Business coaching for creativity at work

Towards the development of a 'coaching for creativity' framework that uses intrapersonal factors as mediators

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(i)   Preface

From the perspective of academic education I have followed a versatile way. I wanted to learn how people think and what their motivations are to act in a specific manner. Thus, I started with the study of *Pedagogy,* only to recognize that it did not met my personal interest deeply enough. Following this, I switched to the study of *Psychology* and made my degree Bachelor of Science at the University of Twente. Along the way I realized my passion for conducting small-group seminars and started to work as an instructor. With my increased interest in general business management and a view to make personal development my profession, I supplemented my bachelor with the master studies in *Business Administration (HRM)* as well as *Innovation Management & Entrepreneurship*.

From working as an instructor of seminars my experience has shown me how much newly acquired knowledge was lost during the process of transfer into real life settings, which was painful to recognize. My search for an effective solution against this process of loss brought coaching on my path.

This, together with the inspiring lectures on Human Side of Innovation held by i.a. Dr. Johannes Rank and his interest in creativity, led to the topic for my thesis: Would coaching be able to enhance creativity at work?

Today you are reading my answer to that question.

(ii)   Acknowledgements

First of all I would like to thank Michel Ehrenhard for convincing me to go to Berlin for the double-degree program as well as for his always blithesome guidance and expertise – both in general, and thesis specific. His supportive humour and personal advice made me smile on many occasions. I thank Johannes Rank for his time and patience, his professional, guiding expertise and support especially throughout the first months of my thesis. He always found the right words to keep me motivated and ambitious. Furthermore, I thank Isabella Hatak for her personal interest and her professional input during the final phase of my thesis.

I thank my fellow-students and dear friends Lisa, Caro and Lara for their mental and subject-specific support. They made my time in Berlin very special and lovely; I will be glad to look back. In addition, I thank my library friends, who supported me by keeping me company, making me explain my thesis topic to them, and most of all I thank them for the glorious moments filled with cheerful laughter during the breaks. Next, I thank Elizabeth and Doro for their precious time and guiding input in order to teach me professional English.

I am deeply grateful for my outstanding and close friend Jan, who supported me with more than his trust, critique, wise and sometimes insistent words. Magically he always knew how to reframe my stray thoughts and always helped me to find the most effective and efficient solution. I thank my close and exceptional friend Kira for her spiritual company and vision. Through her support I became and stayed able to look beyond academic or societal boarders; she strengthened and tightened my confidence in my daily steps and regarding my future path.

Moreover, I thank my long-time friends who live far away, for their constant understanding, respect and invaluable backing. They kept me grounded and simultaneously enabled me to fly even higher and to follow my ambitious dreams. And I am sincerely thankful to my family – in particular my sister Tina and my mother – who never got tired to remind me of how far I had already come in moments of uncertainty. Together they always made me feel loved, safe and proud.

Thank you.

(iii)   Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to find an answer to how coaching can enhance creativity at work and to develop a framework as fundament for appropriate coaching interventions. In the study a systematic literature review is used for the integration of coaching research with creativity literature. After the taxonomy of coaching and description of employees' intrapersonal factors as antecedents to creativity, seven intrapersonal factors are considered as mediators between coaching and creativity at work, namely: creative self-efficacy; creative role identity; goal orientations; regulatory focus; intrinsic motivation; mood and affect; and creative skills. Following this, nine propositions are provided on how business coaching is likely to enhance creativity at work. The results are combined into a coaching-for-creativity-framework, including coaching approaches and tools which have already been found to be effective in the area of business. Recommendations are made for future research and for using business coaching as a personal development tool in organizations in order to enhance creativity at work.

Keywords: coaching, creativity, innovation, creative self-efficacy, creative role identity, achievement goal orientation, regulatory focus, intrinsic motivation, mood, creative skills, framework, employee

CONTENTS

1   INTRODUCTION

Executive coaching is already a widely used business practice and academic attention to executive coaching has been growing since the last decade (Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010). Coaching is a specific tool for human resource development (HRD) – the latter embedded in human resource management (HRM) – and thus can be part of general strategic organizational development. *Creativity*, defined as the creation of new and useful ideas, is widely recognized as a starting point for innovation processes — and these latter are essential for competitive advantage (George, 2007). The challenge of fostering creativity in organizations has been assessed from different perspectives (e.g., leadership style) and general HRD measures are positively associated with creativity (Gibb & Waight, 2005). However, according to some academics, there has not been enough research which takes general or specific HRD measures into consideration (Joo, McLean, & Yang, 2013; Sheehan, Garavan, & Carbery, 2013). No academic empirical paper has emerged on the link between coaching and creativity at work. Nonetheless, several coaching practitioners advertise coaching for creativity already. I will focus on the link between business coaching as specific tool of HRD and employees' creative behaviour. This makes HRM and HRD managers, coaches in business context, and researchers my target group.

The following chapters are organized as follows. First, I will highlight the relevance of my thesis topic for the academic science and practitioners. Both are equally important, because economy and academic science need each other. While practitioners are constantly looking for new insights, for example how to improve leading skills with regard to competition, researchers deliver those insights. I will then present the research gaps and study design of my thesis.

Chapter two focuses on the definition of coaching with its taxonomies and provides an overview about several selected coaching approaches. Following this, I describe the antecedents of creativity by discussing seven *intrapersonal facilitators for creativity at work* (referred to as IFC in this paper). These seven intrapersonal factors are the most predominant factors discussed in creativity literature, and seem most promising in the HRD context.

In chapter three, I describe my systematic literature review, the findings of this research, and provide the propositions derived from this research on how coaching might contribute to creativity at work. Chapter four contains the summarized results and describes the developed *business coaching for creativity framework*. In chapter five I discuss the theoretical and practical significance of my paper, its limitations, and provide suggestions for further research. Finally, in chapter six my conclusions are described.

1.1   RELEVANCE FOR SCIENCE

Since the nineties, academic interest in coaching has grown in areas outside of its traditional domain in sport. In September 2015 as an example, on Scopus, the number of documents including the term *coaching* showed 2252 hits in the subject area of *Social Sciences* alone. This makes 26.7% of all hits, followed by coaching in the subject area *Psychology*, with 1660 hits (19.8%), and *Business, Management and Accounting* with 1087 hits (13%). Within the subject area of *Business, Management and Accounting* alone, the term *coaching* showed a publication rate of one document per year between 1961 and 1992. Between 1992 and 2004 already ten times as many documents were published per year. Since this period the number of publications has constantly risen, reaching 136 documents in the year 2013. This makes an average of 90 new documents per year in the last decade. These studies focus predominantly upon executive coaching and trials to evaluate the *return of investment* (ROI) of coaching. Less is written about coaching for employees.

Nevertheless, most articles published on coaching have appeared in journals with a less prestigious ranking, while more prestigious journals have published a relatively low number of articles discussing coaching (see appendix 7.1). On the one hand, this reflects the general rise in scientific interest, but on the other, also suggests that coaching is not yet regarded as its own profession (Gray, 2011; Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2009) and needs a broader theoretical base preceding empirical research and coaching theory (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003). Given that it is in its early stages of development, and in lights of its ambivalent findings, coaching is a highly interesting research topic from an academic perspective.

The literature on creativity has a much bigger research body with clear and widely accepted definitions and established findings. As an example for comparison, the search-term *creativity* delivered more than 35,630 hits on Scopus since 1855, and more than 3960

documents (11% of all hits) in the area of *Business, Management and Accounting*. This comprises almost four times as many hits as the term *coaching* delivers. The amount of published articles on creativity has consistently risen since 1995.

Thus, creativity has already been extensively researched, but several researchers agree that there are still some topics underrepresented in the literature. They stress, for example, the need for more theorizing of creativity and theory-driven studies (Anderson, Potonik, & Zhou, 2014) and the need for creativity research in the HRM context (Gibb & Waight, 2005; Joo et al., 2013). This thesis strives to contribute to both needs; it is the first research of its kind in business management literature which brings together both the specific practice of coaching as part of the HRD research and creativity at work.

1.2   RELEVANCE FOR PRACTICE

Personal development matters: in the HR Climax Study 2015, 31% of personal managers stated that the highest human resources (HR) priority is to increase leadership and management quality, followed by a desire to improve management (28%), to focus on recruitment (25%), to become a more attractive employer (21%), and to provide and improve training and qualifications (21%) (Kienbaum-Consulting, 2015). The HR Climax Study 2015 included 501 companies in different industries of industrial and emerging countries. Clearly, three out of the top-five main challenges of HRM today belong to the responsibility of HRD.

Next, the role of creativity in a business context is widely recognized as crucial for innovation, and thus, for competitive advantage. Accordingly, HR managers see the need to develop their employees, and since employees are most often the source of creativity at work, it is appropriate and useful to concentrate on their development. In addition, traditional and standardized seminars are increasingly inadequate for the real needs of managers today and in the future, because either managers already have sufficient knowledge of the content, or the transfer of the learned content to daily business is not enduring (Böning & Fritschle, 2005). Furthermore, every individual manager has their own individual needs, which may include personal behavioural change, which may not be adequately addressed in a traditional group training session.

A sequence of sessions is much more promising than short-term interventions (Mumford, Hunter, Eubanks, Bedell, & Murphy, 2007), and coaching has been shown to be more effective than other interventions in the development of both, *self-efficacy* defined as *"the belief that a person has of being capable of accomplishing a given task"* (Baron & Morin, 2010, p. 22) and stress reduction (Taylor, 1997). The extent of coaching has been demonstrated to be positively related to the longevity of outcomes (Baron & Morin, 2010). Furthermore, coaching with its core focus on supporting the coach's individual learning goals is a unique and enduring source of learning. It has been found to be successful for *goal attainment* (Grant, Curtayne, & Burton, 2009; Green, Oades, & Grant, 2006; Spence, Cavanagh, & Grant, 2008), *reduced stress and anxiety* (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005), the enhancement of *outcome expectancies* (the expected consequences of one's actions) (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2006) and *self-esteem beliefs* – *"personal judgments about one's capability to employ specific actions and tasks"* (Evers et al., 2006, p. 175). How these factors contribute to creativity at work is described in chapter 0 in more detail.

From the coach's perspective the coaching market is large and highly promising for practitioners. According to the *Global Coaching Study*, commissioned by the ICF (2012b) and conducted by *PricewaterhouseCoopers* (PwC), the global coaching market has a volume of $2,000,000,000[1] annual revenue, which is generated by estimated 47,500 professional coaches; this is still expected to grow. After North America and Oceania, Western Europe has the biggest coaching market worldwide, comprising a market of approximately $828,000,000[2] , — this would comprise 41% of the global revenue in the coaching industry. This general trend is congruent with the findings of the often cited Marburger Coaching Study 2013, which focused on the German market and found a rising order situation emerged between at least 2006 and 2013, with a slight decline in the demand in 2011 (Stephan & Gross, 2013). The authors mention an almost saturated coaching market in Germany as a possible explanation for this decline and therefore suggest coaches find new coaching formats or new market segments in order to acquire new clients (Stephan & Gross, 2013). One promising coaching format could be the facilitation of creativity at work, with ordinary employees as the new market segment.

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[1] $2,000,000,000 are about €1,840,400,000
[2] $828,000,000 USD are about €762.000.000

1.3   RESEARCH GAPS AND RESEARCH QUESTION

As outlined here above, managers are forced to broaden up their traditional innovation strategies in order to stay competitive. One example could be to stimulate the creative resources of the usual workforce (Carayannis & Gonzalez, 2003; Carrier, 1998). Innovation and change is always accompanied by learning and development, which are in the domain of HRD (Joo et al., 2013). And HRD interventions were found to be positively correlated with creativity (Joo et al., 2013). But traditional development strategies are no longer sufficient (Böning & Fritschle, 2005). However, coaching – as one specific tool of HRD interventions – might be of support in this regard.

The business coaching literature has mainly focused on coaching for or by executives (e.g., Beattie et al., 2014; Blumberg, 2014; Fillery-Travis & Passmore, 2011; Grant et al., 2010; Segers, Vloeberghs, Henderickx, & Inceoglu, 2011). Less was written on coaching for employees. The main areas of concern addressed in coaching engagements are personal growth and self-esteem (ICF, 2012c), as well as the development of competencies based on reflection upon one's own problem solving behaviour (Stephan & Gross, 2013). For example self-esteem is known to be relevant for creativity (Rank, Nelson, Allen, & Xu, 2009), as well as problem solving strategies (Basadur, Graen, & Green, 1982).

