



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF
BUSINESS AND ADVANCED
TECHNOLOGY MANAGEMENT



ABAC ODI JOURNAL Vision. Action. Outcome

ISSN: 2351-0617 (print), ISSN: 2408-2058 (electronic)

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ABAC ODI JOURNAL Vision. Action. Outcome Vol 10(2) pp. 486-509

www. <http://www.assumptionjournal.au.edu/index.php/odijournal>

Published by the
Organization Development Institute
Graduate School of Business and Advanced Technology Management
Assumption University Thailand

ABAC ODI JOURNAL Vision. Action. Outcome
is indexed by the Thai Citation Index and ASEAN Citation Index

Coaching to Enhance Thai Forensic Police Officer's Self-efficacy, Meaningful Work, and Job Crafting: A Case Study of the Office of Police Forensic Science

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Revised: 19 Jan 2023

Revised: 2 February 2023

Accepted: 25 February 2023

Abstract

For the past two decades, forensic science has been playing essential role in criminal investigation in Thailand. It has been praised as a game changer for criminal justice. The work of Thai forensic police officers has profoundly altered how police investigated crimes since it can provide evidence for answering crucial questions like Who? What? When? Where? Why? and How? more objectively and expeditiously among other available tools. Unfortunately, due to the nature of the behind-the-scenes type of work, Thai forensic police officers perceive themselves as just scientists working in some backroom laboratory who has no real influence nor decision making power in the overall investigation process. Thus, this study aims to explore these issues in the hope of enhancing the Thai forensic police officers' (FPO) self-efficacy (SE), meaningful work (MW), and job crafting (JC). The study applied self-efficacy theory, meaning in work based on job characteristics theory and job crafting model as the theoretical framework. Three hypotheses were derived to evaluate significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI based on self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected and used for analysis. They were obtained from 30 forensic police officers from eight different functions stationed in ten provinces using stratified sampling technique. Organization development interventions (ODI) were executed over the period of two months using individual coaching techniques, and questionnaires and interviews as instruments. Reflexive thematic analysis paired samples t-test, and Wilcoxon signed-rank test were chosen to analyze the data. Findings revealed that self-efficacy and meaningful work showed significant differences after the coaching intervention, whereas job crafting failed to exhibit any statistical significance.

Key Words: coaching, forensic police officer, self-efficacy, meaningful work, job crafting

Introduction

The most frequently posed questions to solve criminal cases are: who? what? when? where? why? how? especially when the situation is unclear and lacks readily available evidence in hand. It is when forensic scientists are enlisted to play an important role in investigation.

There is a broad belief system in the forensic science's value to the criminal justice system (Robbers, 2008) and even as a path ahead for modern policing (Fraser, 2020), ushering in a new era of technology-driven and scientific-led police investigation. Significant breakthroughs have been achieved in forensic science as an investigation and intelligence tool for police officers in criminal work. Gathering physical evidence and taking an active role in ensuring that all the threads of evidence are connected, and inferences are formed accurately help boost police officers' capacity to detect, apprehend, and punish the criminals involved (Tilley & Townsley, 2009).

Nowadays, the focus has been somewhat shifted away from the back end of the criminal investigation (the courtroom) toward the front end (the crime scene). Julian and Kelty (2015) highlighted this as the transforming process that alters crime scene "traces" into forensic evidence. This makes the operational police officer more serious about seeking evidence by using forensic science. Moreover, the media now often and widely presents the functions and empirical work of the forensic police to the public. However, although the work of forensic police officers can greatly increase the efficiency of crime solutions and suppression efforts but looking at the attitudes of various departments in the police organization, it still considered that the investigative policing and crime suppression policing are more prominent than other roles in policing.

Research Objectives

This study sets out to examine the following:

1. To diagnose the current situation of an office of police forensic science (OPFS) especially in regards to FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting pre-ODI.
2. To design and implement an appropriate Organizational Development Intervention (ODI) to improve the FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting.
3. To quantitatively compare pre-ODI and post-ODI FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting levels.
4. To compare qualitatively the difference in FPOs' of self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting pre-ODI and post-ODI.

Research Questions

1. What is the current situation of OPFS regarding FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting?
2. What is the appropriate Organizational Development Intervention (ODI) to improve the FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting?
3. Is there a significant quantitative difference between the pre-ODI and post-ODI in regard to FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting?
4. Is there a qualitative difference between the pre-ODI and post-ODI in regard to FPOs' self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post- ODI on self-efficacy of FPOs.
2. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post- ODI on meaningful work of FPOs.
3. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post- ODI on job crafting of FPOs.

Significance of the Study

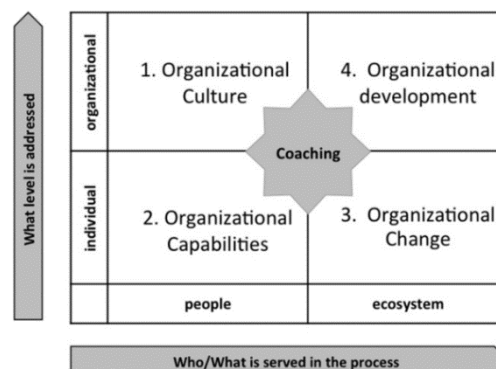
This study aims to contribute values to three primary levels of the organization. Firstly, FPOs' belief in their capabilities can rise at an individual level. FPOs will be able to create a new view of the worth of their work by gaining more control over their actions and how they manage their work; this will result in the FPOs stress reduction and general improvement in their quality of life. Secondly, at the organizational level, FPOs, as the organization gears, when having a better understanding of their responsibilities and how they impact the lives of others, a more favorable dynamic will be generated throughout the organization, resulting in a better image of OPFS and an improvement in FPO performance. Finally, at the national level, a police officer will be more accountable for keeping public order and safety, enforcing the law, detecting and investigating illegal acts. (Reames, 2003; Williams et al., 2016). Thai citizens and foreigners will benefit from the increased quality of FPOs. They can place greater reliance on them, as these police officers are constantly on hand to assist citizens when a crime occurs.

