Unlocking Potential: How Mindfulness and Self-Regulation Shape Coachability – and When Attitudes Matter

Dafne M. Swinkels

12291595

MSc. Coaching and Vitality in Organisations

Department of Psychology, University of Amsterdam

Supervisor: Dr. Lara Solms

Second Assessor: Carolin Schneider, MSc.

July 14, 2025

Abstract

In today's dynamic work environment, coaching is increasingly used to support employee adaptability and performance. However, little is known about what makes someone open and willing to engage in coaching, a concept known as coachability. The current study examines whether mindfulness is related to coachability, if this relationship is mediated by self-regulation and whether positive attitudes towards coaching moderate the self-regulation–coachability link. A moderated mediation model was tested using cross-sectional survey data from 162 participants. Results showed that mindfulness was positively related to coachability and that this relationship was mediated by self-regulation. Positive attitudes towards coaching were also strongly associated with coachability, but did not moderate the relationships between mindfulness or self-regulation and coachability. These findings highlight self-regulation as a key mechanism between mindfulness and coachability and underscore the strong link between positive attitudes and coachability. Further exploratory analyses suggested that mindfulness was positively associated with coachability only when attitudes towards coaching were more positive. Moreover, self-regulation was only positively related to coachability when attitudes towards coaching were less positive. Future research is needed to understand the role of attitudes towards coaching in shaping coachability. Additionally, studies should explore the potential buffering effect of self-regulation on coachability when attitudes towards coaching are less favourable. Practical implications include selecting development strategies that align with organisational resources; fostering mindfulness or targeting self-regulation, and cultivating an environment where coaching is valued.

Key words: coachability, mindfulness, self-regulation, attitudes towards coaching, workplace coaching effectiveness

Unlocking Potential: How Mindfulness and Self-Regulation Shape Coachability – and When Attitudes Matter

In today's fast-paced and dynamic work environment, employees are expected to demonstrate high levels of flexibility, resilience, and adaptability in response to changing demands and increasing performance expectations (Jaiswal, 2018; Nowacka & Rzemieniak, 2021). These expectations are magnified in the current VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous) world, where global disruptions, like the COVID-19 pandemic and geopolitical instability, intensify the pressure to continuously adapt (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014; Dima et al., 2021). To help employees navigate these challenges, organisations increasingly turn to coaching (van Dick, 2023), defined as "unlocking a person's potential to maximise their own performance" (Whitmore, 1992, p. 8). Coaching supports employee development and well-being by providing guidance, feedback, and skill-building opportunities (Grant & Green, 2008; Jeannotte et al., 2021; Jones, 2016) and has become a multi-billion-dollar industry (International Coaching Federation, 2020).

Despite its popularity, attitudes towards coaching vary. While some embrace it as a valuable development tool, others are sceptical. For example, in 2022, in '*De avondshow met Arjen Lubach*' – a Dutch late-night talk show that presents sharp, critical commentary on politics and social issues – the host criticised the coaching industry, questioning its legitimacy. Viewer comments under the episode on YouTube reflect negative attitudes, with remarks such as *'…coaching is just one big multi-level marketing scheme…' and 'So-called coaching is just pure quackery in simplest and purest form'.* These reactions reflect a broader scepticism existing in parts of the public. Such attitudes are not just expressions of opinion; they can have real behavioural consequences. Research suggests that attitudes predict behavioural intentions and subsequent action (Elliot et al., 2015; Kraus, 1995). The predictive relationship between attitudes and behaviour means that if someone has a positive attitude

towards a particular behaviour, they are more likely to intend to do it – and ultimately follow through. In the context of coaching, this predictive relationship may imply that individuals who hold more favourable attitudes towards coaching (e.g., believing it is helpful, worthwhile, or relevant) are more likely to engage with it and benefit from the coaching process. In this way, attitudes may play a key role in shaping an individual's coachability – that is, their openness and willingness to work with and learn from a coach (Johnson et al., 2021).

Coachability has been positively associated with job performance, adaptability, and the likelihood of being considered for promotion (Johnson et al., 2021; Weiss & Merrigan, 2021). In fact, Weiss and Merrigan (2021) found coachability to have a greater impact on job performance than the coaching efforts themselves. Yet, coachability remains underexplored in research. Much of coaching research has focused on the coach and coaching outcomes (Jones et al., 2016; Peterson, 2011), whereas less is known about coachee characteristics (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; Bozer & Jones, 2018). While some characteristics such as self-efficacy, motivation and emotional stability have been linked to coaching success (Bozer et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2021; Stewart et al., 2008), the effects found are often minor, inconsistent, or context-specific. Investigating coachability and its predictors is vital to identify who benefits most from coaching and ensure that interventions align with individual readiness. Ultimately, this alignment between interventions and a person's readiness may improve coaching outcomes across diverse individuals and contexts.

One factor that may enhance coachability is mindfulness, defined as "the state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present" (Brown & Ryan, 2003, p. 822). Mindfulness has been broadly researched for its effects on self-awareness, emotional regulation and openness to experience (Good et al., 2016; Lindsay, 2017; Roemer et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2017). It strengthens an individual's ability to stay present and open by

improving focus and reducing distractions from thoughts, emotions, or current events (Baykal, 2020). These qualities closely mirror those associated with coachability, such as openness, self-reflection and receptivity to feedback (Johnson et al., 2021). In workplace coaching, mindfulness can foster self-awareness that enables coachees to set *self-concordant goals* – goals aligned with personal values (Smyth et al., 2020). These goals result in greater motivation, a sustained effort and a higher likelihood of achievement (Sheldon, 2014), which are important factors for coaching effectiveness (Bozer & Jones, 2018; De Haan, 2021). Importantly, mindfulness is a trainable skill, with numerous studies demonstrating that it can be developed through simple, brief interventions (Grégoire & Lachance, 2015; Hafenbrack, 2017). The trainability of mindfulness makes it particularly valuable for coaching practice, as it is easy to integrate into coaching sessions. To develop mindfulness could serve as a foundational step to enhance coachees' openness and engagement with the coaching process.

While mindfulness fosters openness and awareness, it may be self-regulation which enables individuals to act on insights and drive behavioural change. In this way, mindfulness can be seen as a supportive foundation for self-regulation (Weiss & Merrigan, 2021). Self-regulation is the ability to align actions with goals and translate insights into meaningful behavioural change by monitoring progress, adjusting responses, and persisting in the face of challenges (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004; Zimmerman, 2000). By enhancing awareness of one's thoughts, emotions and surroundings, mindfulness enhances the ability to notice unhelpful patterns and adjust behaviour to pursue one's goals more effectively (Brown & Ryan, 2003). In turn, self-regulation contributes to goal pursuit, perspective-taking, and the coaching relationship, making individuals more likely to engage meaningfully and benefit from the coaching process (Erdös & Ramseyer, 2021; Mühlberger et al., 2025). By improving the effective use of goals and feedback, self-regulation directly supports coachability (Gregory et al., 2011) and might act as a bridge between mindfulness and coachability.

Still, self-regulation may not fully determine coaching engagement. An individual's attitudes towards coaching might also play a crucial role in whether self-regulatory abilities are expressed in the coaching context. While limited research exists on the effect of coaching attitudes on coaching engagement (e.g. Murphy et al., 2023), research in sports psychology has found that when athletes perceive their coaches as skilled and knowledgeable, they are more engaged with the coaching process (Ni & Feng, 2023). In addition, other research in the sports context shows that negative expectations can significantly impact performance (Raglin et al., 2020). This impact on performance occurs through the nocebo effect, which is like a negative placebo effect. In other words, bad outcomes can occur due to negative expectations (Locher et al., 2019). The nocebo effect in sports psychology can reduce endurance and lower motivation, even without actual physiological harm (Raglin et al., 2020). Similarly, in psychotherapy, negative expectations – shaped by past experiences, societal beliefs, or stories from peers and media – can lead to poorer outcomes, even in the absence of direct negative experiences (Weimer et al., 2020). Just as nocebo effects in sports and therapy influence performance and progress, a less positive attitude towards workplace coaching may reduce coachability – and, in turn, coaching effectiveness.

While previous research has explored factors such as personality traits and learning orientation in relation to coachability (Johnson et al., 2021; Lee, 2020; Shannahan et al., 2013), the influence of mindfulness remains underexplored. Given the potential of integrating mindfulness practices in workplace interventions, understanding its impact on coachability can provide organisations with actionable strategies to enhance coaching effectiveness. Additionally, investigating the effect of coaching attitudes on coachability can help organisations overcome potential resistance to coaching interventions. This study aims to address these gaps by examining whether mindfulness is related to coachability, if self-regulation mediates this relationship, and whether attitudes towards coaching moderate the

self-regulation–coachability link. By doing so, it seeks to contribute to a more nuanced understanding of what makes individuals open to growth and development, offering insights for organisations that strive to help employees adapt, stay resilient and thrive in an increasingly complex and volatile world.

Theoretical Development

What makes someone coachable? Despite the growing use of coaching as a developmental tool, we still know relatively little about which factors make an individual more or less open to coaching. This study focuses on coachability – how willing and open someone is to work with and learn from a coach – and examines how it may be related to mindfulness, self-regulation and attitudes towards coaching. While each of these factors may play a role, we begin by exploring the relationship between mindfulness and coachability.

Mindfulness and Coachability

Coachability consists of three core dimensions: (1) *comfort with coaching*, which reflects an individual's ease in engaging with a coach and openly discussing challenges; (2) *development orientation*, which captures a person's intrinsic motivation and commitment to learning and skill enhancement; and (3) *openness to feedback*, which encompasses receptivity to constructive criticism, feedback humility, and the ability to integrate feedback for improvement (Johnson et al., 2021). Mindfulness might be a key factor influencing these dimensions. Drawing from the Self-Regulation Theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982, 2001), mindfulness may enhance individuals' ability to regulate their responses to coaching interaction. By fostering self-awareness and emotional stability, mindfulness may directly contribute to an individual's ability to engage with a coach, maintain motivation for learning, and process feedback constructively (Good et al., 2016). The following sections examine how mindfulness potentially supports each of the three core dimensions of coachability.