Notwithstanding its relevance in literature and companies, no article was found focusing on the immediate link between coaching and creativity. Also, there was no theoretical base found for this link, which can be seen as a clear theoretical and empirical research gap. Accordingly, this thesis is guided by the following research question:

> How can coaching foster creativity at work?

Since there is no theory or model which integrates creativity with coaching – which could be tested with traditional business research methods like qualitative (e.g., interviews) or quantitative empirical methods (e.g., surveys) – it is important to shed light upon whether and how coaching can enhance the creative behaviour of employees. I therefore decided for a theoretical approach. I will develop the first framework of its kind based upon coaching for creativity at work and strive to provide suggestions as to which coaching taxonomy will be most likely to enhance creativity at work. This framework will then serve as a theoretical basis for follow-up empirical research.

With this research question as guide, this thesis contributes to the creativity literature from the personal characteristics view and on the individual level of analysis (Anderson et al., 2014), with focus on the malleable individual factors as antecedents of employee creativity. In the view of that, this study holds implications for the overall management literature: it outlines the role and potential of human resource development for creativity and innovation. It will show how managers can develop their current employees for higher creativity at work. Therefore this study is an excellent complement for the current state of management research. According to Joo et al. (2013) the majority of researchers investigated personal and contextual antecedents' of employee creativity. This study concentrated systematically on the centrepiece of creativity, namely the malleable mental states and motivations of the creative individuals. Further, this study connects to the componential theory of organizational creativity (Amabile, 1997) by making implementable suggestions on how its dimension *motivation* can be manipulated.

2   DEFINITIONS AND DELINEATIONS OF CORE CONSTRUCTS

In this part I first define coaching with its taxonomy and provide an overview about some coaching approaches, followed by a definition of creativity and the most relevant findings of intrapersonal factors as facilitators for creativity.

2.1   COACHING

In this chapter I take a narrative approach to describe the main findings on coaching. First I will define coaching with its taxonomies, and following this, focus on business coaching. Next, I will provide a short overview regarding the question of its proof of efficacy and the role of the relationship between coach and coachee.

2.1.1   Coaching defined

Until today there has been no mutual standard definition of coaching. Coaching has been used in the context of business since the 20th century (Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2010). Since then the usage of the term *coaching* has literally exploded in any kind of service. In fact, researchers and practitioners just started to cluster different areas of coaching (Böning & Fritschle, 2005; Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014; Segers et al., 2011). Their goal is

partly to lead coaching out of its actual developmental state (Grant et al., 2010) up to a professional level (Gray, 2011). For this reason researchers have been calling for coaching to have its own body of research (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2008).

Anthony M. Grant – one of the leading scholars in the field of coaching psychology – defined life coaching as "*a collaborative solution-focused, result-orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of life experience and goal attainment in the personal and/or professional life of normal, nonclinical clients*" (Grant, 2003, p. 254). Other researches provide definitions which stress different aspects of coaching. For example Segers et al. (2011) regard coaching as

> *an intensive and systematic facilitation of individuals or groups by using a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help them attain self-congruent goals or conscious self-change and self-development in order to improve their professional performance, personal well-being and, consequently, to improve the effectiveness of their organization.* (p. 204)

Next, Cox, Bachkirova, and Clutterbuck (2010, p. 1) define coaching as a "*human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders*".

These authors agree upon coaching as a systematic approach, with focus on subject specific development goals personally defined by the client. The authors also agree that the coach's role is supportive rather than steering. I will use the term coaching *approach* for the different coaching philosophies, or coaching schools (Segers et al., 2011), styles or traditions (Cox et al., 2010). Every approach has its typical methods or tools. One example is the *Gestalt Approach* to coaching with its often used tool *Neuro-Linguistic-Programming* (Grimley, 2010)..

2.1.2   Special case: business coaching

After having described the general definitions of coaching, I will now discuss business coaching as specific form of coaching and how it differentiates from other forms of employee development.

The authors of the definitions above agree upon coaching as a systematic approach, with a focus on subject specific goals for development personally defined by the client. The authors also agree on the coach's role as supportive rather than steering. Yet not one of these definitions fulfilled my understanding of business coaching. In addition to their definitions, I consider only non-clinical development goals and the development of the individual for his or her work environment as crucial elements of business coaching.

Business coaching focusses on professional development with vocational clients as a target group. In business settings, executives are most often the clients of external coaching (Grant et al., 2010). Its goal is to improve the effectiveness of the company (Grant et al., 2010). In times of transitions or in the face of difficult changes middle management executives often seek support (Stokes & Jolly, 2010). When it comes to coaching for employees, normally the executive takes over the role of mentor or coach. Managerial coaching is provided by internal line-managers and is often considered as day-to-day development for employees (Ellinger, Beattie, & Hamlin, 2010). The concept of managerial coaching partly overlaps with *mentoring* and some authors use it interchangeable, although they differ in some aspects (e.g., mission, problem-solving and use of generalist versus specialist competence) (Zhang, 2008). Klofsten and Öberg (2008) state, mentoring can be part of coaching and vice versa. They do overlap in areas of idea assessment, meeting environment and confidentiality agreements and can be seen as parallel activities. But a coach fulfils a different role than a mentor.

2.1.3   Coaching approaches

A coaching approach describes foremost the mind-set of the coach and how he perceives the client (Cox et al., 2010). This in turn has an impact on the methods used and the interaction between coach and coachee (Cox et al., 2010). In other words, the coach's inherent own world view or personal theory about coaching influences the way of interaction with his coachee (Cox et al., 2010). The coaching approach describes *how* and with which tools a coach will work. Even though a complete review of all coaching approaches is beyond the scope of this thesis, several approaches deserve mention in order to make an answer on *'how can coaching foster creativity at work?'* feasible. The collected works by Cox et al. (2010) as well as Passmore, Peterson, and Freire (2013) provide the basis of the upcoming paragraphs.

2.1.3.1 The solution-focused approach to coaching

The *solution-focused approach* to coaching has its roots in the philosophy of constructivism. It regards every problem as "*constructed in the discourse between the client and others in the client's world*" (Cavanagh & Grant, 2010, p. 55). And "*solution-focused thinking is more than just goal setting and resource awareness – it is also based on a mind-set that orients the person towards solutions and explicitly away from problem-focused processing*" (Grant et al., 2012, p. 336). In other words, the path for change starts with a change in one's own view on something, followed by a change in the handling of the situation. This approach delineates a coachee as able to solve his problem with his own strengths. The goal of the coach is only to develop together with the client a "*pathway in both thinking and action that assists them*" (Cox et al., 2014) in achieving the desired state. The *solution focused approach to coaching* is a strength-based approach, striving to activate the coachee's own resources for a positive change (Grant et al., 2012). A typically used tool is an *action cycle of self-regulation*. The four cyclical steps for the change in self-regulation are act, monitor the behaviour, evaluate it, and finally change what is not working (i.e. set new goals and define an action plan) and do more of what works (Cavanagh & Grant, 2010, p. 57). A clear benefit of this approach lies in the short-term focus. All self-contained units per coaching session have their own realistic goal.

According to Cavanagh and Grant (2010), this approach is versatilely applicable and especially recommendable for skills and performance coaching, developmental coaching and executive coaching. Another benefit which I see for this approach is its clear differentiation from clinical or psychodynamic approaches, which makes this approach highly promising for short-term interventions.

2.1.3.2 Cognitive-behavioural approach to coaching

Probably the oldest and most common coaching is the *cognitive behavioural approach to coaching* (CBC). It assumes thoughts about a problem determine the feelings about it (Williams, Edgerton, & Palmer, 2010). The main objective of the CBC is the enhancement of self-awareness and accordingly the change of thinking patterns. A coach who follows this approach strives to enable the coachee to coach him-/her-self to follow his/her own goals. This goes along with an increase in self-confidence, identification of thinking blockages and preparation the way for transformation. Coaches using this approach often use systematic

models such as the *PRACTICE*[3] *and PITS & PETS*[4] *model* (for more practical models see Williams et al. (2010)). The two most important factors for successful change are the definition of realistic goals as well as the identification of the underlying cognitive and emotional barriers to the goal attainment (Cox et al., 2014). This deep examination of the underlying feelings differentiates this approach from the *solution focused approach to coaching*, which concentrates more on the surface. CBC is applicable to many agendas such as to skills and performance coaching, life coaching, developmental coaching and more (Williams et al., 2010).

2.1.3.3 The positive psychology approach to coaching

The *positive psychology approach to coaching* (PPAC) is rooted in the discipline of *positive psychology*. It constantly emphasizes the strengths of the client and supports the client in perceiving every problem as a chance, as well as recognizing the strength in every weakness (Cox et al., 2014). Interventions based on *positive psychology approach to coaching* focus on building positive emotions about the past, present and future. For example, one tool for developing positive feelings about the past is *three good things* – its simple instruction is, every night just before going to sleep write down three things that went well during the day. This tool has been well-researched and is proved to increase happiness and decrease depressive symptoms (Kauffman, Boniwell, & Silberman, 2010).

2.1.3.4 Motivational interviewing

Motivational interviewing is "*a powerful, person-focused, respectful, guiding approach to helping people to change, helping to develop and strengthen client autonomous motivation and confidence*" (Anstiss & Passmore, 2013, p. 355). The *motivational interviewing* approach to coaching builds on three main theories, namely the *self-determination theory* (states that motivation and well-being depends on the degree of personal autonomy), the *self-discrepancy theory* (people strive to reduce the discomfort resulting from gaps between different internalized standards through adjusting their behaviour, attitude or cognition), and most important here the *self-efficacy theory* (states that self-efficacy belief predicts variations amongst others in motivation and performance). According to Anstiss and

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[3] PRACTICE is an acronym for a problem-solving and solution focuses model (Palmer, 2008; Williams, Edgerton, & Palmer, 2010). It describes seven sequential steps from problem identification to evaluation and suggests questions for practitioners linked to those steps.
[4] PITS is the acronym for performance interfering thoughts (e.g., "It's going to go badly") and PETS is the acronym for performance enhancing thoughts (e.g., "it will be at least okay") (Williams et al., 2010).

Passmore (2013), motivational interviewing practitioners seek to enhance self-efficacy by assessing and building confidence regarding the change of one's own behaviour. *motivational interviewing* approach has been studied mostly in health interventions (e.g., anxiety disorders or diabetes), and is only recently gaining the attention of scholars also for organizational coaching (Stoltz & Young, 2013). Thus, it might be an interesting approach for business coaching in the future.

2.1.3.5 The psychodynamic approach to coaching

The Psychodynamic approach is an in-depth approach for developmental coaching (Gray, 2006). According to Cox, Bachkirova, and Clutterbuck (2014, p. 150), the premise of this approach is that *"current behaviors and feelings are powerfully affected by unconscious motives rooted in earlier experiences. Coaches use awareness about the working of the unconscious for deepening their practice"*. It promotes becoming one's *true self* again, which means gaining a realistic sense of self through consciousness and awareness, and following becoming able to act authentic again (Diamond, 2013). The true self is often unconscious (G. Lee, 2010) and covered up by stress and job requirements (Diamond, 2013). The *psychodynamic approach to coaching* is highly useful to solve inner blockages and shows a high respect for personal feelings, especially anxieties. Kets de Vries (2014) suggests that coaches pay attention to the dreams of clients – next to their waking life – as useful intervention in order to understand the unconscious processes and experienced emotions. According to G. Lee (2010), the *psychodynamic approach to coaching* the most appropriate approach regarding skills and performance coaching as well as developmental coaching.

2.1.4   Summary: Coaching

In sum, coaching as HRD intervention in organizations is still in its infancy. Most researchers agree on coaching as a strategic interaction process that strives to support a client in reaching the by the client defined goals. Several coaching approaches are known and can be described in terms of the mind-set of the coach, which differs according to different philosophies and according to approach-specific – yet not clearly differentiated – tools. The coaching approach needs to fit the coach, the client and the coaching agenda.

2.2   CREATIVITY

This chapter first introduces the definition of creativity and the main findings regarding creativity at work. The aim of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the creativity literature rather than to lead a profound critical discussion about the different concepts.