Literature Review

According to Drake and Pritchard (2017), as shown in Figure1, coaching was employed within an organizational setting that concentrated on four domains critical to organizational development: (1) culture, (2) capacities, (3) change, and (4) organization development itself. These four domains were assigned the following levels where concerns are addressed (individual/organizational) and who is to benefit from the process (people/ecosystems).

Figure 1

Four-Ways Coaching Can Contribute to the Development of Organizations



Note. Drake, D., & Pritchard, J. (2017). Coaching for organization development. The Sage handbook of coaching, p. 160. Copyright 2017 by the authors.

According to Ellinger et al. (2003), in the 1970s, there was an attempt to adapt sports and athletic coaching into management context and the practice of management itself was a primary emphasis in most of the management literature in the 1980s and 1990s. However, Ellinger et al. (2003) explained that in the control-dominate-prescribe paradigm that typically characterizes sports coaching, athletes are often told what to do and how to do it so that they can be pushed to better performance levels. There are, however, many who believe that sports parallel coaching may be inadequate for business scenarios (Evered & Selman, 1989; McLean, 2012). Rauen (2002) as cited in Gronke and Häußner (2006) depicted coaching: “A basic aim of coaching is [...] helping people to help themselves and to behave responsibly [...]. The coach tries to influence processes in such a way that the resources of the coachee are developed” (p. 68). Bond and Seneque (2013) scoped coaching as a type of organizational intervention that has the potential to facilitate both organizational and individual development. Similarly, Cummings and Worley (2015) mentioned coaching as a form of organizational intervention that has a direct impact on individual behavior. Rosinski (2011) described a coach, as “a facilitator, can add value by facilitating organizational development” (p. 51). Joo (2005) stated that there are no credentials that are universally used to identify or describe the meaning of coaching. Nevertheless, this study adopted the notion of coaching from Mujtaba (2007), who described coaching as a continual process of communication and collaboration to aid others in learning, growing, and discovering their full potential.

Additionally, there are several coaching models developed by other scholars and philosophers (see Table 1). Barner and Higgins (2007) mentioned that the majority of coaching is structured around one of four generic models: clinical, behavioural, systems, or constructionist. As none of these models is superior to the others, coaches should be knowledgeable in the model they select (McCarthy, 2011).

Table 1

Other models of Coaching

Model	Dimension	Process
ABCDE Ellis et al. (1997) and Palmer (2002)	Behavioural	(A) Activating event or circumstance, or concern. (B) Beliefs and perceptions regarding the incident that triggered it. (C) Consequences of the emotional and/or behavioural and/or physical. (D) Disputation or critical scrutiny of beliefs.

		(E) Effective, a novel reaction or alteration in behaviour.
ACHIEVE Dembkowski and Elridge (2003)	Solution-focused	<p>(A) Assess the existing situation to gain an overview of it.</p> <p>(C) Creative brainstorming to generate alternative solutions to the existing problem.</p> <p>(H) Hone goals by ensuring that they are stated correctly.</p> <p>(I) Initiate a variety of potential behaviours to accomplish the target purpose.</p> <p>(E) Evaluative options to assist the coachee in weighing the various possibilities.</p> <p>(V) Valid action program designed by creating a specific strategy to fill the gap where “I am” where “I want to be”.</p> <p>(E) Encourage the development of momentum that results in the desired results.</p>
STEPPPA McLeod (2004)	Emotional	<p>(S) The subject of coaching that coachee perceives as a need for coaching.</p> <p>(T) Target the desired outcome.</p> <p>(E) Emotion state of the coachee about each decision.</p> <p>(P) Perception and choice of the goal from a wider perspective.</p> <p>(P) Plan To achieve the goals.</p> <p>(P) The pace of the coachee according to the time constraints and restrictions associated with completing each goal.</p> <p>(A) Adapt or Act the plan step-by-step to attain the intended goals.</p>

POSITIVE Libri (2004)	Solution-focused	<p>(P) Purpose as refers to the act of determining the true goals.</p> <p>(O) Observation is a holistic understanding of why a change is necessary.</p> <p>(S) Strategy for crystallizing desires, making them more specific and setting more achievable goals.</p> <p>(I) Insight of one's feelings or ideas in the context of goal attainment.</p> <p>(T) The team that can support the coachee in reaching its goals.</p> <p>(I) Initiate active engagement in achieving the goals.</p> <p>(V) Value the goal into diverse milestones.</p> <p>(E) Encouragement from others, a network of social support, and from the coach.</p>
SPACE Edgerton and Palmer (2005)	Cognitive behavioural	<p>(S) Social context and circumstance in which the coachees find themselves.</p> <p>(P) Physical reactions that the coachee has undergone such as increased heart rate, perspiration, and stress.</p> <p>(A) Action which relates to “What are you doing? What are you not doing?”</p> <p>(C) Cognitions which considered mental processes, visual representations, memories, expectancies, and values.</p> <p>(E) Emotions as feelings, temperament, and influence.</p>
CIGAR Cook (2009)	Solution-focused	<p>(C) Current reality, an area of concern, is self-explanatory.</p> <p>(I) Ideal as a statement of what would constitute a good outcome.</p>

