personally meaningful".

The skippers valued the initial coaching before the race start as the coaching supported the skippers in transitioning from technical experts to team leaders. Manderscheid and Harrower (2016) recognised the complexity associated with leadership transitions and identified five strategies: learning, collaborating, developing talent, reflecting (on self) and decision making. The coaching encouraged the development of relationships amongst the skippers, which resulted in shared learning and peer coaching during the race. The coaching experience during the race was more varied and characterised by classic themes of conflict and crucial conversations related to the social dynamics within the crews. There was a shift in perspective from a deficit-based, remedial coaching approach with a problem focus, towards recognising that coaching is value adding. This finding aligns with the work of Petriglieri *et al.* (2011) and Barnson (2014),

who recognised the potential to reframe past experiences or challenges in the regressive domain into growth opportunities.

Implementation challenges existed, which drew attention to key influences, including the coaching relationship, programme design and modality, organisational support and timing. Identity preservation was also recognised as a potential barrier to engagement, as skippers experienced a sense of vulnerability in addressing the challenge of development in a socially embedded context. The findings suggest that the skippers needed more protected time to make sense of their experience of leading teams in challenging conditions. This perspective aligns with the empirical work of Petriglieri *et al.* (2011) which draws on the distinction between the holding and regressive environment, to create leader identity workspaces. The findings extend this empirical work by exploring the role of coaching in developing skippers in the contrasting context of a global sailing race. Further, the findings indicate how leader identity preservation can inhibit leader development.

There was a lack of data on the personal impact of the coaching on the skippers. This could reflect an imbalance in the coaching agenda, with the coaching focused on ensuring crew well-being. Alternatively, it could be related to the preservation of the identity, as the skippers perceived the coaching as prescriptive “teaching” and also expressed vulnerability. Participants commented on the need to be open to the coaching, which suggests that skippers found the process challenging at times. This finding aligns with the work of Dweck (2008), who explored how the preservation of an expert mindset can undermine growth and development. There is an underlying tension or paradox between supporting and challenging the skippers, which needs to be effectively managed to ensure that the skippers are open to and have access to protected time for development.

The findings also necessitated broadening the coaching perspective from the original study plan of focusing on the external coaching team, to

including internal coaching that emerged organically. The temporal perspective also highlighted the emergence of a coaching web, which was more evident in the high-performing teams, suggesting a link between coaching and team performance. These findings align with the research by O'Connor and Cavanagh (2013), which identified a 'coaching ripple effect' where the positive impact of individual coaching spread throughout the organisational system. The role of the skipper as coach and influencer of the emergence of a coaching web to support the development of a coaching culture is highlighted as central to team development.

There are similarities between the internal coaching that emerged and workplace coaching in an organisational context. Grant (2017) noted that organisations are investing considerable resources into 'Leader as Coach' workplace coaching skills. Further, the International Coach Federation (ICF) 2016 survey highlighted that workplace coaching has emerged strongly with an estimated 10 900 managers/leaders using coaching skills compared to approximately 53 300 professional coaching practitioners worldwide. Scholars (Jones, Woods & Guillaume, 2016; Theeboom *et al.*, 2014) have identified that internal coaching is considered more effective in developing leaders and that coaching methodologies can do more than mere performance enhancement. In fact, Grant (2017:44) has warned that a myopic focus on performance, without taking account of developmental needs or aspects of well-being, runs the risk of pushing people from a distressed but functional zone into states of "distress, dysfunctionality and burn out – unintended outcomes all too familiar to contemporary organisations". Grant (2017:44) defined well-being as a state of equilibrium where the "resources available to an individual are sufficient to deal with the challenges being faced", which suggests that the developmental nature of coaching contributes to individual well-being, by establishing more resources in the form of skills and competencies.

The findings also highlight the potential to develop the internal coaching skills, to address the complexity of balancing coaching with performance

management. Challenges existed with finding the time to implement internal coaching. This finding aligns with Grant's (2017:43) call for third generational coaching, to develop leaders' coaching agility to create a "culture of quality conversations where performance and developmental conversations are the everyday norm", rather than a mandated, rigid time-bound performance review conversation model. Coaching within the sailing context can be compared to the "informal everyday collaborative conversations that people need to have in order to communicate effectively in the cut and thrust of day-to-day corporate work" (Grant, 2017:45). Whilst the race context offered a clearly bounded, novel context to study coaching, it is difficult to separate out coaching, mediation and mentoring, and blurring between these constructs exists. The reality of interrelated roles suggests that the focus should be redirected to understanding how these roles support each other in a team context.

CHAPTER 6

LEADERSHIP IN A TEAM CONTEXT

6.1. Introduction

In this chapter I present the second thematic network representing the global theme: 'leadership in a team context' to illustrate where leadership resides in a team context. The thematic network is illustrated in Figure 6.1 and is made up of five organising themes developed from the relevant basic themes, identified in both the skippers' daily blogs, which described the 'real-time' experience of leading teams and retrospective interviews, which offered a temporal perspective on team leadership. The themes focus on the different perceptions, expectations and experiences of team leadership and illustrate the temporal shifts, including the emergence of team coaching that was introduced later in the race.

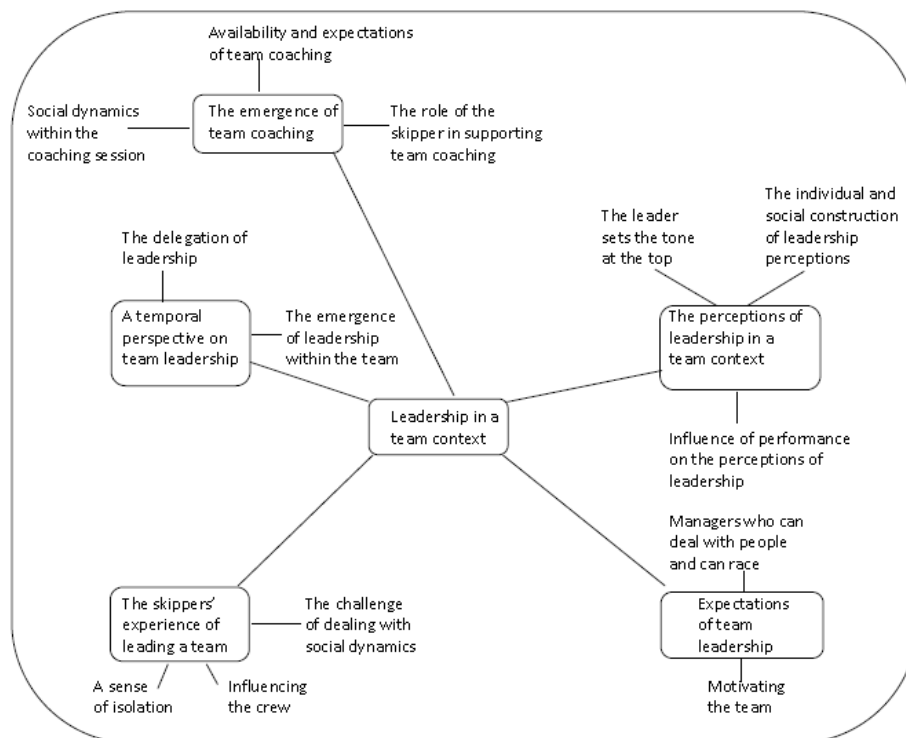


Figure 6.1: Thematic network 2: Leadership in a team context

6.2. The perceptions of leadership in a team context

As the literature on leadership is diverse and fragmented, the participants were asked to share their perceptions of the skippers, so that a multi-level perspective on team leadership could be constructed. Within the data, I identified three basic themes relating to team leadership: the leader 'sets the tone' at the top; the construction of leadership perceptions; and the influence of performance on leadership perceptions.

6.2.1. The leader 'sets the tone' at the top

A significant theme was the perception that the leader sets the tone at the top of the team. For example, high-performing crew members commented:

"the leader always sets the tone" – HPRTW7.

"the fish rots from the head and the alternative to that is – the leader sets the tone" – HPRTW1.

"The skipper to a certain extent sets the tone for the boat, and if he lets things fly or she lets things fly, then that will permeate through the crew" – HPLEG1.

"building the team and the team norms [...] helps to develop peer pressure that maintain those norms" – HPLEG2.

The skipper sets the tone for the team, effectively using peer pressure to impact team behaviour by establishing team norms to develop a collective culture. A director expanded on this theme:

"I think the most important aspect of the race, if you look at the feedback that we've had, even since when I did it in 2002, the single thing that has the biggest impact on the crew experience is the skipper" – DIRECTOR1.

One of the managers was asked about the factors that influence the crew experience and feedback from the crew survey was offered:

“The skipper comes through a lot, in terms of negativity, creating negativity, a lot of skippers do” – MANAGER1.

The influence of the skipper is recognised as significant and can be both positive and negative. There is a risk that conflictual, social dynamics can arise if this team leadership function is not present. For example, a crew member commented:

“if you don’t establish what the objectives are, it means people are going in with their own objectives [...] that may not coincide with the rest of the group and they only find that out when it’s a challenging environment so having that conversation with the team at the beginning is important” – HPLEG2.

It is interesting to note that there are more mentions of the skipper’s role in influencing high-performing teams. Other teams focused more on the social dynamics between crew members and some crew perceived their skipper as part of the team:

“he would genuinely pitch in and join in with you [...] I think he did the right thing by turning the boat over to the crew” – LPLEG1.

It appears that the skipper delegated the leadership to the crew and that the hierarchical structure was less evident, with the skipper being considered as part of the team. A contrasting perspective is offered by a director, who drew on a business analogy to explain the influence of the skipper:

“I think that’s the same in business and it’s the same in most teams, you look at the top of the team. The culture comes from the top. The culture of any organisation comes from the top [...] I think the culture and the mood of the boat always comes from the skipper” – DIRECTOR1.

The perception that the skipper sets the tone for the team appears common in both the sports and organisational context, where a hierarchical structure

represents the relationship between the skipper and the crew. These perceptions are more developed in the high-performing teams, suggesting a relationship between leadership and team performance.

6.2.2. Individual and social construction of leadership perceptions

The participants offered multiple perspectives on the skippers. For example, a director commented:

“I think everyone has a really different view about their skipper” –
DIRECTOR1.

Crew members from a high-performing team shared perceptions of the skipper, which ranged from:

“A bit of a crazed, sociopathic personality, bit of a loner” – HPRTW8

to:

“He’s a genius, all said and done, that man is a genius” – HPRTW4.

These contrasting perspectives relate to the same skipper, which illustrates how the team leader is perceived by different team members. Individuals draw on their existing conceptualisations of leadership to construct perceptions of a skipper’s leadership identity. For example:

“he was never ever a leader, because he didn’t have the drive and the enthusiasm to be a leader. You have to lead from the front” –
LPLEG1.

This crew member cited drive, work ethic and leading from the front as factors in constructing the skipper’s leadership identity. A different perspective was offered by another crew member:

“when everyone met the skipper, we all knew by just looking each other in the eye, we weren’t going to be a winning team. We had an eager skipper, but we also had a [...] quite a messy skipper, a young

skipper as well. So, I think everyone thought, he's not up to the task yet, but he can get there" – LPRTW1.

The perception of the skipper was socially constructed within the team. This finding is interesting in the context of leadership theory, which often prescribes a specific leadership style as preferable. A director commented:

"if you look at the three winning skippers from past races, they are not skippers who would inspire you on first sight. All three are quite similar. They are focused, introvert, they almost come across as uncomfortable communicators to me, but I think because of the amount of effort they put in, all their crews follow them into hell" – DIRECTOR1.

Static personality traits traditionally associated with leadership were not perceived in these winning skippers. Director 1 offered an example of a socially constructed leadership perception that shifted over time:

"I spoke to three or four different crew to get a balanced view and they all said a similar thing but not as far down the scale [...] they all felt that there was a lack of engagement and leadership and communication. At crew allocation their view was different. But I think that's completely normal because on dry land the crew are different as well" – DIRECTOR1.

Multiple, shifting perceptions of leadership suggest that leadership extends beyond static personality traits and behaviours, and encompasses the relationship between the leader and the team and is influenced by multiple perceptions of leadership.

6.2.3. Influence of performance on the perceptions of leadership

Another basic theme that emerged from the data was how performance influences the perceptions of leadership. For example, a director commented:

“If the boat’s doing badly, then the skipper loses all his influence because the crew will in many cases see that the skipper is the reason why they are not doing well. Which is not fair but that’s what they will see. In a successful team, you can paper over lots of cracks – and if you’re not doing well then everything is an issue” – DIRECTOR1.

One of the coaches identified the underlying tensions within a crew and explained how performance contained the social dynamics:

“whilst [...] they are winning, those symptoms are bubbling underneath the surface – it would take them coming last for them to erupt – but at the moment the lid’s on it because they are winning” – COACH4.

These extracts illustrate how performance influences leadership and the social dynamics within the teams. Further, the director suggested:

“the skipper’s job is easier when they are in the lead. And they are more motivated, and have more energy and up and about on deck and interacting a lot more. I think when things start to go wrong, the skippers take that personally, because they are the leader making the tactical decisions, and if something doesn’t go right I think very often they will believe it’s their fault that it’s not going right and it may be, or may be something very different [...] there are lots of cases where their default position is to hide a little bit, so they are less visible, on deck less. Some of that is about how much energy they have, as they get tired as well, but some of it is about results and mentally how tired they are” – DIRECTOR1.

These extracts offer insight into the skippers’ perception of self, the role of the skipper in influencing the team, the socially constructed perceptions of leadership and the interrelationship between performance and team leadership.

6.3. Expectations of team leadership

There are multiple expectations of team leadership, which adds to the complexity of coaching in a team context. Within this complexity, there are

the expectations of managers who can deal with people and can race the boat, and can motivate the team to perform.

6.3.1. Managers who can deal with people and can race

A race director highlighted that a shift had occurred in skipper recruitment:

“we were looking for sailors in the first instance that could race. Now we’re looking for managers who can deal with people and can race and that’s a harder quality to find” – DIRECTOR4.

This shift is in response to the growing expectations of team leadership, with greater demands being placed on the skippers by the crew. A skipper explained how the experience of leading a team differed from expectations:

“I suppose I wasn’t expecting to do as much leadership as was eventually [...] I had to do. I think I approached the Clipper race from a sailing point of view [...] that’s where the team leadership came into it” – LPSKIPPER2.

Crew members from high-performing teams described the task function of the skipper:

“He knows his job of sailing [...] in bad conditions, he was taking good decisions always” – HPRTW3.

“you can have a very good skipper who sails the boat hard but they have to realise that people have good days and bad days and you have to accommodate that [...] appreciate that they are responsible for lives off shore” – HPLEG2.

These extracts highlight the task function of racing the boat, whilst also addressing the function of managing crew well-being. There appears to be a duality of function between sailing and people management. A director elaborated on the task function:

“I think they all expect to be safe. I think they are very basic on a survival expectation – is the same for everybody. They don’t expect

their skippers to be reckless, they don't expect their skippers to put them into unnecessary unsafe conditions" – DIRECTOR1.

Crew members also commented on how the skippers delivered on task expectations, particularly safety:

"for what he set out to achieve, he achieved it and all of us came home safely with probably the least number of injuries. So, he never played with our safety" – HPRTW4.

"the decisions made and not made around that injury eroded every trust, or pieces of trust or confidence in the skipper in making the right decisions in the interests of the crew" – CHANGELEG2.

These contrasting perspectives of the crews' expectations of safety draw attention to the task function, which was also highlighted in the Marine Accident Investigation Branch (MAIB) report (2017:4) published in response to the two fatalities that had occurred during the race:

"placing significant responsibility on the skipper as the only employed person on board [...] Greater supervision could have prevented both of these accidents [...] recommend to review and modify its onboard manning policy and shore-based management procedures so that Clipper yacht skippers are effectively supported, and where appropriate, challenged to ensure safe working practices are maintained continuously on board".

The report highlighted both the need for additional support for the skippers and more focus on the task function, particularly safe working practices. Within the task function, some dissension existed with regard to expectations of decision making, as illustrated by crew members:

"in terms of the boat strategy [...] obviously that's the skipper's decision" – HPLEG2.

"he wouldn't talk about the race strategy very much. If he had shared some of the decisions and when it didn't work out then we could say

we were all consulted and we all collectively made the decision. It didn't work out and he had made it unilaterally [...] we were all looking at him for making a bad decision" – HPRTW5.

"the crew ended up making a decision towards the end of the race, not the skipper" – CHANGELEG2.

The crew expected the skipper to make the decisions, yet required more consultation in decision making, particularly as the race progressed. The crew also had expectations that the skipper would coach the team. There were repeated complaints about skippers not coaching the crew in the crew survey. For example, a crew member commented:

"He kind of, has not put much into them – and that was evident really in their evolutions" – LPLEG1.

A skipper offered a contrasting perspective:

"He had drilled them, for the right way of doing things, it was always his way" – HPSKIPPER2.

These perspectives indicate an underlying tension within the team leader role, between the task of sailing the boat and the people dimension of facilitating the crew experience and coaching the crew.

6.3.2. Motivating the team

Another basic theme is the expectation of team motivation. For example, a director commented:

"you need your skipper to explain that we did this, we took this tactical decision and it didn't work, stay together, stay strong [...] you're a team, remember how good you felt when you won [...] so then it's all about what your leader delivers to you, and that's what keeps the crew together [...] crew won't stay together without any leadership – we see that so often" – DIRECTOR1.

The extract highlights how motivation by the skipper contributes to team cohesion. A high-performing skipper also focused on the motivational function:

“So everybody was demotivated at that point and heads were dropping [...] and as a leader, that’s always going to be the toughest moment, regroup, sit everyone down and just explain the situation” – HPSKIPPER1.

A crew member offered a different perspective on how the skipper motivated the team:

“even if you have a major incident [...] it’s always well done, team, well done, good recovery and team is a word he uses a lot” – HPLEG2.

In addition, this crew member recognised the importance of team motivation within a challenging context:

“I don’t think you can be ruthless because people won’t take ruthlessness in that environment [...] you need the care and consideration and the well done team, you know. And the praise has to come before the blame [...] certainly with (HPSKIPPER2’s) team, there’s a no blame culture” – HPLEG2.

These extracts illustrate that there are multiple expectations of team leadership, including the task focus of racing the boat safely and the people management function related to the crew well-being and development. The functional duality generated some underlying tension, which was compounded by the expectation of team coaching by the skipper.