Notably, the topic *creativity at work* is quite broad and complex in literature. Coaching and creativity share most in the area of psychology research. Since I strive to link coaching with creativity, it is inevitable that I focus on their common components, which are psychological ones. Accordingly, the following chapter employs many complex psychological constructs, which cannot always be explained in detail here or be critically discussed in the restricted frame of this thesis. But to provide an overview of these constructs with their interactions is necessary, in order to provide an idea of the theoretical and practical background of my theoretical framework and future research. Most constructs and terms are further explained in the continuous text. In special cases the footnotes provided refer to further detail.

2.2.1   Creativity at work

Creativity is widely accepted as the precursor to the innovation of products or processes. According to some researchers creativity still lacks a sufficient definition (Anderson et al., 2014). Further, it is often not clear whether creativity refers to a product, person or process, how scarce creativity is and whether creativity is qualitative or quantitative (Mayer, 2009) and there is a lack of empirical data (Mayer, 2009; Sternberg & Lubart, 2009).

Nevertheless most researchers agree on the definition of creativity as the production of novel and useful ideas (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996; Anderson et al., 2014; George, 2007; Hennessey & Amabile, 2010; Mayer, 2009; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Yet, the generation of new ideas is considered to be a different domain than the evaluation of the usefulness of that idea (Anderson et al., 2014; Grant & Berry, 2011). Both domains are also considered to be facilitated by different factors (Miron-Spektor & Beenen, 2015). In this thesis I examine creativity as a construct as defined by Anderson et al. (2014), who proposed the following definition: Creativity is

> *[. . .] the process, outcome, and products of attempts to develop and introduce new and improved ways of doing things. The creativity stage [. . .] refers to idea generation [. . .] toward better procedures, practices, or products. Creativity [. . .] can*

occur at the level of the individual, work team, organization, or at more than one of these levels combined but will invariably result in identifiable benefits at one or more of these levels of analysis. (p. 1298)

In order to understand creativity at work and how it can be facilitated, many researchers refer to the *componential theory of creativity* based on the work by Amabile (1998). Her theory suggests that creativity within organizations can be described as a creative process which is determined by three intra-individual domains. The first domain – called *expertise* – comprises the knowledge relevant to creativity and means the individuals' technical, procedural and intellectual understanding regarding the area where creativity should occur (Amabile, 1998; Sternberg, 2006). It means a person needs to understand his or her work field in order to be able to recognize and understand the problem at hand. Further, expertise is needed to evaluate the usefulness of an idea relative to the context. The second domain, called *creative thinking skills,* encompasses personality traits (George & Zhou, 2001), cognitive ways of thinking (i.e. thinking styles) (Sternberg, 2006) and mental states (e.g., the confidence in being creative) (Kelley & Kelley, 2012). It describes foremost the mental approach someone uses to find a creative solution. Finally, the third domain called *motivation* determines how individuals actually will behave, or whether they will engage in the creative process or not (Amabile, 1998).

According to Amabile (1998) creativity is at its highest when all three domains converge, but not every domain is even easy to manipulate. Notwithstanding Nickerson (2009) criticizes whether and how the creativity of individual employees may be enhanced is inherently speculative, and the empirical evidence on this question is not definite. Amabile and Mueller (2008) state, expertise and creative thinking skills are most difficult to influence since it is very time consuming. Accordingly, in order to enhance creativity at work, Amabile suggests focussing on the third domain, namely motivation (Amabile, 1998; Amabile & Mueller, 2008).

The work environment – such as leadership behaviour (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Rank et al., 2009; Rego, Sousa, & Marques, 2012), job complexity and time pressure (Anderson et al., 2014) – influence intrapersonal factors (e.g., motivation) and thus creativity (Amabile & Mueller, 2008), too. However, coaching has its focus on facilitating individuals or groups *within* an environment and to "*help them attain self-congruent goals or conscious*

self-change" (Segers et al., 2011, p. 204). Consequently, this work focuses only on intrapersonal malleable factors.

2.2.2   Intrapersonal factors as facilitators for creativity at work (IFC)

The detailed review of the creativity and innovation literature by Anderson et al. (2014), which includes 165 empirical articles from the year 2002 up to 2013, reveals several intrapersonal factors related to creativity: foremost personality traits, goal orientations, values, thinking styles, self-concepts and identity, as well as psychological states and motivational factors.

Only a few of these intrapersonal factors could be respected in this thesis. Some factors are already known to be malleable through coaching (e.g., self-concept like self-efficacy) (Evers et al., 2006), while others can be considered as stable factors, and thus not malleable through coaching. For this reason this thesis excludes personality traits, values and thinking styles. Personality traits will not be respected because personality related concepts are considered as fixed by age 30 (McCrae & Costa, 1994) and globally seen more than 75% of coaching clients are older than 35 years in the business context (ICF, 2012a). Next, the survey of the literature did not show clear indications whether values or thinking styles – as included in the study by Anderson et al. (2014) – are malleable, and thus beyond of this thesis either.

Having completed the preliminary survey of the literature this thesis focuses on seven intrapersonal factors. These include two mental states known to be relevant for motivation (i.e. *creative-self efficacy* and *creative role identity)*, four motivational states (i.e. *achievement goal orientation*, *regulatory focus*, *intrinsic motivation* and *mood*), and finally creativity skills, since coaching is often related to skill – but not expertise – development.

The following sub-chapters start with a definition of the respective *intrapersonal facilitator of creativity at work* (IFC), followed by a summary of the most important findings of earlier creativity research with respect to its moderating, mediating, and interactional effects. Finally, I will discuss the malleability of the IFC, which is the most important precondition for the IFC to be enhanced through coaching.

2.2.2.1 Creative self-efficacy

Creative self-efficacy (CSE) is defined as *"the belief that one has the knowledge and skills to produce creative outcomes"* (Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009, p. 766). It is based on skills, a person's knowledge, and past experiences. This concept originates in the *self-efficacy theory*, which indicates that a person's self-perception about their abilities within a specific domain predicts the person's performance within that domain (Bandura, 1986). Several studies proved CSE to facilitate creative performance (Anderson et al., 2014; Mittal, Dhar, Adcroft, & Adcroft, 2015; Tierney & Farmer, 2011).

CSE has several prerequisite factors and has been found to correlate with many other factors. For instance, Tierney and Farmer (2002) found employee's view of his or her capacity to conduct the overall job (*job self-efficacy)* related to CSE beliefs. Jaussi, Randel, and Dionne (2007) predicted that *creative personal identity*, described as *"the overall importance a person places on creativity in general as part of his or her self-definition"* (Jaussi et al., 2007, p. 248), would mediate or moderate the correlation between CSE and creativity at work*;* but that effect could not be confirmed.

CSE shows several mediating and moderating effects with *learning orientation* – the *"concern for, and dedication to, developing one's competence"* (Gong et al., 2009, p. 765). For example, Gong et al. (2009) found CSE mediating the relationship between learning orientation and employee creativity. Fan, Meng, Billings, Litchfield, and Kaplan (2008) did research on general self-efficacy. They stressed the need to distinguish between state- and trait-like self-esteem*. State-like* self-esteem refers to the self-efficacy dependent on a specific situation, while *trait-like* self-esteem refers to a *"belief in one's ability to perform effectively in a wide variety of achievement situations"* (Fan et al., 2008, p. 357). Fan et al. (2008) confirmed that *state-like* self-esteem mediates the effects of *goal orientation* on creativity, while *trait-like* self-esteem moderates that effect. Additionally, the classroom experiment conducted by Beghetto (2006) showed *mastery approach* and *performance approach beliefs* were positively correlated with CSE. The constructs described in this paragraph that are related to achievement goal orientations (e.g., mastery approach and performance approach) are defined and explained more deeply later on (in chapter 2.2.2.3).

Rego et al. (2012) regard general self-esteem as part of the construct psychological capital, a construct which encompasses self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience, and accordingly

conclude that it plays a mediating and moderating role between leadership styles and employee creativity, which could also be confirmed by other researchers (e.g., Gong et al., 2009; Mittal et al., 2015; Tierney & Farmer, 2002; Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014).

For the purpose of this study it is important to understand how CSE can be enhanced. Gist and Mitchell (1992) stress in their theoretical analysis the malleability of general self-efficacy (GSE), and Tams (2008) describes *general self-efficacy* as a constructive process. Further, *self-efficacy theory* indicates that the sources of *general self-efficacy* are fourfold: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states (Anstiss & Passmore, 2013; Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Adams, 1977). Bandura (1977) states that the expectations of the one's own efficacy mediates one's behaviour, and determines how much effort will be expended in case of any obstacles, while expectations of the outcome also determines the result (Bandura, 1977, p. 191). Accordingly, the general role of individual expectations is crucial for the development of self-efficacy in a specific domain, thus also for CSE.

Where it is perceived that others have high expectations of others (i.e. perceived expectations of the leader, customers, and family) are associated with an individual's own high expectation of their creativity, which in turn enhances creative work involvement – a precondition for creative performance (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007). Thus, any behaviour of colleagues, family or customers which implies a higher expectation regarding the creativity of the individual might enhance creative outcome through an enhanced CSE. In other words, strengthening the efficacy expectations in the creative domain can enhance CSE, which will lead to a better creative performance. But some factors with a negative effect on CSE were found as well. For example, Tierney and Farmer (2011) found that the requirement for creativity decreased the sense of efficaciousness for creative work.

To summarise, CSE has been shown to positively affect creative performance. Several factors correlated with CSE, such as context, mental states and motivation. CSE can be enhanced through positive perceived expectations regarding one's own efficacy (Tierney & Farmer, 2011), including past performance accomplishments and verbal persuasion. Other IFCs were found to strengthen CSE as well, namely a high *creative role identity* and *learning goal orientation*. These factors are partly related to constructive feedback from colleagues, supervisors, friends and relatives. CSE is a widely discussed IFC, and to some extent self-

efficacy has been shown to be related to the other six IFC-factors. Together, this makes CSE the most important factor in this research.

The main question now: can CSE become manipulated through coaching? Self-esteem is in the top three of main areas of coaching (ICF, 2012a). Even though self-esteem slightly differs from self-efficacy; they overlap and are partly interdependent upon each other. More important, there is already evidence that self-efficacy is malleable through coaching (Evers et al., 2006), and other interventions (Mathisen & Bronnick, 2009). An experimental study with a one-year executive coaching intervention showed that the intervention had a significant positive effect on self-esteem regarding important leadership tasks (Moen & Allgood, 2009). Moen and Allgood (2009) refer to Whitmore 2002 and stress self-discovery and self-consciousness as keys for efficacy beliefs. They include in their model the four sources of self-efficacy as described by Bandura (1977), namely mastery experience, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences and physiological arousal. Though, I assume when coaching can contribute to a development of self-efficacy beliefs in a specific domain – or its antecedents –, it can enhance CSE as well.

2.2.2.2 Creative role identity

Most researchers outline identity as related to the self-concept and tied to specific social context (Tierney, 2015). Every individual has several types of identity (i.e. personal, relational, collective and role identity) (Tierney, 2015). One's inherent self-concept varies between situations and is regarded as a dynamic mental structure (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010), which reflects, mediates and regulates behaviour (Markus & Wurf, 1987). More specifically for present purposes, *creative role identity* (CRI) is the "*identification with the role of being creative at work and seeing such activity as a central component of who one is*" (Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-Mcintyre, 2003, p. 279).

Creative role identity has numerous moderating and mediating effects with other factors related to creativity. To start with, researchers found CRI related to *creative self-efficacy*. For example, Farmer et al. (2003) stress self-identification with any domain affects a sense of self-efficacy within that domain. Similarly, Tierney and Farmer (2011) found CRI positively correlated with employees' sense of capacity for creative work. According to Tierney and Farmer, a person with a higher CRI is more engaged in the creative task and, as a consequence, will experience more creative success and gain a higher *creative self-efficacy*

over time. This in turn leads to higher creative outcome. In other words, CRI is at least as important for creativity as *creative self-efficacy*, and may even be more so.

Since identity depend upon the social context in which the individual engages, it seems obvious that the context might affect CRI. Petkus (1996) emphasizes the role of the expectations of others on the shape of CRI. Other researchers suggest the crucial role of feedback from the social environment for the development of CRI (Riley & Burke, 1995; Tierney, 2015). Similarly, Farmer et al. (2003) found how an individual perceived co-worker expectations of creative behaviour to be significantly positively related to CRI. They also showed some interaction effects for employees with a high CRI: supervisory creativity ratings were above average only in cases where an organization was perceived as valuing creativity (Farmer et al., 2003). Nevertheless, practitioners need be cautious and sensible about the side effects of a high CRI. For example, in certain contexts, CRI may also lead to conflicts with co-workers (Janssen, 2003) and thus, decrease creativity (Song, Yu, Zhang, & Jiang, 2015).