		<p>(G) Gaps that exist between the current and the ideal situation, then eliminate those gaps.</p> <p>(A) Action and committing to undertake it.</p> <p>(R) Review by looking at the situation in terms of results.</p>
CLEAR Hawkins and Smith (2006)	Goal-focused	<p>(C) Contracting with the coachee's boundaries and objectives.</p> <p>(L) Listening to the coachee's concerns.</p> <p>(E) Exploring what is occurring in the dynamics.</p> <p>(A) Action to discover novel solutions.</p> <p>(R) Review the procedure and decides on future actions.</p>
PRACTICE Palmer (2007, 2008)	Solution-focused	<p>(P) Problem identification is the first step toward resolution.</p> <p>(R) Realistic and relevant goal-setting within the constraints of the business environment.</p> <p>(A) Alternative solutions entail the capacity to develop a diverse array of possible solutions.</p> <p>(C) Consideration of repercussions to ascertain what will occur if particular solutions are implemented.</p> <p>(T) Target solution that is the most practicable.</p> <p>(I) Implementation of the selected solution.</p> <p>(E) Evaluating whether or not the solution's implementation, and hence the whole coaching procedure, was successful.</p>
FUEL Zenger and Stinnett (2010)	Behavioural changes	<p>(F) Frame the conversation by agreeing on the discussion's aim, approach, and expected outcomes.</p> <p>(U) Understand the current state from the coachee's perspective.</p> <p>(E) Explore the desired state and other possibilities</p>

		(L) Lay out a success plan by defining the particular, time to accomplish the intended goals and establishing responsibility and follow-up milestones.
ERR Arnold (2013)	Emotional	(E) Emotion (recognize the feelings) (R) Reality (concentrate on the realities) (R) Responsibility (promote accountability and healthy behavior)

Self-efficacy

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as “belief in one’s capability to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Self-efficacy beliefs impact the effectiveness of human functioning via cognitive, motivational, emotional, and decisional processes. People’s views on their efficacy determine whether they think pessimistically or optimistically in ways that enable or debilitate them. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how successfully people drive themselves and endure in the face of adversity through the objectives they set for themselves, their result anticipation, and causal attributions for their achievements and failures. People’s perceptions about their ability to cope provide a critical influence on their ability to self-regulate their emotional states. The self-belief system confirms that people’s beliefs in their abilities vary between activity domains and contextual situations rather than manifesting identically across activities and settings in the manner of a generic attribute (Bandura, 2012). People’s beliefs in their capabilities are developed in four modes of conveying information. Bandura (1997) considered the following four modes as the sources of self-efficacy.

Enactive proficiency experiences (past performance): People are more motivated by how they interpret their performance achievements than by the achievements themselves. During the cognitive processing of enactive experiences, people’s self-efficacy increases significantly when their experiences invalidate their fears and when they acquire new skills to deal with vulnerable situations (Bandura, 1982).

Vicarious experience: Model observation is an essential vicarious source of efficacy knowledge. The apparent resemblance to models has an impact on the influence on observers (Schunk et al, 1987). Bandura (1997) stressed the need to evaluate one’s capabilities about the successes of those who are similar to oneself and are seen to be symptomatic of one’s own capabilities.

Verbal persuasion: Those who are verbally convinced that they have the abilities to perform given activities have been found to muster extra efforts and maintain it than those who hold self-doubts and fixate on personal deficiencies when obstacles occur. Persuasive increments in perceived efficacy encourage an individual to strive enough to excel and therefore foster competencies and a level of personal efficacy (Bandura 1982, 1997).

Physiology and affective states: People perceive exhaustion, discomfort, and pain as manifestations of physical debilitation in tasks that require strength and fortitude. Those who are less worried about a circumstance may interpret this as a sign that they are more likely to be successful (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2021). People's perceptions of their efficacy are likewise influenced by their moods. Positive mood increases perceived self-efficacy, whereas a negative mood lessens it. The focus of this stage of improving efficacy self-beliefs is to diminish people's psychological stress and shift their adverse emotional inclinations and misinterpretations of their physiological conditions (Bandura 1982, 1997).

Meaningful Work

Meaningful work is work that is subjectively meaningful, important, rewarding, or aligned with personal values (Bailey et al., 2019). It is believed that one's work provides several benefits: wealth, social status, belongingness, and even a sense of meaning and purpose (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Work is more than merely a means; it is the vehicle by which one may "generate something of ourselves." People's identities and works have always been inextricably intertwined. Consequently, people seek meaning at work and use meaning-seeking to attempt to make sense of their life. Not only is it meaningful to people, but it is also beneficial to organizations. "Man's Search for Meaning" (Frankl, 1962) was considered one of the first books that substantially wrote about meaningfulness. Frankl has discovered that the people who found meaning were mentally stronger and could encounter various situations better. Lee (2015b) applied Frankl's tenets and principles to guide a conceptual analysis of meaning in work which consisted of four aspects: (1) experienced positive emotion in work, (2) meaning from work itself, (3) meaningful purpose and goals of work, and (4) work as a part of life toward meaningful existence. Meaningfulness was generated from the job characteristics model, which was a pioneering attempt to map the domain of meaningfulness. Hackman and Oldham (1975) identified meaningfulness as a psychological state. By allowing employees to view their work as meaningful, organizations can increase employee motivation. (Grant, 2007).