6.4. The skippers’ experience of leading a team

In contrasting the skippers’ experience with the expectations of team leadership, a similar tension existed between the task focus and people management. Whilst the skippers did comment on the challenge inherent in

the ocean racing task, their focus was predominantly on the challenge of dealing with social dynamics and influencing the team.

6.4.1. The challenge of dealing with crew dynamics

The basic theme to emerge from the skippers' experience of leading a team was the challenge of dealing with the crew dynamics. For example, a director reflected on this challenge:

“there are so many different expectations of the race – so many different reasons and motivations for doing the race, and that is a tough challenge for the skippers” – DIRECTOR3.

The crew dynamics related to the diverse race expectations. A crew member recognised the challenge faced by the skippers:

“a very diverse group and most of whom he didn't know particularly well. So, I think that's a huge challenge and to then put it on the shoulders of a 31 year old, that's a pretty significant challenge” – HPRTW1.

Skippers shared experiences of addressing the challenge of crew dynamics:

“at times our crew dynamics were really bad. We weren't communicating as a team, we weren't talking to each other; the watches weren't communicating with each other. These things that we noticed, we tried to do something about. But I think there was such a [...] wealth of stuff going wrong that we couldn't fix everything” – LPSKIPPER1.

“It was all about people and trying to get them to agree to a similar goal and a similar [...] you know, diffusing arguments that were over nothing at the time” – LPSKIPPER2.

“It's very difficult, because you've got a complete mix [...] of abilities, goals, ages, so on one leg I had a woman who was 71 and also a woman who was 19 [...] and they have their own different reasons,

haven't they? So, competitiveness, abilities and how do you manage them, all their expectations" – LPSKIPPER3.

These extracts highlight that the lower-performing skippers found the crew dynamics particularly challenging. However, two high-performing skippers also commented on the crew dynamics:

"So, I had some crew that weren't really happy when we were racing and other crew, that all they wanted to do was win [...] I guess the other thing I had, I had some crew thought they were experienced and were up to watch leading, and weren't" – HPSKIPPER2.

"I guess the biggest impact probably came halfway through the race when we had quite a change in personnel, so we had one or two loud individuals joined the crew, and it kind of changed the dynamic quite a bit" – HPSKIPPER1.

These skippers drew attention to the crew dynamics and described how crew changes impacted on these dynamics. Attention was also drawn to the influence of specific crew members on the crew dynamics. A contrasting perspective was offered by a crew member:

"The skipper is not an easy guy to work with. It was definitely part of the challenge. I suppose in a way that was it [...] listening to and taking instructions from someone who is just not interested, who's not there for the same reasons as me. He was there to win. I was there for the experience" – HPRTW4.

Tension existed between the competing agendas. A director reflected on the role of the skipper in managing these social dynamics:

"he (skipper) said to the crew he wasn't going to get involved in the crew issues – there are pros and cons to that [...] if the skippers are not going to get involved in that, then they need to nominate a crew member who will so you then have a strong watch leader and your skipper needs to tell the crew" – DIRECTOR1.

These extracts highlight that a challenge existed in aligning diverse expectations amongst the crew, as both the crew and skippers had different motivations for taking part in the race. Coaching can support skippers in developing team communication, to address the challenge of social dynamics and contribute to managing expectations.

6.4.2. Influencing the crew

Whilst the high-performing skippers were clear about the task focus on winning the race, other skippers were ambivalent about influencing the crew to win the race. A lower-performing skipper described this ambivalence:

“I led the boat in the way that if people wanted to do stuff, they were allowed to, so if everyone agreed that they wanted to race as hard as possible then I would have let them, and if they agreed that they wanted to sunbathe on deck, then I sort of let them do that too” – LPSKIPPER2.

The skipper acknowledged that this approach caused some problems as one crew member was very competitive. However, the majority of the crew bought into the approach, resulting in a “fairly happy environment”. The skipper elaborated:

“if you have enough people to buy into that, then really, it came from them. The atmosphere came from everyone so it wasn’t me trying to convince them from day one to do” – LPSKIPPER2.

The influence of the crew is evident in this extract. A director expanded on this perspective:

“They (crew) were more interested in the experience and enjoying the experience than the outcome. So actually, they are really happy [...] even though they are in the bottom two or three [...] and whether their skipper is as naturally as laid back as he is coming across or whether it’s what they told him” – DIRECTOR1.

These extracts illustrate the influence of the majority of the crew in establishing the collective culture and the implications for social dynamics. A contrasting perspective was offered by a crew member from a high-performing team:

“He was there to win. I was there for the experience. And after a while you can't help but get caught up in his excitement of something happening” – HPRTW4.

Both the skipper and the crews' influence is evident in addressing the challenge of aligning expectations and motivating the team to perform.

6.4.3. A sense of isolation

Within this socially embedded team context, some of the lower-performing skippers shared the sense of isolation they experienced:

“You can't really talk to anyone. That's it. You just have to deal with it [,,] you're on your own. You can't get off the boat. The only ones that are going to get you back are yourselves, so you can't really rely on anyone else” – LPSKIPPER3.

One of the high-performing skippers was proactive in addressing this challenge:

“as a leader, you need that, there's always going to be that distance between you and the crew, so you need that kind of interface. This guy (team co-ordinator), he was my kind of go between. He would tell me things that the crew were feeling but wouldn't tell me [...] choosing the right kind of person to do that job was one of the keys to having a great team and everyone getting on really” – HPSKIPPER1.

A crew member from this team recognised the distance that existed:

“(HPSKIPPER1) and I were probably for most of the race, on a different frequency” – HPRTW1.

The distance that existed between the skipper and the crew was expanded on by a crew member from another team:

“The skipper is not the best in communication – I was probably the first to discuss with the crew and the crew used me to translate what was in the skipper’s head” – HPRTW3.

A director offered insight into the sense of isolation:

“the Clipper race is so unique from a leadership environment that as soon as you get to sea, the skippers are so isolated, that they change and change faster than the crew because the crew have more peer support. So I think the skipper at crew allocation and your skipper on day one is very different to leg four, leg five, leg six, because of what they’ve been through” – DIRECTOR1.

The extract highlights the development that occurs and the sense of isolation that this development can provoke for the skippers. In summary, team leadership occurs in a socially dynamic context, where conflicting goals may exist. The skipper has a significant influence on the team, but this influence is also reciprocal in nature, as the skipper is socially embedded in a collective team context. The skipper can experience a sense of isolation, which suggests that coaching can offer the skippers a safe space to explore the challenge of leading a team.

6.5. A temporal perspective on team leadership

This section describes the organising theme: ‘a temporal perspective on team leadership’, which comprises the basic themes of delegation and the emergence of team leadership, to offer a temporal perspective on how team leadership emerged over the duration of the race.

6.5.1. The delegation of leadership

The delegation of leadership emerged as a basic theme and two high-performing skippers commented specifically on this aspect:

“I think that probably the most important part of my job, looking back was delegation, and putting the right people in the right places” – HPSKIPPER1.

“I realised that if I couldn’t trust them, I wasn’t going to manage [...] give them the opportunity, give them a bit and then let them get on with it” – HPSKIPPER2.

These high-performing skippers were aware of the need to share leadership and delegate tasks, to ensure that the boat could operate effectively. A crew member confirmed that HPSKIPPER1 “delegated a lot through the team coordinator. He was there to support”. This crew member expanded on the role of the skipper in delegating leadership:

“I think the successful skippers, like successful business leaders, don’t try to do everything themselves [...] we had a good cadre of watch leaders and assistant watch leaders, the team co-ordinator and a few other of the mature people on board that kind of made a peak of the leadership pyramid, which I think really made a good culture on the boat. But if (HPSKIPPER1) wasn’t the way he was, that wouldn’t have survived. It wouldn’t have flourished” – HPRTW1.

This crew member recognised that delegation was essential for successful skippers, in both the sailing and the organisational context. The role of the skipper was also recognised in developing the leadership structure from the formally delegated roles assigned by the skipper and informal leadership from mature people who did not hold any formal leadership roles on the boat. A crew member on another high-performing team also focused on the team leadership structure:

“We had a very clear leadership structure – there was never any doubt on what was expected, what you were doing, whether that was from my watch or from (the skipper). Everybody knew what was expected, what their roles were. There was never any vacuum there – you knew the leadership” – HPLEG1.

A clear leadership structure existed, which contributed to clarifying crew expectations of team leadership. A contrasting perspective on delegation was offered by a director:

“I have an example again from Vietnam where one of the watch leaders was saying to the crew you need to do this and the crew just said no, you’re a watch leader not the skipper. So the guy went to the skipper to say you need to explain to your crew the authority you’ve handed to your watch leaders and the skipper didn’t do that and they never got to that. In effect, it came to where the skipper was the leader and everyone else was equal so there’s no point in having a watch leader” – DIRECTOR1.

These perspectives highlight that the appointment of watch leaders does not automatically result in the delegation of leadership. Leadership exists within the relationships between the skipper, the watch leaders and the crew members. Crew members explained the reluctance to become a watch leader:

“preferred not to be watch leader as I didn’t want to be between the skipper and the crew” – HPRTW3.

“I was asked if I wanted to be watch leader, I said no, because I don’t really want a) his nose is going to be so far out of joint, he’s not going to co-operate, the one who’s just been ousted, and he’s going to [...] how many of the others are going to [...] because he’s just going to say he’s not a sailor, he’s not doing this right and that right, hang on that’s not the job of the watch leader [...] we have a lot of friction in the crew and I always thought the crew never bonded, never gelled and they weren’t – the watch leaders weren’t leaders at all” – HPRTW7.

These extracts highlight the social dynamics which influence the leadership roles and the relationships within the crew. This crew member expanded on the influence:

“I’ve got as much influence with the skipper doing what I’m doing below, than I ever could have as a watch leader, without any of the drudgery and tedium of actually doing the job [...] I’m getting more than enough say doing what I do and influence over him” – HPRTW7.

Mutual influencing patterns exist, which contributes to the complexity of distributing leadership within a socially dynamic team context. A coach also highlighted how the theme of delegation was present when coaching the skippers. This coach focused on engaging the skippers to explore:

“how to push power and influence downwards – how to give them more control without feeling like they were abdicating [...] utilising their watch leaders and the relationship that they had with their watch leaders [...] how they could make more effective use of them” – COACH4.

The relational and hierarchical nature of leadership is reflected in the extract, as skippers pushed power and influence downwards. The delegation of leadership was more evident in the high-performing teams, with skippers pro-actively delegating leadership to the watch leaders and other experienced team members.

6.5.2. The emergence of leadership within the team

The review of the daily skipper blogs created an awareness of a collective, team leadership perspective. In analysing the word frequency of the daily skipper blogs, the words “we”, “our” and similar words accounted for 5.39% of the total word count, whilst words such as “I” (1.1%) and “crew” (0.90%) accounted for 2% of the total word count, as illustrated in the word map in Figure 6.2.

after that, it's the typical build up [...] we started to argue with each other, and struggle, not having one skipper on deck, but having four or five people who thought they knew what to do [...] and at some point, we just had to drag our skipper on deck, because it went so childish after a while, between some crew, because most crew were doing really well and some crew just couldn't do with missing that leader, well they thought they could do it, but they couldn't" – LPRTW1.

This description is considered significant as it illustrates the contested, micro-process of shared leadership emergence, and also highlights that leadership is not necessarily "distributed" by the team leader; nor does it always emerge from the formal leadership structure. This crew member continued describing how the shared leadership became established as the race progressed:

"around leg six, seven and eight, we knew who the leaders were in the group, and within that some hierarchy and I think in the beginning of the race that was still something to figure out amongst certain people and especially in stressful situations [...] actually in stressful situations, those are the easiest because the strong sailors and the strong leaders stand up and other people might be scared and just willing to follow because otherwise it might be dangerous. But in situations where it's easy and everyone is bored, that's where the actual leadership role is being fought out" – LPRTW1.

This extract highlights how shared leadership is socially constructed and becomes established in a hierarchical structure. Further, it illustrates how crew members are willing to follow others in stressful situations and how leadership becomes more contested in situations of relative calm conditions. A contrasting example was offered by a crew member of a high-performing team, who was not a watch leader:

"It was quite difficult because of how he (skipper) handles things. Relationship with him was difficult. The team decided to survive him. The dynamics of the group were run by the group and not by him" – HPRTW3.

In this example, the relationship between the skipper and crew was conflictual. The extract illustrates how the group bypassed the skipper and influenced the social dynamics.

In summary, the data reflected the emergence of different leadership structures over the duration of the race. Leadership is delegated through the formal structure of watch leaders and the appointment of a team co-ordinator and influenced by the skipper and the social dynamics within the team context. Coaching can support the skippers in pushing authority to the team. Tensions exist in distributing leadership as leadership roles are contested and influence patterns extend beyond the formal leadership structures. Further, shared leadership emerged as a separate, contested process which does not necessarily follow the formal leadership structure; nor is it always delegated by the team leader.

6.6. The emergence of team coaching

Team coaching emerged as the race progressed, with the first team coaching occurring in Seattle, which was past the halfway stage of the race. Three examples of team coaching were compared and contrasted, to contribute to understanding “how” coaching works in a team context. The basic themes of availability and expectations of team coaching, the role of the skipper and the social dynamics are explored in the following sections.

6.6.1. Availability and expectations of team coaching

The skipper from the high-performing team Blue commented on the availability of team coaching:

“It was made available at that time whereas, beforehand, it wasn’t really an option. It was only at that point that it was alluded to the fact that you could have a team session – otherwise I think I would have done it before” – HPSKIPPER4.

Team coaching could have been valuable earlier in the race. A crew member from the lower-performing team Orange also commented on the need for team coaching:

“we needed it because our team was a disaster. There was in-fighting, people were annoyed, the leggers were annoyed that the round the worlders’ had an agenda, no-one was on the same page” – LPRTW2.

This crew member highlighted the potentiality of getting the team “on the same page” and suggested a focus for team coaching:

“The crew – it’s all about the crew. The skippers know their jobs. And it’s not about the skipper. Everyone says it’s about the team and the skipper. But it’s not” – LPRTW2.

Team Orange elected to do separate coaching sessions for the skipper and the crew. Crew members shared their perspectives on the team coaching:

“they were shocking in Seattle [...] terrible job. They did a coaching session and it was useless – it was good because it got everyone talking [...] there was no feedback, no constructive comment back. There was nothing that helped us, as a team, achieve what we wanted. They just listened to what we had to say” – LPRTW2.

“There was just nothing there. They got everyone talking. There was no how to help us do that. Mission could have helped that but they didn’t which was a real shame – a missed opportunity I think [...] at least facilitate the relationship building [...] joining an environment where people know each other and everyone on the boat has to settle new relationships again” – LPLEG5.

Whilst these crew members valued the opportunity to talk about the issues, they appeared to lose confidence in the coaching process as they expected the coaching to offer solutions in the form of feedback. The skipper also expressed doubts about the effectiveness of the coaching:

“spoke to Mission, Mission Performance for some guidance, for some help [...] didn’t really get a lot of help from them – so just kind of went it alone” – LPSKIPPER1.

These extracts illuminate the social dynamics and highlight the importance of clarifying what can be achieved with coaching. A director expanded on this perspective:

“they think it’s going to be some sort of cure all [...] and it’s going to solve all their problems and it doesn’t so the next time they are more reluctant to do it” – DIRECTOR2.

Coaching has the potential to facilitate the development of relationships within the teams and resolve social dynamics, but expectations need to be managed to ensure that participants do not perceive coaching as a “cure all” process.

6.6.2. The role of the skipper in supporting team coaching

Skippers influenced the engagement with the team coaching. For example, the skipper from team Blue commented:

“there was certainly a lot of me pushing the crew and saying yeah, this is a good idea, whether it’s for your own personal gain now or for your own personal gain later, or whether it’s for the team” – HPSKIPPER4.

Both the individual and team benefits of coaching were recognised. The skipper also noted:

“I know individuals that are still not interested in it whatsoever, so that was an instant realiser as to who was there for themselves and who was there for the good of the whole team” – HPSKIPPER4.

This skipper perceived engagement with the coaching as evidence of team commitment. The coach described the behaviour of the skipper in the team coaching:

“HPSKIPPER4 opened himself up for feedback [...] suggested that his watch leaders go and then anyone else who wanted to go [...] worked through his style using the GROW model [...] and realised that they wanted the same things, but how can they work towards it together. Working towards a goal as one team – worked so well in Seattle, they wanted another one in New York” – COACH4.

The coach recognised the vulnerability of the skipper and how the coaching enabled team alignment, leading to increased engagement with the coaching. In contrast to team Blue, the team coaching for team Green was initiated by crew members:

“There was a lot of muttering on the boat [...] we should have a meeting with (skipper) to get all of this on the table, not to be destructive but to clear the air to get to some common ground” – HPRTW1.

The value of coaching in establishing common ground for the team was recognised. The skipper experienced the team coaching as challenging:

“a few of them [...] almost questioning my decisions at the time, my judgement at the time” – HPSKIPPER1.

A crew member expanded on this perspective:

“I said, listen, don’t take what’s just happened as being an assault on your whole stewardship, because it wasn’t. I think he struggled with that quite a bit. It’s hard to deal with critique as opposed to criticism. Sometimes critique is interpreted as criticism” – HPRTW1.

The skipper did not attend the follow-up coaching session and explained:

“was unable to make the session in New York because of scheduling but they did a crew session and [...] some stuff came from that but the idea was to do a joint crew/skipper session” – HPSKIPPER1.

A potential risk exists in team coaching, as the process can be perceived as a challenge to the skipper's authority, which can result in the alienation of the skipper from the crew. Despite this potential risk, one of the race directors suggested that crews:

"need to debrief together, just on their own – important for crew and skippers to debrief together either with Clipper or someone independently. If someone from Clipper is there, they are going to be more closed" – DIRECTOR1.

Another director expanded on the issue related to separate debriefs:

"you never get to the root of that and nothing ever gets solved and the crew don't want to give feedback anymore, because they go back to the boat and all that happens to them is their skipper yells at them [...] the skippers become defensive because of the feedback that they are picking up about their crew. We help add another negative into the situation rather than solving a situation" – DIRECTOR1.

This director also highlighted the potentiality of team coaching in addressing the social dynamics:

"Because then they feel better and they see it from another perspective and maybe their view will soften and that happens from both sides as the truth sits in the middle" – DIRECTOR1.

Team coaching is considered important for debriefing, facilitating the development of relationships and developing team cohesion. Further, independent, external coaching may be more effective at encouraging engagement than internal coaching.