To summarise, a high CRI is merely associated with high employee creativity. Since CRI can be seen as a flexible and context dependant self-concept (Markus & Wurf, 1987), it is reasonable to assume CRI is malleable through a change in self-concept and where the employee perceives that others have high expectations of creativity (Farmer et al., 2003). As long as an individual develops positive attitude with his or her new role, an individual is likely to adapt and identify with that role (Petkus, 1996). These processes might happen through active self-reflection and feedback.

Coaching interventions can help to reflect on one's own identity and one's own role. Also coaching often works on the self-concept or perception of the environment. Thus, it is reasonable to assume CRI is malleable through coaching.

2.2.2.3 Achievement goal orientations

A third intrapersonal factor related to creativity at work is *achievement goal orientation* (Anderson et al., 2014). *Goal orientations* describe the motivation of an individual to engage in a task and how the individual reacts to challenges. In the context of creativity, every one of the goal orientations showed a different effect upon creativity, which will be outlined later in this chapter.

The most dominant goal orientation theory with the most significant scientific impact in literature is the *achievement goal theory* (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Although the related constructs have been researched for almost four decades, researchers do not yet agree on the most appropriate terminology (Elliot, 2005). Elliot and McGregor (2001) advocate a 2x2 framework of goal orientations (i.e. self- or other-referenced orientation with each a positive or negative incentive), while most researchers focus on a trichotomic model consisting of *learning goal orientation[5], performance goal orientation[6]*, and *performance avoidance orientation* (Elliot, 1999). Like many of my colleagues, I will focus on the trichotomy framework and define the three goal orientations as follows.

Learning goal orientation is the "*concern for, and dedication to, developing one's competence*" (Gong et al., 2009, p. 765). It refers to a positive, self-referenced achievement goal motivation (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). In such a way oriented individuals seek to increase their competence within a specific area and show a mastery-oriented response to failure, regardless of what they perceive as their ability (Elliott & Dweck, 1988): they will therefore persist with a task until they have mastered it. *Learning goal orientation* (LGO) gained most attention in the creativity at work literature. It has been found to enhance employees' creativity, more than other goal orientations (Gong et al., 2009) and thus is the preferred state of employees by managers. Researchers found several mediators shaping the LGO-creativity-relationship, namely psychological capital (Huang & Luthans, 2015), *employee information elaboration* – "*employees searching for information and perspectives from co-workers, processing this information, and considering its implications*" (H. H. Lee & Yang, 2015, p. 2), mentoring (Liu, Wang, & Wayne, 2015), *creative self-efficacy* (Gong et al., 2009) as well as prevention focus (Johnson, Shull, & Wallace, 2011). LGO predicts engagement for a task and increased the development of *creative role identity* (Song et al., 2015). Furthermore, LGO is – mediated by flexibility – related to the novelty of ideas, which is crucial for creativity (Miron-Spektor & Beenen, 2015). The meta-study by Rawsthorne and Elliot (1999) concludes, in comparison to the other goal orientations, that LGO is the best predictor for creativity.

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[5] Learning goal orientation is often called mastery orientation (Elliot & McGregor, 2001)
[6] Performance goal orientation is often referred to as prove orientation (Simmons & Ren, 2009) or approach orientation (Song et al., 2015)

Performance goal orientation (PGO) reflects also a positive achievement approach, but is an other-referenced focus where individuals are normative motivated (Elliot & McGregor, 2001) and seek to gain favourable judgements (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). In other words, they will continue with the task at hand not because they like the task and the learning itself, but are looking forward to extrinsic rewards. Individuals with an *avoidance goal orientation* strive to avoid failure; this goal orientation is classified as a negative and other-referenced approach (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). PGO was found to stimulate the evaluation of the usefulness of ideas (Miron-Spektor & Beenen, 2015). Johnson et al. (2011) showed that the effects of PGO on task performance are mediated by a promotion focus (see *regulation focus* in the next chapter). PGO was found to impact the commitment to a task (Moss & Ritossa, 2007). Feedback is relevant especially for PGO oriented individuals (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999).

Avoidance goal orientation (AGO) showed conflicting results regarding its effects on creativity. Some researchers found AGO negatively correlated with employee creativity (e.g., (Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009). Other scholars found AGO motivated individuals to be as creative as *learning goal orientation* motivated individuals. For instance, Song et al. (2015) found both AGO and *learning goal orientation* to be positively correlated with employee creativity; this correlation was both direct and mediated by CRI. However, individuals needed to invest extra effort and felt more depleted after creative tasks (Roskes, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2012).

Research has shown several indicators regarding the malleability of goal orientations. According to Elliot (1999) these include general relationally-based variables (e.g., fear of rejection) and environmental variables (e.g., norm-based evaluation), which function as antecedents for goal orientations. *Learning goal orientation* can be facilitated by self-esteem (Elliot, 1999), self-efficacy (Tierney & Farmer, 2011), and competence expectancies (Elliot & Church, 1997). Next, Pintrich (2000, p. 96) states goal orientations show contextual sensitivity (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007), and Elliot (2005) stresses *goal orientation* as domain specific. Sijbom, Janssen, and Van Yperen (2014) managed to manipulate the *goal orientation* of leaders in their two experimental studies. The findings of Kaplan and Maehr (2007) are in line with their results: goal orientations emerge from *situation schemas*, *self-schemas, self-prime* and *situated meaning-making* process*.* Schemas refer to both "*representations of knowledge and information-processing mechanisms. As representations,*

they entail images of objects and the relations among them. [. . .] It can refer to [. . .] complex social phenomena (group stereotypes or social roles)" (DiMaggio, 1997, p. 269)*.* Self-prime can be considered as the differential awareness of self, while situated meaning-making process can be seen as a constructivist approach on how individuals interpret a given situation. Accordingly, GOs can be considered as malleable states and it is reasonable to assume *goal orientation* malleable through cognitive processes.

In sum, *learning goal orientation* is the best predictor for creativity at work (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999). Further, research indicates that GOs are malleable. This assumption is consistent with Dweck's original *goal orientation theory* (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Thus, goal orientations are not considered as stable traits, but develop with time, change with personal experiences and emerge from different cognitive processes. Creativity requires cognitive control and executive functioning, which costs *avoidance goal orientation* motivated people more energy than *learning goal orientation* motivated employees. *goal orientation* might be sensible to coaching interventions which are targeting these factors. For example, coaching could support individuals to become more aware of their creative abilities, cognitive capacities, and support their creative self-esteem, which in turn could lead to a stronger *learning goal orientation* and thus, enhance creativity a work.

2.2.2.4 Regulatory focus

Regulatory focus (RF) describes the individuals' engagement strategy in order to reach personal goals (Wallace & Chen, 2006). Thus, RF is a specific form of self-regulation (Sansone, Thoman, & Smith, 2010) and describes the mechanism through which an individual strives for a self-chosen goal (Johnson et al., 2011). It determines whether a person will quit or persist with a specific task (Sansone et al., 2010). According to Higgins (2005), the personal values, expectations and motives determine how someone behaves in the view of obstacles. In other words, people will put more effort into a creative goal and will develop self-regulation strategies in order reach their goals, as long as the tasks meet their personal values and motives (e.g., achievement goals).

Regulatory focus theory distinguishes between two self-regulatory orientations: *promotion* and *prevention* focus (Higgins, 1997). According to Baas, De Dreu, and Nijstad (2008), promotion focus is concerned with positive outcomes without considering potential losses. In contrast, prevention focus is rooted in a need for security and is susceptible to the

presence or absence of negative outcomes, resulting in avoidance mechanisms (Baas et al., 2008). The regulatory focus can partly explain how individuals feel about and cope with failure and success (Higgins et al., 2001; Scholer & Higgins, 2010).

Promotion focus orientation has several positive effects on creativity. First of all, as shown in the study by Lam and Chiu (2002), promotion focus oriented individuals come up with more ideas than prevention focus oriented participants. One explanation given by the authors is that promotion focused people search for more promising strategies than prevention focus oriented individuals (Lam & Chiu, 2002). Besides, a promotion focus was found to be positively related to the tendency to strive for success of the group (*cooperative mind-set*) (Bittner & Heidemeier, 2013), thus *"encourages them to consider others' perspectives"* (*prosocial motivation*) (Grant & Berry, 2011, p. 74). The latter in turn leads to ideas considered useful by others. Next, a promotion focus fits a cognitive information process with focus on the whole rather than the detail of information (Förster & Higgins, 2005). This leads to more novel responses by an improved memory search (Herman & Reiter-Palmon, 2011, p. 15). Moreover, a promotion focused individual is less afraid to come up with ideas that have a higher degree of novelty through *'risky' explorative processing* (Friedman & Förster, 2001), while prevention focused individuals prefer security and repetition, and evaluate new ideas more carefully (Friedman & Förster, 2001). Accordingly, a promotion focus leads to more creative thoughts (i.e. creative insight and creative idea generation) than a prevention focus.

According to Förster and Higgins (2005) does prevention focus lead to lower global connections made during the creative process. Additionally, it was mediated by a risk averse, perseverant processing style (Friedman & Förster, 2001), resulting in less creativity than that associated with a promotion focus. Therefore, a prevention focus seems to have no, or even a negative, effect on creativity compared to a promotion focus.

In spite of this, literature also revealed positive effects of a prevention focus on creativity. For example, a prevention focus was related to the tendency to outperform group members as individual (*competitive mind-set*) (Bittner & Heidemeier, 2013) were not affected by creative exemplar products (Rook & van Knippenberg, 2011). In other words, their findings suggest – contrary to the findings by Friedman and Förster (2001) – that prevention focus oriented individuals are more motivated to develop their own high quality ideas rather than

copy anyone else examples, leading to more novel solutions. Baas, De Dreu, and Nijstad (2011) found prevention focused individuals even more creative than promotion focused individuals, but only in the case of unfulfilled prevention goals or fear. According to them, an unfulfilled need activates the assertiveness of the individual resulting in engagement with the creative change of the situation or a product. Furthermore, Herman and Reiter-Palmon (2011) suggest that prevention focus is more beneficial for the evaluation of the usefulness of ideas, since the loss-avoiding character of prevention focused individuals will avoid errors in the development process. Note, this is contrary to the findings of Grant and Berry (2011) who suggest that promotion focus would lead to more useful ideas based on pro-social motivations.

Various factors determine the particular RF orientation. The regulatory focus depends for example on cognitive processes, as the personal ideal conception and experience of an obligation (Higgins, 1997; Zabelina, Felps, & Blanton, 2013). It is related to an individual's need, which might differ on whether the situation is experienced as a gain or loss situation (Higgins, 1997). This means, the subliminal perception and interpretation of a situation is inevitable for the development of a RF orientation and can vary between task type (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011). Furthermore, a promotion focus correlated more strongly with increased expectations, while a prevention focus correlated more strongly to decreased expectations (Förster, Grant, Idson, & Higgins, 2001); this is in turn is related to the *creative self-efficacy.* Another intrapersonal factor found to be related to RF is mood; positive, activating mood states (e.g., happiness) are associated with a promotion focus, while negative, deactivating moods (e.g., fear) are associated with a prevention focus (Baas et al., 2008).

In sum, the majority of research suggests that promotion focussed employees are more creative, especially regarding the amount (Lam & Chiu, 2002) and novelty of ideas. But there is some evidence that – dependent upon the context – prevention focused employees contribute to creativity as well; for example to the usefulness of ideas (Herman & Reiter-Palmon, 2011). Both components are necessary for creativity. In addition, it seems that an individual can switch between both foci (Scholer & Higgins, 2010).

In the context of this thesis, it is relevant how coaching can support individuals with their RF strategy. As outlined earlier, RF is as specific form of self-regulation. In turn, self-regulation is defined as "*processes by which people control their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. When*

people succeed at self-regulation, they effectively manage their perceptions of themselves and their social surroundings" (Hoyle, 2006, p. 1507). Further, *"self-regulation consists of a set of skills that can be learned and improved with practice while recognizing that there are individual differences in the capacity for mastering these skills"* (Maddux & Volkmann, 2010, p. 321). Hence, RF partly depends on regulation skills that are malleable, and coaching might support the client in developing the needed skills. Further, skills partly depend on self-esteem. According to Grant (2003), *cognitive behavioural coaching* is most effective for a change in self-regulation. Therefore, I assume RF is malleable through coaching interventions.