Job Crafting

As defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), job crafting is the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work. Employees now have a vested desire to find meaning in their work and develop a good identity inside their organizations. This intrinsic craving for more engagement and significance is extremely unlikely to be met by conventional job designs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting is a bottom-up approach to job design, in which employees are enabled to create changes to their tasks and express their opinions informally. Whereas the typical top-down style, is in which the organization sets the job and then gives instructions to employees on how to perform it. By the term, 'informal' Lyons (2008) stated that it is "the concept of an employee making spontaneously and knowingly unsupervised changes in their jobs" (p. 25).

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) and Wrzesniewski et al. (2013), introduced three dimensions of job crafting practice.

Job crafting through changing tasks: Employees accomplish this by extending or reducing the quantity, breadth, or nature of employment duties performed on the job (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). Employees develop a more individualized framework for their work by deciding to perform fewer, more, or different tasks than those listed in the formal job description.

Job crafting through changing relationships: This practice entails extending or reducing the quality or quantity of interpersonal engagement at work or both (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). Employees can select how frequently they desire to connect with people in the workplace and contribute to the overall quality of those connections.

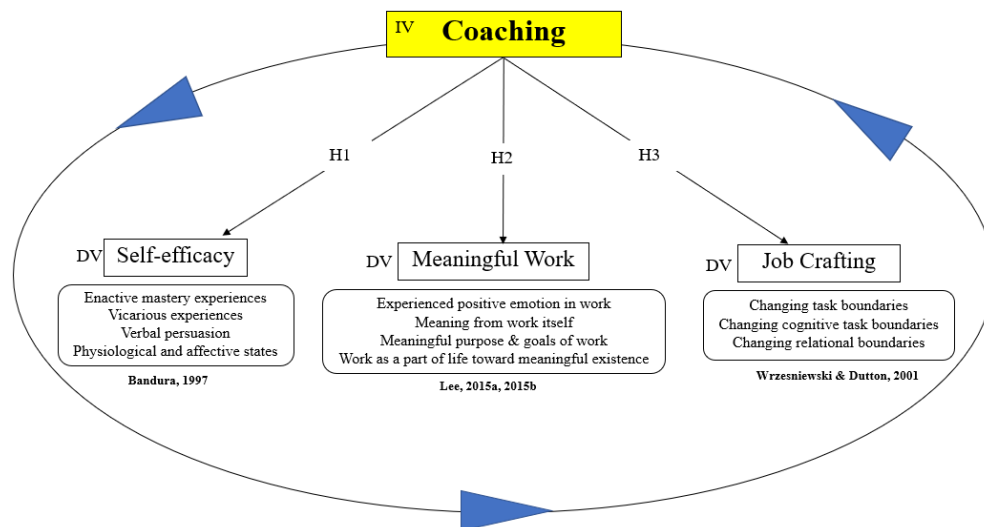
Changing cognitive task boundaries: Cognitive crafting emphasizes “how they think about the tasks”. This shift in perspective has a profound effect on how individuals approach their jobs. By employing three approaches (expanding, focusing, linking) for employees to craft their cognitive task boundaries, employees would gain a greater sense of meaningfulness from their work.

Conceptual Framework

The main variables studied were coaching as the independent variable (IV) and three dependent variables (DV), which were self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting. Despite the majority perceiving coaching merely as an intervention, this study considered coaching as both IV and intervention. The dynamic that occurred during the coaching intervention brought about influential outputs could not be disregarded. According to Figure 2, coaching is a repeating circle encompassing each DV that would steer all three DVs forward to the anticipated outcome. Ultimately, this study's focus was to determine if ODI has the potential to improve self-efficacy, meaningful work, and job crafting of FPOs.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of The Study



Note. Constructed by the author (2022)

Research Methodology

Research Design

As outlined above, three hypotheses have been established. Both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were employed for this study. A quasi-experimental, the one-group pretest-posttest design, was applied using questionnaires before and after the intervention which is coaching. The researcher functioned as a coach for two months in the organization throughout the study. Reflexive thematic analysis, paired samples t-test, and Wilcoxon signed-rank test were employed for data analysis.

Research Population and Sample

As the study intended to ensure that all individuals from the population have an equal probability of being selected for the sample, this study utilized stratified random sampling techniques to select the participants. Thirty forensic police officers from eight functions who were stationed in ten provinces participated in this study (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