6.6.3. Social dynamics within the coaching session

Social dynamics existed within the coaching sessions. For example, crew members from the three teams commented:

“was supposed to be a let’s call the skipper out [...] they were going to make it a session where we were going to pull (HPSKIPPER4) on his – basically on his tantrums” – HPRTW7.

This extract from team Blue suggests the existence of a hidden agenda for the team coaching. This crew member also commented on the social dynamics:

“they all bottled it and I looked around the table and [...] it went round the other way and when it got to me, I was like, you are not setting me up for this. So, I said I’m going to pass on this and I looked across the table” – HPRTW7.

A similar scenario was offered by a crew member from team Green:

“what actually happened when we got into the meeting, a lot of the younger ones, all went to water and said how wonderful they all thought (HPSKIPPER1) was [...] and I was a bit angry about that, because I thought it was a lost opportunity really” – HPRTW1.

A crew member also identified the time allowed for coaching as a barrier: “we only had an hour” – HPRTW7. This crew member appreciated the coaching support:

“it was trying to do it with a neutral [...] somebody who could be objective – it wasn’t just another opinion. It was a professional who could take a professional view and suggest a solution and that’s why we picked that because we had to do something. We wanted to do it in that environment [...] which was neutral” – HPRTW7.

Coaching offered the support of a neutral space held by an ‘objective’ professional to resolve the social dynamics within the team. Insight was also offered on the content of the coaching session:

“there was a cruciform diagram of the stuff we want and the stuff we don’t want [...] what do we want. We want more pennants, more

podiums – what do we have that we don't want? Well, we have a lot of friction in the crew" – HPRTW7.

A tension existed between competing and crew well-being, and coaching enabled discussion around this paradox. There was also evidence of resistance to the coaching process:

"There was, amongst the grumpy old men, there was a very anti-coaching mentality. All this management bollocks – waste of time – and I was amazed to see a couple of them there" – HPRTW7.

Their presence at the coaching sessions could indicate an awareness of the necessity for a team process. One of the directors recognised the challenge of implementing team coaching:

"getting all the crew to buy into it is difficult [...] some crew didn't sign up for the race to have a coaching session. They signed up to race across an ocean. Other crew members, particularly the round the world members, would go to it – who have had all the ups and downs. So to get a whole crew together is quite difficult" – DIRECTOR2.

In summary, team coaching can be effective in developing team cohesion, but there is also the risk that the coaching can alienate the skipper from the crew. The findings highlight the relevance of contracting to clarify expectations as there is the risk that coaching can be perceived as a "cure-all".

6.7. Summary and discussion

Contrasting perceptions of team leadership exist within a team context, between the skipper, who sets the tone at the top and the emergence of shared leadership within the team. The skipper is considered influential in influencing the collective culture, distributing leadership within the team and contributing to team performance. The perceptions of leadership are also dynamic, socially constructed and influenced by team performance. The crew interaction with the skippers is considered dynamic with shifts

occurring as the race progressed and it is assumed that there is a range of leader-crew patterns of engagement. This perspective aligns with the categorisation by Kets de Vries, Florent-Treacy and Korotov (2015), who identified dependency/independency/interdependency as three different patterns of engagement between the team leader and the group.

The findings align with the theory that recognises that leadership is co-constructed and “negotiated on an ongoing basis through a complex interplay among leadership actors, be they designated or emergent leaders” (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010:172). A distinction is drawn between the construction of social reality, which foregrounds the individual perceptions of leadership and the social construction of reality, which foregrounds the social interactions and how this action influences leadership perceptions (Pearce, 1995). Both perspectives on team leadership were shared, which highlights the complexity of developing leaders, socially embedded in a team context. The findings address the call from Kihl *et al.* (2010), who stated that the linking of stakeholders’ perceptions of leadership appears to be absent in the sporting context. Only one other empirical study was found in a sailing context, which correlated the crews’ perceptions of leaders with team performance (Soane *et al.*, 2015).

The theoretical perspective on the social construction of leadership is found to be relevant in the sailing context. This perspective eschews a leader-centric approach where the leader’s “personality, style, and/or behaviour are the primary (read only) determining influences on follower’s thoughts and actions” (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010:175). Specifically, the study offers a microcosm of socially constructed team leadership, which recognises the reciprocal influence of performance on leadership perceptions. The case study illustrates the complexity of team leadership and recognises that a linear, cause and effect perspective on coaching and team performance does not sufficiently capture the complexity associated with researching coaching in this context.

An underlying tension existed across the perceptions, expectations and experiences of team leadership, between the competing task and people dimensions of team leadership. This perspective aligns with the functional approach to team leadership to understand *what* team leaders do. Kozlowski *et al.* (2016) recently conducted a review of leadership theories and concluded that functional and shared leadership theory is relevant to team-centric leadership. Hackman and Wageman (2005:273) also proposed that a functional approach to leadership “leaves room for an indefinite number of ways to get key group functions accomplished, and avoids the necessity of delineating all the specific behaviours or styles a leader should exhibit in given circumstances”. Both task and people dimensions were highlighted, with the task dimension encompassing the expectation of team coaching by the skipper and the people dimension encompassing social and motivational functions. Fransen, Vanbeselaere *et al.* (2012) identified that task leadership was perceived as the most important leadership function by both players and coaches in the sports context. Whilst the two fatalities, referred to previously, highlighted the relevance of task leadership, particularly crew safety, the skippers highlighted crew management as the most challenging aspect of their race experience. These findings align with the research by Cranwell-Ward *et al.* (2002) and West (2013), where the management of social dynamics was identified as the key leadership challenge, in the context of a sailing race. I constructed three team leadership functions from the data: task, motivational, and social. The fourth category of developing external relationships was not interpreted from the findings, but this does not preclude its existence, as the research scope did not accommodate the exploration of the skippers’ relationships with external stakeholders, beyond the coach and management team. The findings from this study extend the findings from previous studies, by offering a perspective on how these dynamics emerged and how coaching supported the development of team leadership within this context.

Whilst the functional perspective of team leadership offers substantial theoretical diversity and is represented by a variety of taxonomies to describe team leadership functions (Kozlowski *et al.*, 2016), the approach does not sufficiently address the complex social dynamics that are evident in the findings. Hosking (1988:147) illuminated this challenge by suggesting that: “we need to understand leadership, and for this, it is not enough to understand what leaders do”. The findings triggered a review of both the shared and the relational leadership literature. Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011:1434) described relational leadership as an “intersubjective view of the world to offer a way of thinking about who leaders are in relation to others [...] and how they might work with others within the complexity of experience”. The emergence of team leadership as a collective process is distinct from the practices designated leaders engage in. This interpretation aligns with social constructionist scholars (Ospina & Sorenson, 2006; Uhl-Bien, 2006), who suggest that the entity perspective of ‘the leader’, while relevant for action, represents a different phenomenon from that of the relational orientation of ‘leadership’, and that each needs to be treated distinctly. The example of team leadership emergence cited in the chapter illustrated how leadership becomes a reality when one or more individuals in the team succeed in framing and defining how the demands of the group will be achieved and who will address the need for direction in collective action. Through a process of attribution, the team agreed to assign each other different roles and functions, including the role of leader, for purposive action and to support team well-being.

The findings highlight that team leadership is relational and systemic, emerging and manifesting itself through the dynamic relationships within the team. These relationships are grounded in wider systems of interdependence and constrained by social structure. A social constructionist lens allowed for the exploration of multiple perspectives on leadership to understand how stakeholders understand and attribute leadership within a team context. The meaning-making processes that helped construct leadership and the attributions of leadership did not just

occur in people's minds, nor were they disembodied from the context. These processes were rooted in social interaction and influenced by contextual dynamics.

The claims that leadership is relational, systemic, emergent, contextual and socially constructed, do not necessarily lead to the conclusion that team leadership always takes a collective form; nor does it mean that it is by nature democratic. The findings highlight that formal and informal leadership take multiple forms, depending on the attributions that those in relation make about each other in teams. Further, the tasks that call forth leadership can, in fact, be distributed so that different individuals take up roles and leadership emerges within the team and shifts over time. The team coaching was found to be supportive of leadership emergence, as the coaching engagement offered a context to uncover the dominant, underlying knowledge principles (Drath, 2001) that the team were using to make sense of their work. These principles related to the personal dominance of the skipper and other team members, the interpersonal influence patterns within the team, which emerged through relational dialogue and collaborative learning. The central role of relational dialogue is recognised as it highlights the potentiality of the coaching process in supporting the emergence of team leadership as a relational process shared within the team.

The emergence of shared leadership aligns with recent research that has started to emphasise the importance of "we" in leadership processes (Barnett & Weidenfeller, 2016; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs & Shuffler, 2012). These findings differed from the descriptions of team leadership initially reviewed in the literature. This divergence necessitated a further review of the literature on shared leadership, which Pearce and Conger (2003:1) defined as "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both". Barnett and Weidenfeller (2016:334) found that the interest in shared leadership has

emerged as organisations have moved toward team-based designs. These scholars concluded that, whilst shared leadership in teams has been the topic of substantial research in the last several years, the published literature is “fragmented, complex, and difficult to navigate”.

A key distinction between shared leadership and more traditional forms of leadership is the recognition that influence processes require and emphasise peer or lateral influence in addition to upward and downward hierarchical influence. These authors recognised shared leadership as a relational phenomenon whereby leadership and influence are distributed and reciprocated. Further, shared leadership encompasses the ideas of participative decision making, social exchange theory, self-leadership, self-managed teams, empowerment, and shared cognition, among other important contributions to management science over the last four decades (Pearce & Conger, 2003). Shared leadership is positively related to team performance (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014, D’Innocenzo, Mathieu & Kukenburger, 2014; Nicolaides *et al.*, 2014; Wang, Waldman & Zhang, 2014), team effectiveness (Wang *et al.*, 2014), and team proactivity (Erkutlu, 2012). Leadership is also shared within sports teams (Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck *et al.*, 2015) with Cotterill and Fransen (2016) proposing a radical shift from the traditional vertical view to a shared leadership perspective. The findings address the call by these authors for future research to focus on shared leadership in the team sports context.

Shared leadership, however, does not always produce positive results. The meta study by Wang *et al.* (2014) and Nicolaides *et al.* (2014) showed that each meta-analysis included studies where a negative effect size was reported. For example, O’Toole, Galbraith and Lawler (2003) suggested that shared leadership is counterintuitive, full of pitfalls, and often greeted with scepticism. Notwithstanding these concerns and criticisms, shared leadership appears to be a relevant approach to team leadership and performance. Wang *et al.* (2014:192) recommended that “team members may need to have requisite expertise, information, or individual

performance potential in order to effectively engage in shared leadership". A group of studies has shown that both good vertical and shared leadership are related to positive outcomes for teams (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas *et al.*, 2006; Ensley, Hmieleski & Pearce, 2006; Hoch, 2013; Nicolaides *et al.*, 2014; Pearce & Sims, 2002). The findings support this perspective and extend the research by attempting to offer a micro-perspective on how shared leadership emerged within a team context. The existence of competing agendas within the team contrasted with the concept of a common goal that is often referred to in the team leadership literature (Bass & Bass, 2008, Yukl, 2010). Moreover, the findings support DeRue's (2011) model of team leadership, which draws on the work of Wallace (1970), that suggests that social structures emerge as individuals realise they must come together and engage in achieving interdependent goals. These findings illuminate the paradoxical tension between competition and collaboration, identified by Barnson (2014).

Evidence of team leadership processes was also found in the data, but the dominant focus was on addressing the issues arising from social dynamics. These findings contrast with Hackman and Wageman's (2005) perspective that team coaching should focus on performance processes, rather than resolving the social dynamics. These authors contended that a pervasive emphasis on interpersonal processes reflects a logical fallacy about the role of these processes in shaping performance outcomes. Specifically, they proposed that: "Coaching interventions that focus specifically on team effort, strategy, and knowledge and skill facilitate team effectiveness more than do interventions that focus on members' interpersonal relationships" (Hackman & Wageman, 2005:274).

The team coaching with team Blue suggested that the focus shifted from "calling the skipper out" to "working towards a goal as one team", which aligns with Hackman and Wageman's (2005) performance perspective. This shift in focus also highlighted the underlying tension between addressing problems to developing performance, which echoes the earlier

perspective on the race director and team Orange, where “no-one was on the same page”. An additional review of the literature confirmed that leadership processes are also highlighted by other scholars. For example, Hosking (1988:147) linked leadership to influential acts of organising by emphasising that “it is essential to focus on leadership processes: processes in which influential ‘acts of organizing’ contribute to the structuring of interactions and relationships, activities and sentiments”. Coaching can support team leaders in addressing the social dynamics within the teams, by developing understanding of the multi-dimensionality of team leadership, to support the emergence of shared leadership within the team.

CHAPTER 7

TEAM LEADER DEVELOPMENT AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

7.1. Introduction

In the final chapter of findings, I describe the development of team leadership that emerged in response to both the individual coaching of the skippers and the team coaching. Further, the interrelationship between team leader development and team performance is discussed to address the scepticism around the value of coaching. Within this chapter, the four organising themes representing the findings relating to the global theme 'team leader development and team performance' are discussed. The first organising theme focused on the skippers' transition to team leader, which is encapsulated in the race expectations and preparation for the race experience and influenced by experience. In the second theme, the skippers' experience of the race is compared and contrasted to the expectations of team leadership, to illuminate the relationship between expectations and experience and how these constructs influenced team leader development. The third theme portrays the role of confidence in the development of team leadership and performance, whilst the final theme describes the perceptions of performance in a team context. These organising themes, with their contributing basic themes, are illustrated in thematic network 3 (Figure 7.1) and discussed in the following sections.

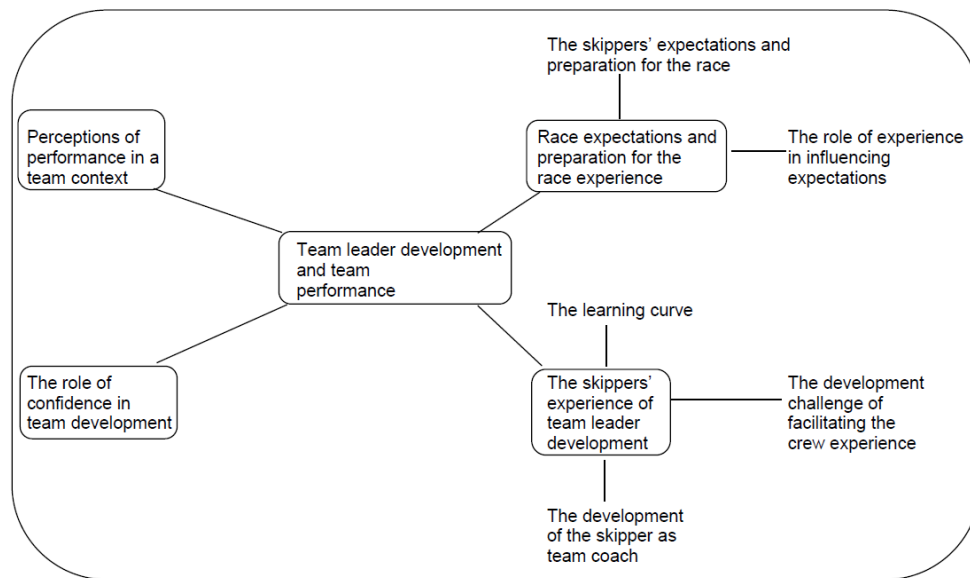


Figure 7.1: Thematic network 3: Team leader development and team performance

7.2. Race expectations and preparation for the race experience

This organising theme describes the role of coaching in race preparation, to address the gap between expectations and the race experience. As the skippers are the focus of the research study, their expectations and preparation are described in the first section.

7.2.1. The skippers' expectations and preparation for the race

The skippers' expectations of the race were influenced by the initial coaching session, which formed part of the race preparation. A director acknowledged that the skippers needed support and described the rationale for the race preparation:

"I am not sure you can ever be totally ready to skipper a yacht in a Round the World race until you have actually done it, which is kind of backwards. [...] therefore any way that we can build their confidence,

with a bit more familiarity and advice [...] and sharing ideas” – DIRECTOR3.

The extract highlights the anticipated role of coaching in building the skippers’ confidence, by sharing experiences and scenarios to address the challenge of the unknown. In contrast to the directors, the skippers shared their insights on the gap that existed between expectations and experience. There was some divergence in views between the lower and high-performing skippers with regard to their expectations of the race. For example, one skipper commented on underestimating the challenge:

“even though I thought I knew how tough it was, and on the one hand expected it, I don’t think I ever respected just how tough it really was” – CHANGESKIPPER1.

This gap between expectations and experience resulted in the resignation of this skipper in the early stages of the race. A lower-performing skipper also highlighted the gap between expectations and the race experience:

“I guess my expectations were a little bit off [...] I suppose I was a bit under prepared [...] for the team side of things” – LPSKIPPER2.

A high-performing skipper offered a different perspective:

“I felt prepared for it, I felt that I couldn’t be more ready to take it on really, but I don’t think anything can ever really prepare you for such a big challenge [...] you just hope that you can [...] that it will just come naturally when you are put in that environment” – HPSKIPPER1.

Whilst expressing confidence in the preparations, the skipper acknowledged the challenge of race preparation and highlighted the expectation that development would occur naturally when faced with the unknown. Further, this skipper recognised that the preparation was valuable in influencing the race experience:

“I knew exactly what to expect and, for the most part, it was accurate and the preparation is absolutely key [...] it would have probably been a completely different experience if we had just been thrown into this group of people, without being briefed.” – HPSKIPPER1.

These perspectives from the skippers highlight different levels of confidence in preparedness prior to the race start, with high-performing skippers appearing more confident that the coaching had prepared them effectively for the race.

7.2.2. The role of experience in influencing expectations

Participants repeatedly commented on the role of experience in influencing expectations and behaviour. Two of the high-performing skippers mentioned their prior experience of corporate coaching and instructing experience:

“I did a lot of it, I was an IT project manager before, I did a lot of sessions like that, coaching [...] trying to find performance in the group [...] So, I’m working like that with the group” – HPSKIPPER3.

The extract suggests the potential for team leaders to draw on their previous experience of coaching to lead their teams and also highlights the potential to transfer coaching skills across contexts. The skipper used the experience of being coached in an organisational context to coach the crew. This skipper expanded on the transfer of coaching skills:

“I don’t have a method, perhaps I have a feeling, to find the way it would be better” – HPSKIPPER3.

This comment suggests that experience becomes internalised to develop leader competence. Another skipper offered a similar perspective:

“a lot of the stuff that they (coaches) were saying [...] that’s what I’ve been doing naturally anyhow” – LPSKIPPER4.