First, mindfulness might increase *comfort with coaching* by improving emotional regulation and open communication (Good et al., 2016). Mindfulness enables individuals to pause before reacting, observe their emotions without judgement, and respond with calmness and clarity (Good et al., 2016; Iwasaki et al., 2021). This increased emotional regulation fosters more constructive and open communication, which is essential in the coaching context (Good et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2021). In addition, mindfulness strengthens active listening, patience, and collaborative discussion, helping individuals stay present in the conversation and respond with curiosity rather than defensiveness or self-focus (Good et al., 2016). By calming physiological stress responses, mindfulness may help the coachee manage anxiety and defensiveness and feel more at ease in the coach–coachee relationship (Good et al., 2016; Quigley et al., 2007). Since open communication is important for a coach and coachee to work together, mindfulness can play a valuable role in building a trusting relationship. For example, imagine Alex, a newly promoted team leader, who enters the first coaching session feeling nervous. Mindfulness helps them stay grounded, open and less self-critical of their emotions, which allows Alex to feel at ease with the coach and foster the open communication that underlies the *comfort with coaching* dimension.

Second, mindfulness may foster a *developmental orientation* by increasing self-awareness, attentional control, and intrinsic motivation. By enhancing self-awareness and the ability to notice and interpret environmental cues – like others' behaviours and organisational expectations – mindful individuals are better at recognising the need for personal change, and they are more open to new experiences (Theeboom et al., 2017). Additionally, through enhanced self-awareness of personal values, mindfulness helps an individual set self-concordant goals. The alignment of goals with personal values creates a focused, receptive mindset, beneficial for coaching engagement and a sustained commitment to development (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kudesia, 2019; Sheldon, 2014). Donald et al. (2020) found that

mindfulness fosters autonomous motivation – a central concept of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), defined as engaging in activities which are personally meaningful and freely chosen rather than driven by external pressure, like rewards or social expectations. This type of motivation supports the *developmental orientation* dimension of coachability, as individuals with greater autonomous motivation are more engaged with and committed to the development process (Wijsman et al., 2014). In Alex's case, the self-awareness developed through mindfulness helps them identify personally meaningful leadership goals and motivates continuous effort towards growth.

Finally, mindfulness strengthens *openness to feedback* by reducing defensiveness and increasing receptivity to feedback. Individuals with higher levels of mindfulness are better at processing feedback objectively, regulating their emotional responses, and stay engaged in learning experiences (Good et al., 2016; Iwasaki et al., 2021). They are less likely to take critical feedback personally and more capable of letting go of unhelpful distractions such as rumination (Peters et al., 2015). Through non-judgemental listening and open reflection, they become more receptive to constructive input (Good et al., 2016). In addition, mindfulness reduces controlled motivations, such as acting out of guilt or external rewards, enabling individuals to accept feedback openly and engage in continuous learning (Donald et al., 2020). When Alex receives critical feedback, they listen without becoming defensive and reflect on their thoughts and behaviour before responding. As a result, they are more open to feedback and remain engaged in the coaching process.

Given the evidence that mindfulness enhances *comfort with coaching, developmental orientation* and *openness to feedback* – the three core facets of coachability – we expect a positive relationship between mindfulness and coachability. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1: Mindfulness is positively related to coachability.

The Mediating Role of Self-Regulation

Building on the idea that mindfulness enhances attentional control and openness to learning, the relationship with coachability may be explained through improvements in self-regulation. Self-regulation refers to an individual's ability to monitor and adjust their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours to achieve goals (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). By fostering present-moment awareness and emotional stability, mindfulness supports goal focus, feedback management and persistence through challenges, critical aspects of self-regulation and coachability (Baykal, 2020; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Good et al., 2016). Mindfulness increases self-regulation by enhancing individuals' awareness of their internal experiences, such as thoughts and emotions, without judgement. This awareness helps people identify what truly matters to them, making it easier to set and stick to goals that reflect their personal values. Mindfulness also helps people pause before reacting to external pressures (e.g. from their organisation) and habitual impulses, creating space to make more thoughtful and value-aligned choices. It stimulates non-defensive processing of experiences, allowing for better emotional control, cognitive clarity and behavioural flexibility, all essential for self-regulation (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). This clearer sense of direction helps individuals take initiative and follow through on their goals. In this way, people with stronger self-regulatory skills are more likely to take ownership of their growth (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Malinowska, 2018), which in turn promotes coachability.

To further understand the link between self-regulation and coachability, Control Theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982) offers a useful lens. According to this theory, individuals self-regulate their behaviour by comparing their current performance to their goals and adjusting if there is a mismatch (Gregory et al., 2011). This ongoing comparison relies on feedback, making people high in self-regulation more likely to view a coach's input as helpful for improvement. This mindset directly supports the *openness to feedback* dimension

of coachability, as it involves not only accepting feedback but actively using it to improve (Johnson et al., 2021). In addition, self-regulation helps individuals set more effective goals by reflecting on priorities, planning effectively and persist by tracking progress, managing setbacks and staying focused (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). These self-regulatory behaviours align with the *development orientation* dimension of coachability, as effective coaching interactions revolve around setting, pursuing, and achieving developmental goals (Bozer & Jones, 2018; Vancouver & Day, 2005). Recent research shows that self-regulation predicts goal attainment and coaching success, reinforcing the idea that individuals who actively manage their learning and behaviour become more coachable (Mühlberger et al., 2025). Self-regulation also contributes to the *comfort with coaching* dimension of coachability by facilitating a strong coach-coachee relationship. Highly self-regulated individuals are more likely to establish a strong relationship with a coach through nonverbal synchrony – the synchronisation of two individuals' (mostly) visible nonverbal behaviour – which strengthens interpersonal connection and, in turn, enhances the coachee's comfort in engaging with a coach (Erdös & Ramseyer, 2021; Tschacher & Ramseyer, 2017).

In sum, while mindfulness may also have a direct link to coachability, its relationship might be explained by self-regulation. Thus, the following hypothesis will be researched: *H2: Self-regulation mediates the relationship between mindfulness and coachability.*

The Moderating Role of Attitudes Towards Coaching

While self-regulation may explain how mindfulness relates to coachability, it is unlikely that relationship operates independently. Individual differences, like one's attitude towards coaching – specifically, the degree to which they perceive coaching as valuable and beneficial – may influence how effectively their self-regulatory abilities translate into coachability.

When coaching is perceived as positive (e.g., competence-enhancing, autonomy-supportive), it increases engagement in the developmental process and self-regulatory behaviours, like goal setting, feedback integration and sustained effort towards development (Liu & Gumah, 2020). These self-regulatory behaviours are closely tied to one's developmental orientation and willingness to engage with feedback (Johnson et al., 2021). This alignment between attitudes and behaviour is in line with the Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which suggests that when basic psychological needs – autonomy, competence, and relatedness – are supported, individuals are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to engage in growth behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Positive attitudes towards coaching may support these needs by enabling individuals to perceive coaching as self-directive (influencing autonomy), believe they can improve (competence), and feel connected to their coach (relatedness). In turn, these positive perceptions of psychological needs boost their internal drive to fully engage in the coaching process (Hollembeak & Amorose, 2005), making it more likely for individuals to apply their self-regulatory skills. For example, proactively seeking feedback reflects a person's motivation to monitor and improve their performance. This self-regulatory behaviour supports coachability by demonstrating openness to feedback and an orientation on development (Johnson et al., 2021). Research by Liu and Gumah (2020) found that individuals who perceive feedback as accurate and beneficial are more likely to seek it out, suggesting that positive attitudes toward feedback can strengthen self-regulatory behaviours.

A less positive attitude towards coaching may weaken the self-regulation–coachability link by triggering defensive responses such as scepticism, resistance, or disengagement (Carver & Scheier, 1982). Employees may feel this way if they believe coaching is externally imposed rather than self-directed, shifting its purpose from personal development to organisational control (Fillery-Travis & Cavicchia, 2013; Lowman, 2013).

This negative perception may weaken the self-regulation–coachability link through psychological reactance, which is a defensive reaction triggered when one feels their autonomy is being threatened, leading them to resist or reject guidance (Brehm, 1966). In such a case, self-regulation may be redirected away from coaching goals and instead used to maintain autonomy. Maladaptive self-regulation strategies, such as avoidance, withdrawal, and rumination, have been identified in psychological studies as responses to threats or goal failure, using self-regulation for self-protection rather than for growth (Strauman et al., 2013). In the coaching context, such maladaptive strategies could mean that someone who perceives coaching as organisational control may avoid feedback, withdraw from the coaching process, or dwell on perceived criticism.

In addition, negative beliefs and self-stigma about receiving support can affect coachability. Just as stigma can block individuals from seeking psychological help (Hantzi et al., 2019), in coaching, negative attitudes may discourage individuals from seeking coaching in the first place and, if they do engage, reduce openness to feedback and support, limiting coachability.

Ultimately, an individual's attitude towards coaching may determine how effectively self-regulation translates into coachability. While highly self-regulated individuals are generally more receptive to feedback and goal-setting, a less positive attitude towards coaching may hinder their willingness to engage fully in the process. Conversely, those with more positive attitudes are more likely to leverage their self-regulation skills to maximise coaching benefits. Therefore, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H3: Positive attitudes towards coaching positively moderate the relationship between self-regulation and coachability in such a way that the relationship is weaker for individuals who have a less positive attitude towards coaching and stronger for individuals who have a more positive attitude towards coaching.