List of Function and Province

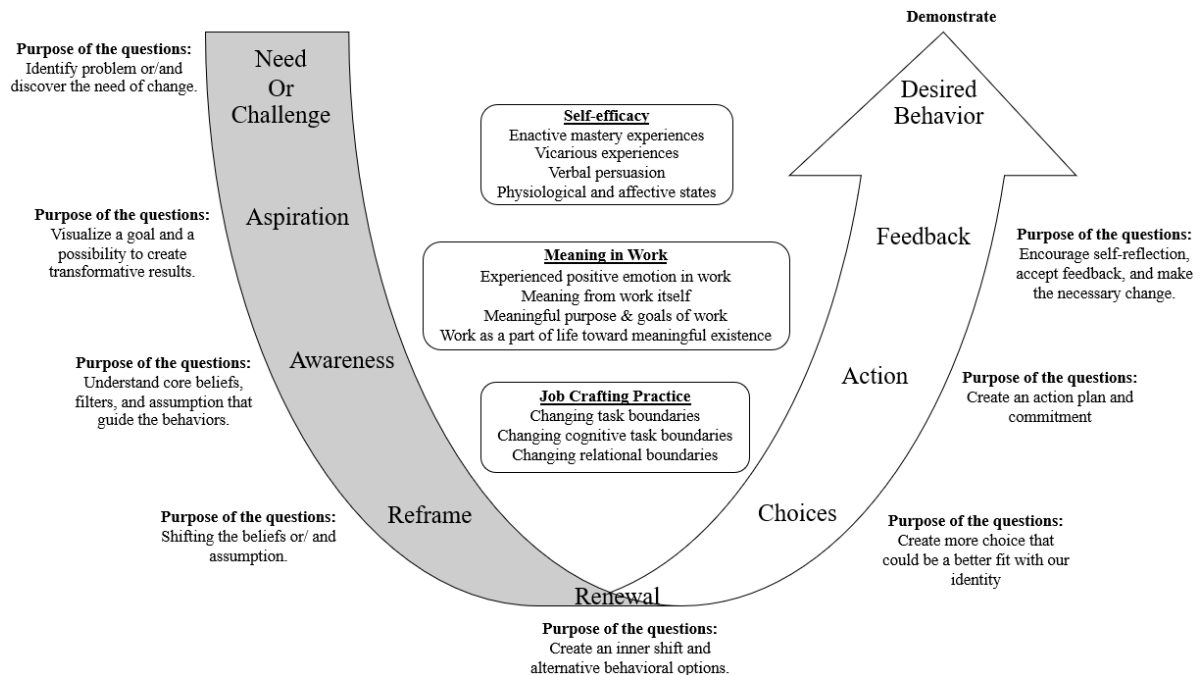
Function	Total <i>n</i> = 30	Province in Thailand	Total <i>n</i> = 30
Crime Scene Investigation	8	Bangkok	16
Firearms and Ammunition Identification	4	Nakhonpathom	3
Chemistry and Physics	2	Pathumthani	2
Narcotics Identification	4	Chachoengsao	1
Fingerprint Identification	4	Khonkaen	1
Biology and DNA	6	Sisaket	1
Computer Forensic	1	Lampang	2
Explosive Ordnance Dispersal	1	Ratchaburi	1
		Saraburi	1
		Yala	2

Research Instruments

Qualitative part

The semi-structured interview was conducted during both pre and post -ODI period to facilitate two-way dialogue and allows for reflective and comprehensive discussion. The interview questions employed three primary features to solicit the opinions of participants regarding the aspects of their competencies, their perception of how meaningful their works were, and their abilities to improve or/and modify their job. The overall behavior of each participant in their natural setting was systematically observed together with the coaching intervention logbook. Each participant's interviews and coaching sessions were transcribed in their entirety and had undergone six phases of reflexive thematic analysis, which were: being familiar with the complete data set, deriving codes from the data, generating initial themes, reviewing and developing themes, refining, defining and naming themes, and gathering the final analysis and findings description (Braun & Clarke, 2019; Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The Organization Development Alternatives (ODA) coaching model was applied in coaching intervention to steer the conversation, which encircles powerful questions that the coach poses to the coachee. All powerful questions were aligned with each stage of the model (see Figure 4).

Figure 4*Application of ODA Coaching Model Through Powerful Questions*

Note. Adapted by the researcher based on Babu, S. (2012). *Coaching: The Art of Developing Leaders*. Wiley India Pvt. Ltd., p. 90. Copyright 2012 by Wiley India Pvt. Ltd

The researcher recognized that Scharmer (2009) created a coaching paradigm known as Theory U. The Theory U diagram closely resembles the ODA model's diagram. However, based on the researcher observations and analyses, they are not connected, ODA was selected as it is more applicable to the core goal of this study. Unlike other coaching models, the ODA coaching model is not just focused on the coachee toward their goals or desired behavior. This model will enable the coachees to explore their internal thoughts and feelings while also increasing their sensory awareness. The ability of the ODA coaching model was reinforced by Karni and Vierø's (2013; 2017) study, which demonstrated that awareness reveals itself in the choice behavior of decision-makers.

Quantitative part

Nine items (Cronbach alpha of 0.818) from Sherer et al. General Self-Efficacy Scale (SGSES) were employed to measure a general set of expectations that the individual carries into new situations (Sherer et al., 1982). Eighteen items (Cronbach alpha of 0.921) from Meaning in Work Scale (MIWS) by Lee (2015b) were utilized to comprehend the concept of experienced meaningfulness and work meaning, and a core attribute of existential meaning (Lee, 2015a). Finally, fourteen items (Cronbach alpha of 0.823) from Job Crafting Measure (JCM) by Weseler and Niessen (2016) were applied as its central concept emphasizes that

employee task performance changes according to the extent to which tasks and relations at work are deliberately extended and reduced, and according to one's perception of one's job. These three sets of questionnaires used five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaires were distributed using Google online survey form.

Result and Discussion

Most participants were female, representing 53.3%, while 46.7% were male. The ages range 41-50 years old, representing 40%, and 51-60 years old, representing 40%, followed by 31-40 years old at 20%. The majority of work experience was between 21-30 years (40%). Master's degree was the majority of the level of education which, represent 83.3%. In terms of rank, most participants were police colonels, representing 63.3%. While the majority of positions were superintendent at 43.3%. Lastly, for the function of the police officer, the crime scene investigation was the majority of the participants for this study, representing 26.7%.