These skippers drew on their prior experience, which was recognised as an influencer of behaviour. A crew member also commented on the internalisation of coaching skills:

“I know the skippers have had sessions, but I couldn’t say what they have been told, as what we’ve seen [...] how much is (the skipper) and how much is what he’s been told, because by nature, he is an instructor” – HPRTW6.

Further, the background of the external coaches was also recognised as influential in the coaching relationship:

“I respected it (coaching) because I knew the backgrounds of those individuals – if I didn’t know the backgrounds of the individual then it would be difficult for me to think about how they would contribute to what I already know” – HPSKIPPER4.

The background of the coaches can be considered as encompassing their experience, which contributed to engagement with the coaching. The experience of the coaches was considered relevant to building the trust and confidence in the coaching process, as the skippers perceived the coaches as experienced in extreme challenges. Further, the skipper highlighted how the coaching could contribute to an existing knowledge base. A director expanded on the role of experience:

“by coaching the skippers, from our experience that we have had in previous races, it helps them understand that there are pretty difficult times, tricky situations [...] coaching them in a certain way, rather than just telling them” – DIRECTOR3.

This director highlighted how experience of the race context enabled the directors to coach the skippers, by developing the skippers’ awareness of challenges that can be expected. This coaching contributed to the alignment of expectations to the race experience. A skipper commented on the support received from the internal coaching:

“both (DIRECTORS) have done the race before so they know what we’re up against and they understand completely what it is we have to go through. So they were very supportive” – LPSKIPPER1.

A crew member also highlighted the role of experience in influencing the social dynamics within the team:

“people will naturally defer to people with experience” – HPRTW7.

Experience was found to influence the coaching relationship, the transfer of coaching skills and the social dynamics. Further, the findings describe the process of learning from experience, to address the gap between expectations and experience. A crew member commented on this process:

“our skipper, he is someone who just goes with his feelings, and if he thinks something will work, he will try it and if it doesn’t work, he will admit that it didn’t work and then goes on with something new and he’s always experimenting, even with something that worked, he will always try something new” – LPRTW1.

Different stages of learning from experience are evident in the extract with the skipper drawing on emotions (“goes with his feelings”), cognition (“thinks something will work”), experimentation (“will try it”), and reflective observation (“admit that it didn’t work”). The extract also highlights that the learning is continuous, with further experimentation (“goes on with something new”) following the reflective stage. This finding corresponds to the analysis of the interviews, where the word “think” also appeared at the top of the word frequency query, highlighting that the participants were in the process of reflecting on their experience during the interview process.

These extracts suggest that a gap exists between expectations and experience, which highlights the role of coaching in preparing the skippers for transitioning into a team leadership role. Experience plays a central role in development and is also recognised as a foundational factor in the coaching relationship. Further, the findings address the call by Day *et al.*

(2014) for a greater focus on understanding the complexity of how the development process unfolds. The findings also support the work of Day *et al.* (2014), who conceptualised that development occurs in the ongoing, daily practice of leadership activities.

7.3. The skippers' experience of team leader development

The literature provides an evidence base that coaching works, but there is less clarity on how coaching supports team leader development. Three basic themes emerged from the data to offer more clarity on how coaching supports team leader development. The first theme describes the learning curve, followed by a discussion on the developmental challenge of facilitating the crew experience and an overview of the development of the skipper as coach.

7.3.1. The learning curve

There were repeated references to the development challenge faced by the skippers. For example, a skipper contrasted the initial learning curve at the first stage of the race to later stages:

“the learning curve for me was huge, and the middle bit was more of the same and the end was [...] in a way, it was let's see what we can do before it's all over” – LPSKIPPER2.

Attention is drawn to the learning opportunity that was presented by the challenge and the temporal dimension that illustrates that development occurred over time. Another skipper also acknowledged the scale of the challenge:

“it was definitely, probably the most challenging experience I've ever had [...] it was quite daunting” – HPSKIPPER1.

Whilst this skipper acknowledged the daunting nature of the challenge, a crew member acknowledged the novelty of the challenge and commented on the impact:

“never been through anything like that [...] the burden on his shoulders was immense” – HPRTW1.

This crew member expanded on this perspective and suggested that the skipper was:

“on the edge of his capability, it’s stretching him” – HPRTW1,

This quotation suggests that development is occurring, which can be considered an overwhelming experience, as reflected in “on the edge of his capability”, which highlights the role of coaching in supporting the skipper through the development process. A director reflected on the role of coaching in supporting the skippers in decision making:

“if they can see another route to achieving their goals and objectives [...] at an impasse with a crew member, having some coaching, even just talking it through, with somebody else, you can generally find a way through [...] the solution normally always presents itself to you [...] coaching is a tool to unlocking that for you” – DIRECTOR2.

The director offered a clear link between coaching, as a tool to support decision making, and encouraging reflection on alternative routes to “find a way through”. Another director also reflected on the role of coaching in exploring different approaches to problem solving:

“lots of different, different styles of doing things, different ways, sometimes you can, I guess people can be quite tunnel visioned” – DIRECTOR3.

Further, this director expanded on the role of coaching:

“encourage them to find solutions” – DIRECTOR3.

Whilst these directors acknowledged the value of coaching, one of them also recognised the challenge of coaching the skippers:

“It’s quite tricky – some of them are very good at it – others not so. Some are very good at listening and acting on it – even if it’s passive and some are not. It’s very difficult I think” – DIRECTOR2.

This extract highlights that team leader development occurs individually and is related to the skippers’ identity, past experience and learning orientation. This finding aligns with the extant theory that recognises that development trajectories differ (Day & Sin, 2011), which highlights that coaching methodology’s greatest strength is that it originates from the individual agenda and builds on individual motivation and creativity (Swart & Harcup, 2013).

A different perspective was offered by the review of the crew surveys and crew interviews, which drew attention to the contagion of affective states in the teams. There were repeated references to the impact of the skippers’ mood on the crew. The coaching team also identified this theme as relevant in the coaching of the skippers. The directors recognised how the coaching supported the skippers in managing affective states:

“let the skippers vent” – DIRECTOR1.

“Built confidence” – DIRECTOR3.

The coach offered a different perspective and recognised the challenges faced by the skippers and highlighted the need to:

“focus on resilience” – COACH1.

A different perspective was offered by one of the skippers, who appreciated that the coach offered support to the skippers in addressing the sense of isolation:

“just someone to talk to” – LPSKIPPER3.

These extracts illustrate that coaching can support team leader development across both a cognitive and an affective dimension. Further, a

director identified that coaching supports the skills development of the skippers:

“presenting and briefing and asking the right questions and coaching techniques” – DIRECTOR3.

Skippers also commented on how the initial coaching supported the development of skills prior to presenting at crew allocation:

“public speaking [...] you do a lot of standing up in front of 20 crew [...] gave us these little tricks” – LPSKIPPER3

“so I think the public speaking stuff and the presenting stuff, that was really helpful [...] and friends have actually commented when they’ve seen interviews of the race, they said that I had progressed” – LPSKIPPER4.

There is evidence of behavioural improvement as a result of the skills coaching (friends’ comments) and identity development:

“they all stand up and do a good job – made us look okay” – LPSKIPPER3.

These perspectives highlight how coaching can support individual team leader development across the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions. Cognitive development appears to have occurred as a result of the coaching, which included the development of adaptive leadership competencies with expanded decision-making skills. Affective outcomes included the self-management of emotional states, and the development of confidence and resilience to address the sense of isolation that can occur in the team leadership role. Value was also placed on specific skills training, that was effectively timed to address immediate challenges.

7.3.2. The development challenge of facilitating the crew experience

A strong theme emerged around the development challenge of enabling the skippers to facilitate the crew experience. The skippers typically

commented on the challenge of the “people” dimension, which they considered more daunting than the task of sailing. A director recognised the challenge of leading teams and suggested that:

“most of it focuses on crew relationships [...] 10% sailing the boat and 90% managing the crew. So far from my 14 years’ experience with Clipper, more true today than when I first started out with them” – DIRECTOR2.

Relationships are considered central to team leadership. Directors commented on the development challenge of focusing the skippers on facilitating the crew experience:

“I don’t know if the skippers think about the race as being for the crew, and that they are there as a facilitator of the crew experience, and I don’t know if that’s Clippers fault because we don’t stress that to them or stress it enough or whether the skippers are such strong focused characters, which is really important and they need to be, that they hear that from us but then decide that they don’t agree with it” – DIRECTOR1.

“to get the skipper to understand that it’s the team” – DIRECTOR4.

Coaching was found to be supportive in addressing this challenge, as illustrated by these extracts:

“resolution with some conflict that they are having [...] improves the relationships” – DIRECTOR2.

“to understand and valuing what the team needs and wants and to keep evaluating as well, because it does change” – DIRECTOR3.

“engaging with your crew [...] builds a relationship straight away” – DIRECTOR3.

Another director commented on the benefit of developing “a coaching style” (DIRECTOR4). These directors recognised the value of coaching in

developing the relationship between the skipper and the crew to facilitate the crew experience, and in developing collective understanding by developing a coaching style of leadership. A skipper also commented on the role of coaching:

“It helps all the time to discuss a lot of problems [...] yes, it did” – HPSKIPPER3.

This skipper found the coaching to be supportive, as it offered the space to talk about issues. A different perspective was offered by crew members:

“they (crew) really want to win [...] so the pressure was on, they had got a lot of podiums previously, so the pressure was on to improve that, and unfortunately that didn't happen [...] we went for the MP coaching session [...] and tried to thrash out where they thought things perhaps could be improved” – HPLEG6.

“many minds working together can raise [...] performance to levels you never thought possible” – HPRTW5.

Coaching supported the collective development of cognitive skills within the team, particularly within the team coaching sessions. Different crew members commented on the learning that was experienced:

“it's a massive learning curve for anybody” – LPLEG3.

“learnt a lot about myself. Learnt a lot about other people [...] still learning and we were learning all the way round and we never stopped learning” – HPRTW5.

“if we had had a skipper who was always the boss, and just shouting orders, I wouldn't have learnt as much as I did” – LPRTW1.

Ongoing learning and development occurred within the teams as crew members learnt about themselves and others. Further, the role of the skipper is recognised as influential in this collective learning.

7.3.3. The development of the skipper as team coach

The directors recognised the value of a coaching style in supporting the crews' development:

"There are decent ways of doing things, one of improving morale and performance and motivation and there are most definitely bad ways of doing it" – DIRECTOR3.

Whilst the high-performing skippers either had prior experience of coaching or pro-actively engaged with the coaching, other skippers were less open to the coaching and reluctant to share their coaching experience with their teams. For example, a skipper expressed doubts about transferring the learning:

"I think I struggled, I didn't know enough about it after three days, [...] I couldn't then go and repeat the course to my crew and so even though I was quite pro Mission Performance, then because my crew had never seen that and [...] getting the group buy-in to that wasn't [...] it never happened" – LPSKIPPER2.

The skipper recognised the challenge of transferring the learning and suggested that the context undermined the implementation of the coaching. This finding suggests that team coaching requires both the team leader's commitment to engage in the process and the team's openness to be coached. There is some evidence that the coaching did contribute to the skippers' coaching ability. For example, this skipper developed awareness of:

"differences between teaching and coaching and ordering" – LPSKIPPER2.

Other skippers commented:

"I think I used what I knew – the Mission Performance stuff was really good to start with and especially useful for me, with no background in long term team coaching" – LPSKIPPER2.

“still using these with the different teams that I am now teaching” –
CHANGESKIPPER1.

These skippers highlighted that coaching can play a role in enabling a coaching style of leadership. For example, a skipper commented:

“I felt in a position where I could pass that on to the crew as well. So, I think as a team, we were ready to go” – HPSKIPPER1.

This extract illuminates the skipper’s confidence, based on his perception that he had the coaching capability to share with his crew. There is a shift between an individualistic perspective (“I felt in a position where I”) and a more collective perspective (“we were ready to go”), which suggests a shift to collective team leadership. Another skipper shared the experience of coaching the team:

“Trying to allow them to feel that they are contributing in their own area, when you have people that want to try different things [...] takes a while for people to realise what it’s all about [...] and realise their own abilities and capabilities, knowledge and experience, whether it’s physical or mental, It’s a big learning curve for a lot of people I think” – HPSKIPPER4.

The skipper acknowledged that the crew were motivated to learn and try different things and that development takes time. The growth perspective was also shared by another skipper:

“seeing people improve and come together, people do grow” – LPSKIPPER4.

A crew member shared the experience of their skipper transferring the coaching to the team:

“there were discussions [...] when we had team meetings [...] the Mission Performance session and what are we looking towards for the next leg” – HPLEG3.

This extract indicates that coaching skills learnt within the individual coaching sessions are transferable to the team. Growth and development occur within the team and the skipper plays a role in facilitating the collective cognitive development of the team. A different perspective was offered by a skipper:

“people were quite nervous to get back on the boat [...] had to sit down as a team and have a very honest session where they voiced their concerns to me and I saw my job as to try to allay those concerns and try to reassure them” – HPSKIPPER1.

This skipper focused on managing the emotional contagion within the team after a challenging leg and developing the crew's affective state to build resilience within the team. This function portrays the role of skipper as coach, in holding a safe space for the team to develop resilience within the team.

The role of team leader also shifts over time. For example, a skipper described how the team coaching shifted as the race progressed:

“leg one, I was up on deck a lot of the time, a lot of instructions. Leg two as well. I think leg three I started to step back a little bit and definitely on leg four, I was a lot more comfortable, leaving the guys to run the boat and that's what I wanted to do. As far as I was concerned, if I was spending the entire race having to do all the training myself and lead all the evolutions on deck, it would not have been a successful race, so my ultimate aim was to get a self-reliant team or self-sustaining.” – HPSKIPPER1.

The role of the team leader evolved from the team initially being skipper-led to developing the leadership within the team. Further, this development is supported by communication processes, as illustrated by one of the directors:

“the one-to-one is the most important effective tool that they will have with their crew” – DIRECTOR2.

The value of the communication process was recognised by a skipper, who acknowledged the challenge of finding the time to conduct these sessions:

“I struggled to find time between everything, to have one-to-ones with the crews, having sit downs [...] one-to-ones are really good if you can get to do them and everybody [...] likes having them for sure. I think it would work better if I was able to dedicate time to those one-to-ones”
– HPSKIPPER4.

A crew member offered a different perspective on the value of team communication processes on board:

“We tried to have team [...] originally, what we wanted to do, was have a team brief at watch change over at lunch time, but that only happened really when it was weather conducive so that didn’t happen all the time. But when it did, it did make a big difference to everybody’s morale and you felt included” – HPLEG6.

This extract highlights the influence of contextual factors on team processes and the impact that these processes had on the team well-being. A crew member shared an example of a daily team process implemented by the skipper during race stopovers:

“he would have a team meeting every morning – the same repair team, the victuallers, – the three shore teams to give a brief, an update to everybody of where we are at” – HPLEG2.

Other skippers mentioned how they introduced processes to support team leadership, including the restructuring of the watch hand-overs to address tensions within the team, and the use of on-boarding processes to support team integration when changes occurred during race stopovers. Other processes identified were team “happy hours” each day and crew debriefs which were completed inconsistently. A review of the crew survey highlighted the value that the crew attached to feedback and the debriefing process.

In summary, coaching supported the skippers in addressing the steep learning curve associated with the transition to socially embedded team leadership. Specifically, coaching supported the development across multiple levels to facilitate the shift in identity from skipper to team leader, the relational development and the collective decision making within the team, with the skippers acting as team coaches. The development occurred across the cognitive, affective and skills dimensions. These findings align with the International Coach Federation's (ICF, 2002:1) definition that coaching enables clients to "deepen their learning, improve their performance, and enhance their quality of life". In this definition, learning is recognised as central to well-being and performance.

7.4. The role of confidence in team leadership development and performance

The analysis of the daily skipper blogs from the first week of the race resulted in recognising an interrelationship between confidence and performance. There were contrasting narratives of each team's performance with the leading skippers repeatedly expressing confidence in their teams. For example, a high-performing skipper commented:

"I was confident with the boat quite quickly" – HPSKIPPER3.

A crew member supported this perspective in the interview and described the behaviour of the skipper:

"He was confident in the beginning of the capability of the team. He knew who he could send to do what" – HPRTW3.

In contrast to the high-performing skipper, some lower-performing skippers commented:

"it was fairly obvious from leg one that we were never going to win the race" – LPSKIPPER1.

"they've got no idea what they are doing" – LPSKIPPER3.

“I would say we weren’t the best race crew” – LPSKIPPER4.

These skippers expressed a lack of confidence in their team’s ability to race. All these teams were at the lower end of the rankings. A crew member from a high-performing team offered a different perspective:

“But as we got into the race and realised that we could win the race – my priorities changed – I still want to be a circumnavigator but I want to win it now – priority jumped up the list. So after leg seven and eight, we were very aware that we could win” – HPRTW5.

The increasing confidence influenced the motivation to perform. Another crew member, who joined a high-performing team during the race, shared how performance influenced behaviour:

“it’s pressure to maintain that [...] you get your sense that everyone is working hard for the team [...] You work that bit harder when you know everyone else is working harder” – HPLEG2.

The team’s past performance contributed to influencing motivation and confidence in the team to perform in future. These crew perspectives are supported by a skipper from a high-performing team:

“once we did get a good result, the team [...] the core of the team got a bit of a taste for it, which helps” – HPSKIPPER2.

A contrasting perspective was offered by a crew member, who joined a lower-performing team:

“I joined the race with a highly competitive nature and I was wanting and expecting to get some podiums and it became clear [...] that was going to be an exceptional achievement – a miracle” – LPLEG6.

These extracts illustrate an interrelationship between confidence and team performance with reciprocal influencing patterns existing between confidence, team effort and team performance. These patterns are non-linear and mutually influencing.

7.5. Perceptions of performance in a team context

The race context offered clear race results to describe team performance. An analysis of the race results indicated that most teams were capable of performing for one or two legs, but the winning teams performed consistently throughout the race (Race results included in Appendix E). The top four teams were separated by only 27 points, whilst the gap between the winner and the lowest scoring team was 104 points. Only two teams did not achieve a podium position during the race. The top two skippers had prior coaching experience, and the other two top performing teams were the only teams to request team coaching. These teams may have been more open to coaching, as their performance was consistently high, so a direct causal relationship between coaching and team performance cannot be claimed. In discussing performance with the skippers, it was surprising that one of the top performing skippers was unsure of how to assess personal leadership performance in the race:

“It’s hard for me to say how well I’ve done as a leader, because everything worked and we got what we set out to get out of the race, [...] all I can do is look back at the result from the race and the feedback from the crew and kind of make a judgement on my abilities [...] I think we’ve had a pretty successful race” – HPSKIPPER1.