2.2.2.5 Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation (IM) can be considered as an autonomous state (Tierney, 2015) wherein the individual experiences a kind of joyful flow during the performance of an intrinsically motivated task. For this thesis, the definition by Hennessey and Amabile (2010) is most suitable and will be applied here: *intrinsic motivation* is "*the drive to engage in a task because it is interesting, enjoyable, or positively challenging*" (p. 475).

IM has been widely proven to have a significant positive impact on creativity (e.g., Grant & Berry, 2011; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999; Yuan & Woodman, 2010) and *creative process engagement* (i.e. problem identification, information searching and idea generation) (Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

(Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Therefore it is probable that researchers acknowledge IM as a core part of their creativity theory (Collins & Amabile, 2009).

Several factors impact IM. First of all, IM has been found to flourish in a positive stimulating environment (e.g., Amabile et al., 1996; Castiglione, 2008; De Treville, Antonakis, & Edelson, 2005; Eisenberger & Aselage, 2009; Hon, 2012; McMahon & Ford, 2013; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) including empowering leadership styles (Hon, 2011; Shin & Zhou, 2003) , positive social relationship and support provided by co-workers (Hon, 2011, 2012) and several personality traits (Dewett, 2007; Shin & Zhou, 2003). However, the deeper evaluation of external and trait-like factors will not form part of the discussion in this thesis. Further information regarding external and trait like factors contributing to creativity can be found, for example, in the paper by Anderson et al. (2014).

State-like individual factors are malleable and can contribute to IM as well. First, *core-self-evaluation*, the "*person's fundamental appraisal of one's self*" (Chiang, Hsu, & Hung, 2014, p. 1406), partly indicates how an individual responds to environmental events (Zhang, Kwan, Zhang, & Wu, 2014). It has been found to be significantly positively correlated with IM (Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012; Chiang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). Even if the environment has some undesirable negative effects on motivation, there are indicators that a high core-self-evaluation can attenuate these negative effects (Zhang et al., 2014), which makes high core-self-evaluation a valuable construct for enhancing IM, hence creativity at work.

Other individual factors positively related to IM are individual *expertise* (i.e. domain relevant skills, memory for factual knowledge and special talents in the target work domain) (Dayan, Zacca, & Di Benedetto, 2013), *creative role identity* (Tierney, 2015), and an individual's personal ideas about the meaning of their work (De Treville et al., 2005; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Additionally, *goal orientation* and *regulatory focus* are related to IM. This is not surprising, as IM shares some attributes with both *learning goal orientation* as well as promotion focus. Rawsthorne and Elliot (1999) found that IM had interactive effects: according to them, *performance goal orientation* produced an undermining effect on IM only in case of positive, competence-confirming feedback.

As a conclusion, intrinsic motivation is crucial for creativity at work and highly interrelated with other IFCs discussed in this thesis, namely *creative self-efficacy* – as part of the concept core-self-evaluation –, *creative role identity, goal orientation* and *regulatory focus.* The question here is whether coaching can enhance IM. Amabile (1996) states that next to the influences of social and environmental conditions, IM can be enhanced through cognitive interventions. How coaching interventions are appropriate for enhancing IM will be evaluated in chapter three.

2.2.2.6 Mood and affect

Research suggests that mood and affect also relate to creativity. Affect is defined as the "*umbrella term encompassing a broad range of feelings that individuals experience, including feeling states, such as moods and discrete emotions*" (Barsade & Gibson, 2007, p. 38). Mood differs from affect and is a more diffuse positive or negative feeling that is not based on a specific cause; it can continue up to a few weeks or more. Affective moments can change

mood, and affect holds also for the level between persons and the intrapersonal affective level (Ashkanasy, 2003). Mood and affect share some attributes and can only be researched in isolation with difficulty: this is why many researchers use those concepts interchangeably (De Dreu, Baas, & Nijstad, 2012). The differentiation between mood and affect is no main focus of this study, and accordingly, in this thesis I will not differentiate between both constructs as many of my colleagues do not.

Some researchers found creative thinking could be enhanced through positive employee's affects (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005). Barsade and Gibson (2007) found that a positive affect facilitates creativity more than a negative one, since it supports the access to supplemental cognitive material within the individual (James, Brodersen, & Eisenberg, 2004). Similar results were found in the meta-analysis of mood in creativity research by Baas et al. (2008); they found that positive mood produces more creativity than neutral conditions, but negative moods do not produce less creativity than neutral moods. In addition, not only does positive affect facilitate creativity itself, it also supports the proactive behaviour of employees to overcome difficulties and reach a goal (Rank & Frese, 2010).

The *dual pathway model to creativity* by De Dreu et al. (2012) explains how negative feelings can lead to creative performance. According to them, both pathways just activate different cognitive processes. While one pathway (cognitive flexibility) leads to creativity in case of positive tone because it activates a loose, global processing style, the second pathway (cognitive persistence), leads to creativity in case of negative tone and activates a more effortful search in associated memory (De Dreu et al., 2012). Thus, both processes complement each other for the creative act. In other words, negative but activating feelings as for example, feeling tense, fear, angry or frustrated, might lead to an energetic need for (creative) change, while in contrast positive feelings such as calmness or relaxation have a deactivating impact on creativity (Baas et al., 2008).

George and Zhou (2002) emphasize the role of clarity of feelings, which means to understand one's own feelings at the very moment when they occur. They found that effects of mood, clarity of feelings, and recognition rewards interact. Surprisingly, they found positive mood negatively correlated with creativity when perceived recognition rewards, as well as clarity of feelings, were high (George & Zhou, 2002). Negative mood was positively related to creativity when the employee showed a high clarity in feelings within a high

recognition rewarding environment (George & Zhou, 2002). Altogether, creative action seems not to depend on mood states, but on the underlying mental activation (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2010; To, Fisher, Ashkanasy, & Rowe, 2012) and clarity of feelings, then negative mood can function as impetus for change.

Together, research suggests that not only making employees satisfied will increase the number of creative employees, but also that this number can be increased by embracing both mood states to get the creative energy out of positive as well as negative moods (George & Zhou, 2007). However, it is a necessary pre-condition that an employee learns to deal with both emotional states effectively.

Coaching might support employees to recognize their own mood, and to learn how to deal with both mental states in a constructive way. For example, coaching might lead to a higher clarity of feelings (George & Zhou, 2002). Further, coaching itself might function as recognition reward, which in turn enhances creative efforts. Whether coaching can contribute to become more aware of own feelings and how to deal appropriately with them will be evaluated in chapter three.

2.2.2.7 Creativity skills

The employee needs creativity relevant skills in order to generate a creative response (Amabile, 1996; Amabile & Mueller, 2008). Those skills are based on creativity-relevant processes, which are partly determined by personality[7] and partly by how a person thinks and works (Amabile, 1998). Creative skills encompass the creative thinking ability (e.g., flexibility, originality and/or elaboration), creativity thinking strategies, and knowledge of techniques to produce creative ideas (Amabile & Mueller, 2008).

Several tools are known to support the idea generation process (e.g., brainstorming, synectics and creative problem solving), which lead to more ideas and a higher quality of

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[7] Most important characteristics for creativity are the traits openness to experience and conscientiousness. Openness to experience is – next to conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism and agreeableness-, one construct of the Big-Five personality model and describes "*the extent to which individuals are imaginative, sensitive to aesthetics, curious, independent thinkers, and amenable to new ideas, experiences, and unconventional perspectives; it distinguishes between those amenable to variety, novelty, and depth of experience and those who prefer the conventional, routine, and familiar*" (George & Zhou, 2001, p. 514). The personality trait conscientiousness refers to the "*individual differences in impulse control, conformity, organization, and determination [. . .]. Individuals who are high on conscientiousness have a strong sense of purpose and will; are dependable, reliable, and self-controlled; work hard to achieve their goals; obey rules and conform to norms; desire to achieve; and are responsible and scrupulous*" (George & Zhou, 2001, p. 515)

new ideas (Amabile, 1996; Nickerson, 2009). The quantitative meta-study by Scott, Leritz, and Mumford (2004) suggests that it is possible to teach the efficient use of those tools. They found that creativity training with a focus on divergent thinking – the "*spontaneous, free-flowing thinking with the goal of generating many different ideas in a short period*" (Hennessey & Amabile, 2010, p. 574) –, problem solving, and creative behaviour works for various people, not through expertise development, but through learned strategies and gaining access to unrelated knowledge (Scott et al., 2004).

Coaching might be able to support creative skills. First, recent coaching literature mostly focused on skill building, performance and development. Theeboom, Beersma, and van Vianen (2014) conducted a meta-study on performance and skill building through coaching. They included both subjective and objective outcome measures and proved that coaching is effective for skill building (Theeboom et al., 2014). Whether coaching can contribute to the development of creative skills as well will be evaluated in chapter three.

2.3   INTERIM SUMMARY

Several individual factors facilitate creativity at work. First of all, *creative self-efficacy* and *creative role identity* contribute to creativity through an enhanced persistence and engagement for creative tasks. Second, while GOs describe the goals of an individual – thus try to explain why someone might engage in a creative task –, do *regulatory focus* describe which strategies they use to reach those goals (Johnson et al., 2011). *learning goal orientation* has been found to be most positive related to creativity. The effects of *performance goal orientation* and *avoidance goal orientation* might lead to creativity only in specific circumstances. Third, *intrinsic motivation* has been researched quite well regarding its positive effects on creative outcome. Most researchers explain its effects by an enhanced persistence, engagement and experienced fun regarding a creative challenge. Fourth, mood states and affect function foremost through a mental activation regarding the creative task (De Dreu et al., 2012). And finally, creative skills are needed in order work productively and effectively for a creative goal.

All mentioned *intrapersonal facilitators for creativity* are more or less interrelated. How they interrelate is visualized in figure 1. To explain, *creative self-efficacy* and *creative role identity* partly overlap and influence one other. *Creative self-efficacy* strengthens the *creative role*

identity through a higher creative self-expectation (line 1), and a high *creative role identity* enhances the *creative self-efficacy* due to high *creative self-efficacy* expectations in general (e.g., from colleagues) (line 2). Both concepts at least strengthen *learning goal orientation* based on an enhanced awareness (line 3). *creative self-efficacy* and *creative role identity* also enhance *intrinsic motivation* through an enhanced core-self-evaluation (Zhang et al., 2014) as well as enhanced the feeling of personal impact (line 4). *Intrinsic motivation* and creativity skills facilitate each other (line 5). While *intrinsic motivation* leads to a higher persistence in order to learn several creative skills, creative skills enhance *intrinsic motivation* through a higher expertise. Further, *avoidance goal orientation* showed to undermine the *intrinsic motivation*, while *learning goal orientation* lead to enhanced *intrinsic motivation* (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999). And finally, creativity skills lead to a higher perceived creative efficacy and thus, a higher *creative self-efficacy* (line 7).