Qualitative part

Self-efficacy

The participants in this study make every effort to perform their responsibilities. Whenever it comes to exerting themselves in their work, they are fully aware that their capability is considerable because they give their maximum utmost. However, they anticipate compensation for their efforts. Some individuals desire external benefits such as promotions, but others are satisfied with internal rewards such as recognition. Regardless of the awareness of their SE, there are three more factors that could also negatively impact their SE or even dishearten them which are: (1) fixed work system and procedure, (2) patronage promotion system and process, and (3) lack of skill and knowledge background of their leader. In the post-ODI phase, participants focus more on what they can control. As experts in their area, they are convinced that their efforts will provide the finest outcomes. Instead of focusing solely on advancement or recognition, they view their ability as a means of self-improvement, regardless of the reward.

Meaningful Work

Similar to SE, Participants are aware of the meaningfulness of their work since the pre-ODI stage. They recognize that their job has a substantial influence on society. Despite the magnitude of their contributions, they are not seen positively by everybody. FPOs are influenced by media, the personal experience of some injured person, and the stereotype of the outlaw police officer. FPOs are dismayed when the public perceives them as accepting bribes and misrepresenting evidence. Moreover, within the police agency, other police units only view FPOs as support teams or units. After the post-ODI, they concentrate more on their ultimate goal, which is to deliver justice to the public and continue to have a positive impact on the lives of others. They branded themselves "The Blue Warrior" since their outfit on the work site

consisted of blue polo shirts. Because they are proud to be FPOs, they think that if they continue to execute with good intentions, the results of their work will speak for themselves.

Job Crafting

In the pre-ODI phase, they note that they are aware of the organization's bureaucratic structure since their earliest days of employment. Change implementation is extremely challenging for FPOs. Consequently, they are only focused on their work's final result. After post-ODI, all FPOs continue to raise the same concern as before. Despite all the restrictions imposed by the rules, regulations, and bureaucratic system, participants continue to strive for excellence. They concentrate more on the outcome of their task, which is to complete it. They prioritize becoming law enforcement officers who provide justice to people. They operate with honor and pride when they can demonstrate the credibility of forensics and the trustworthiness of evidence.

Table 2 depicts the results of the participants' opinions before and after ODI. After ODI, FPOs changed their concentration from circumstances beyond their control to factors they can control.

Table 2

Results of Reflexive Thematic Analysis between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI

Pre-ODI	Post-ODI
Theme for Self-efficacy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Benefit of devotion to work - Promotion system and process - Work system and procedure - Skill and knowledge background of the leader 	Theme for Self-efficacy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Capability to carry out administrative duties - Forensic science skills and knowledge
Theme for Meaningful Work <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Perception of the image of the organization by others - Positioning of the organization 	Theme for Meaningful Work <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Contributions of the work to society - Main purpose of the work - Pride of being FPOs
Theme for Job Crafting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bureaucracy structure - Impact of work 	Theme for Job Crafting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Primary aim of the task - Core value of the organization

- Purpose of the ultimate goal of the work	
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Quantitative part

Normality Test

For the pre-test, the data collected using self-efficacy instrument indicated as non-normal distribution. For the post-test, 2 sub-factors in the meaningful work instrument were indicated as non-normal distribution. One sub-factor in the meaningful work instrument, 2 factors and 2 sub-factors in the job crafting instrument show a non-normal distribution for both pre-test and post-test. Therefore, the researcher decided to perform both parametric test and non-parametric tests. Paired sample t-test as a parametric test was adopted to analyze the result of both pre-ODI and post-ODI that indicated normal distribution. While Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test equivalent to the paired-samples t-test (Field, A. 2013). was utilized to analyze the result of both Pre-ODI and Post-ODI that indicated non-normal distribution.

Paired Sample t-test

A paired sample t-test, as a parametric test, was adopted to analyze the result of both pre-ODI and post-ODI of all the normal distributed data. Figure 5 indicates that the totality of MW instrument, 4 factors of MW, 6 sub-factors of MW, and 1 sub-factor of JC are significantly different at $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ with the t-score between 4.862 - 2.311, which indicate that there is a significant difference existing between Pre-ODI and Pos-ODI. Pre-ODI and post-ODI scores of JC instrument and its 2 sub-factors together with 3 sub-factors of MW indicate no statistically significant difference as its p-value are more than 0.05 with the t-score between 0.000 – 1.980, which indicates that there is no significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI.