This skipper highlighted both the race results and the feedback from the crew as indicators, in assessing performance. A director offered a similar perspective on defining performance:

“how does the skipper know that they are doing a good job or not [...] because being on the podium, that’s not why they are here [...] they shouldn’t be measured on winning, they should be measured on other things and do they understand what they are expected to deliver on because if they don’t, they have no chance of achieving it” – DIRECTOR1.

The director expanded on the well-being/performance paradox by sharing a view on a previous winning skipper:

“he’s one of the only skippers I’ve heard talking about winning in the right way and getting a good balance between keeping the crew happy, giving them a good experience and being successful” – DIRECTOR1.

The director recognised that a balance is required between crew well-being, by providing a good experience and team performance in the race. Another director defined performance:

“For me, the clue is in the title [...] it’s a race. And certainly when I was racing there were people, as there are on all boats, just want to cruise [...] and not really interested in the results, but it’s to try and bring those people along. We are a racing boat, we’re focused on racing, you need to come along with that” – DIRECTOR2.

Whilst this director focused on racing and performance, attention was also drawn to the group mission statement:

“bring the skippers back to the mission statement [...] that they all signed into which is to have a happy, safe and competitive crew helping them to realise their values” – DIRECTOR2.

The crew well-being is highlighted as part of the performance expectations. A different perspective was offered by a high-performing skipper, who acknowledged the complexity associated with defining performance:

“it’s a tricky one [...] so I think, obviously there’s race performance, how many points you end up with at the end of the day [...] I was quite keen that I had a happy team as well, so that was a goal [...] keeping them safe was a goal [...]. That’s it really. The key ones are performance and keeping them happy. The other one was trying to meet everyone’s objective, but that’s always [...] a trade-off, it’s tricky to keep the majority happy” – HPSKIPPER2.

The extract illuminates the tension between team well-being and performance. Crew members from high-performing teams shared the perspective on accommodating a broader definition of performance:

“You strive to be a winning boat and a happy boat [...] it is possible to have both [...] I don’t think they are exclusive by any means. Our experience on our boat was a bit mixed” – HPRTW5.

“You can do both. I think we have shown to be a crew who do both [...] I think it’s because we’re known for being a team who have fun, and get on and are successful [...] think I have had a good experience. I’ve developed and learned and had a good time and been successful” – HPRTW6.

Learning and development are recognised as contributing to the crew experience and performance. Another crew member from a lower-performing team elaborated on the factors that contributed to crew well-being:

“the question is, what constitutes a happy boat? Right, it’s not just going slow and dancing on the deck. It could be other things. The problem is, it never got defined in our case. It never got defined what the goal really is. As far as I can tell and so, the whole thing around winning too, is it is very, very hard to try and win. So, if that is what makes people happy, to work towards trying to win, then that’s a happy boat. So, I do believe it is possible to accomplish both [...] I don’t think that’s a conflict. I think it’s being presented like that because the happy boat is the slow boat and you don’t work as hard and stuff. I think we did sail changes that cost us more than anything else for example, so just because you work hard, doesn’t mean you are winning or it doesn’t mean that you are happy or unhappy” – CHANGELEG2.

This crew member highlighted the challenge of defining crew well-being in the context of an ocean race. This perspective contrasts to the feedback from the director:

“There are loads of examples of happy crew that come last. They’re still working hard [...] the weather – it’s still tough, but maybe they are not focused on winning” – DIRECTOR1.

Another consideration in defining performance is the skippers’ motivation to win. The data analysis highlighted that skippers differed in their motivation towards performance. A director highlighted the diversity of perspectives amongst the skippers:

“Some of the skippers have different levels of what they think of performance, because they are different characters as well. They all have different experience, different qualifications, all shown us that they can handle a Clipper race skipper position, but within that they all have different motivations and drive, and character and I guess inner strengths and things like that, so I don’t think they all want to [...] there are levels I would say, they all want to win the Clipper race, I would say, I don’t think any of them would say no. But I think for some skippers, finishing top half of the fleet would be good enough, and for other skippers finishing first is what they crave” – DIRECTOR3.

This extract highlights the individual nature of team leadership, which is influenced by prior experience, motivation and character. A crew member offered a different perspective on skipper motivation, and shared the feedback from another crew, who had an issue with a skipper, who was pushing for performance:

“they were saying that the skipper became obsessed about winning and started pushing a lot harder and things started slipping so maybe if they had continued the way they had started, then it would have been – it was close anyway” – HPLEG1.

This crew member suggested that a broader perspective on performance would have enabled the team to deliver a better final race position. A crew member from another high-performing team shared how the skipper communicated the performance criteria. This crew member also highlighted the role of the skipper in supporting this crew member:

“I want to work with you, I want you to have a great experience out of this, and if we can win all the better” – HPLEG6.

A contrasting perspective was offered by a lower-performing skipper, who conceded that the commitment to perform was influenced by the social dynamics on the boat:

“On my boat, it all comes down to the Round the Worlders. So, my Round the Worlders – got six who were quite happy to sail around [...] didn’t want to race, so that defines your boat” – LPSKIPPER3.

This skipper suggested that the race performance was decided by the core Round the World crew, rather than by the skipper motivating the team to perform. However, the influence of the team leader was evident in the race results, as teams with a change of skipper were all lower down in the performance rankings (5th, 9th, 10th and 11th). One of the high-performing skippers also reflected on the impact of changing skippers on teams:

“some of the teams change massively – a good example would be (team name deleted), so going from losing, and then (skipper) came along and all of a sudden, they were on the podium. Now, that could be that the team changed [...] or the fact that they had new leggers coming on that changed it, or [...] they probably had a strong team there in the first place. But it would be interesting to see the change in leadership there” – HPSKIPPER2.

Whilst this skipper drew attention to the multiple factors that influence race performance, a review of the race statistics confirmed that all the teams who had a change of skipper were lower down in the rankings.

7.6. Summary and discussion

In this chapter, I explored the complexity of team leader development to understand the development process and the relationship to team performance. The chapter commenced with a review of the gap between expectations and experience. Coaching was found to be supportive in

addressing the gap, by drawing on prior race experience to develop the skippers' race expectations, contributing to a learning curve, by providing a protected space for the skippers to reflect on their experience, and consider alternative action plans. This finding aligns with adult and experiential learning theory, where there is broad agreement that learning from experience is the primary mechanism through which leaders develop (Dewey, 1938; Knowles, 1968; Piaget, 1970; DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Kolb, 1984, 2015; McCall, 1998; Cox, 2013; Hammond, Palanski & Clapp-Smith, 2016). Kolb (2015:37) recognised that ideas are not "fixed and immutable elements of thought", but are formed and re-formed through experience and reflexivity, resulting in an experiential learning cycle.

The cycle of experiential learning includes concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation and these stages are reflected in the extracts highlighted in this chapter. Perceptions generated expectations and learning occurred in the gap between expectations and experience, leading to a change in cognition and behaviour. Within this complexity, learning is considered an emergent process of assimilation and accommodation, where concepts are derived from and continuously modified by experience (Kolb, 2015). According to Kolb (2015:34), the tension between assimilation and accommodation needs to be balanced for intelligent adaptation to occur, which suggests that the learning process can be overwhelming.

Coaching offers a supportive challenge to enable experiential learning and align expectations to experience. These findings align with the research by Lawrence and Whyte (2017), which recognised that experienced team coaches balanced challenge and support. The findings extend this work by identifying that coaching can support the learning gap that exists between expectations and experience, which highlights the potential to further integrate experiential learning theory with coaching to contribute to an evidence base for practice.

Team leader development is reflected in the steep learning curve experienced by the skippers and occurs across multiple levels: individual, social relational and collective decision making. The skippers found the development challenge of facilitating the crew experience particularly challenging as they transitioned from technical sailing experts to team leaders. These findings align with the recent meta-analysis study on coaching outcomes by Jones *et al.* (2016). Three classes of learning outcomes were identified: cognitive, affective, and skill-based outcomes. There is also alignment with the leader development framework developed by DeRue and Myers (2014) which recognised similar broad themes of development outcomes conceptualised at the individual, relational, and collective levels of analysis. There is a need to balance the affective and cognitive outcomes, with basic skills coaching to develop confidence and resilience as team leaders transition into new roles. Coaching is considered effective at supporting team leader development, by developing the cognitive, affective and social relational capabilities of the individual team leader.

The findings also offered a temporal perspective on the development process, as the development of team leadership shifted from the skipper to developing leadership within the team. Coaching supported the skippers in developing team coaching capability. This role was more evident in the high-performing teams. Development stages are influenced by individual motivation, character and past experience. The development trajectory varied across the skippers. The dynamic nature of team leadership development aligns to the conceptual work of Hawkins (2014), who identified different stages of team leader development. The skippers adapted as the race progressed, and these changes are exemplified in the stages presented by Hawkins (2014). For example, the skippers shifted from using their own technical expertise to focusing on developing the relationships within the team and encouraging the team to become self-sustaining. Whilst the conceptual model clearly delineates the different roles of team manager, leader and coach, the findings indicated that these

roles overlapped and were difficult to delineate. Fairhurst and Grant (2010:179) addressed this issue and suggested that leadership and management were considered largely interchangeable, until leadership scholars introduced “neocharisma discourses (which) made leaders into change-masters and managers into taskmasters who implement change”. Coaching supported the skippers in developing across the roles of manager, leader and coach and in balancing the complexity of combining these roles.

The development of the individual skippers also appears to have contributed to the collective well-being of the crew, as the skipper is considered to be influential on the collective culture and acts as a coach in developing team leadership to improve collective decision making and crew relationships. Hackman and Wageman (2005) identified three core areas of team coaching, including motivational, consultative and educational, which were also evident in the findings. The engagement of the team leader as coach to develop collective team leadership addresses the call by Day (2000) to link individual leader development with leadership development such that the development of leadership transcends but does not replace the development of individual leaders. Swart and Harcup (2013) also noted that there is limited empirical research and literature on coaching and collective learning. They identified three main themes in the literature which describe how individual coaching is translated into collective learning: an increased *contextual* awareness, the *emotive* aspects of the individual being coached, which influences motivation to learn, and the *contents* of the coaching process to enable collective learning. These authors found that the coaching outcomes that enabled collective learning included: enacting new behaviours, leading by example, enacting a coaching approach, and embedding collective learning. The coach encouraged the skippers to “push authority down” to the team, which aligns with Swart and Harcup’s (2013:346) perspective that the leader “pushed the work down”. These findings address the call by these authors for more research to understand how coaching can translate individual learning to collective

learning, by highlighting the emergence of a coaching web and the role of the skipper in coaching the team. There is also alignment with the recent empirical work of Cullen-Lester, Maupin and Carter (2017), which recognised that the multilevel (Day & Dragoni, 2015) perspective on leadership is expanding the focus of leadership development. The focus goes beyond developing the individual leader, to include network enhancing leadership development, taking cognisance of the patterns of social relationships within teams. Coaching can support the development of relationships within the team to contribute to the relational and collective level of team leadership development. This support is considered relevant in facilitating the crew experience by broadening the leadership development within the team. The findings respond to DeRue and Myers' (2014) call for more research to understand how leadership is developed in team contexts.

Whilst leader and leadership development is recognised as relevant, a gap also exists between these constructs and team performance. This disconnection contributes to the scepticism around assessing the value of coaching. To address the gap, I explored the emergence of confidence as a relationship mediator between leader development and team performance. The literature review suggested that effective leaders can affect team members' confidence, and that, in turn, team confidence has been found to influence team performance. The skippers of the higher-performing teams exhibited greater confidence in their teams, which influenced the behaviour of the crew. It can be argued that the skipper is influential in developing team confidence and that this team confidence contributes to team performance. The interrelationship between team leadership, confidence and team performance suggests that team confidence can offer a proximal indicator of team performance. It can be argued that coaching can be linked to team performance, by enhancing the skipper's ability to influence team confidence by coaching the team. The findings also suggest that the definition of team performance needs to be broadened to include crew well-being and development in the performance definition. The next chapter

discusses the implications of the findings from this chapter and the previous two chapters and presents an integrative conceptual framework to navigate the complexity of team leader development.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1. Introduction

This study has explored how coaching can support team leader development and team performance and in doing so contributes to understanding how to support the significant shift towards team-based organisational design. As the research was exploratory and focused on coaching as a leader development process, the research question initially did not include team performance. However, the emergence of scepticism around the role of coaching necessitated the alignment of team leader development to team performance, to contribute to understanding how coaching can support organisational sustainability. The complexity of team leadership was explored in the context of a global sailing race, which offered a microcosm of team leadership in a natural setting. The study has addressed the call from DeRue and Myers (2014) to study leader development in the social context that shapes how leaders and teams learn from experience. Multiple perspectives were considered to provide a holistic perspective on *how* coaching can support team leadership development and team performance.

The study was informed by an interpretivist, constructionist theoretical perspective and a review of the relevant coaching, team leadership and leader development literature in both the sports and organisational contexts. Gaps were identified between the organisational leadership and team leadership literature and between leader and leadership development. A gap was also identified between leadership and team coaching, with team coaching emerging as a relatively new field in the organisational context. This trend contrasts to the sports context, where team coaching is well developed and athlete leadership is emerging as relevant for team performance. There are ongoing debates relating to defining the purpose of

coaching, and a tension exists between the individual and organisational agenda. There is also a lack of clarity around coaching outcomes, with underlying tensions between developmental, well-being, and performance coaching outcomes. A disconnect also exists between leader development and team performance, which is considered relevant when assessing the value of coaching.

The research process necessitated the balancing of a holistic, broader perspective on team leader development with an in-depth focus on the key themes. The challenge of the study was conceptualising coaching, team leadership, development and performance and understanding the interrelationships between these constructs within the complexity of the challenging context of an ocean sailing race. A particular challenge was the integration of the predominantly positivist literature on team leadership and leader development with the empirical findings, which reflected shared meaning making, contextually influenced by the social constructions of what was expected from “the leader” and how “leadership” emerged within the team. In comparing and contrasting the literature and the findings, my interpretation of team leadership has broadened from a functional perspective of what leaders do, to a social constructionist perspective, which recognises team leadership as a unique type of social, meaning-making where leadership attributions are constructed within the relational process and influenced by the context. The initial perspective was influenced by the dominant leadership narrative in both the organisational and sports literature. The shift demanded a broadening of the scope from the functional perspective on *what* was expected from the leaders to deciding *where* to study leadership within the team. The research emphasis shifted from the team leader to the leadership processes and relationships within the team, which aligns with the perspectives offered by constructionist scholars (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Uhl-Bien, 2006; and Ospina & Sorenson, 2006). Ospina and Sorenson (2006:201) captured this experience by recognising that a constructionist lens offers the opportunity to “look at the same territory of leadership that

we all share by virtue of our membership in contemporary society, in a way that will help reveal aspects of leadership that we have missed before". These authors argued for a more grounded constructionist approach to studying leadership, with the focus on the "culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of leadership in context, in contrast to the universal traits, fixed contingent styles, or disembodied cognitive structures" (Ospina & Sorenson, 2006:193).

The social constructionist perspective differs from the social constructivist perspective, which foregrounds individual cognitive processes influenced by social relations and does not sufficiently consider the inter-subjective meaning-making and contextual influences. I consider social constructionism to be a more appropriate theoretical perspective as this perspective interprets how people working together create leadership, attribute team roles and how context affects the actual work of leadership. This perspective aligns with the work of Uhl-Bien (2006:655), who recognised that "organizational phenomena exist in interdependent relationships and intersubjective meaning". The findings support the call by Ospina and Sorenson (2006) to explore the ways people understand and attribute leadership, to contribute to the body of literature that views leadership as a collective achievement. I interpreted team leadership as a dynamic, on-going, temporal *process* of meaning-making, which can be described by its relational, systemic, emergent and contextual dimensions. This interpretation aligns with the initial functional leadership perspective in the sense that it is the task that often calls forth leadership, which can be distributed so that different individuals take up different roles and leadership emerges dynamically within the team. These empirical findings have been integrated with the extant theory, to offer a unique contribution in the form of the Performance Development conceptual framework for coaching team leaders in challenging contexts. The framework is presented in this chapter and is grounded in both the empirical findings and the theory to address the gaps identified in the literature and resolve the underlying tensions inherent in the complexity of coaching team leaders.

8.2. Overview of the findings

The thematic networks presented in the findings chapters highlighted the interplay between the perceptions, expectations and experiences of coaching, team leadership, team leader development and team performance. Further, these networks illustrated the shifting perceptions of coaching, the social construction of team leadership, the emergence of shared leadership and an associated coaching web across a temporal dimension. The study blended real time data, in the form of the daily skipper blogs with retrospective interviews from multiple stakeholders, to illustrate the temporal nature of team leadership development and contribute to the credibility of the findings. In summarising the findings, I found that coaching can support team leader development and team performance in four specific ways. Firstly, coaching can support technical experts in transitioning to a team leadership role, by aligning expectations to experience, by drawing on past experience to develop awareness of future challenges. Chapter 5 describes how the initial learning group coaching prepared the skippers for the unknown challenge of leading a team in the context of a global sailing race. Within this finding, the latent theme of “expecting experience” reflects the gap between expectations and experience, where experiential learning arises. Coaching offers a powerful process for resolving the tension within this paradox and, in so doing, addresses the high failure rate for transitioning team leaders (Riddle, 2016). This finding is particularly relevant in addressing the shift towards team-based organisational structures, which is recognised as the leading HR challenge for 2017 (Malley, 2017).

Secondly, coaching can provide protected time with an ‘objective’ external professional, to reframe problems and experiences into learning opportunities to develop adaptive leadership competency for team performance. Chapter 5 describes how coaching offered the skippers protected time, to address the challenge of leading in socially dynamic contexts. Within this finding, latent themes were identified, which relate to

“problem opportunities” and the role of coaching as “supportive challenge”. Coaching supported the team leader in addressing the challenge of facilitating the team experience, as highlighted by the learning curve, discussed in Chapter 7. Further, coaching balanced the functional tensions between the task accomplishment and a relational, people perspective, to align team well-being with task performance (Chapter 6). Coaching was found to extend beyond a focus on behavioural competencies, to include cognitive, affective and behavioural skills to address challenging, unknown contexts. Specifically, coaching supported the development of learning agility for adaptive team leadership, by encouraging reflexivity and action. The existence of implementation challenges highlights the relevance of ensuring that the coaching design is contextually relevant and cognisant of the competing priorities related to team leadership, to ensure developmental capability. Further, the findings in Chapter 5 highlight the relevance of positioning the coaching as a performance enhancing process, to address the scepticism and encourage engagement. These findings are relevant in addressing the call for leader development which is contextually relevant and encompasses self-directed learning for learning agility (DeRue & Myers, 2014).