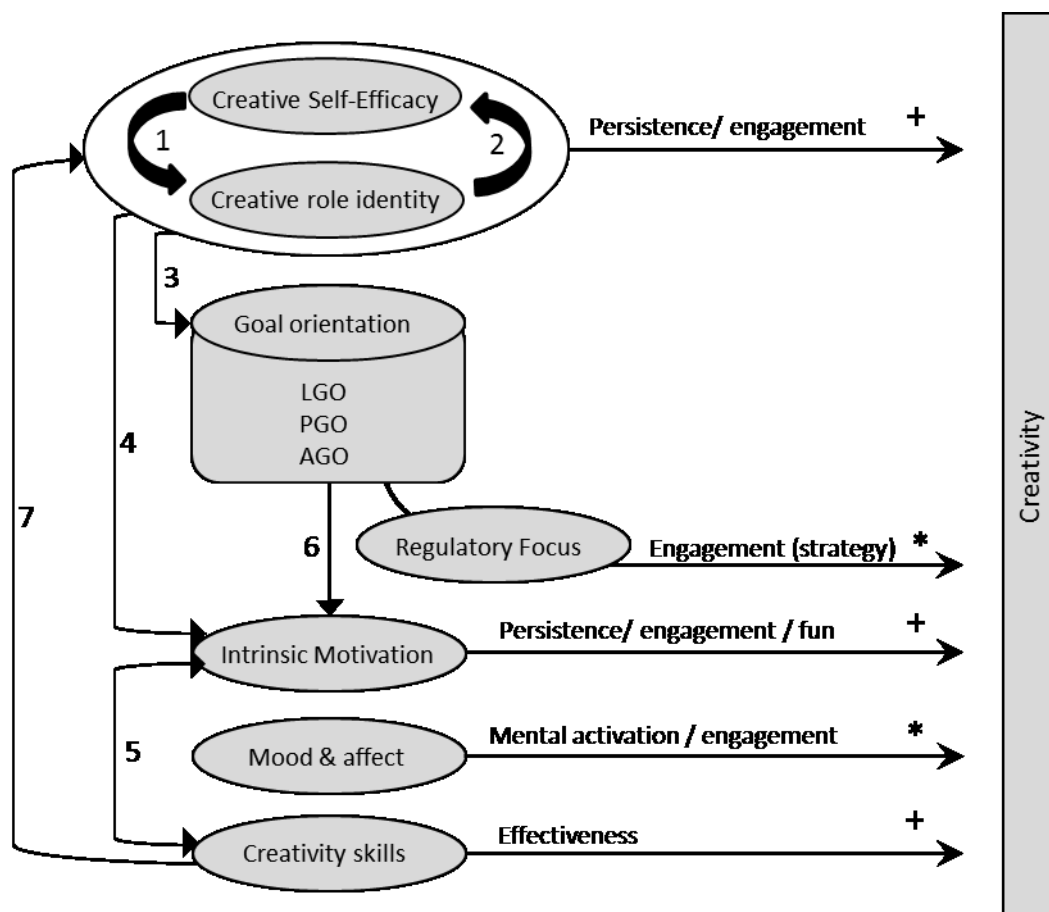*Figure 1.* Interrelations of IFCs and their effects on creativity
+ foremost positive impact on creative outcome
* partly interaction relation and dependent from the context
Note: Other interrelations are possible and partly described above. In order to keep the lucidity high in this thesis, only some links are visualized here. The interrelations (line 1 to 7) are explained in the running text.

Derived from the findings above, some exemplary pre-assumptions can be made on how coaching can affect creativity at work. First of all, coaching has shown to be an effective intervention on the development of a higher self-esteem (Evers et al., 2006; Moen & Federici, 2012). *Creative self-efficacy* can be gained through experience and skills (Gong et al., 2009). Accordingly, interventions for the development of general self-efficacy, for example the positive psychology approach to coaching (Kauffman et al., 2010), only designed for the development of *creative self-efficacy*, might be successful as well. For example, a coach might support the individual by focusing on past successful experiences or non-work-related moments of personal creative success, and thus enhancing *creative self-efficacy*. This in turn would enhance the *creative role identity* (Farmer et al., 2003), since *creative role identity* is based on a created self-concept (Dutton et al., 2010) as well as enhanced self-esteem . Next, *intrinsic motivation* occurs when the individual experiences a high self-concordance with the task (Hon, 2011). Thus, at first a coach might help the client to figure out their personal skills, interests and goals in order to develop a base for a better person-environment-fit. Second, the coach might be able to enhance the core-self-evaluation, which is also positively correlated with *intrinsic motivation*.

Self-awareness and self-esteem are often part of the usual coaching agenda, which might impact goal orientation, since they are sensible for self-esteem (Elliot, 1999) as well as for self-expectations (Elliot & Church, 1997). Grant (2003) has shown that self-regulation is malleable through *cognitive-behavioural coaching*, accordingly *cognitive behavioural approach to coaching* would be interesting for the development of a more effective *regulatory focus* strategy. Positive as well as negative mood can facilitate creativity (De Dreu et al., 2012). Clarity of feelings is here crucial (George & Zhou, 2002). During the coaching-period the coach might help the client to become more aware of their emotions and support the client in making use of them in a creativity productive way. And lastly, a coach can teach creativity tools for strategic work and accompany a client through the application of those tools until their mastery. This could lead to higher quantity of ideas and better evaluation of the usefulness of ideas.

3   COACHING FOR CREATIVITY: DEVELOPMENT OF PROPOSITIONS

Having provided an overview of coaching and the creativity literature in the previous chapters, I will now combine the two research areas and develop the coaching for creativity framework. For this purpose I apply a systematic literature reviews. In doing so, I follow the steps for doing research literature review as described by Frank and Hatak (2014). Additionally, I will partly substantiate my research with the suggestions of Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart (2003), who propose a more systematical method informed by evidence for the body of research on management.

In the following, the method and restrictions will be described with the databases, search terms and screening criteria that I will use. Following this, I will synthesise the findings for every individual IFC, based on the application of the screening criteria. Finally, the business coaching for creativity at work framework will be discussed.

3.1   METHOD DESCRIPTION – SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

This research focussed on business coaching literature (which excludes clinical or sports settings) with no restriction to country-specific differences. Further, since every industry seems to make equal use of coaching (Stephan & Gross, 2013), I did not differentiate between industries. I presumed that coaching will affect the mental processes of executives the same way that it will affect the usual employee. This premise is important to mention, since the business coaching literature almost exclusively focusses on executive coaching and neglects coaching for the employee in non-management functions.

3.1.1   Databases and search terms

First, for the identification of relevant research (Tranfield et al., 2003) two databases were used, namely *Scopus* (Elsevier, 2015) and *Web of Science* (Reuters, 2015). Scopus database is covering the published literature from 1996, and records pre-1996 which go back as far as 1823. Web of Science is covering records from 1900 to present.

Based on the literature outlined in chapter 2, I developed a search term cluster for every IFC composed of factorial terms that which have been shown to be at least potential prerequisites for the relative IFC (for detailed overview of included key-terms see appendix

7.2). During the research, every key term was used in combination with the term *coaching*. Together these terms were searched in *Topic* in the Web of Science (WoS), and in *Title, Abstract and Keywords* in Scopus. The literature research took place in August and September 2015, accordingly includes only articles published until and including September 2015.

In order to test my research method, and to evaluate the most efficient and feasible method, I conducted a pre-test with one cluster-term. This pre-test was based on the term *self-esteem* in combination with *coaching*. Here, 56 hits were found on Scopus and 138 in the WoS. I scanned all available articles in all research areas. Most of the articles did not deal with business coaching, but for example with sports coaching or child care, or were conducted in clinical settings. Out of all articles only 4 different articles met my criteria. All of them were represented in the research area of *Business Management and Accounting* in Scopus or the area of *Business & Economics* in the WoS. Accordingly, it seemed appropriate to restrict my literature research to these business related areas only; first in order to make this research viable in the restricted time available, and second to enhance the internal consistency and reliability, and external validity (Dooley, 2001) of my study.

3.1.2   Description of the screening criteria

For the qualitative assessment of studies (Tranfield et al., 2003), several practical and methodological screening criteria are needed for the article inclusion (Frank & Hatak, 2014). Due to my own language skills, only articles written in English, German or Dutch were considered. In addition, to become respected for the proposition development, a study had to meet the following criteria: Firstly, the study needed to be an empirical paper (quantitative or qualitative research), with the ICF or term of the ICF cluster as a factor dependent upon business coaching. Secondly, as I was looking for concrete measurable changes instead of theoretical assumptions, the method (e.g., manipulation in experiments) needed to describe the participants, amount of coaching sessions, duration of sessions, setting, and coaching approaches or tools used for coaching.

3.1.3   Methodological application of screening criteria

The selection of relevant studies (Tranfield et al., 2003) took place in four rounds, considering each IFC with associated cluster term separately. In the first round, I searched

for the relevant terms on Scopus and WoS. Secondly, I refined the search results to the area of *Business Economics* in the Web of Science, and *Business, Management and Accounting* in Scopus. Thirdly, I scanned the title and abstract of the remaining articles and excluded all articles which were not related to business coaching. Following this, I transferred the key data (i.e. author, year, title and abstract) of the articles regarded as relevant into a Microsoft Excel sheet. Many articles were listed in both databases. If an article was already listed in my Excel sheet, I did not transfer it again. This list summed up all articles included for round four. However, based on round three a few articles (e.g., KimHyeonCheol & 김정식, 2012)) from Korean journals (e.g., *Korean Journal of Business Administration* and *Journal of Korean HRD Research*) were considered to be relevant, but unfortunately were not available online. Any requests to the authors via email were not answered by the same in time and thus, these articles could not be included in round four. Fourthly, I screened every remaining paper as a whole and evaluated them based on the inclusion criteria.

It is important to mention here that in terms of the research protocol and process monitoring as defined by Tranfield et al. (2003), I would be required to describe all articles excluded with each round. Because of time and space constraints this could not be done in my thesis. However, an overview of the detailed number of articles found in each round is mentioned in the individual paragraphs. An overview of these numbers is also shown in the research protocol (see appendix 7.2).

3.2   APPLICATION OF SCREENING CRITERIA AND FINDINGS

In the following subchapters the application of screening criteria and findings are described, followed by the development of coaching proposition.

Before I start, I anticipate that a summary of the articles used for proposition development is outlined in the data extraction form (see appendix 7.3). That table contains the short reference of the article, followed by a description of the participants and the intervention type, the measured constructs relevant for this thesis, key information that was provided regarding the coaching intervention, and the main findings.

3.2.1   Coaching and creative self-efficacy

The specific type of self-efficacy in a creative domain is called *creative self-efficacy* (Gong et al., 2009). The sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) and creative-self-efficacy are manifold (Tierney & Farmer, 2002, 2011): for example skills and knowledge (Gong et al., 2009), the self-concept of own capacity (Tierney & Farmer, 2002), self-esteem (Fan et al., 2008), expectations of the own efficacy (Bandura, 1977), performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, physiological states such as arousal, and verbal persuasion (Anstiss & Passmore, 2013; Bandura, 1977). I assume where business coaching can affect general self-efficacy – only with appropriate design and focus on the creative domain –, coaching can enhance *creative self-efficacy* in the same way. Accordingly and derived from the literature review earlier, the following search terms are considered as antecedents to *creative self-efficacy.* Therefore the CSE-cluster for the systematic literature review included the following terms: *creative self-efficacy, self-efficacy, self-confidence, core-self-evaluation, self-sufficiency, self-evaluation, efficacy expectations, expectations, self-esteem, extinction of anxiety, anxiety, anxiety regulation, emotional stress, arousal* and *physiological states.*

First of all, no documents could be found for the immediate link between coaching and *creative self-efficacy*: this was expected. The findings for the term *self-efficacy* were as follows: in round one, a total amount of 239 hits in Scopus and 443 hits in the WoS were found. Of these, 25 hits belonged to the subject area *Business, Management and Accounting* in Scopus, and 39 documents to the research area *Business Economics* in the WoS. After a title and abstract scan of these articles (round three), only 22 different articles remained for a detailed scan through the whole article. Finally – after round four – only 13 different articles remained and were considered for the proposition development.

The cluster term *self-confidence* together with *coaching* resulted in 31 hits in Scopus and 130 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 4 documents remained in the respective databases each (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 3 different articles were considered for round four, resulting in 1 article for proposition development.

The term *self-evaluation* resulted in 60 hits in Scopus and 44 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 7 and 6 documents remained in the

respective databases (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 1 articles were considered for round four, resulting in 1 article for proposition development.

The systematic literature review on the term *self-esteem* lead to the following results: in round one, a total amount of 57 hits in Scopus and 148 hits in the WoS were found. Of these, 7 hits belonged to the subject area *Business, Management and Accounting* in Scopus, and 10 documents to the research area *Business Economics* in the WoS. After a title and abstract scan of these articles (round three), only 5 different articles remained for a detailed scan through the whole article. Finally – after round four – only 1 article remained and was considered for the proposition development.

After round four, no article remained for the concepts *creative self-efficacy*, *core-self-evaluation*, *self-sufficiency*, *efficacy expectation*, *expectations*, *anxiety*, *emotional stress, arousal* and *physiological states*. A detailed numerical overview of articles found for each cluster-term and each round can be found in appendix 7.2. It is important to mention here that there was no difference in the amount of articles for terms written in singular or plural. This means, for example, the results for *coaching* together with *expectations* were the same as for *coaching* together with *expectation*.