Figure 5

Results of paired samples t-test for Pre-ODI and Post-ODI

Variable	Pre		Post		Statistical sig.				Practical sig.	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	MD	SE	t-value	p-value	Cohen's d	ES
WG-Work goal (S)*	3.67	0.69	4.20	0.58	-0.53	0.11	-4.862	0.000	0.601	-0.888
MP-Meaningful purpose and goals of work (F)*	3.94	0.59	4.32	0.44	-0.38	0.09	-4.267	0.000	0.481	-0.779
MW_Total*	4.05	0.38	4.30	0.35	-0.25	0.06	-4.097	0.000	0.334	-0.748
SI-Significance of work itself (S)*	4.10	0.48	4.40	0.56	-0.30	0.09	-3.525	0.001	0.466	-0.644
WO-Work orientation (S)*	3.65	0.57	4.00	0.59	-0.35	0.10	-3.427	0.002	0.559	-0.626
WL-Work as a part of life toward meaningful existence (F)*	4.10	0.41	4.36	0.39	-0.26	0.08	-3.261	0.003	0.437	-0.595
EP-Experienced positive emotion in work (F)*	4.26	0.46	4.44	0.41	-0.18	0.06	-3.126	0.004	0.321	-0.571
SL-Significance of work-related to life (S)*	4.13	0.49	4.47	0.47	-0.33	0.11	-3.084	0.004	0.592	-0.563
CC-Cognitive crafting (F)*	4.14	0.48	4.37	0.52	-0.22	0.09	-2.373	0.024	0.513	-0.433
MFI-Meaning from work itself (F)*	3.91	0.41	4.11	0.44	-0.19	0.08	-2.368	0.025	0.447	-0.432
EA-Experienced an authentic self in work (S)*	4.08	0.44	4.32	0.43	-0.23	0.10	-2.311	0.028	0.553	-0.422
WX-Work toward meaningful existence (S)	4.07	0.58	4.23	0.57	-0.17	0.08	-1.980	0.057	0.461	-0.361
TR-Task crafting-reducing (S)	2.87	0.77	2.70	0.87	0.17	0.11	1.525	0.138	0.599	0.278
SF-Self-fulfilling in work (S)	4.27	0.58	4.37	0.56	-0.10	0.09	-1.140	0.264	0.481	-0.208
WV-Work values (S)	4.08	0.63	4.07	0.65	0.02	0.14	0.122	0.904	0.748	0.022
JC_Total	3.72	0.42	3.73	0.57	-0.01	0.06	-0.111	0.912	0.352	-0.020
RR-Relational crafting-reducing (S)	3.59	0.91	3.59	1.03	0.00	0.14	0.000	1.000	0.763	0.000

Note: * = p-value<0.05, (F) = Factor, (S) = Sub-factor

Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test

One instrument, 2 factors, and 5 sub-factors substantially deviated from normality. Therefore, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, which is equivalent to the paired-samples t-test (Field, 2013) was utilized to analyze the results of both Pre-ODI and Post-ODI of all non-normally distributed data. As displayed in Figure 6, the SE instrument ($z = 3.185$, $p = 0.001$) and two sub-factors of MW instrument, meaningfulness in work ($z = 2.757$, $p = 0.006$) and work purpose ($z = 2.095$, $p = 0.036$) are statistically significantly higher than the pre-test.

Figure 6

Results of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Pre-ODI and Post-ODI

Variable	Pre		Post		Statistical sig.						
	Median	IQR	Median	IQR	Ties Ranks	Negative Ranks	Mean Negative Ranks	Positive Ranks	Mean Positive Ranks	z-value	p-value
SE_Total*	4.00	0.78	4.11	0.89	3	5	11.40	22	14.59	-3.185	0.001
MIW-Meaningfulness in work (S)*	4.25	0.63	4.50	1.00	14	3	5.50	13	9.19	-2.757	0.006
WP-Work purpose (S)*	4.00	0.63	4.50	1.00	12	5	7.80	13	10.15	-2.095	0.036
SW-Sense of worth in work (S)	4.00	1.00	4.00	1.00	20	3	6.67	7	5.00	-0.832	0.405
TE-Task crafting-extending (S)	4.33	0.67	4.33	0.67	14	7	7.93	9	8.94	-0.666	0.506
RC-Relational crafting (F)	4.00	0.58	3.83	0.98	5	15	11.97	10	14.55	-0.458	0.647
TC-Task crafting (F)	3.58	0.67	3.58	0.71	5	13	13.69	12	12.25	-0.421	0.674
RE-Relational crafting-extending (S)	4.00	0.00	4.00	0.75	16	8	7.13	6	8.00	-0.288	0.773

Note: * = p-value<0.05, (F) = Factor, (S) = Sub-factor

Summary of the Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis 1

H1o. There is no significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on self-efficacy of FPOs.

H1a. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on self-efficacy of FPOs.

As a result of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test of FPOs' self-efficacy between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI, the researcher found a significant difference in the total SE assessment score between the Pre-ODI and Post-ODI at the 0.001 level of significance. Therefore, the finding rejects H1o and accepts H1a.

According to the information provided, the researcher devised an appropriate coaching program for every participant. Given the fact that it was a one-on-one session, participants were permitted to share what they truly needed to better or alter their sense of self-efficacy. The participants were incredibly open to the researcher. They were more at ease when there is no one else around. When discussing their deficiency, they did not experience embarrassment. The improvement in SE can be explained by the fact that it is a participant-controlled variable. Therefore, when subjects desire to improve, they may do so whenever and wherever they want. In this situation, the researcher pushed them to find additional abilities they may possess but were unaware of. Once they realized they were capable of more than they believed, they were motivated to do better (Whitmore, 2002; Evers et al., 2006; Moen & Kvalsund, 2008; Latham et al., 2008).

Hypothesis 2

H2o. There is no significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on meaningful work of FPOs.

H2a. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on meaningful work of FPOs.