The Conditional Mediation Model

In addition to influencing the self-regulation–coachability link, attitudes towards coaching may also shape whether the awareness and openness gained through mindfulness lead to greater coachability. While mindfulness encourages openness to learning and feedback (Good et al., 2016), this openness may only translate into engagement in coaching if individuals believe coaching is useful. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1985) suggests that behaviour is shaped by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived control (Kiriakidis, 2015). TPB has been applied to career planning, demonstrating that positive attitudes and the perceived value of professional growth increase learning behaviours, such as setting career goals, developing problem-solving skills, and adapting professional attitudes (Hsu, 2012). Extending this to coaching, individuals with a positive attitude might be more likely to adopt learning behaviours such as seeking and applying feedback and adjusting behaviour based on coaching insights, consistent with TPB's behavioural intention and engagement principles. For example, a mindful employee may be more present and open when receiving feedback from their coach, but whether they apply the feedback (e.g. by adjusting their leadership style) may depend on their attitude towards coaching. If they see coaching as valuable, they might be more likely to turn mindful awareness into action. Drawing also upon the rationale of the previous hypotheses, this thesis proposes that attitudes towards coaching moderate the direct effect of mindfulness on coachability and the indirect effect of mindfulness on coachability through self-regulation, predicting that individuals who have more positive attitudes towards coaching will be more coachable than individuals with less positive attitudes towards coaching. The complete conditional mediation model with stage two moderation can be seen in Figure 1.

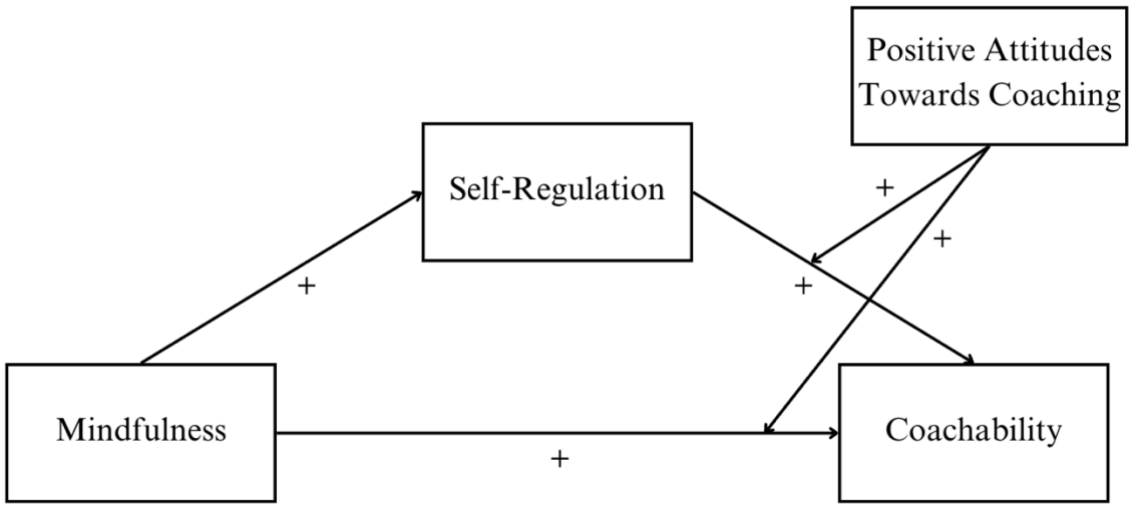
H4a: Positive attitudes towards coaching moderate the direct effect of mindfulness on coachability, such that the effect is weaker for individuals who have a less positive attitude

towards coaching and stronger for individuals who have a more positive attitude towards coaching.

H4b: Positive attitudes towards coaching moderate the indirect effect of mindfulness on coachability through self-regulation, such that the indirect effect is weaker for individuals who have a less positive attitude towards coaching and stronger for individuals who have a more positive attitude towards coaching.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model of a Moderated Mediation: Positive Attitudes Towards Coaching as a Moderator of the Direct and Indirect Relationships of Mindfulness and Coachability via Self-Regulation



Methods

Research Design

This study was a quantitative cross-sectional study with data collection using a survey. The survey was administered using Qualtrics software (2005). Completing the survey took between 20 – 30 minutes.[1] Afterwards, responses were analysed using SPSS.

[1] Although only four scales were used in the context of this thesis, the total survey completion time was longer due to the inclusion of additional measures of other members of the research group.

Procedure

To recruit participants, a message was shared on LinkedIn and WhatsApp that clearly stated inclusion and exclusion criteria. A brief description of the study and a survey link were provided. Participants who worked less than 24 hours, were under the age of 18, or who did not complete the questionnaire or failed the attention check were excluded from the study. Only participants working at least 24 hours per week were included to ensure the sample reflected consistent work engagement and to exclude marginal part-time workers whose workplace experiences and coaching opportunities may differ from those of full-time employees. Participants were asked to report the average number of hours they worked per week. Answers included: 'Less than 10 hours', '10–23 hours', '24–30 hours', '31–40 hours', and 'More than 40 hours'. Participants who answered less than 10 hours or 10–23 hours and thus did not adhere to the inclusion criteria were thanked for participating and redirected to the end of the survey.

Study Population

The study included 162 participants. Of the participants, 50.6% (82) were female, and the average age was 35.4 (SD = 12.50).

To determine the required sample size, a power analysis was conducted using GPower. A meta-analysis examining the effectiveness of workplace coaching reported small to medium effect sizes ranging from $\delta = 0.28$ to 0.51 (Jones et al., 2016). Similarly, other studies on coaching effectiveness have observed small to medium effects (Zhao & Liu, 2020; Zhu et al., 2018). Based on the expected effect size, power analysis for multiple linear regression with 5000 bootstrapped samples ($\alpha = 0.05$, $1–\beta = 0.80$) indicated that a required sample size of 176 participants would be sufficient to detect an effect of $f^2 = 0.07$, which also falls within the small to medium range.

Measures

The survey consisted of three sections: demographic questions, main survey questions and an optional comments section. Participants were asked to provide demographic details such as age, gender, tenure and job role.

Coachability

The 12-item Coachability Scale was used to measure coachability. We used a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). It measured coachability on three dimensions: *comfort with coaching, developmental orientation,* and *acceptance of feedback*. The higher the score, the more coachable the person. Cronbach's alpha was high (α = 0.81 to 0.91 across various samples; Johnson et al., 2021). Since participants were not necessarily being coached at the time of study participation, the items reflected potential situations prevalent in coaching and were rephrased accordingly. An adjusted reverse item example of the subscale *comfort with coaching* is 'I would feel tense when working with a coach', where 'would' is added and 'my coach' is replaced with 'a coach'. An adjusted example item of the subscale *developmental orientation* is 'I would go above and beyond what a coach tells me to', reflecting the same wording change. Last, an example item of the dimension *acceptance of feedback* is 'Receiving feedback is a distressing process'. The fully adjusted scale can be found in Appendix A. In the present study, the adjusted coachability scale demonstrated good internal consistency (Cronbach's α = .80).

Mindfulness

Mindfulness was measured using the 15-item Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS), developed by Brown & Ryan (2003), which measures how attentive and aware participants are of what happens in the present. Items were rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (almost always) to 6 (almost never), with higher scores indicating a greater level of mindfulness. The MAAS has a Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.82 to 0.87 in

various studies, indicating good reliability (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Osman et al., 2016). An example item is 'I rush through activities without being really attentive to them'. In the current study, the MAAS showed high internal consistency (Cronbach's α = .86).

Self-Regulation

Self-regulation was measured using the 10-item Self-Regulation Scale (SRS) by Schwarzer et al. (1999). Participants gave scores on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with higher scores reflecting greater self-regulation. The Cronbach's alpha for the SRS ranged between 0.73 and 0.82 in various studies, showing good reliability (Diehl et al., 2006; Luszczynska et al., 2004). An example item is 'I can concentrate on one activity for a long time, if necessary.' In the present study, the Self-Regulation Scale also demonstrated high reliability (Cronbach's α = .86).

Attitudes Towards Coaching

To measure attitudes towards coaching, an adjusted version of the 10-item Attitudes to Seeking Professional Help – Short Form (ATSPPH-SF; Fischer & Farina, 1995) was used. The original scale measures an individual's willingness to and perceived value of seeking professional psychological help (Fischer & Farina, 1995). The adjusted questionnaire measured the attitude towards seeking professional help in the form of coaching. Each item was scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with a higher score indicating a more positive attitude towards coaching. The original scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.77–0.84 (Elhai, 2008; Fischer & Farina, 1995). An adjusted example item is 'Considering the time and expense involved in coaching**,** it would have doubtful value for a person like me'. Here, 'psychotherapy' is replaced by 'coaching'. The full adjusted scale can be found in Appendix B. In the current study, the adapted attitudes towards coaching scale demonstrated good internal consistency (Cronbach's α = .80).

Control Variables

The potential control variables included gender, age, tenure, job role, coaching experience (current or past), and educational status.

Gender. It has been found that men are less likely to seek help for emotional problems than women; thus, they may also be less likely to want to engage in coaching (Addis & Mahalik, 2003). For gender, there was a multiple-choice question, '*What is your gender?',* answers including 'male', 'female', 'non-binary', and 'prefer not to say'.

Age. Older individuals have been found to report higher levels of mindfulness than younger individuals, potentially influencing the effect of mindfulness in this study (Shook et al., 2017). To account for age, the participants were asked to fill in their age in years.

Tenure. Research indicates that as employees age and tenure, they are less likely to ask for feedback, thus possibly influencing the openness to feedback dimension of coachability (Anseel et al., 2015). Tenure was measured with the question '*How long have you been working?*' and the following multiple-choice answers; 'Less than 1 year', '1-3 years', '4-6 years', '7-10 years', and 'more than 10 years'.

Job Role. Managerial and leadership roles might be more familiar with coaching, as many coaching interventions are focused on those levels (e.g. Horner, 2002; Korotov, 2016). This prior exposure potentially influences their coachability level, and they might have a coloured attitude towards coaching, depending on their previous experience. The question was: '*Which of the following best describes your job role?*'. Answers were multiple choice; 'Entry-level', 'Mid-level', 'Managerial', 'Executive / Leadership'.

Coaching Experience. Coaching experience might affect one's attitude towards coaching. If one had unpleasant or pleasant experiences with coaching, it may have coloured their attitude towards it, as has been the case with psychotherapy (Weimer et al., 2020). Coaching experience was measured with the following item; '*Have you ever participated in a*

coaching program (either currently or in the past)?', with the multiple-choice answers; 'Yes', 'No'.