Thirdly, coaching can support the team leader in understanding that leadership is socially constructed and a developmental *process* which emerges as shared leadership over time. Chapter 6 describes the re-conceptualisation of leadership from person centred to a shared, team process, highlighting both the relational structure of the team and the role of coaching in encouraging collective capability for leadership. Team coaching supported the emergence of leadership as a team process and also encouraged the skipper to push authority to the team. Within this finding, the latent theme of “team leadership” reflected the paradoxical tension that exists between the skipper, as individual leader, the relationships within the team and the collective capability for team leadership. The finding highlights the temporal dimension of team leadership development, which

has implications for the design of coaching programmes, as team coaching was found to be supportive in developing collective capability (Chapter 6).

Fourthly, coaching can support the team leader in developing coaching capability, as coaching is considered a key leadership responsibility (Grant & Hartley, 2016; Hackman & Wageman, 2005). Coaching supports the team leader in addressing the tensions inherent in the latent theme of competitive collaboration. This paradox was evident in the socially dynamic context and within the team coaching (Chapter 6). Developing the team leader as coach enabled the emergence of a coaching web to develop within the team, to support a coaching culture, which addressed the gap that existed between leader and leadership development (Chapter 7). This chapter also expanded the definition of team performance, to align development to *human* performance. In this context, performance is defined as incorporating the development of relationships within the team and creating the context for every team member to perform, to develop team confidence, which is considered a mediator for team performance. Chapter 7 described how coaching contributed to the alignment between individual development and team performance. Specifically, coaching contributed to team well-being by increasing team confidence, building team relationships and creating a coaching culture to support individual development within the team. This alignment addresses the latent theme of the “developing performance” paradox. This finding is relevant in addressing the scepticism that exists around assessing the value of coaching, where the purpose of coaching lacks clarity and a gap exists between individual development and team or organisational performance. The underlying tensions related to the latent themes identified in the data suggests that the paradox perspective (Barnson, 2014) identified in sports coaching is relevant to understanding the complexity of coaching team leaders.

In presenting the findings for member reflections, I encountered the expectation that the findings would yield a definitive description of the

coaching outcomes and the contextual factors that influenced the coaching process. This expectation suggests that practitioners are searching for a sense-making “compass” to navigate the complexity of team leadership development as organisations shift towards team based organisational designs.

8.3. The performance development framework for coaching team leaders

Underlying tensions, or paradoxes, identified as latent themes within the thematic networks, suggested the development of a conceptual framework to ‘navigate’ the complexity of coaching team leaders. The Performance Development framework draws on the empirical findings and extant literature to offer a functional perspective on coaching team leaders, balancing a multi-level relational perspective on team leadership with the process-based, task perspective on coaching, which aligns individual development to team performance as illustrated in Figure 8.1.

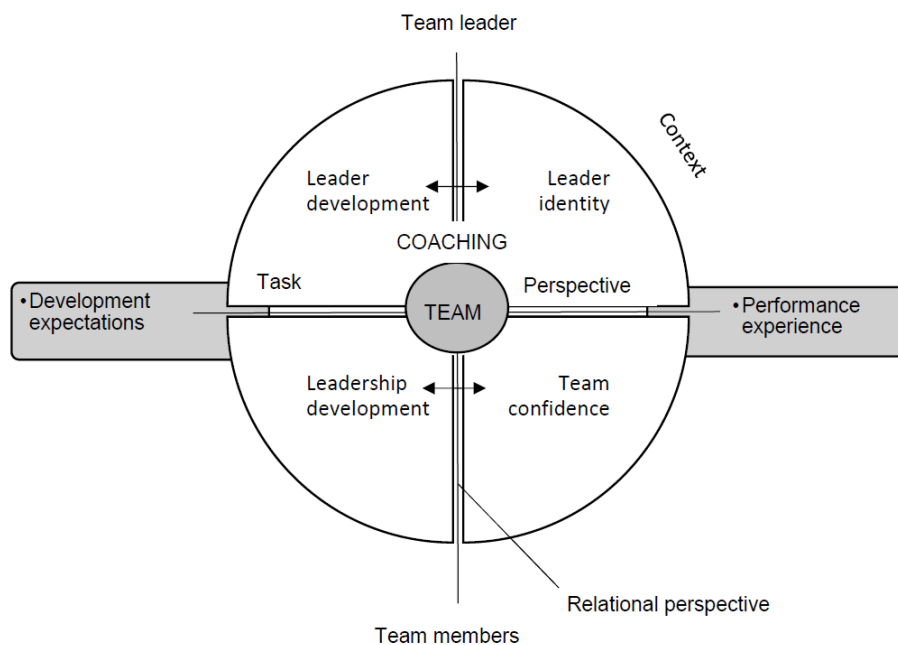


Figure 8.1: The Performance Development framework for coaching team leaders

The Performance Development framework is depicted as four dimensions, or 'compass points' within a circle, which represents the socially embedded context. The four dimensions within the circle are not meant to be exhaustive; rather illustrative of the dimensions to be considered in coaching team leaders. The west/east dimension draws attention to coaching as a temporal process, to align team leader development with team performance. This focus addresses the underlying 'developing performance' paradoxical tension that is evident in the challenge of assessing the outcomes of coaching. Coaching is recognised as a paradoxical process of supportive challenge, which addresses the gap between expectations and experience, to contribute to team leader development and team performance. Coaching, as a dialogic process, is recognised as a supportive conversational process that shapes and reframes problems into opportunities to develop leadership mindsets that ultimately shape behaviour. Development occurs at the cognitive, affective and behavioural skills level. The development of the team leader addresses the gap between leader and leadership development, as the skipper acts as team coach to support relational team leadership development. Team development contributes to team confidence, which is recognised as a mediating influence on aligning development to team performance.

The people or relational, multi-level dimension of functional leadership is represented by the north/south axis, with the leader setting the tone at the top of the north axis, the team members at the southern axis and the relational dimension depicted by the axis, which represents the team leadership paradox and underlying competitive/collaborative tensions that exist within teams. The focus is on developing the relationships within the team, by encouraging the team leader to act as the team coach, to develop collective team leadership, represented by the centre 'team'. The focus of the coaching is on integrating leader development with leadership development throughout the team, by encouraging a more inclusive, team approach to team leadership development, which contributes to team confidence and performance. Coaching also supports the balancing of the

relational and process perspectives on leadership, by encouraging the implementation of processes to support team development.

The four quadrants represent the interrelationships between coaching, leadership, development and performance. The north western quadrant represents individual team leader development across cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions, whilst the south western quadrant represents collective leadership development, with the team leader coaching the team. These two quadrants represent the traditional delineation between leader and leadership development, which need to be aligned to contribute to team confidence, to enhance team performance. The north eastern quadrant represents leader identity, as it is recognised that the skipper ‘sets the tone’ for the team and that performance impacts on the leader’s ability to influence the team. The south eastern quadrant represents team confidence, which is considered a proximal indicator of team performance.

The development of the framework drew on the adapted team performance system model developed by Ilgen *et al.* (2005), which is based on the original input-throughput-output (IPO) model (Steiner, 1972, McGrath *et al.*, 2000; Hackman, 1987). The input-mediator-output-input (IMOI) model reflects a broader range of constructs that are important mediational influences and also recognises that causality is non-linear and feedback loops exist between the constructs. This perspective, which is supported by Hackman and Wageman (2005), contrasts to Grant’s (2013) contention that coaching research requires rigorous examinations showing the causal mechanisms by which coaching is effective. Further, the model is useful in drawing attention to the factors that mediate or explain the relationship between inputs (coaching and team leadership) and outputs (team leader development and team performance) and that performance (output) influences team leadership (input). Moderating influences include the coaching modality, timing and relationship; the capacity to engage in the coaching amidst competing commitments; the resources supporting the

coaching process; and the experience of both the coach and the team members.

8.4. Implications for theory and practice

This exploratory case study offers researchers and practitioners a microcosm, to understand the complexity and temporal nature of team leader development in challenging contexts. The microcosm is considered relevant as it offers a simplified and amplified context to study complex phenomena and sport is considered both a relevant lens for studying organisational phenomena and influential in the coaching field. Further, the common themes identified in the literature from both the organisational and sports contexts align with the empirical findings, suggesting that this case study offers a relevant microcosm on team leadership, leader development and team performance. The study addressed the recent calls from both organisational (Theeboom *et al.*, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2016) and sports coaching (Cotterill & Fransen, 2016) scholars for more research to understand the process of *how* coaching works, by offering a microcosm of coaching technical experts as they transition into team leader roles in a challenging context. Further, the study highlights the potential to extend coaching beyond the 'elitist' preserve of organisational leaders to front-line managers as they transition into team leadership roles.

The development of the Performance Development framework provides a conceptual contribution to the fields of coaching and team leader development, to navigate the complexity of team leadership development for contemporary organisations. The framework addresses Day and Dragoni's (2015) contention that the field of leadership development is being undermined by a lack of shared understanding by contributing a paradox perspective to addressing the complexity and underlying tensions within this context. A paradox perspective is considered relevant in managing the complexity of coaching, team leadership, and team leader development. This perspective aligns with the work of Tannenbaum *et al.* (2012:21) who suggested that "teams, technologies, contexts, and

associated variables all co-evolve over time". This approach suggests a shift away from thinking about cause-effect models, towards a more co-evolutionary systems approach, where there are simultaneous, reciprocal influences between the core constructs, necessitating a shift in both theory and methods of enquiry.

From a practice perspective, the study highlights the importance of contracting to position coaching as a solution-focused, development process aimed at aligning individual development and team performance. Practitioners and researchers need to understand and manage the expectations relating to coaching, to address the initial scepticism that can exist. Contracting engages participants in developing their awareness of the coaching process and the outcomes that can be achieved. Further, for coaching to be effective, the process requires consistency in the coaching design and relationship; organisational support to ensure that the coaching is prioritised and that team leaders have the capacity for development amidst competing task commitments; and relatable content and tools that are contextually relevant and accessible. The findings are relevant to both organisational coaching, where team coaching is emerging as a field of study, and sports coaching, where coaching the athlete leader is emerging as nascent. In assessing coaching, organisations need to consider the ripple effect of coaching over time, as coaching the team leader has benefits for developing team leadership within the team. Coaching is considered a critical leadership competency and internal coaching is considered contextually relevant. The development of workplace coaching skills can contribute significantly to developing leadership capacity for future learning organisations, particularly as organisations shift towards team-based organisational design.

From a methodological perspective, the study highlights the relevance of an exploratory case study methodology in researching underexplored phenomena in socially embedded contexts, where constructs are not clearly defined and complex interrelationships exist between the constructs

and the context. Scholars (Burr, 2015; Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; McNiff, 2008) have recognised that there is growing disillusionment with many of the mainstream methodologies that underpin organisational studies, resulting in an ascendancy of social constructionist research that recognises the role of context and multi-vocality in addressing this complexity. The study revealed unanticipated phenomena, such as the contested emergence of shared leadership and the development of a coaching web, which I could not have been aware of when first designing the research study.

8.5. Limitations of the study

The implementation challenges and use of both leadership and team coaching were initially considered as limitations to the study, as these factors added additional complexity to the study. However, Grant (2017:47) recognised that the challenge of the next generation of workplace coaching is to “balance a solid scientific evidence-based approach with simplicity, genuine flexibility and real-life practicality”. This challenge suggests that empirical studies need to reflect real world implementation challenges that are inherent in change processes, where unintended consequences are part of the process. Further, some blurring of roles occurred within the novel, clearly bounded context of the sailing race. Coaching, mentoring and performance management appeared to be interrelated and team leadership and management were indistinguishable skipper roles. This lack of clarity in role delineation suggests that both an exploratory research approach and paradox perspective are relevant in researching this underdeveloped field.

Whilst the retrospective nature of the study contributed to a temporal perspective on team leadership development, there is the limitation that the retrospective nature can impact on recall. This limitation was addressed by reviewing the daily skipper blogs in real time and ensuring that participants were interviewed within three months of the race. It is also recognised that the results are context specific and cannot be generalised to other contexts. However, the case study offers researchers a microcosm of team

leadership, which can be compared and contrasted to case studies of team leadership in other contexts, to offer vicarious experience and provide a contrasting lens to understand the complexity of team leadership in different contexts. Chapter 4 offers a detailed description of the context to enable readers to consider the relevance and transferability of the findings. Further, the findings resonate with my lived experience of being a team leader. Participants also drew analogies between the sailing and organisational contexts, suggesting that these findings have relevance for both contexts.

8.6. Suggestions for future research

More research is required to explore the relevance of the Performance Development framework in other team contexts. Specifically, research is needed to understand the optimal combination of leadership and team coaching to support team leadership development. Further research is also needed to understand how external coaching can be combined with internal coaching to support the emergence of a coaching web within a team context to optimise team leadership development. There is also the potential to further integrate theory from the related fields of experiential learning theory and leader development to contribute to the evidence base of coaching team leaders in challenging contexts.

8.7. Concluding thoughts

My journey as 'researcher as explorer' (Pauly, 1991) has resonated with my lived experience of team leadership, where I have often felt 'lost at sea' without a compass to guide my navigation of this underexplored field of research. The extant literature represents oceans of knowledge on leadership theory, but there is no clear 'map' or compass for team leader development. The research journey has allowed me to chart the different currents of empirical research, and the conceptual framework offers a compass to guide coaches and team leaders in navigating the underlying tensions that exist. I acknowledge that the map, represented by the

integration of the extant theory with the empirical findings, and compass are socially constructed and represent an interpretation of 'reality'. This approach resonates with the approach by Fairhurst and Grant (2010:172), who recognised the relevance of Pearce's (1995) sailing guide, in developing a reflexive tool for social constructionists to navigate leadership research. The sailing guide metaphorically draws on the ways in which "sailors of old logged and charted new bodies of water to guide future voyages". Pearce (1995:89) described the methodology:

"When there were still uncharted seas and navigation was an uncertain art, mariners would keep a record of where they had been as a way of finding their way home – and as guides for their next voyage. These "logs" described a retractable route through otherwise unknown waters" (Pearce, 1995:89).

This research study can be considered as a sailing guide as it represents a crude but perhaps useful log; it is not a precise navigational chart in the sense that it represents an array of social constructionist voices and a commentary on them. As the researcher, I recognise the incomplete nature of the research and my intent is to offer a metaphorical guide to practitioners and researchers who wish to navigate the underexplored field of developing team leadership. The intent is to provoke further research, rather than end the discussion on this topic. The contribution of this study is twofold. First, it offers a microcosm to illustrate how coaching can support the complexity of team leadership development and secondly, it offers the Performance Development framework to navigate this complexity for practitioners and researchers of team leadership development, to address the challenge of developing team leaders for a future learning society.

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APPENDIX A:

RACE SKIPPER RESPONSIBILITIES, QUALIFICATIONS AND REQUIRED EXPERIENCE

An overview of the responsibilities and minimum criteria for applying as a race skipper (<http://clipperroundtheworld.com/jobs/view/round-the-world-race-skipper>):

Responsibilities include:

- Ongoing crew training and development throughout the race
- Team structure and role allocation
- Safety and seamanship
- Standard maintenance of an ocean racing yacht
- Interface between race team and crew
- Representing boat sponsors, including media and corporate responsibilities.

Qualifications

- UK MCA Recognised Yachtmaster Ocean with commercial endorsement or IYT (International Yacht Training) Master of Yachts
- ENG1 Seafarer's medical certificate
- STCW Proficiency for Persons in Charge of Medical Care Aboard Ships
- GMDSS GOC/ROC certificate with sat-com endorsement
- RYA Yachtmaster Instructor or Cruising Instructor.

Experience/Skills:

- Fluent English (spoken and written)
- Excellent interpersonal, man management and leadership skills
[please give examples in your covering letter]
- Ability to build, inspire and motivate teams
- Strong communications skills

- Significant offshore/ocean experience (c. 30,000nm), with a significant proportion in command
- Significant time in command of crewed yachts greater than 50-foot
- Strong background in sail training
- Commercial and media awareness and a professional image
- Offshore yacht racing experience and competitive nature
- High level of seamanship, practical yacht husbandry and maintenance skills
- UK Work Visa.