Many articles did not meet the qualitative criteria and thus were excluded from further evaluation. Typical reasons for exclusion included that some articles were only theoretical papers (e.g., Dinos & Palmer, 2015; Heslin, 1999; Jaina & Tyson, 2004; London & Smither, 2002), others did not have the relevant constructs as outcome variable but predictor (e.g., Bozer, Sarros, & Santora, 2013; Wakkee, Elfring, & Monaghan, 2010), and others did not include coaching as a preceding factor or mediating variable (e.g., Grant, 2010; Joo, Jeung, & Yoon, 2010). Other papers included coaching only as a future implication recommendation (e.g., Joo, Jun Yoon, & Jeung, 2012; Morris, Messal, & Meriac, 2013) or provided no description on how the coaching process looked like regarding the sessions or coaching approach (e.g., Castelli, 2008; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Tams, 2008).

As a result of search of the whole CSE-search-term-cluster a combined amount of 16 different articles was considered reliable for proposition development on how coaching can enhance CSE. All these articles were published between 2006 and 2015. The oldest article that was also the most often cited was that by Evers et al. (2006). The results of their quasi-experimental design showed an increase in self-efficacy to set one's own goals and outcome

expectancies to act in a balanced way. The coaching was conducting according to the *GROW model*[8] by Whitmore (Evers et al., 2006). The participants were free to choose between several coaching tools like role-playing, training, brainstorming, goal formulation and planning, and disclosing their deepest motives..

The main findings of the included articles were as follows. Business Coaching had a significant effect on *general self-efficacy* (Ammentorp & Kofoed, 2010; Dobrea & Maiorescu, 2015; Evers et al., 2006; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014; MacKie, 2015; Moen & Federici, 2012) and was shown to be more effective for *general self-efficacy* than classroom seminars or action learning groups (Baron & Morin, 2010). Only the study by McDowall and Butterworth (2014) could not prove any effect of coaching on general self-efficacy. They strived to find explanations on how brief coaching interventions might work, and compared the intervention group with a non-intervention control group. They could not find any significant differences (McDowall & Butterworth, 2014). An alternate explanation for their lack of findings might be the length of coaching intervention: the interventions that they tested might have been too short, since it takes a vast amount of time to develop general self-efficacy (Grant, 2010).

Coaching was therefore shown to be more effective than other interventions, however, the frequency and period seems to be important for its superior effectiveness. This could be confirmed by Dobrea and Maiorescu (2015) as well as Baron and Morin (2010), who both found the amount of sessions positively related to the development of general self-efficacy. In addition, they showed the quality of relationship between coach and coachee to be significantly related to the effectiveness of coaching (Baron & Morin, 2009).

No scholar researched the effects of more than eight sessions. This lack of research suggests a careful interpretation of the relation between the amount of coaching sessions and its effectiveness. For example, one could think of a u-shape relation regarding the effects of amount of coaching sessions and general self-efficacy, with a climax in about eight sessions,

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[8] In this model, *"'G' stands for goal setting: the coach helps clarify and concretize the manager's goals; 'R' stands for reality: the coach helps the manager focus on setting individual goals that can be materialized; 'O' stands for options: the coach helps the manager to try and find the best possibilities to achieve his individual goals; finally, 'W' stands for will power: the coach helps the manager to actually implement the best opportunities. It means that coaching was focused on individual needs and not on prearranged general objectives."* (Evers et al., 2006, p. 176)

since employees otherwise might lose self-efficacy if they feel over-coached. The coaching frequency (daily or once a month) might also have an influence. Concededly, the general findings need to be evaluated with caution.

Given the noted association between general self-efficacy and creative self-efficacy, and the precondition that the coaching intervention which is designed for enhancing creative self-efficacy, I propose:

> P1: The more coaching sessions (designed for self-efficacy in a creative domain), in which a client participates (at least up to eight sessions) the greater the development of the client's *creative self-efficacy*. This in turn leads to a higher creativity at work.

Only two studies compared different approaches regarding effectiveness on general self-efficacy. Firstly, Grant and O'Connor (2010) compared the solution-focused approach with the problem-focused approach. They showed *solution focused approach to coaching* as more effective for the development of *general self-efficacy* than the problem-focused approach (Grant & O'Connor, 2010). However, as their participants were students, one should be careful in transferring these results to employees. Secondly, Ladegard and Gjerde (2014) found co-active coaching – also called the solution-focused, strength-and resource-centred approach –, strengthened the efficacy of the leader role (i.e. leader's inner confidence in mastery of his/her role).

> P2: The more that a coaching intervention is based on a *solution-focused approach,* that focusses on strengthening the creative strengths of the client, the greater likelihood that the client develops a higher *creative self-efficacy*. This in turn leads to a higher creativity at work.

An important factor for the development of clients' *general self-efficacy* is according to Baron, Morin, and Morin (2011) the estimation of working alliance. In other words, the coach needs to be highly reflective of his own coaching skills, and an overestimation of the one's coaching skills can lead to a less effective intervention. This importance of realistic self-awareness was also stressed by O'Broin and Palmer (2010).

> P3: The more realistic the self-awareness of a coach, and the more a coach acts with self-reflection, the more a coachee will experience an increase in *creative self-efficacy*. This in turn leads to a higher creativity at work.

Pousa and Mathieu (2015) conducted a non-experimental survey design study with 122 financial advisors as participants to test the effects of managerial coaching on employee self-efficacy and performance. They used the managerial coaching items published by Ellinger et al. (2003), which include amongst other coaching behaviours constructive feedback, roleplay and questioning. They proved the positive relationship between these coaching behaviours and an increase in followers' self-efficacy (Pousa & Mathieu, 2015). They also proved that self-efficacy mediates the effects of coaching on behavioural performance (Pousa & Mathieu, 2015).

> P4: The more a coach makes use of coaching behaviours like constructive feedback, roleplay and questioning, the more likely that a coachee will develop *creative self-efficacy*. This in turn leads to a higher creativity at work.

3.2.2   Coaching and creative role identity

The following constructs were earlier found to precede *creative role identity* and thus, were included in the CRI-search-term cluster: *creative role identity, role identity, identity, self-concept* (Dutton et al., 2010; Markus & Wurf, 1987)*, self-view, self-scheme* (Markus, 1977)*, scheme, self-perception, goal orientation* and *expectations* (Farmer et al., 2003). Note: *learning goal orientation* was also found to precede CRI, but since *learning goal orientation* will be discussed in the next subchapter in more detail, I focus here only on the other terms.

As expected, no article was found that proves a change of creative role identity through coaching. The next construct that is most related to CRI is *role identity.* In round 1, 44 documents were found on Scopus, and 95 in the WoS. After round two, 10 and 8 articles respectively were considered for round three. However, only 1 article met the criteria needed.

For the term *identity*, 131 documents were found on Scopus, and 291 in the WoS, of which 26 (Scopus) and 28 (WoS) articles were related to business areas (round 2). However, no article met the selection critera.

For the remaining constructs (e.g., *identity, self-concept, self-view* and *self-scheme*) no article met the selection criteria. The constructs *expectations* was already analysed in the sub-chapter here above, and *goal orientation* will be analysed in the sub-chapter here beneath. The detailed amount of articles related to the search terms found and excluded in each round can be found in appendix 7.2.

Typical reasons for exclusion of articles from further evaluation included that some articles were only conceptual papers (e.g., Ellerup Nielsen & Nørreklit, 2011; Steinhouse, 2011), the cluster term was no outcome variable of coaching (e.g., de Haan, Culpin, & Curd, 2011; Fogde, 2011; Härtel, Bozer, & Levin, 2009), and others did not include coaching as a preceding factor or mediating variable (e.g., Skinner, 2014).

From the whole CRI-term-cluster, a total of 2 articles were considered for proposition development. Most important here was the article by Aas and Vavik (2015). They conducted an action research with 170 participants and found that a target-oriented group-coaching process was effective for the development of leaders' context-based identity (Aas & Vavik, 2015). The main tools used were 360-degree interviews and feedback sessions and the external coach expert took a guiding role for the group-coaching sessions. Giving feedback on one's identity strengthens that specific identity (Riley & Burke, 1995), and feedback related to a creative role can strengthen the *creative role identity* (Tierney, 2015). Given the noted association between feedback and creative role identity, and the findings from the systematic literature review, I propose:

> P5: The more that a coach makes use of feedback tools (e.g., 360-degree interviews and group feedback) regarding the creative abilities of the coachee, the more likely that the coachee will develop a stronger *creative role identity*. This in turn leads to a higher creativity at work.

Cilliers and Terblanche (2010) based their research on a small group of only six nursing managers. With their qualitative research design they tested the effects of coaching on several outcomes of coaching, including role and identity. Their approach was a systems psychodynamic leadership coaching amongst ten sessions, with an interval of one session every week. Before the coaching sessions started, the nursing managers were described as anxious and experiencing a lot of stress due to identity conflicts between their private and

nursing identity. Through the coaching sessions they learned to differentiate between several roles and recognized the linked demands implicit within their different identities. As a result of this, they learned to take up their roles with more realism and better in-role performance. The systems psychodynamic coaching approach is connatural with the psychodynamic approach (Cilliers & Terblanche, 2010). Thus, the findings of Cilliers and Terblanche (2010) imply that becoming aware of the own role identities through psychodynamic coaching can lead to a better in-role experience, role identification and in-role performance. In order to feel confident within a creative role without experiencing role-conflicts is important for creative performance (Song et al., 2015). Accordingly, I propose:

P6: The more that a coaching approach is based on *psychodynamic approach to coaching* with a focus on inner role identities including CRI, the more likely it is that the client will become aware of the linked role conflicts and will learn to differentiate between several role identities. This, in turn leads to a stronger role-identity including a stronger *creative role identity*, which results in a better in-role-performance, and ultimately, a higher creativity at work.

3.2.3   Coaching and goal orientation

Based on the findings in chapter two, goal orientations are related to or have several prerequisite, malleable factors. Accordingly, the search-term-cluster of *goal orientation* contained the following terms: *goal orientation, learning orientation, performance orientation, prove orientation, mastery orientation* and *self-prime* (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). The factors that are also malleable prerequisites of goal orientations, including *self-scheme* (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007), *self-esteem, self-efficacy* (Gong et al., 2009)*,* and *expectations* (Farmer et al., 2003)*,* were already covered in the *creative self-efficacy*-search-cluster and thus, to overcome unnecessary repetitions, will not be repeated in the systematic literature review here.

They key-term *goal orientation* together with coaching resulted in 27 hits in Scopus and 175 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 6 and 8 documents remained in the respective databases (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 4 different articles were considered for round four. But no article met the selection criteria.

In round one, for the search term *performance orientation,* 39 documents were found on Scopus, and 184 in the WoS. After round two, 13 and 25 articles respectively were considered for round three. However, only 4 different articles remained in round three, and no article met the criteria needed (round four).

They key-term *learning orientation* together with coaching resulted in 43 hits in Scopus and 82 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 7 and 9 documents remained in the respective databases (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 4 different articles were considered for round four. All these articles were the same as for the key terms *goal orientation* and *performance orientation*. But as mentioned before, no article met the selection criteria.

For the terms *prove orientation, mastery orientation* and *self-prime* no article met the selection criteria either. Further numerical details on the amount of articles excluded for each of these cluster terms can be found in the research protocol, chapter 7.2.

Based on the systematic literature review criteria no article could be found which showed a direct effect of coaching interventions on the change in GO. Typical reasons for exclusion of articles included that some were only theoretical papers (e.g., Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Dinos & Palmer, 2015; Heslin, 1999; Stoltz & Young, 2013) or scale development (Grant et al., 2012), others did not have the relevant constructs as outcome variable (e.g., Bozer et al., 2013; Wakkee et al., 2010) but as preceding factor (Scriffignano, 2011), and one article was not available online (Biswas-Diener, 2010). Other papers included coaching only as a future implication recommendation (Morris et al., 2013) or provided no description on how the coaching process looked like regarding the sessions or coaching approach (Castelli, 2008; Tams, 2008).

Consequently, my systematic literature review could neither confirm nor disprove any assumptions regarding the effects of coaching on GOs, only mediated by *creative self-efficacy*, which was already covered in chapter 3.2.1.

3.2.4   Coaching and regulatory focus

Based on the literature review above, the RF-search-term cluster contained *regulatory* focus*, promotion* focus*, prevention* focus*, self-regulation, expectations, mood*, and *mind-set.* Although the concepts *expectations* and *mood* are also preceding factors of RF, they will not

be respected in this chapter, because they are covered more in detail in chapter 0 and in chapter 3.2.6 respectively. For an extended overview regarding the total amount of articles found for the relative terms, see appendix 7.2.