When a participant answered yes, there was a follow-up question: *How would you describe your overall experience with coaching?'* and the multiple-choice answers: 'Positive', 'Neutral', and 'Negative'.

Educational Status. Self-regulation skills are known to develop progressively across educational levels. Higher education environments promote autonomy and self-regulated learning, potentially influencing the self-regulatory abilities of participants (Kleimola, 2025; Lodge, 2018; Virtanen, 2019). Educational status was measured with '*What is your highest level of education completed?'.* Answers included; 'No formal education', 'High school diploma or equivalent', 'Some college (no degree)', 'Dutch HBO Bachelor's degree', 'Dutch HBO Master's degree' 'University Bachelor's degree', 'University Master's degree', 'Doctoral or professional degree (e.g., Ph.D., M.D., J.D.)'.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 29) and PROCESS macro (version 4.2; Hayes, 2022) to test the hypotheses. The analyses consisted of correlation analyses, mediation analysis, moderation analysis and a moderated mediation analysis. Beforehand, analyses were conducted to assure the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity were met.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

A summary of the study variables and correlations is shown in Table 1. Notably, coachability was positively correlated with coaching experience ($r = .34$, $p < .001$), indicating that individuals with coaching experience tend to be more coachable. Coaching experience also positively correlated with attitudes towards coaching ($r = .40$, $p < .001$). This positive

relationship suggests that those with coaching experience held more positive attitudes towards coaching. Participants with coaching experience (n = 73) were also asked to describe their experience as positive, neutral, or negative. Most responses were positive (n = 66), a few were neutral (n = 7), and none were negative.[2]

Of all the control variables, coaching experience, age, tenure, and job role significantly correlated with one or more of the studied variables. Age positively correlated with mindfulness (r = .32, p < .001) and self-regulation (r = .30, p < .001). This positive relationship suggests that older participants were more mindful and better at self-regulation. Tenure also positively correlated with mindfulness (r = .31, p < .001) and self-regulation (r = .22, p = .005). This positive link indicates that individuals with longer working experience also exhibited higher levels of mindfulness and better self-regulation. Job role positively correlated with mindfulness (r = .21, p = .009), self-regulation (r = .23, p = .004) and positive attitudes towards coaching (r = .18, p = .020), suggesting that individuals in higher-level roles were more mindful, had better self-regulatory skills, and held more positive attitudes towards coaching. Gender and educational status were not significantly correlated with any of the study variables.

Furthermore, coachability was significantly and positively correlated with mindfulness (r = .19, p = .015), self-regulation (r = .20, p = .010) and attitudes towards coaching (r = .64, p < .001). These results indicate that individuals who showed higher levels of mindfulness and self-regulation also tended to be more coachable. However, these relationships were relatively weak (r = .19–.20). In contrast, the correlation between attitudes towards coaching and coachability was strong (r = .64), suggesting that more positive attitudes towards coaching were related to higher levels of coachability.

[2] While we know that the valence of the experience can influence attitudes, in this study we only considered whether participants had any coaching experience (yes or no). This simpler approach helps account for previous or current exposure without making the model more complex by including a more detailed, but highly unbalanced, categorical variable.

Table 1

Mean, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Selected Study Variables

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	35.41	12.50										
2. Gender[a]	1.54	0.57	-.15									
3. Tenure[b]	3.51	1.48	.78***	-.12								
4. Job role[c]	2.23	1.03	.71***	-.17*	.70***							
5. Coaching experience[d]	0.45	0.50	.20*	-.17*	.21**	.19*						
6. Educational status[e]	5.76	1.79	.13	.07	-.06	.02	.05					
7. Mindfulness	3.92	0.73	.32***	-.11	.31***	.21**	.08	-.05				
8. Self-regulation	4.65	0.96	.30***	-.15	.22**	.23**	.05	.10	.50***			
9. Positive attitudes towards coaching	4.74	0.85	.12	-.06	.04	.18*	.40***	.13	.08	.03		
10. Coachability	4.99	0.73	-.01	-.05	.04	.06	.34***	.05	.19*	.20**	.64***	

Note. $N = 162$. *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation. [a] Male = 1; Female = 2; Prefer not to say = 4; no one identified themselves as 'non-binary'. [b] Less than one year = 1; 1–3 years = 2; 4–6 years = 3; 6–10 years = 4; More than 10 years = 5. [c] Entry-level = 1; Mid-level= 2; Managerial = 3; Executive/Leadership = 4. [d] No = 0; Yes = 1. [e] No formal education = 1; High school diploma or equivalent = 2; Some college (no degree) = 3; Dutch HBO Bachelor's degree = 4; Dutch HBO Master's degree = 5; University Bachelor's degree = 6; University Master's degree = 7; Doctoral or professional degree (e.g., Ph.D., M.D., J.D.) = 8.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis Testing

As age, tenure, coaching experience and job role all significantly correlated with one or more of the studied variables, they were included as control variables in all the following analyses. Due to the strong correlation between attitudes towards coaching and coachability, attitudes towards coaching was added as a control variable when testing the mindfulness–coachability relationship (Hypothesis 1) and the mediating role of self-regulation in the relationship between mindfulness and coachability (Hypothesis 2).

Hypothesis 1: Mindfulness and Coachability

To test the main effect of mindfulness on coachability, a linear regression was conducted. Mindfulness and the control variables were entered in step 1, and coachability as the dependent variable. Mindfulness had a positive significant relationship with coachability, $B = 0.18$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(155) = 2.85$, $p = .005$, 95%CI [0.06, 0.30]. Thus, supporting Hypothesis 1.

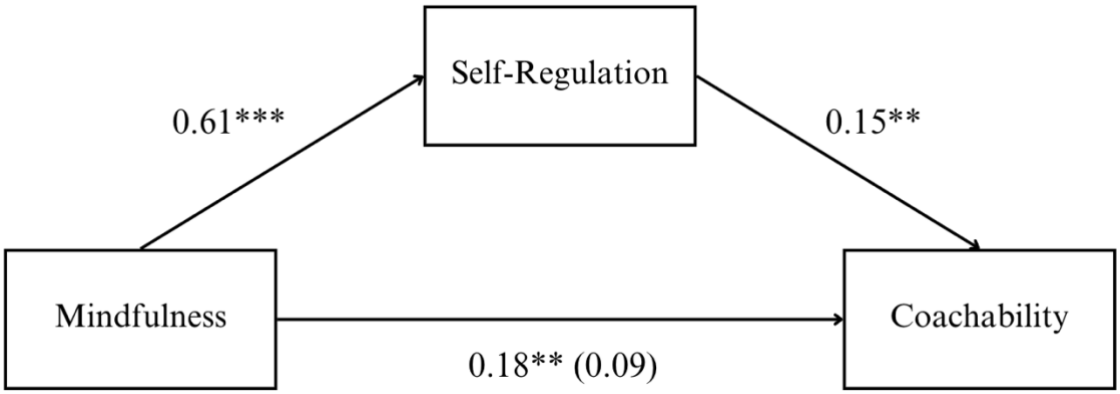
Hypothesis 2: The Mediating Role of Self-Regulation in the Mindfulness–Coachability Relationship

Hypothesis 2 predicted that mindfulness is positively related to coachability and that this relationship is mediated by self-regulation. This hypothesis was tested with Model 4 in PROCESS with 5000 bootstrapped samples. First of all, the total effect between mindfulness and coachability was found to be positive and significant, $B = 0.18$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(155) = 2.85$, $p = .005$, 95%CI [0.06, 0.30]. In addition, there was a significant positive relationship between mindfulness and self-regulation, $B = 0.61$, $SE = 0.10$, $t(155) = 6.34$, $p < .001$, 95%CI [0.42, 0.80]. When self-regulation was entered into the model, which included mindfulness as the predictor, the relationship between mindfulness and coachability became non-significant, $B = 0.09$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(154) = 1.26$, $p = .209$, 95%CI [-0.05, 0.22]. Furthermore, the relationship between self-regulation and coachability was positive and significant, $B = 0.15$,

SE = 0.05, *t*(154) = 2.97, *p* = .004, 95%CI [0.05, 0.25]. The indirect effect of mindfulness on coachability via self-regulation was found to be positive and significant as the 95% confidence interval did not include a zero, $B_{indirect}$ = 0.09, 95%CI [0.02, 0.18]. As such, the mediation model was supported, indicating that self-regulation fully mediates the mindfulness–coachability relationship (see also Figure 2).

Figure 2

The Relationship Between Mindfulness and Coachability as Mediated by Self-Regulation



Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are presented for all of the paths. The regression coefficient between mindfulness and coachability, while controlling for self-regulation, is in parentheses.