APPENDIX B:

2015–16 RACE SCHEDULE



2015-16 RACE SCHEDULE V.2

RACE	LEG	START PORT	MARINA	ESTIMATED ARRIVAL WINDOW	ACTIVATION WINDOW	CREW CHANGE*	START DATE	FINISH PORT
1	Leg 1	London, UK	St Katharine Docks	21 Aug 15	24 – 28 Aug 15 Activation days [5]	Wed 26 Aug 15	Sun 30 Aug 15	Rio, Brazil
2	Leg 2	Rio, Brazil	Marina de Gloria	26 - 30 Sept 15	02 – 05 Oct 15 Activation days [4]	Sat 03 Oct 15	Wed 07 Oct 15	Cape Town, S.A.
3	Leg 3	Cape Town, S.A.	Victoria & Alfred Waterfront	21 - 25 Oct 15	27 – 29 Oct 15 Activation days [3]	Tue 27 Oct 15	Sat 31 Oct 15	Albany, W.A.
4	Leg 4	Albany, W.A.	Albany Waterfront Marina	22 - 26 Nov 15	28 – 29 Nov 15 Activation days [2]	Fri 27 Nov 15	Tue 01 Dec 15	Sydney, N.S.W.
5	Leg 4	Sydney, N.S.W.	Cruising Yacht Club of Australia	12 - 15 Dec 15	17 – 24 Dec 15 Activation days [8]	N/A	Sat 26 Dec 15	Hobart, TAS.
6	Leg 4	Hobart, TAS.	Kings Pier Marina	30 - 31 Dec 15	No Activation	N/A	Sat 02 Jan 16	Whitsundays, QLD.
7	Leg 5	Whitsundays, QLD.	Abell Point Marina	13 - 14 Jan 16	16 Jan 16 (shore side only)	Fri 15 Jan 16	Mon 18 Jan 16	Da Nang, Vietnam
8	Leg 5	Da Nang, Vietnam	TBC	17 – 21 Feb 16	23 – 25 Feb 16 Activation days [3]	N/A	Sat 27 Feb 16	Qingdao, China
9	Leg 6	Qingdao, China	Olympic Sailing Harbour	10 – 13 Mar 16	15 – 18 Mar 16 Activation days [4]	Wed 16 Mar 16	Sun 20 Mar 16	Seattle, USA
10	Leg 7	Seattle, USA	Bell Harbour	15 – 20 Apr 16	22 – 26 Apr 16 Activation days [5]	Sun 24 Apr 16	Thur 28 April 16	Panama (Pacific)
		Panama (Pacific)	Flamenco Island	25 – 27 May 16	No Activation	N/A		Panama (Atlantic)
11	Leg 7	Panama (Atlantic)	Shelter Cove Marina		No Activation	N/A	Mon 30 May 16	NYC, USA
12	Leg 8	NYC, USA	TBC	12 – 14 Jun 16	16 – 18 Jun 16 Activation days [3]	Fri 17 Jun	Mon 20 June 16	Derry-Londonderry, N.I.
13	Leg 8	Derry-Londonderry, NI	Foyle Marina	07 – 11 Jul 16	13 – 15 Jul 16 Activation days [3]	N/A	Sun 17 Jul 16	Oude Rijkswaerf, Willemsoord
14	Leg 8	Den Helder, Holland	Oude Rijkswaerf, Willemsoord	23 - 24 Jul 16	25-26 Jul 16 Activation days [2]	N/A	Thur 28 Jul 16	London, UK [Sat 30 Jul]

Please be aware the dates are our best estimate based upon collecting data from previous races. Due to the nature of sailing Clipper Ventures PLC can in no way guarantee that these arrival dates will be achieved. Always remember that sailing yachts have destination ports and NOT arrival times. Clipper Ventures PLC reserves the right to change dates to ensure the overall aim of the race is achieved.

Notes:

- * The crew changeover date is the contractual date on which the departing crew are free to leave the yachts and crew joining the boat must report. Joining crew can arrive before this date but accommodation on board the yachts cannot be guaranteed.
- ** This date is our best estimated date as Clipper Ventures PLC is not in control of the Panama Canal scheduling. The race shall start as soon as all of the boats are through the Canal and on the Caribbean side.

APPENDIX C: THE SKIPPERS

THE SKIPPERS

MEET THE TWELVE PROFESSIONAL YACHTSMEN AND WOMEN WHO WILL LEAD THEIR TEAMS.

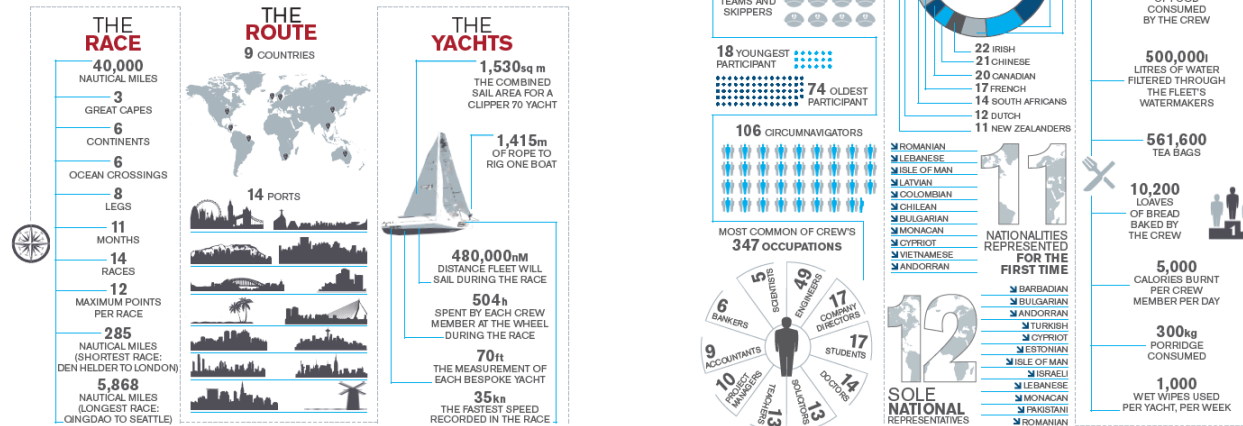
After an extensive worldwide search, twelve professional Skippers have been selected to lead the crew and take on the planet's most challenging conditions in search of glory and the Clipper Race Trophy. It is the first time the race has had two female Skippers compete, and the first time French and Ukrainian/German Skippers are represented.

 ASHLEY SKETT 31 British Stratford upon Avon Garmin	 DANIEL SMITH 32 British West Kilbride Derry-Londonderry-Doire	 DARREN LADD 50 British Midsomer Norton IchorCoal	 MATT MITCHELL 28 British Reading Clipper Telemet+
 GREG MILLER 40 British Goaport Mission Performance	 HUW FERNIE 32 British Falmouth Visit Seattle	 BOB BEGGS 55 British Plymouth Qingdao	 JIM PRENDERGAST 40 British Goaport Unicef
 MAX STUNELL 34 British Purtonmouth PSP Logistics	 OLIVIER CARDIN 45 French Saint Aubin sur Mer UMAX Exchange	 PETER THORNTON 38 British Gorran Haven GREAT Britain	 WENDY TUCK 50 Australian Sydney Da Nang - Viet Nam

APPENDIX D: THE RACE IN NUMBERS

7

THE RACE IN NUMBERS



APPENDIX E:
CLIPPER 2015–16 ROUND THE WORLD YACHT RACE:
FINAL RACE RESULTS



CLIPPER 2015-16 ROUND THE WORLD YACHT RACE
FINAL RACE RESULTS

POSITION / TEAM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	GATE POINTS	OCEAN SPRINTS	PENALTY POINTS	OVERALL POINTS
1 LMAX EXCHANGE	12	3	12	12	10	12	9	10	10	12	7	12	8	10	15	2	4	152
2 DERRY~LONDON~DERRY~DOIRE	9	11	11	3	5	8	12	12	12	9	8	11	9	12	12	8	4	148
3 GREAT BRITAIN	10	12	8	11	11	11	10	8	9	6	9	9	7	3	12	0	10	126
4 GARMIN	8	10	9	10	8	10	11	11	7	8	11	7	6	9	7	2	9	125
5 QINGDAO	11	4	10	8	3	4	8	6	5	7	5	5	2	7	5	0	11	79
6 MISSION PERFORMANCE	3	9	7	9	6	8	2	9	6	4	3	4	4	6	1	6	9	78
7 DA NANG - VIET NAM	2	7	5	4	12	9	7	5	1	1	6	6	10	5	1	0	4	77
8 VISIT SEATTLE	5	2	4	6	7	2	1	4	4	3	10	3	12	11	2	2	2	76
9 CLIPPERTELEMED+	6	8	1	2	9	5	6	2	8	11	12	10	3	2	2	0	13	74
10 UNICEF	1	1	2	7	4	6	3	1	11	10	4	8	5	4	3	0	5	65
11 ICHORCOAL	7	6	6	5	1	7	5	3	2	5	1	1	1	8	3	2	9	54
12 PSP LOGISTICS	4	5	3	1	2	3	4	7	3	2	2	2	11	1	0	0	2	48

APPENDIX F:

THEME DEVELOPMENT

Descriptive Nodes	Basic Themes	Organising Themes	Global Themes	LATENT THEMES
Cost, perceptions	Overcoming the sceptical perceptions of coaching	Perceptions of coaching	Perspectives on the coaching experience	Expecting experience
Perceptions, purpose, requested by	A deficit based perception of coaching			Developing performance
Process, expectations	Expectations of coaching			Supportive challenge
Experience, consequences, outcomes, style	The skippers' experience of coaching	The experience of coaching		Supportive challenge
Access to, barriers to	Implementation challenges			Supportive challenge
Engagement, relationship, openness, coach	Engagement with the coaching process			Supportive challenge
Timing, context	The need for protected time			Supportive challenge
Type of coaching, line manager	Internal coaching by the race directors	A multi-level perspective on coaching		Supportive challenge
Transfer, absence, impact, peer, skipper	The role of the skipper as coach			Competitive collaboration
Crew2skipper, peer (crew), RTW, skills, watch leader	The emergence of coaching by experienced crew members			Competitive collaboration
Leadership, decision making	The leader 'sets the tone' at the top	The perceptions of leadership in a team context	Leadership in a team context	Team leadership
Expectations, leadership, skipper, excitement, respect	Individual and social construction of leadership perceptions			Team leadership
Performance	Influence of performance on the perceptions of leadership			Competitive collaboration

Descriptive Nodes	Basic Themes	Organising Themes	Global Themes	LATENT THEMES
Crew experience, feedback, communication, skills	Managers who can deal with people and can race	Expectations of team leadership		Team leadership
Competition, skipper, crew experience, motivation, resilience, style, skills	Motivating the team			Team leadership
Competition, culture, emotions, mood, frustration, upset	The challenge of dealing with crew dynamics	The skippers' experience of leading a team		Competitive Challenge
Leadership	Influencing the crew			Team leadership
Impression management, individual, support for skippers	A sense of isolation			Team leadership
Team behaviour	The delegation of leadership	A temporal perspective on team leadership		Team leadership
Team behaviour, shared leadership, contested, distributed, dynamic, informal, skills	The emergence of leadership within the team			Team leadership
Coaching internal, absence	Availability and expectations of team coaching	The emergence of team coaching		Supportive challenge
Leadership, skipper, transfer of	The role of the skipper in supporting team coaching			Supportive challenge
Team behaviour, crew experience, dynamics, challenging	Social dynamics within the coaching session			Competitive collaboration
Training	The skippers' expectations and preparation for the race	Race expectations and preparation for the race experience	Team leader development and team performance	Expecting experience

Descriptive Nodes	Basic Themes	Organising Themes	Global Themes	LATENT THEMES
Experience, expectations	The role of experience in influencing expectations			Expecting experience
Learning, growth, mindset, environment, overwhelmed, process, types, action, experience	The learning curve	The skippers' experience of team leader development		Developing performance
Managing of team behaviour, team processes, sharing knowledge, groups, big characters, emotional, peer pressure, relationship, mood	The developmental challenge of facilitating the crew experience			Competitive collaboration
Training	The development of the skipper as team coach			Developing performance
Confidence, relationships, ownership, efficacy, empowerment		The role of confidence in team development		Competitive collaboration
Microcosm, defining, expectations, winning, competitive, conflict, team development performance, team work, positive experience, cohesion. Work ethic		Perceptions of performance in a team context		Competitive collaboration

APPENDIX G:

NODES

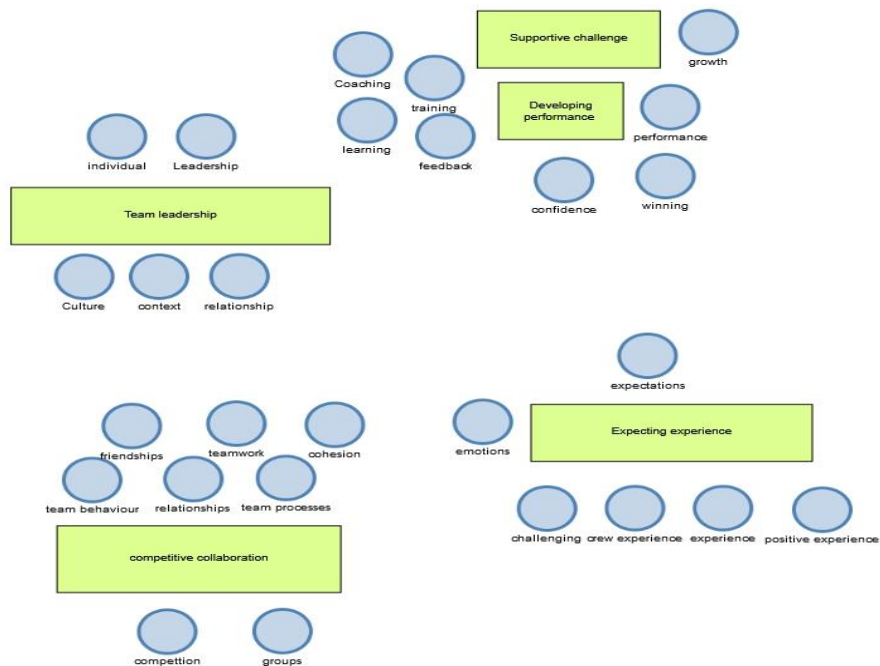
Name	Sources	References	Created On	Modified On
Coaching	0	0	09/11/2016 11:36	09/11/2016 11:36
Coaching ext	37	199	19/09/2016 09:33	09/11/2016 11:36
Access to	16	24	25/10/2016 09:57	27/10/2016 15:44
coach	18	23	25/10/2016 11:17	27/10/2016 15:45
consequences	2	3	25/10/2016 11:55	27/10/2016 15:42
cost	3	7	25/10/2016 09:58	27/10/2016 15:50
engagement	16	29	25/10/2016 09:42	27/10/2016 15:38
experience	26	54	25/10/2016 09:32	27/10/2016 15:50
models	4	7	25/10/2016 11:38	27/10/2016 15:19
openess	13	20	25/10/2016 09:40	27/10/2016 15:42
Outcomes of coaching	27	82	25/10/2016 09:30	27/10/2016 15:52
perceptions of coaching	18	35	25/10/2016 09:31	27/10/2016 15:49
purpose	11	31	25/10/2016 11:29	27/10/2016 15:51
relationship	8	12	25/10/2016 09:34	27/10/2016 15:24
requested by	4	6	25/10/2016 09:35	27/10/2016 15:34
Transfer	14	19	25/10/2016 11:24	27/10/2016 15:46
Type of coaching	27	69	25/10/2016 09:28	27/10/2016 15:43
coaching internal	29	122	19/09/2016 13:23	03/11/2016 08:13
absence	5	6	02/11/2016 14:55	03/11/2016 08:19
barriers to	14	24	02/11/2016 14:08	03/11/2016 08:22
crew2skipper	1	1	02/11/2016 14:38	02/11/2016 14:38
impact of	13	41	02/11/2016 14:10	09/11/2016 11:01
Line manager	10	26	02/11/2016 14:09	03/11/2016 08:22
peer	4	7	02/11/2016 14:11	09/11/2016 11:00
peer (crew)	8	13	02/11/2016 14:13	03/11/2016 08:20
process	1	1	03/11/2016 08:13	03/11/2016 08:13
RTW	1	1	02/11/2016 14:58	02/11/2016 14:58
skills	1	1	02/11/2016 14:51	02/11/2016 14:51
skipper	21	41	02/11/2016 14:15	09/11/2016 11:00
style	1	1	03/11/2016 08:23	03/11/2016 08:23
timing	2	2	03/11/2016 08:08	03/11/2016 08:17
transfer of	13	18	02/11/2016 14:14	03/11/2016 08:16
watch leader	9	11	02/11/2016 14:21	03/11/2016 08:20
competition	20	52	19/09/2016 09:18	24/10/2016 09:40
confidence	23	65	21/09/2016 08:58	13/01/2017 13:01
confidence in the boat	9	14	19/09/2016 09:40	11/10/2016 16:02
Context	26	60	19/09/2016 09:37	24/10/2016 12:07
crew experience	23	138	20/09/2016 08:30	24/10/2016 09:43
challenging	18	47	01/11/2016 16:43	02/11/2016 11:52
dynamics	10	19	01/11/2016 17:12	02/11/2016 11:54
emotions	2	2	02/11/2016 11:31	02/11/2016 11:46
expected	14	21	01/11/2016 16:54	02/11/2016 11:48
gender impact	3	3	01/11/2016 16:49	02/11/2016 11:44

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Modified On
growth	11	33	01/11/2016 16:51	02/11/2016 11:50
impact on	7	14	01/11/2016 16:45	09/11/2016 11:23
microcosm	1	1	02/11/2016 11:35	02/11/2016 11:35
motivation	8	11	01/11/2016 17:16	02/11/2016 11:46
ownership	3	4	01/11/2016 17:03	02/11/2016 11:44
positive experience	17	34	01/11/2016 16:44	02/11/2016 11:53
relationships	9	17	01/11/2016 16:48	02/11/2016 11:46
teamwork	8	14	01/11/2016 17:10	02/11/2016 11:51
winning	7	8	01/11/2016 16:59	02/11/2016 11:46
Culture	0	0	09/11/2016 11:35	09/11/2016 11:35
boat culture	25	154	19/09/2016 09:42	03/11/2016 08:24
cohesion	17	52	24/10/2016 10:03	03/11/2016 08:24
work ethic	9	13	24/10/2016 09:51	24/10/2016 19:01
competitive	19	46	24/10/2016 10:07	24/10/2016 19:01
conflict	6	9	24/10/2016 09:56	24/10/2016 19:01
design of boat	1	1	24/10/2016 10:14	24/10/2016 19:01
efficacy	10	13	24/10/2016 11:56	09/11/2016 11:18
team efficacy	3	10	19/09/2016 09:10	20/09/2016 08:16
empowerment	3	9	24/10/2016 11:37	24/10/2016 19:01
influencers	0	0	09/11/2016 11:16	09/11/2016 11:16
conditions	3	3	24/10/2016 12:08	24/10/2016 19:01
leadership	20	65	24/10/2016 09:58	24/10/2016 19:01
mood	18	28	24/10/2016 09:55	24/10/2016 19:01
Team dynamics	28	55	24/10/2016 09:46	24/10/2016 19:01
winning	9	14	24/10/2016 12:03	24/10/2016 19:01
network	3	8	24/10/2016 10:12	24/10/2016 19:01
process	8	13	24/10/2016 11:31	24/10/2016 19:01
Clipper culture	22	67	20/09/2016 09:29	24/10/2016 09:41
emotions	21	64	19/09/2016 09:29	12/10/2016 09:32
management	4	5	02/11/2016 12:07	02/11/2016 12:17
mixed emotions	7	8	02/11/2016 11:59	02/11/2016 12:34
negative	0	0	02/11/2016 11:57	02/11/2016 11:57
anger	1	2	02/11/2016 12:16	02/11/2016 12:18
anxiety	4	6	02/11/2016 11:55	02/11/2016 12:24
conflict	2	2	02/11/2016 12:32	02/11/2016 12:33
depressed	1	2	02/11/2016 12:30	02/11/2016 12:31
disappointment	4	4	02/11/2016 12:13	02/11/2016 12:25
dislike	1	2	02/11/2016 12:29	02/11/2016 12:30
excluded	2	6	02/11/2016 12:05	02/11/2016 12:11
exhaustion	5	6	02/11/2016 11:57	02/11/2016 12:35
frustration	8	10	02/11/2016 12:00	02/11/2016 12:28
sadness	2	3	02/11/2016 12:08	02/11/2016 12:31
sensitive	2	3	02/11/2016 12:19	02/11/2016 12:34
upset	9	10	02/11/2016 12:04	02/11/2016 12:34
positive	0	0	02/11/2016 11:56	02/11/2016 11:56
enjoyment	2	3	02/11/2016 12:02	02/11/2016 12:30
enthusiasm	1	1	02/11/2016 12:01	02/11/2016 12:01
excitement	1	1	02/11/2016 11:59	02/11/2016 11:59
happiness	2	5	02/11/2016 12:06	02/11/2016 12:36