According to the normality test, hypothesis 2 has to apply both paired samples t-test and Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

The total MW assessment, its 4 factors (EP, MFI, MP, WL) and its 8 sub-factors (WG, SI, WO, SL, EA, WX, SF, WV) were analyzed with paired samples t-tests. As a result, the researcher found that there is a significant difference in the total aggregate of the MW assessment score between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI at the 0.000 level of significance. For the 4 main factor components, the researcher found a significant difference in all the 4 factors. For the sub-factors, 5 of them showed that there is a significant difference (WG, SI, WO, SL, EA) whereas 3 show no significant difference (WX, SF, WV) between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI. Wilcoxon signed-rank test was applied with 3 sub-factors (MIW, WP, SW). Results showed that only 1 sub-factor (SW) shows no significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI. However, the researcher considered the overall result of the assessment, therefore, H2o was rejected and accepted H2a. The non-significance of WX might be explained that, although being conscious that the forensic policing job is significant, their families, health, and personal life are equally important (Lee, 2015a, 2015b). According to WX, the rationale for SF is that they may emphasize something other than work; hence, people require more than work to be completed. For WV, it might be argued that their area of work is mostly limited to the national

level; hence, they are unable to perceive the overall impact of their actions. Finally, for SW, this may be attributed to the fact that a certain job is not their duty, but they must complete according to the order of higher authority; hence, they did not have any sense of worth in this kind of work (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Steger, 2016; Bailey et al., 2019).

Hypothesis 3

H3o. There is no significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on job crafting of FPOs.

H3a. There is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI on job crafting of FPOs.

According to the normality test, hypothesis 3 also has to be analyzed using both paired samples t-test and Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

The total JC assessment, its 2 sub-factors, and its 1 factor were analyzed using the paired samples t-test. Results show that there is no significant difference in the total JC assessment and its 2 sub-factors (TR, RR). Only 1 factor (CC) shows that there is a significant difference between Pre-ODI and Post-ODI. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was applied with 2 factors (TC, RC) and 2 sub-factors (TE, RE). None shows significant difference between the Pre-ODI and the Post-ODI. In this case, the researcher concludes that the assessment fails to reject the null hypothesis.

This finding may be due to the bureaucratic structure inside the organization and the rules and regulations put in place to control how FPOs operate making it challenging for FPOs to implement any change (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Most participants are solely concerned with the end goal of their job, which is to help people in solving cases. Surprisingly, when the researcher investigated further, CC was an only aspect that yielded a statistically significant outcome. The fact that CC is the only aspect that the FPOs may exert any influence over can be explained by the fact that this is related to their thought processes and perceptions of things, which is under the individual control realm (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski et al., 2013; Weseler & Niessen, 2016).

Recommendation for the Office of Police Forensic Science

As mentioned in the section of result and discussion, the quantitative and qualitative results of the pre-ODI and post-ODI complement or support each other. Coaching not only helps to improve SE and MW, but according to Green Sr (2019), it also helps to improve an organization's ethics and morality. Coaching should be incorporated into the curriculum of OPFS's yearly training program, together with self-efficacy and meaningful work knowledge, in order to foster a more positive attitude and outlook toward the organization and the profession itself. Coaching may become mandatory for all FPOs who are expected to be promoted to the management level, as it can professionally develop knowledge and duty for the to-be-promoted supervisors on how to manage their work and subordinates better. Thus,

different coaching skills should be determined based on the officer's rank and position. Regarding job crafting, future researchers should consider selecting any other variable that is subject to individual control, such as self-regulation or self-determination. Hertzog and Dunlosky (2011) mentioned in their study that self-regulation was an important tool for adults' effective cognitive functioning in everyday life. According to Koole et al. (2019) self-determination could contribute to the growth of an individual's full potential if their fundamental psychological requirements are met.

Limitations

FPOs are rarely at their office, and if an urgent situation arises while coaching, the session must be suspended and postponed. Hence, the scheduled meeting timetable was frequently altered. This unforeseen incident affected the interval between coaching sessions, as some FPOs had continual sessions, which enabled them to recall the prior coaching session's conversation. In contrast, others had longer break intervals, which can sometimes require extra time to recollect previous thoughts and conversations. Due to the COVID-19 epidemic, interviews and ODI had to be conducted through a videoconference system, resulting in an inability to observe many relevant body gestures. Since this is the first time FPOs have experienced coaching, many were doubtful about the method, the process, and the outcomes, and what they should anticipate. Consequently, FPOs take additional time to comprehend what professional development coaching is. As the study was conducted exclusively in Thai culture and in a unique setting, the findings may not be readily generalized to other contexts. In addition, due to the small sample sizes used, it may not be generalizable to other police or other similar government agencies.

Conclusion

This organization development action research study examined the effects of coaching to enhance the FPOs in Thailand regarding self-efficacy, sense of meaningful work and job crafting skills. In the period of two months, the researcher functioned as a coach applying self-efficacy theory, meaning in work model, and job crafting model together with their exercise programs. The researcher followed the six stages of McNiff and Whitehead's (2006) action-reflection cycle: observe, reflect, act, modify, evaluate, and move in new directions. Once the participant meets their goals and everything is satisfied, the coach will urge the participant to grow in a direction that is more in line with their needs. It is, therefore, time to restart the cycle. The positive outcome of this research indicates that FPOs continue to strive for greatness despite all the limitations imposed by the rules, regulations, and bureaucratic system. FPOs focus more on what they can influence, and as a result, they find themselves more comfortable performing the core workload and other additional duties that might be given to them. After the intervention, the researcher feels that the more forensic police officers perform their duty over time, the more they realize they can contribute to society and the justice system.

This study focuses at the operational level since FPOs are the organization's primary driving force. They are the frontline officers who must confront actual daily reality, especially crime scenes. By strengthening their sense of SE, FPOs can recognize their abilities and potentials. In addition, by highlighting the significance of their work, they recognize that what they do has substantially influence on Thai citizens and international visitors and residents. By encouraging job-crafting behaviors, there is a chance to foster a sense of originality and independence in this unique work setting within a highly bureaucratic work environment.

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