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 3: The Moderating Role of Attitudes Towards Coaching in the Relationship Between Self-Regulation and Coachability

For the main effects, a multiple regression analysis with self-regulation and attitudes towards coaching and the control variables as predictors and coachability as the dependent variable was conducted. The result showed a significant positive relationship between self-regulation and coachability, *B* = 0.18, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(155) = 3.96, *p* < .001, 95%CI [0.09, 0.27] and attitudes towards coaching and coachability, *B* = 0.55, *SE* = 0.06, *t*(155) = 10.01, *p* < .001, 95%CI [0.44, 0.66]. To test how attitudes towards coaching moderate the

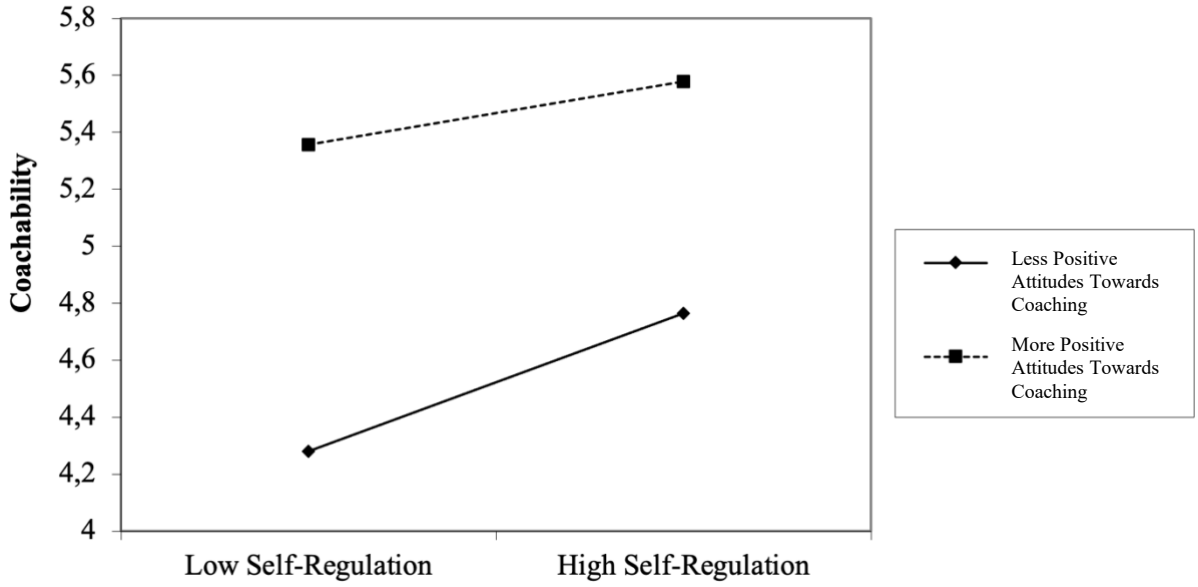
relationship between self-regulation and coachability, Model 1 was used. The results of PROCESS (Model 1) with 5000 bootstrapped samples showed that there is no significant interaction between self-regulation and attitudes towards coaching on coachability, B = -0.08, SE = 0.05, t(154) = -1.55, p = .124, 95%CI [-0.18, 0.02]. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Further analysis of simple slopes[3] showed that for participants with less positive attitudes towards coaching (-1SD), the relationship between self-regulation and coachability was positive and significant, B = 0.26, SE = 0.07, t(154) = 3.87, p < .001, 95%CI [0.12, 0.38]. However, for participants with more positive attitudes towards coaching (+1SD), there was no significant relationship between self-regulation and coachability, B = 0.12, SE = 0.06, t(154) = 1.87, p = .064, 95%CI [-0.01, 0.24]. These findings mean that as self-regulation increased, coachability increased when attitudes towards coaching were less positive. When attitudes towards coaching were more positive, self-regulation was not significantly related to coachability. A visualization (moderation plot) was created to illustrate the interaction effect (Figure 3).

[3] Although none of the interaction effects were statistically significant, simple slopes analyses were conducted throughout this thesis as part of a learning experience during the development of this thesis. Results should be interpreted with caution.

Figure 3

The Moderating Effect of Positive Attitudes Towards Coaching on the Relationship Between Self-Regulation and Coachability



Hypothesis 4: The Moderated Mediation Model of Mindfulness and Coachability via Self-Regulation, Moderated by Attitudes Towards Coaching

Hypothesis 4a predicted that positive attitudes towards coaching moderate the direct effect of mindfulness on coachability. Additionally, Hypothesis 4b predicted that positive attitudes towards coaching moderate the indirect effect of mindfulness on coachability through self-regulation, such that the effects are weaker for individuals who have a less positive attitude towards coaching and stronger for individuals who have a more positive attitude towards coaching. First of all, to test the total effect, PROCESS Model 1 with 5000 bootstrapped samples was used. The total effect of the interaction between mindfulness and positive attitudes towards coaching on coachability was statistically non-significant, $B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(154) = 0.15$, $p = .883$, 95%CI [-0.13, 0.15].

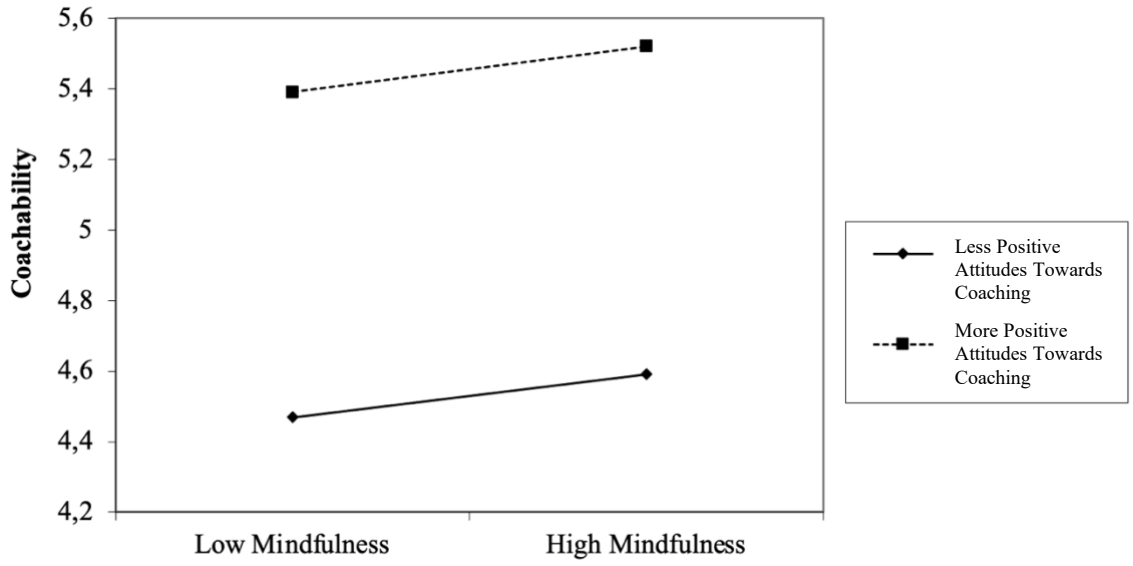
Model 15 in PROCESS with 5000 bootstrapped samples was used to test simultaneously for hypotheses 4a and b. The analysis showed that there was a significant

effect of mindfulness on self-regulation, $B = 0.61$, $SE = 0.10$, $t(156) = 6.33$, $p < .001$, 95%CI [0.42, 0.79].

Hypothesis 4a. When self-regulation was added into the model, which also included the interaction term of mindfulness and attitudes towards coaching on coachability, that interaction term of mindfulness and attitudes towards coaching on coachability remained non-significant, $B = 0.06$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(152) = 0.84$, $p = .401$, 95%CI [-0.09, 0.21]. Thus, not supporting Hypothesis 4b. Simple slope analyses for the interaction between mindfulness and attitudes towards coaching on coachability revealed that the effect of mindfulness was non-significant when participants had less positive attitudes towards coaching (-1*SD*), $B = 0.17$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(154) = 1.97$, $p = .051$, 95%CI [-0.001, 0.34], but significant when participants had a more positive attitude towards coaching (+1*SD*), $B = 0.19$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(154) = 2.15$, $p = .033$, 95%CI [0.02, 0.36] (Figure 4). This pattern indicates that the relationship between mindfulness and coachability was only positive and significant among individuals with more positive attitudes towards coaching.

Figure 4

Attitudes Towards Coaching as a Moderator of the Direct Effect of Mindfulness on Coachability

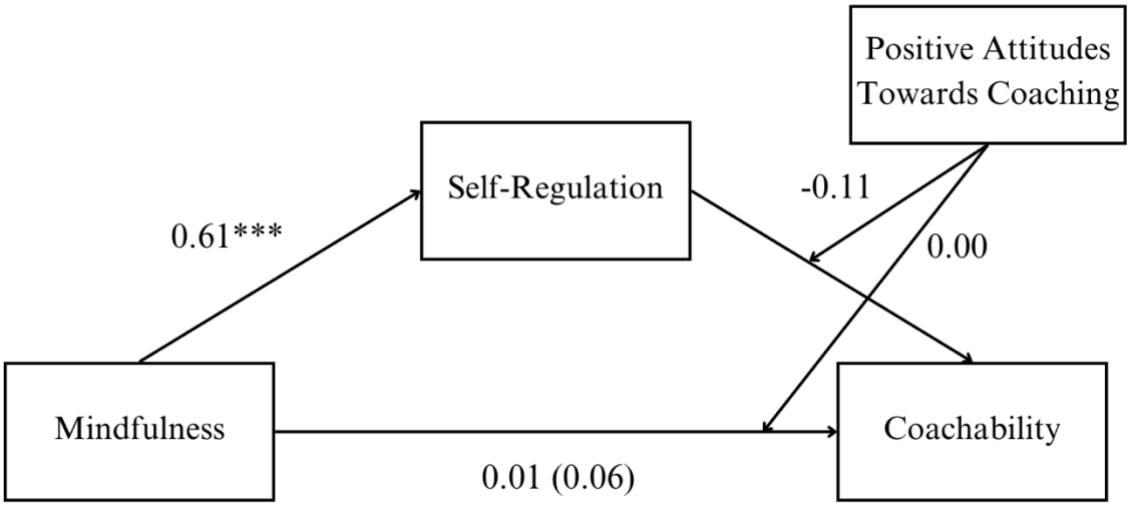


Furthermore, the effect of the interaction between self-regulation and attitudes towards coaching on coachability was non-significant, B = -0.11, SE = 0.06, $t(152)$ = -1.80, p = 0.074, 95%CI [-0.22, 0.01].

Hypothesis 4b. The indirect effect of mindfulness on coachability through self-regulation was not statistically significant across low or high levels of attitudes towards coaching as the 95% confidence interval included a zero, $B_{indirect}$ = -0.06, 95%CI [-0.16, 0.39].[4] Thus, the moderated mediation model was not supported (see also Figure 6).

Figure 6

Moderated Mediation: Positive Attitudes Towards Coaching as a Moderator of the Direct and Indirect Relationships of Mindfulness and Coachability via Self-Regulation



Note. Unstandardised regression coefficients for the effect of mindfulness mediated by the interaction between self-regulation and attitudes towards coaching on coachability. The regression coefficient for the direct effect of mindfulness on coachability, after accounting for self-regulation and the moderation by attitudes towards coaching, is in parentheses.