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Modified On
humour	2	2	02/11/2016 12:00	02/11/2016 12:15
inspired	1	2	02/11/2016 12:12	02/11/2016 12:12
respect	1	1	02/11/2016 12:18	02/11/2016 12:19
tolerance	1	3	02/11/2016 12:15	02/11/2016 12:21
expectations	23	64	20/09/2016 09:15	10/10/2016 13:40
conditions	3	4	16/11/2016 13:16	16/11/2016 13:42
difference	6	9	16/11/2016 13:32	16/11/2016 13:42
dynamic	5	7	16/11/2016 13:25	16/11/2016 13:41
managing	6	12	16/11/2016 13:22	16/11/2016 13:46
race expectations	10	19	19/09/2016 12:39	16/11/2016 13:45
skipper	9	13	16/11/2016 13:29	16/11/2016 13:43
Team	2	2	16/11/2016 13:31	16/11/2016 13:43
team structure	2	2	16/11/2016 13:15	16/11/2016 13:32
worst case	2	2	16/11/2016 13:24	16/11/2016 13:30
experience	27	110	19/09/2016 09:30	24/10/2016 09:38
coaching	8	12	08/11/2016 14:52	08/11/2016 15:19
influencers	1	2	08/11/2016 15:01	08/11/2016 15:01
prior to	12	19	08/11/2016 14:51	08/11/2016 15:18
Role	23	61	08/11/2016 14:49	08/11/2016 15:19
feedback	5	10	21/09/2016 09:25	10/10/2016 08:29
impression mgt	6	6	26/09/2016 13:26	11/10/2016 16:25
individual	11	18	19/09/2016 09:40	11/10/2016 16:22
Leadership	0	0	09/11/2016 11:05	09/11/2016 11:05
decision making	5	11	22/09/2016 11:34	04/10/2016 09:16
shared leadership	24	90	19/09/2016 12:54	24/10/2016 09:42
contested	12	21	04/11/2016 08:17	04/11/2016 09:18
distributed	10	16	04/11/2016 08:11	04/11/2016 09:11
dynamic	12	18	04/11/2016 08:13	04/11/2016 09:10
factors	16	34	04/11/2016 08:18	04/11/2016 09:16
impact	16	28	04/11/2016 08:22	09/11/2016 11:22
informal	12	32	04/11/2016 08:16	04/11/2016 09:14
skills	3	4	04/11/2016 08:35	04/11/2016 09:17
structure	16	29	04/11/2016 08:15	04/11/2016 15:25
Skills	0	0	09/11/2016 11:25	09/11/2016 11:25
communication	17	57	19/09/2016 13:07	12/10/2016 09:44
resilience	22	33	19/09/2016 13:05	24/10/2016 09:50
skipper	36	261	19/09/2016 09:22	24/10/2016 10:16
background	3	7	03/11/2016 14:48	03/11/2016 15:18
challenge	2	3	03/11/2016 15:32	09/11/2016 10:55
functions	4	6	03/11/2016 14:34	03/11/2016 15:35
delegation	6	11	03/11/2016 14:43	09/11/2016 10:56
expectations	1	1	03/11/2016 15:12	03/11/2016 15:13
external	1	2	03/11/2016 15:18	03/11/2016 15:19
management	3	4	03/11/2016 14:53	03/11/2016 15:29
motivational	4	6	03/11/2016 14:37	03/11/2016 15:26
social	2	3	03/11/2016 14:58	03/11/2016 15:27
task	5	9	03/11/2016 14:38	03/11/2016 15:23
training	3	6	03/11/2016 14:38	03/11/2016 15:09
identity	1	2	03/11/2016 15:30	03/11/2016 15:34

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Modified On
impact on	8	22	03/11/2016 14:34	09/11/2016 10:55
perceived	5	13	03/11/2016 14:40	03/11/2016 15:24
postrace	1	1	03/11/2016 14:47	03/11/2016 14:47
purpose	3	9	03/11/2016 15:03	03/11/2016 15:33
race experience	9	39	10/10/2016 08:22	09/11/2016 11:09
relationship	5	9	03/11/2016 14:35	09/11/2016 10:57
replacement	2	2	03/11/2016 14:51	03/11/2016 15:31
resilience	2	3	03/11/2016 15:04	03/11/2016 15:23
responsibility	4	5	03/11/2016 14:41	09/11/2016 10:55
selfcontrol	3	4	03/11/2016 14:45	03/11/2016 14:59
skills	1	1	03/11/2016 15:05	03/11/2016 15:05
style	4	6	03/11/2016 14:55	03/11/2016 15:25
support	4	6	03/11/2016 15:17	09/11/2016 10:56
support for skippers	15	45	21/09/2016 08:12	12/10/2016 09:45
winning	2	3	03/11/2016 14:52	03/11/2016 15:29
watch leader	27	94	19/09/2016 13:05	04/11/2016 15:01
change to	15	20	04/11/2016 11:01	04/11/2016 15:03
choice	12	20	04/11/2016 11:00	04/11/2016 15:06
differences	16	22	04/11/2016 11:02	04/11/2016 15:03
functions	16	28	04/11/2016 10:59	04/11/2016 15:07
impact	15	28	04/11/2016 10:59	04/11/2016 15:07
perception of	14	25	04/11/2016 11:01	04/11/2016 15:07
Learning	31	134	19/09/2016 09:30	12/10/2016 09:43
environment	3	4	04/11/2016 15:18	04/11/2016 15:57
growth	23	65	04/11/2016 15:10	04/11/2016 16:00
mindset	14	27	19/09/2016 12:46	12/10/2016 09:46
overwhelmed	5	5	04/11/2016 15:14	04/11/2016 15:47
process	14	21	04/11/2016 15:22	04/11/2016 15:58
Types	0	0	09/11/2016 11:30	09/11/2016 11:30
action	5	8	04/11/2016 15:27	04/11/2016 15:56
experience	7	7	04/11/2016 15:23	04/11/2016 15:55
mistakes	4	4	04/11/2016 15:17	04/11/2016 15:42
observe	2	2	04/11/2016 15:48	04/11/2016 15:49
preparation	11	13	04/11/2016 15:13	04/11/2016 15:55
reflection	17	31	04/11/2016 15:08	04/11/2016 15:59
sharing knowledge	9	11	04/11/2016 15:11	04/11/2016 15:51
managing of	0	0	16/11/2016 13:22	16/11/2016 13:22
microcosm	13	23	21/09/2016 09:47	11/10/2016 16:29
performance	29	145	19/09/2016 13:46	05/11/2016 08:31
confidence	5	5	05/11/2016 08:33	05/11/2016 09:17
decisions	20	45	05/11/2016 08:09	05/11/2016 09:17
defining	18	30	05/11/2016 08:05	05/11/2016 09:17
expectations	26	61	05/11/2016 08:08	05/11/2016 09:17
team development	9	14	05/11/2016 08:06	05/11/2016 09:05
winning	21	44	05/11/2016 08:12	05/11/2016 09:15
supporters	8	10	21/09/2016 09:41	10/10/2016 12:36
team behaviour	36	329	19/09/2016 09:21	24/10/2016 09:43
big characters	7	8	03/11/2016 08:26	03/11/2016 12:21
c2skipper	6	11	03/11/2016 08:27	03/11/2016 12:24

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Modified On
cohesion	4	5	03/11/2016 08:37	03/11/2016 12:25
commitment	4	5	03/11/2016 08:32	03/11/2016 12:25
dynamics	8	41	03/11/2016 08:35	03/11/2016 12:25
emotional	1	1	03/11/2016 08:30	03/11/2016 08:30
friendships	1	2	03/11/2016 08:31	03/11/2016 08:34
groups	8	24	03/11/2016 08:39	03/11/2016 12:26
inexperience	1	1	03/11/2016 09:09	03/11/2016 09:10
leggers	2	3	03/11/2016 08:27	03/11/2016 08:58
Mood	2	2	03/11/2016 08:59	03/11/2016 12:20
motivation	4	7	03/11/2016 08:37	03/11/2016 12:25
mutual respect	2	5	03/11/2016 08:29	03/11/2016 08:53
peer pressure	1	2	03/11/2016 08:56	03/11/2016 08:56
relationship	2	5	03/11/2016 12:18	03/11/2016 12:24
Roles	5	7	03/11/2016 08:40	03/11/2016 12:25
social loafing	1	1	03/11/2016 08:55	03/11/2016 08:56
social loafing (2)	8	20	19/09/2016 09:07	12/10/2016 09:28
step up	0	0	03/11/2016 08:28	03/11/2016 08:28
support	5	14	03/11/2016 08:25	03/11/2016 09:08
teamwork	1	2	19/09/2016 09:08	19/09/2016 09:16
weather	1	1	03/11/2016 08:47	03/11/2016 08:47
team processes	22	70	19/09/2016 09:31	12/10/2016 09:35
Training	6	10	22/09/2016 10:53	10/10/2016 08:57



Visual representation of the data nodes representing the coaching paradoxes

APPENDIX H: CONSENT FORM



The role of coaching in supporting team leader development and team performance

**Sue Fontannaz, researcher, Doctoral Student of Coaching and
Mentoring, Business School, Oxford Brookes University.**

Contact details: 07557 111 666 or 14023737@brookes.ac.uk

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.
3. I agree to take part in the above study.

☐
☐
☐

Please initial box

Yes

No

4. I agree to the interview being audio recorded
5. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications
6. I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) in a specialist data centre and may be used for future research.

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE

DESIGN OF THE INTERVIEW GUIDE

To focus on the key constructs in the research question:

How can coaching support team leader development and team performance in the context of a global sailing race and how can the findings contribute to our understanding of developing team leadership in an organisational context?

Key constructs: context, coaching, team leadership, leader development and team performance. Questions were developed around the five core areas of interest:

1. How the context influences the key constructs. How do the participants experience the race and the coaching, and how do their expectations and experience influence team leadership, development and performance? What were the key influences/biggest impact/support on the race experience?
2. How was the coaching experienced by the race skippers? What were the perceptions of coaching?
3. How was team leadership defined in this context? Is leadership stable and perceived in the same way by all the participants? What was the skippers' experience of leadership? What was the crews' expectations and experience of leadership?
4. Was growth/learning or development mentioned? If so, how was it described? Were there shifts that occurred as the race progressed?
5. How was performance defined in this context?

INTERVIEW PROCESS

To focus on open ended questions to encourage participants to focus on issues that are important to them in describing experience. Each interview will follow the following format:

1. Thank the participant for their voluntary participation and confirm that participation can be terminated at any stage of the interview.
2. Ask the participant if they have any questions before commencing and ask for the consent form to be signed to confirm their voluntary participation.
3. Request that the interview can be audio recorded for accuracy purposes and explain that the audio recording will be deleted once the written transcript has been confirmed as correct by the participant.
4. Check that the participant is comfortable and ready to engage in the interview.
5. Ask the questions (detailed below).
6. On completion of the interview, to check with the participant if there is anything else they feel is necessary to include in the data collection that may not have been covered by the questions.
7. Encourage the participant to make contact if they think of any other insights that may be relevant or if any concerns arise.
8. Thank the participant and confirm when the transcript will be sent to them and also when the summary findings will be available. Provide follow-up contact details.

QUESTION FRAMEWORK

The following question framework guided the interview process:

Questions for the race directors:

1. What would you consider as important in understanding the race?
2. How would you define performance in this context?
3. How do you see the skipper's role?
4. What is important to understand about the skippers?
5. What do you expect from the skippers?
6. Do the skippers need support?
7. How are they supported?
8. What is important to understand about the crew experience?
9. What is the impact of the skippers on the crew experience?

10. How do the crew perceive the skippers? Is this the same for all the skippers? Does it change during the race?
11. What do the crew expect from the skippers?
12. Do you see changes in the skippers as the race progresses?
13. How did the coaching come about?
14. What did you expect from the coaching?
15. What has been the impact of the coaching?
16. Are all the skippers keen to be coached?
17. What concerns do you have about coaching?
18. If money and time weren't constraints, what would be the ideal way of supporting and coaching your skippers?
19. What surprised you about the coaching?
20. How do the skippers feel about the coaching?
21. If you had to research something about the coaching, the skippers and the crews, what would you be interested in?
22. What have I missed that is important to understand about the race?

Questions for the coaches:

1. What was your experience of coaching the skippers?
2. What were the key themes that were present in the coaching?
3. How did you structure the coaching?
4. How has the structure changed from the previous race?
5. What worked well?
6. What were the challenges?
7. How did the skippers respond to the coaching?
8. Were there some skippers resistant to the coaching?
9. What surprised you?
10. What have I missed?

Questions for skippers:

1. What was your experience of the race?
2. What surprised you?
3. What had the biggest impact on you?
4. What was your biggest challenge?
5. What support did you have on the race?
6. Any other support?

7. What was your experience of the coaching?
8. For you and your crew, what stood out for you from the coaching?
9. What worked best for you?
10. Did you do any team coaching?
11. Anything else on the coaching?
12. How would you define performance on the race?
13. What have I missed?

Questions for crew members:

1. What was your race experience like?
2. What had the biggest impact on you during the race?
3. What was your experience of leadership?
4. What did you expect your skipper to do?
5. Did you experience any coaching?
6. What have we missed that was important?
7. How do you define performance in the race?
8. From the blogs, the skipper seemed to have a lot of confidence in the team? (or relevant points that came out of your skippers blog)
9. What surprised you about the experience?

APPENDIX J:

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (PIS) FOR THE RACE CREW

Doctorate of Coaching and Mentoring

Researcher: Sue Fontannaz

OXFORD
BROOKES
UNIVERSITY

Title: The role of coaching in supporting team leader development

You are invited to take part in a research study on coaching. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to explore how coaching can support team leader development of the race skippers in leading their teams during the Clipper Round the World race. Little research has been undertaken in this area and there is the potential to better understand how coaching can develop team leadership skills for the benefit of teams.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You are being invited to take part in this study, because you have experience of being led by a race skipper and your insights will contribute to the understanding of how coaching has supported the skippers in leading their teams.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time. The researcher's contact details are included at the end of this form if you have any queries about the research.

Your participation in the research will not affect your selection in any future races or affect any membership related to the Clipper experience.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Participation in the study will involve an interview of no more than one hour at a mutually agreed time at a neutral venue. The interview will be audio recorded with your permission. If the interview is conducted via skype, a transcript of the interview will be sent for your approval.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The benefits of taking part in this study could include the opportunity to contribute to developing understanding of how to support elite team leaders and their crews for future races.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?

Your involvement will be treated with the strictest confidentiality, and all information collected about any individual who takes part in this study will be kept confidential (subject to legal limitations). Confidentiality and privacy will be ensured in the collection, storage and publications of research by de-identifying the participants. Data collected will be securely stored as required by the Data Protection Act 1998, and will be transferred to Oxford Brookes for safe storage in accordance with University regulations that require data to be kept securely,

in paper or electronic form, for a period of 10 years following completion of the research project. The small sample size has implications for your privacy/anonymity, and your data will be de-identified, by replacing your name with a code. Further the research will not identify your specific position in the race standings, to further ensure your privacy.

What should I do if I want to take part?

Please contact the researcher either by email or by phone - the contact details are provided below.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the research will form part of my thesis for the Doctorate of Coaching and Mentoring. The thesis will be available from Oxford Brookes library. A summary of the research findings will be available upon email request from the email address below.

Data Protection

Any laptops, memory sticks or audio records used in field research will be password protected so that they comply with the Data Protection Act in the UK and will be stored in a secure place. All data will be transferred to Oxford Brookes University for safe storage for 10 years after the conclusion of this research.

Who is organising and funding the research?

I am conducting this research as a part-time PhD student of the Business School at Oxford Brookes University. This research is supervised by:
Dr Elaine Cox, Director of Studies, Oxford Brookes University,
Tel: +44(0) 1865 488350 Email: ecox@brookes.ac.uk
Dr Ioanna Iordanou, Second supervisor, Oxford Brookes University,
Tel: +44(0) 1865 488350 Email: ioanna.iordanou@brookes.ac.uk

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, Oxford Brookes University.

Contact for further information.

Researcher: Sue Fontannaz
Email: 14023737@brookes.ac.uk
Mobile number: 07557111666

The University also provides advice if there are any concerns regarding the research and the Chair of the University Research Ethics Committee can be contacted at ethics@brookes.ac.uk

Date: 07 October 2015

Thank you for your time in considering this request.

Race skipper of the Clipper Round the World Race

Date

Dear (race skipper's name)

Invitation to participate in research

I would like to invite you to take part in some coaching research, which is being conducted as part of a professional doctorate in Coaching and Mentoring. The details of the research are given in the Participant Information Sheet attached.

Essentially I wish to explore how coaching can support team leader development, so I am interested in your experience of being coached and leading a team during the Clipper Round the World Race. To do this, I will need to explore your experience of being coached by Mission Performance and how this has supported you in leading a team in the race.

I would like to invite you to take part in an interview, which will be approximately 40-60 minutes in length, which will be recorded with your permission, to ensure that the data is accurate. The interview is voluntary and I would really appreciate your input, as your insights will inform others who face the challenge of leading teams. I have invited all the race skippers to take part in the research and the data will be treated as confidential and not shared with any third parties. It will also be anonymised so your name will not be included in the final research report.

If you have any reservations about the research, I am of course more than happy to discuss this in more detail; my contact information is given below. Please could you call me or sms me to confirm whether you are available for an interview and also the best time for you to do the interview.

Yours sincerely

Sue Fontannaz
Mobile number: 07557111666

APPENDIX K:

SKIPPER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME CONTENTS

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APPENDIX L:

CLIPPER MAP 2015–16 FINAL