*** $p < .001$.

[4] Since the overall index of the conditional mediation was not found to be significant, no additional simple slopes analysis were conducted.

Discussion

The present study investigated whether mindfulness, self-regulation and positive attitudes towards coaching were related to how coachable a person is. Given prior research linking coachability to performance and development outcomes (Johnson et al., 2021), exploring how mindfulness and self-regulation may contribute to coachability can offer valuable insights for organisations aiming to enhance coaching effectiveness. We found support for the idea that people who were more mindful were also more coachable, and that this relationship was explained by self-regulation. Our results did not support the idea that positive attitudes towards coaching affected the mindfulness–coachability or self-regulation–coachability relationships. However, exploratory analyses did find some interesting patterns. Individuals better at self-regulation were also more coachable, only when they had a less positive attitude towards coaching. Meanwhile, people who were more mindful were more coachable only when they had a more positive attitude towards coaching. Last, individuals who hold a more positive attitude towards coaching tended to be more coachable. The findings are elaborated in the following sections.

Theoretical Implications

These results contribute to a better understanding of the psychological mechanisms underlying coachability. In this study, the positive link between mindfulness and coachability worked through self-regulation. This finding is in line with the Self-Regulation Theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982, 2001), which proposes that goal-directed behaviour relies on monitoring and adapting internal states. While mindfulness makes one more aware of their current thoughts, emotions, and behaviours, it is self-regulation that turns this awareness into action. These findings add nuance to our understanding of mindfulness, implying that the benefits of mindfulness may only materialise when self-regulation is sufficiently developed.

The role of attitudes towards coaching seems more complex than expected. Even though attitudes towards coaching did not change how mindfulness and coachability were related, further explorative investigation revealed that mindfulness was only positively linked to coachability when attitudes towards coaching were more positive. This pattern aligns with the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), which posits that an individual is more likely to engage in behaviour when they have a positive attitude towards it. In this case, a more positive attitude may help explain why individuals high in mindfulness show greater openness and willingness to engage with coaching.

Unexpectedly, the exploratory analyses suggested that higher self-regulation was linked to being more coachable, but only among individuals with less positive attitudes towards coaching. We hypothesised that more positive attitudes towards coaching would strengthen the self-regulation–coachability relationship, but the results suggest the opposite. While these findings were not statistically significant in our initial analyses, the exploratory results may still highlight an important nuance: self-regulation may act as a buffer, enabling people to engage with coaching if they are not inclined to appreciate it. This potential compensatory role resonates with research showing that self-regulation buffered the influence of negative attitudes or automatic reactions on goal-directed behaviour in other domains, such as exercise and health behaviours (Hofmann et al., 2012; Padin et al., 2017). Although previous research focused on exercise and health behaviours, the underlying mechanism might be the same: self-regulation can compensate for less positive attitudes, allowing individuals to engage in initially unattractive but beneficial activities.

Finally, people who had a more positive attitude towards coaching were also more coachable. This finding is in line with the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) and supports prior research that attitudes are strong predictors of behavioural intentions and engagement (Elliott et al., 2015; Kraus, 1995). The relationship between attitudes towards

coaching and coachability was stronger than the relationship between mindfulness or self-regulation and coachability; this stronger association indicates that attitudes towards coaching may be more closely related to coachability than mindfulness or self-regulation. Further theoretical exploration into how attitudes relate to coachability is needed.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

While the study provides valuable insights into what makes someone more or less coachable, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the study's cross-sectional design makes causal inferences impossible. Although associations were found, longitudinal or experimental studies are necessary to confirm the direction of the effects. Second, the use of a single self-report survey introduces the risk of common method bias and social desirability effects (Campbell, 1982; Donaldson et al., 2002). Participants may have portrayed themselves in a more favourable light, consciously or unintentionally (Beins, 2013), especially in constructs like attitudes towards coaching and mindfulness (Brown & Ryan, 2003). In addition, most participants with coaching experience viewed it positively (66 out of 73) or neutrally (7 out of 73) with none reporting negative experiences. This response pattern suggests a potential self-selection bias, where individuals more positively inclined towards coaching may have been more willing to participate. Moreover, the scale used to measure attitudes towards coaching only captured positive attitudes, restricting the ability to assess negative attitudes towards coaching. Prior research suggests that negative attitudes, such as scepticism or psychological reactance, can reduce openness to coaching and can even redirect self-regulatory efforts away from development (Strauman et al., 2013). Since personal experience is a powerful predictor of attitude strength (Fazio & Zanna, 1981), these limitations may have skewed the sample and reduced the generalisability of the findings to more sceptical populations. Future research should include a more balance measure of

attitudes and include a broader population to capture both positive and negative attitudes towards coaching.

Another limitation relates to measurement inconsistency as the response scales were not standardised across the survey. The mindfulness scale was implemented in its original form, which used a reversed direction (1 = almost always, 7 = almost never). All the other constructs used the more typical format (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Participants might not have read carefully, which may have introduced errors in their responses. For future research, we recommend standardising the direction of all response scales and reverse-coding items during analyses to avoid confusion and potential error. Additionally, the sample size was slightly below the target for sufficient power. While 178 participants were needed, only 162 were included in the final analyses. This shortfall may have limited the ability to detect smaller interactions, increasing the risk of Type II errors (Mukti, 2025).

Building on the current study, several directions for future research are suggested. First, as mentioned before, longitudinal or experimental designs are necessary to establish the causal link between mindfulness, self-regulation, positive attitudes towards coaching and coachability. Second, the strong relationship between positive attitudes towards coaching and coachability also warrants further research to understand the direction and potential mechanisms of this relationship. Researchers could investigate whether interventions that enhance attitudes, like peer testimonials (Apolinário-Hagen et al., 2021), can improve coachability.

Third, the exploratory finding that self-regulation was positively related to coachability only when attitudes towards coaching were less positive implies a possible compensatory effect, even though the effect of attitudes towards coaching on the relationship between self-regulation and coachability was not significant. Strong self-regulatory abilities

may help individuals engage with coaching, even when they are less positive about the value of coaching. Future studies could test this buffer effect using person-centred approaches, such as interaction models or latent profile analysis, which are commonly used to examine how individual traits combine to shape engagement and behaviour (Howard & Hoffman, 2018; Morin et al., 2011).

Overall, despite its limitations, the current study opens meaningful directions for future studies. By improving measurement approaches, broadening attitudinal constructs, and testing causal and compensatory mechanisms, future research can deepen our understanding of the psychological drivers of coachability and contribute to more effective coaching interventions.

Practical Implications

This study showed how people who were more mindful also tended to be more self-regulated, which was associated with higher coachability. Positive attitudes towards coaching were also strongly linked to being more coachable. Based on these findings, several practical recommendations can be made for organisations. First, choose the developmental focus that fits your resources: mindfulness or self-regulation. Since self-regulation was the mechanism through which mindfulness was related to coachability, companies could choose to directly target self-regulatory behaviours such as goal-setting, feedback integration and persistence (Gregory et al., 2011). Alternatively, mindfulness training is often more cost-effective and scalable (e.g. short workshops or guided apps; Hafenbrack, 2017) and is still positively linked to coachability through improved self-regulation. Thus, organisations should decide whether to focus on directly building self-regulatory skills or to promote them indirectly through mindfulness, depending on their resources and goals. Second, even though attitudes towards coaching did not influence the relationship between mindfulness and coachability or self-regulation and coachability, people who had a more positive attitude towards coaching were

also more coachable. Therefore, organisations may still benefit from efforts to cultivate an environment where coaching is valued. For example by encouraging direct, positive experiences with coaching (Fazio & Zanna, 1981) and by influencing social norms through visible leadership endorsement (Ajzen, 1985). Finally, given that coachability is related to individual traits and attitudes, a one-size-fits-all approach to coaching may not be effective. Tailoring coaching strategies to match an employee's readiness and openness to coaching could lead to greater engagement and, in turn, increase coaching effectiveness.

Conclusion

This study set out to explore what makes someone more or less coachable, an important yet under-researched question in the coaching literature. While prior research has acknowledged that coachee characteristics influence coaching outcomes, few studies have examined the specific psychological traits that contribute to coachability itself. This study contributes to previous literature by examining how mindfulness, self-regulation and positive attitudes towards coaching relate to coachability. Results showed that people who were more mindful were also more coachable, with self-regulation acting as the key mechanism in this relationship. Although positive attitudes towards coaching did not relate to the mindfulness–coachability or self-regulation–coachability pathways, positive attitudes towards coaching were positively related to coachability. This positive link is particularly relevant in light of scepticism towards coaching expressed in public, such as in *Zondag met Lubach*, where coaching was dismissed as commercially exploitative and pseudoscientific. This study suggests that such attitudes might not be negligible. Individuals with more favourable attitudes towards coaching were more willing and open to engage with coaching. In this way, the cultural narratives and beliefs that shape attitudes towards coaching may have real behavioural consequences.

In addition to expanding our theoretical knowledge of coachability, these findings suggest practical directions, such as choosing a development strategy fitting organisational resources and goals or creating a climate where coaching is valued. Looking ahead, we hope this study encourages further research into how psychological traits, such as mindfulness and self-regulation, and attitudes towards coaching shape coachability. Recognising the role of psychological traits and attitudes, tailored coaching approaches may help organisations to support their employees in adapting to continuous change and rising performance demands.

References

Addis, M. E., & Mahalik, J. R. (2003). Men, masculinity, and the contexts of help seeking. *American Psychologist*, *58*(1), 5-14.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Springer.

Anseel, F., Beatty, A. S., Shen, W., Lievens, F., & Sackett, P. R. (2015). How are we doing after 30 years? A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and outcomes of feedback-seeking behavior. *Journal of Management*, *41*(1), 318-348. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313484521

Apolinário-Hagen, J., Fritsche, L., Wopperer, J., Wals, F., Harrer, M., Lehr, D., ... & Salewski, C. (2021). Investigating the persuasive effects of testimonials on the acceptance of digital stress management trainings among university students and underlying mechanisms: A randomized controlled trial. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12,* 738950. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.738950

Athanasopoulou, A., & Dopson, S. (2018). A systematic review of executive coaching outcomes: Is it the journey or the destination that matters the most? *The Leadership Quarterly, 29*(1), 70-88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.11.004

Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2004). *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory, and applications*. The Guilford Press.

Baykal, E. (2020). *Handbook of research on positive organizational behavior for improved workplace performance*. IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-7998-0058-3.ch005

Beins, B. C. (2013). Social Desirability Bias. In K. D. Keith (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* (Vol. 3, pp. 1203-1205). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118339893.wbeccp501

Bennett, N., & Lemoine, G. J. (2014). What a difference a word makes: Understanding threats to performance in a VUCA world. *Business Horizons, 57*(3), 311-317. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2014.01.001

Bozer, G., & Jones, R. J. (2018). Understanding the factors that determine workplace coaching effectiveness: A systematic literature review. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 27*(3), 342-361. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2018.1446946

Bozer, G., Sarros, J. C., & Santora, J. C. (2013). The role of coachee characteristics in executive coaching for effective sustainability. *Journal of Management Development, 32*(3), 277-294. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621711311318319

Brehm, J. W. (1966). *A theory of psychological reactance.* Academic Press.

Brown, K. W., & Ryan, R. M. (2003). The benefits of being present: Mindfulness and its role in psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(4), 822-848.

Campbell, J. P. (1982). Editorial: Some remarks from the outgoing editor. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*, 691-700.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1982). Control theory: A useful conceptual framework for personality–social, clinical, and health psychology. *Psychological Bulletin*, *92*(1), 111-135. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.92.1.111

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2001). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. Cambridge University Press.

De Haan, E. (2021). *What works in coaching? Understanding outcomes through quantitative research and practice-based evidence.* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003127055

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The" what" and" why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*(4), 227-268. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01

Diehl, M., Semegon, A. B., & Schwarzer, R. (2006). Assessing attention control in goal pursuit: A component of dispositional self-regulation. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *86*(3), 306-317. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8603_06

Dima, G., Meseșan Schmitz, L., & Șimon, M. C. (2021). Job stress and burnout among social workers in the VUCA world of COVID-19 pandemic. *Sustainability, 13*(13), 7109. https://doi.org/10.3390/su13137109

Donald, J. N., Bradshaw, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Basarkod, G., Ciarrochi, J., Duineveld, J. J., ... & Sahdra, B. K. (2020). Mindfulness and its association with varied types of motivation: A systematic review and meta-analysis using self-determination theory. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *46*(7), 1121-1138. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167219896136

Donaldson, S. I., & Grant-Vallone, E. J. (2002). Understanding self-report bias in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(2), 245-260. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1019637632584

Elhai, J. D., Schweinle, W., & Anderson, S. M. (2008). Reliability and validity of the attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help scale-short form. *Psychiatry Research*, *159*(3), 320-329. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2007.04.020

Elliott, M. A., Brewster, S. E., Thomson, J. A., Malcolm, C., & Rasmussen, S. (2015). Testing the bi-dimensional effects of attitudes on behavioural intentions and subsequent behaviour. *British Journal of Psychology*, *106*(4), 656-674. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjop.12107

Erdös, T., & Ramseyer, F. T. (2021). Change process in coaching: Interplay of nonverbal synchrony, working alliance, self-regulation, and goal attainment. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 580351. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.580351

Fazio, R. H., & Zanna, M. P. (1981). Direct experience and attitude-behavior consistency. In Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 14, pp. 161-202). Academic Press.

Fazio, R. H., & Zanna, M. P. (1981). Direct experience and attitude-behavior consistency. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology,* (Vol. 14, pp. 161-202). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60372-X

Fillery-Travis, A., & Cavicchia, S. (2013, June). *Coaching at work – A method of facilitating self-directed learning or controlling it?* [Paper presentation]. Researching Work and Learning: The Visible and Invisible in Work and Learning, Stirling, United Kingdom.

Fischer, E. H., & Farina, A. (1995). Attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help: A shortened form and considerations for research. *Journal of College Student Development. 36*(4), 368-373.

Good, D. J., Lyddy, C. J., Glomb, T. M., Bono, J. E., Brown, K. W., Duffy, M. K., ... & Lazar, S. W. (2016). Contemplating mindfulness at work: An integrative review. *Journal of Management*, *42*(1), 114-142. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315617003

Grant, A. M., & Green, R. M. (2018). Developing clarity on the coaching-counselling conundrum: Implications for counsellors and psychotherapists. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*, *18*(4), 347-355. https://doi.org/10.1002/capr.12188

Grégoire, S., & Lachance, L. (2015). Evaluation of a brief mindfulness-based intervention to reduce psychological distress in the workplace. *Mindfulness, 6*, 836-847. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-014-0328-9

Gregory, J. B., Beck, J. W., & Carr, A. E. (2011). Goals, feedback, and self-regulation: Control theory as a natural framework for executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *63*(1), 26-38. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023398

Hafenbrack, A. C. (2017). Mindfulness meditation as an on-the-spot workplace intervention. *Journal of Business Research, 75*, 118-129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.01.017

Hantzi, A., Anagnostopoulos, F., & Alexiou, E. (2019). Attitudes towards seeking psychological help: An integrative model based on contact, essentialist beliefs about mental illness, and stigma. *Journal of Clinical Psychology in Medical Settings*, *26*, 142-157. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10880-018-9573-8

Hayes, A. F. (2022). *The PROCESS macro for SPSS, SAS, and R* (Version 4.2) [Computer software]. Andrew F. Hayes. https://haskayne.ucalgary.ca/CCRAM/resource-hub

Hofmann, W., Schmeichel, B. J., & Baddeley, A. D. (2012). Executive functions and self-regulation. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 16*(3), 174-180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2012.01.006

Hollembeak, J., & Amorose, A. J. (2005). Perceived coaching behaviors and college athletes' intrinsic motivation: A test of self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *17*(1), 20-36. https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200590907540

Horner, C. J. (2002). *Executive coaching: The leadership development tool of the future?* [Doctoral dissertation, Management School, Imperial College London].

Howard, M. C., & Hoffman, M. E. (2018). Variable-centered, person-centered, and person-specific approaches: Where theory meets the method. *Organizational Research Methods, 21*(4), 846-876. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428117744021

Hsu, M. S. (2012). A study of internship attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and career planning of hospitality vocational college students. *Journal of*

Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, *11*(1), 5-11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2012.02.003

International Coaching Federation. (2020). 2020 ICF Global Coaching Study. Executive summary. https://coachingfederation.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/FINAL_ICF_GCS2020_ExecutiveSummary.pdf

Iwasaki, S., Fry, M. D., & Hogue, C. M. (2022). Mindful engagement mediates the relationship between motivational climate perceptions and coachability for male high school athletes. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology, 16*(3), 234-253. https://doi.org/10.1123/jcsp.2020-0016

Jaiswal, P. (2018). Impact of behavioral flexibility on flexible HR system and organizational role stress. In J. Connell, R. Agarwal & S. S. Dhir (Eds.), *Global value chains, flexibility and sustainability* (pp 205-220). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-8929-9_14

Jeannotte, A. M., Hutchinson, D. M., & Kellerman, G. R. (2021). Time to change for mental health and well-being via virtual professional coaching: Longitudinal observational study. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, *23*(7), e27774. https://doi.org/10.2196/27774

Johnson, M. J., Kim, K. H., Colarelli, S. M., & Boyajian, M. (2021). Coachability and the development of the coachability scale. *Journal of Management Development*, *40*(7/8), 585-610. https://doi.org/10.1108/jmd-06-2020-0174

Jones, R. (2016). *The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes; scale development; theoretical model of individual differences and longitudinal study* [Doctoral dissertation, Aston University]. Aston University Library Services. https://publications.aston.ac.uk/id/eprint/28541/

Jones, R. J., Woods, S. A., & Guillaume, Y. R. (2016). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 89*(2), 249-277. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12119

Jones, R. J., Woods, S. A., & Zhou, Y. (2021). The effects of coachee personality and goal orientation on performance improvement following coaching: A controlled field experiment. *Applied Psychology, 70*(2), 420-458. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12218

Kiriakidis, S. (2015). Theory of planned behaviour: The intention-behaviour relationship and the perceived behavioural control (PBC) relationship with intention and behaviour. *International Journal of Strategic Innovative Marketing*, *3*(2), 40-51.

Kleimola, R., Hirsto, L., & Ruokamo, H. (2025). Promoting higher education students' self-regulated learning through learning analytics: A qualitative study. *Education and Information Technologies, 30*(4), 4959-4986. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-024-12978-4

Korotov, K. (2016). Coaching for leadership development. In T. Bachkirova, G. Spence, & D. Drake (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of coaching* (pp. 139-158). SAGE.

Kraus, S. J. (1995). Attitudes and the prediction of behavior: A meta-analysis of the empirical literature. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *21*(1), 58-75. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167295211007

Kudesia, R. S. (2019). Mindfulness as metacognitive practice. *Academy of Management Review*, *44*(2), 405-423. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2015.0333

Lee, Y. H. (2020). The role of mindfulness and occupational stress in the goal orientations of development and winning. *Sport Management Review, 23*(4), 626-639. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2019.08.004

Lindsay, E. K., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). Mechanisms of mindfulness training: Monitor and acceptance theory (MAT). *Clinical Psychology Review*, *51*, 48-59. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2016.10.011

Liu, W., & Gumah, B. (2020). How perceived value of feedback influences its impact on self-efficacy. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *48*(6), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.9155

Locher, C., Koechlin, H., Gaab, J., & Gerger, H. (2019). The other side of the coin: nocebo effects and psychotherapy. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, *10*, 555. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyt.2019.00555

Lodge, J. M., Panadero, E., Broadbent, J., & de Barba, P. G. (2018). Supporting self-regulated learning with learning analytics. In J. Lodge, J. Horvath & L. Corrin (Eds.), *Learning analytics in the classroom* (pp. 45-55). Routledge.

Lowman, R. (2013). Coaching Ethics. In J. Passmore, D. B. Peterson, & T. Freire (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of coaching and mentoring* (pp. 68-89). Wiley-Blackwell.

Luszczynska, A., Diehl, M., Gutiérrez-Doña, B., Kuusinen, P., & Schwarzer, R. (2004). Measuring one component of dispositional self-regulation: Attention control in goal pursuit. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *37*(3), 555-566. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2003.09.026

Malinowska, D., Tokarz, A., & Wardzichowska, A. (2018). Job autonomy in relation to work engagement and workaholism: Mediation of autonomous and controlled work motivation. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, *31*(4), 445-458.

Morin, A. J., Morizot, J., Boudrias, J. S., & Madore, I. (2011). A multifoci person-centered perspective on workplace affective commitment: A latent profile/factor mixture

analysis. *Organizational Research Methods, 14*(1), 58-90. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428109356476

Mosteo, L., Chekanov, A., & Rovira de Osso, J. (2021). Executive coaching: an exploration of the coachee's perceived value. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *42*(8), 1241-1253. https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-02-2021-0046

Mühlberger, C., Zerle, G., Möller, J., Diller, S. J., Greif, S., Kinder, N., & Jonas, E. (2025). Zooming in on the self in workplace coaching: Self-regulation and its connection to coaching success. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *98*(1), e12543. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12543

Mukti, B. H. (2025). Sample size determination: Principles and applications for health research. *Health Sciences International Journal, 3*(1), 127-143. https://doi.org/10.71357/hsij.v3i1.63

Murphy, M., O'Donovan, H., & O'Leary, P. (2023). Self-stigma, public stigma and attitudes to seeking coaching among college students. *The Coaching Psychologist, 19*(1). 33-41. https://doi.org/10.53841/bpstcp.2023.19.1.33

Ni, P., & Feng, L. (2023). Improving collegiate student-athletes' well-being: Exploring the roles of openness to experience, knowledge sharing and perceived coaching effectiveness. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *14*, 1191622. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1191622

Nowacka, A., & Rzemieniak, M. (2021). The impact of the VUCA environment on the digital competences of managers in the power industry. *Energies, 15*(1), 185. https://doi.org/10.3390/en15010185

Osman, A., Lamis, D. A., Bagge, C. L., Freedenthal, S., & Barnes, S. M. (2016). The mindful attention awareness scale: Further examination of dimensionality, reliability, and

concurrent validity estimates. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *98*(2), 189-199. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2015.1095761

Padin, A. C., Emery, C. F., Vasey, M., & Kiecolt-Glaser, J. K. (2017). Self-regulation and implicit attitudes toward physical activity influence exercise behavior. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 39*(4), 237-248. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2017-0056

Peters, J. R., Smart, L. M., Eisenlohr-Moul, T. A., Geiger, P. J., Smith, G. T., & Baer, R. A. (2015). Anger rumination as a mediator of the relationship between mindfulness and aggression: The utility of a multidimensional mindfulness model. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 71*(9), 871-884.

Peterson, D. B. (2011). Executive coaching: A critical review and recommendations for advancing the practice. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 2: Selecting and developing members for the organization* (pp. 527-566). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/12170-018

Qualtrics (2005). *Qualtrics* [Computer software]. https://www.qualtrics.com

Quigley, N. R., Tesluk, P. E., Locke, E. A., & Bartol, K. M. (2007). A multilevel investigation of the motivational mechanisms underlying knowledge sharing and performance. *Organization Science*, *18*(1), 71-88. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1060.0223

Raglin, J., Szabo, A., Lindheimer, J. B., & Beedie, C. (2020). Understanding placebo and nocebo effects in the context of sport: A psychological perspective. *European Journal of Sport Science*, *20*(3), 293-301. https://doi.org/10.1080/17461391.2020.1727021

Roemer, L., Williston, S. K., & Rollins, L. G. (2015). Mindfulness and emotion regulation. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *3*, 52-57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2015.02.006

Schultz, P. P., & Ryan, R. M. (2015). The "why," "what," and "how" of healthy self-regulation: Mindfulness and well-being from a self-determination theory perspective. *Handbook of Mindfulness and Self-Regulation*, 81-94. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-2263-5_7

Schwarzer, R., Diehl, M., & Schmitz, G. S. (1999). *Self-regulation scale*. Free University of Berlin.

Shannahan, K. L., Shannahan, R. J., & Bush, A. J. (2013). Salesperson coachability: What it is and why it matters. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, *28*(5), 411-420. https://doi.org/10.1108/08858621311330254

Sheldon, K. M. (2014). Becoming oneself: The central role of self-concordant goal selection. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *18*(4), 349-365. https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868314538549

Shook, N. J., Ford, C., Strough, J., Delaney, R., & Barker, D. (2017). In the moment and feeling good: Age differences in mindfulness and positive affect. *Translational Issues in Psychological Science*, *3*(4), 338. https://doi.org/10.1037/tps0000139

Smyth, A. P., Werner, K. M., Milyavskaya, M., Holding, A., & Koestner, R. (2020). Do mindful people set better goals? Investigating the relation between trait mindfulness, self-concordance, and goal progress. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *88*, 104015. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2020.104015

Stewart, L. J., Palmer, S., Wilkin, H., & Kerrin, M. (2008). The influence of character: Does personality impact coaching success? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring, 6*(1). 32-42.

Strauman, T. J., Goetz, E. L., Detloff, A. M., MacDuffie, K. E., Zaunmüller, L., & Lutz, W. (2013). Self-regulation and mechanisms of action in psychotherapy: A theory-based translational perspective. *Journal of Personality*, *81*(6), 542-553. https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12012

Tang, L., Shi, M., Liu, Y., Liu, Y., & Yang, B. (2024). Building a committed workforce: The synergistic effects of coaching leadership, organizational self-esteem, and learning goal orientation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *15*, 1423540. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1423540

Theeboom, T., Van Vianen, A. E., & Beersma, B. (2017). A temporal map of coaching. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *8*, 1352. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01352

Tschacher, W., & Ramseyer, F. (2017). Nonverbal synchrony. In A. Wenzel (Ed.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Abnormal and Clinical Psychology* (Vol. 1, p. 2298). SAGE Publications.

van Dick, R. (2023). Primary challenges for employee health and wellbeing. *Frontiers in Organizational Psychology*, *1*, 1223232. https://doi.org/10.3389/forgp.2023.1223232

Vancouver, J. B., & Day, D. V. (2005). Industrial and organisation research on self-regulation: From constructs to applications. *Applied Psychology*, *54*(2), 155-185. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2005.00202.x

Virtanen, P. (2019). *Self-regulated learning in higher education: Basic dimensions, individual differences, and relationship with academic achievement* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Helsinki]. Helda. http://hdl.handle.net/10138/307571

Weimer, K., Enck, P., Dodd, S., & Colloca, L. (2020). Placebo and nocebo effects in psychiatry and beyond. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, *11*, 801. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyt.2020.00801

Weiss, J. A., & Merrigan, M. (2021). Employee coachability: New insights to increase employee adaptability, performance, and promotability in organizations. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, *19*(1). 121-136 https://doi.org/10.24384/kfmw-ab52

Whitmore, J. (1992). *Coaching for performance.* Nicholas Brealey.

Wijsman, L., Mainhard, T., & Brekelmans, M. (2014). Stimulating autonomous motivation in the classroom: The role of interpersonal teacher agency and communion. In D. Zandvliet, P. Den Brok & T. Mainhard (Eds.), *Interpersonal relationships in education: From theory to practice* (pp. 231-249). Springer.

Xiao, Q., Yue, C., He, W., & Yu, J. Y. (2017). The mindful self: A mindfulness-enlightened self-view. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *8*, 1752. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01752

Zhao, H., & Liu, W. (2020). Managerial coaching and subordinates' workplace well-being: A moderated mediation study. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *30*(2), 293-311. https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12280

Zhu, Y., Lyu, Y., Wang, Y., & Wang, L. (2018). Coaching leadership effect on employees' creativity: Multilevel moderated mediator analysis. *Acta Psychologica Sinica*, *50*(3), 327-336. https://doi.org/10.3724/SP.J.1041.2018.00327

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13-39). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012109890-2/50031-7

Appendix A

Adjusted Coachability Scale

The Coachability Scale was adjusted to also be applicable for individuals with no coaching experience. (R) = reverse coded items.

Comfort with coaching

1. I would feel disengaged when working with a coach. (R)
2. I feel agitated around people who know more than I do. (R)
3. I would feel tense when working with a coach. (R)

Developmental orientation

4. I would put forth a great deal of effort implementing my coach's suggestions for improvement.
5. I would feel content when learning from a coach.
6. I would go above and beyond what a coach tells me to.
7. I can translate constructive criticism of my work into improvement.
8. I would use feedback from a coach as a means of improvement.

Acceptance of feedback

9. Receiving feedback is a distressing process. (R)
10. I would not like a coach telling me what to do. (R)
11. I would rarely seek out feedback from a coach. (R)
12. I do not like feedback unless I ask for it. (R)

Appendix B

Adjusted Attitudes to Seeking Professional Help – Short Form (ATSPPH-SF)

The ATSPPH-SF scale was adapted to be applicable to the coaching context. (R) = reverse coded items.

1. If I were facing significant challenges at work, my first inclination would be to seek support from a professional coach.
2. The idea of discussing workplace challenges with a coach strikes me as a poor way to address professional difficulties. (R)
3. If I were experiencing a serious major professional setback at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in workplace coaching.
4. There is something admirable about someone who manages their workplace challenges without resorting to coaching. (R)
5. I would want to work with a coach if I were feeling stuck or struggling professionally for a long period of time.
6. I might consider engaging in workplace coaching in the future.
7. A person struggling with professional challenges is not likely to solve it alone; he or she is likely to benefit from working with a coach.
8. Considering the time and expense involved in workplace coaching, I question whether it would be valuable for a person like me. (R)
9. Getting coaching should be a last resort to resolve professional challenges. (R)
10. Professional challenges, like many things, tend to work out by themselves. (R)