During the research in the databases, the most articles were found for the term *prevention focus*: 56 documents on Scopus and 243 in the WoS. Out of these, only 3 articles were related to business context on Scopus, and 14 in the WoS (round two). A combined amount of only 4 articles remained for the fourth round of systematic literature review. As evaluated in round four, none article related to the term prevention focus met the screening criteria for propositions development.

They key-term *regulatory focus* together with *coaching* resulted in 9 hits in Scopus and 18 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 3 and 3 documents remained in the respective databases (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 3 different articles were considered for round four. But no article met the selection criteria.

The results for *promotion focus* are comparable: *promotion focus* together with coaching resulted in 44 hits in Scopus and 99 in the WoS (round one). After refining the findings to business research, only 3 and 7 documents remained in the respective databases (round two). After a title and abstract scan, a combined amount of 3 different articles were considered for round four. But no article met the selection criteria either.

For the term *self-regulation* a total amount of 42 articles were found in Scopus, and 93 in the WoS. In the area of business research, 3 articles were published in Scopus and 2 articles in the WoS 2. Four different articles were respected in round three, while only 2 met the screening criteria and were considered for proposition development. These two articles are the only ones found for the whole RF-search-term-cluster.

Typical reasons for the exclusion of articles during the process included that some did not have the relevant constructs as outcome variable (de Haan et al., 2011; Howard, 2015).. Other papers included coaching only as a future implication recommendations (Joo et al., 2010; Joo et al., 2012; Morris et al., 2013).

Out of the two remaining articles, one article was written by Theeboom et al. (2014). They conducted a meta-study on coaching and its effects on performance/skills, well-being,

coping, work-attitudes and goal-directed self-regulation. Their results suggest that coaching has a significant positive effect on *goal directed self-regulation*. Their construct *self-regulation* included all measures related to goal-setting, goal-attainment and goal evaluation. Unfortunately, they did not differentiate between different coaching styles or approaches.

The other article was written by Yeow and Martin (2013), who conducted a longitudinal field experiment on self-regulation for leaders. They compared an intervention lasting twenty-four weeks – executed by an independent, qualified executive coach – with a control group with no intervention and found coaching effective for self-regulation and improving leadership skills. The intervention contained several steps, including coping with feedback, how to plan and conduct change based on a self-regulation framework, how to identify and set oneself personal goals in order to generate personal change, and the leaders were informed about the iterative nature of developing leadership skills and thus the relevance of the constant self-regulation process behind it.

Regulatory focus as self-regulation strategy can explain whether an individual will quit or persist with a specific task (Sansone et al., 2010), while a stronger persistence has a positive effect on creativity. Whether an individual interprets the situation as a gain or loss situation determines its' regulatory focus. Coaching can support the individual with reflection and interpretation of a situation. Based on these assumptions and the results of the systematic literature review I propose:

> P7: The more that a coaching approaches targets how a the coachee copes with feedback, encourages goal-setting, addresses the alignment of the coachee's behaviour with these goals, and promotes the use of repetitive self-feedback, the more that a coachee is able to regulate their personal regulatory focus. This can enhance the appropriate behaviour regarding creative goals and thus, creativity at work.

3.2.5   Coaching and intrinsic motivation

Several malleable factors impact intrinsic motivation. Accordingly, and based on the findings in chapter two, the research cluster for *intrinsic motivation* consisted of *intrinsic motivation, core-self*-evaluation (Chiang et al., 2014), *emotional stability, emotional stable,* and *locus of*

control (Chiang et al., 2014). The term *core-self-evaluation* also related to IM, but will not be considered here, since it was already discussed in chapter 0.

Out of all concept terms, the term intrinsic motivation showed the most hits: 47 documents were found on Scopus and 243 documents in the WoS. After refining the results to business areas, only 5 articles remained on Scopus and 13 in the WoS. Four articles were considered for whole-text evaluation (round three). But none met the screening criteria (round four).

The findings for the term *locus of control* were most interesting. In round one, 19 articles were found on Scopus, and 23 in the WoS. In round two, one article remained in the results list for Scopus, and 4 in the WoS. In combination, these hits led to a total amount of 4 different articles in round three. Out of them, 2 articles met the research criteria and were considered for proposition development. These two articles were the only ones considered for proposition development within the whole IM-search-term-cluster.

Following the systematic literature review for the terms *emotional stability* and *emotional stable,* no article met the research criteria after round two. The detailed number of articles found and excluded in each round can be found in the appendix 7.2.

Typical reasons for exclusion included that some articles did not have the relevant constructs as outcome variable (e.g., Howard, 2015), were not related to business coaching (e.g., Hunter, 2008), and others did not include coaching as a preceding factor but as moderator (Wang, 2013). Other papers included coaching only as a future implication recommendation (e.g., Joo et al., 2010; Joo et al., 2012; Morris et al., 2013; Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004).

One of the articles included for proposition development was written by Cilliers (2011). He suggests that coaching based on positive psychology can support the awareness of the internal locus of control, which has shown to positively contribute to IM. He conducted a qualitative descriptive study with eleven leaders in Gauteng, and described the locus of control as part of awareness (Cilliers, 2011).

In the study by Lang-von Wins and Triebel (2005) 100 quantitative and 45 qualitative were analysed. They focused on the effect of coaching upon the inner locus of control as well as upon the self-concept of one's own abilities. They found the tool *Kompetenzbilanz* as a successful coaching intervention for strengthening the internal locus of control and the self-concept of one's own abilities (Lang-von Wins & Triebel, 2005). This method can be

understood as a positive psychological intervention, which strives to activate one's own resources and enhance one's own strengths.

Given the noted association between locus of control, intrinsic motivation and creativity, together with the findings of the systematic literature review, I propose:

> P8: The more that a coach follows the positive psychology approach to coaching, and thereby focusses upon the coachee's inner strengths and locus of control, the more likely that a coachee will become aware and believe in their inner locus of control. This in turn leads to higher *intrinsic motivation* and, as a result, a higher creativity at work.

3.2.6 Coaching and mood

The search term cluster for mood consisted of *mood* (Baas et al., 2008), *affect* (Amabile et al., 2005; Barsade & Gibson, 2007), *clarity of feelings* (George & Zhou, 2002). The terms *self-awareness* was included also, because it is related to clarity of feelings. *Coping* was included because employees need to cope with their emotional states effectively in order to be creative (George & Zhou, 2007).

The term *affect*, in combination with *coaching*, showed the most hits, with 314 on Scopus and 1154 in the WoS. Round two showed 35 hits on Scopus and 91 in the WoS that related to business areas. Round three showed that no article met the screening criteria. The term *affect* mostly described how coaching affects other constructs, such as innovative behaviour (Wang, 2013) or performance (Utrilla & Torraleja, 2013), but not as a factor dependent upon coaching.

For the term *mood* a total amount of 61 articles were found in Scopus, and 121 in the WoS. In the area of business research, 0 articles were published in Scopus and 2 articles in the WoS (round 2). One article was respected in round three, and that one article met the screening criteria and was considered for proposition development.

Clarity of feelings did not lead to the expected result. Only one article was found on Scopus, and none in the WoS. But that article was not related to the business area (round two), and thus was excluded from further evaluation.

The findings for *self-awareness* were more significant. This term, combined with *coaching*, showed 61 hits on Scopus, out of which 16 were related to a business context; 61 articles were found in the WoS, of which 10 were noted to be relevant for business areas. In round three, a combined amount of 8 different articles remained for whole-text-screening, and half of them – namely 4 – met the screening criteria and were included for proposition development.

For the term *coping* 157 documents were found on Scopus and 364 documents in the WoS. After refining the results to business areas, only 6 articles remained on Scopus and 11 in the WoS. One article was considered for whole-text evaluation (round three). That one article also met the screening criteria (round four).

Many articles did not meet the screening criteria. Typical reasons for exclusion included that some articles did not have the relevant constructs as outcome variable (e.g., Bozer et al., 2013; O'Broin & Palmer, 2010), were not related to business coaching as a preceding factor (Sheldon, Dunning, & Ames, 2014) or the effects of coaching on the relative factor were not clear (Stoller, Barker, & FitzSimons, 2013). Following, the systematic literature review on *mood and affect* resulted in a total amount of 6 papers, which were included for proposition development.

The research by David and Cobeanu (2015) showed that coaching is able to change mood through emotion-regulation skills. Their pre-post training comparison study was conducted as *cognitive behavioural approach to coaching* and training with 88 participants (working or studying in the domain of psychology). After the intervention that lasted for two months, results showed a reduction of depressed mood that could be attributed to emotion-regulation skills (David & Cobeanu, 2015).

Luthans and Peterson (2003) found that the tools of 360 degree feedback and coaching were positively related to self-awareness and behavioural management. Their field study was conducted with 20 managers and 67 workers. Luthans and Peterson (2003) concluded that systematic coaching can lead to higher levels of manager and employee satisfaction as well as commitment, and as such has at least an indirect effect upon the firm's performance

Zhang (2008) conducted a survey with 340 managers from 38 organizations in order to find an answer to the question of which type of managerial coaching works best for the

development of self-awareness. He compared four types (i.e. self-awareness enlightenment, psychological support, vocational development and role modelling) of managerial coaching behaviours and analysed their effects on task performance and self-awareness. As a result, he concluded that all four types of managerial coaching have a positive effect on self-awareness (Zhang, 2008).

Mood and affect have an impact on creativity (Amabile et al., 2005; Barsade & Gibson, 2007), as long as the employee experiences activating mood states (De Dreu et al., 2012; To et al., 2012). In order to maximize the positive effects out of positive as well as negative mood states, the employee needs to be aware of his own feelings (George & Zhou, 2002), which requires the reflection of one's mood in order to become able to regulate the own behaviour in a productive way. Given the noted association between mood states, reflection, creativity, and the findings from the systematic literature review, I propose:

> P9: The more that a coaching intervention supports effective self-reflection, and encourages the awareness of one's own feelings and moods, the greater the improvement in the coachee's ability to regulate his or her own behaviour in a constructive and creative way. This then leads to higher creativity at work.

3.2.7   Coaching and creativity skills

For the systematic literature review, the following terms were included: *creativity, creativity skill* (singular and plural form), *creative skill* (singular and plural form) and *divergent thinking* (as strategy) and *skills* in the search term cluster.

Most articles were found when the terms *coaching* and *skills* were combined. In the first round, 1760 articles were found on Scopus and 2561 in the WoS. After refining the hits to business related areas, 205 and 133 documents remained in the respective databases. In round three, only 3 different articles remained, but no article met the screening criteria. Typical reasons for exclusion were that many articles focused on soft skills such as communication or leadership skills (e.g., Baron & Morin, 2010; Levasseur, 2013; Matlay, Rae, Audet, & Couteret, 2012), team working skills (e.g., Taatila, Jarvis, & Mitchell, 2012), or coaching skills (e.g., Grant, 2007, 2010; Wilson, 2011). These foci did not address skills for creativity. Other reasons for exclusion were that the articles were not empirical (e.g., van

Winkelen & McDermott, 2010; White, 1996). The amount of articles found and excluded with each round can be found in detail in the appendix 7.2.

For the whole search term cluster only one article met the needed criteria. That article, written by Mulec and Roth (2005), focused on team efficiency and creativity rather than individual creativity. Since I was focusing on intra-individual factors and not team creativity, this article could not contribute to proposition development here. Further research or adapted research would therefore be needed for any conclusions on how coaching can enhance creative skills.

4 RESULTS AND COACHING FOR CREATIVITY FRAMEWORK

To return to my research question: How can coaching foster creativity at work? Several articles have shown that coaching can affect the preceding factors of the different intrapersonal antecedents to creativity, which in turn can enhance creativity at work. Accordingly, it is reasonable – but not yet proven – that coaching can enhance creativity at work with the intrapersonal facilitators as mediators.

The propositions developed from the systematic literature review demonstrate how coaching could affect coachees' IFCs, which in turn function as mediators between coaching and creative outcome. These findings have shown that the amount of sessions is positively related to the development of clients' self-efficacy (P1). As such, it is reasonable to suggest that *creative self-efficacy* can be enhanced through a higher amount of coaching sessions. Next, for the characteristics of a coach – the second dimension in coaching cube by Segers et al. (2011) – it is important that the coach has a realistic self-awareness (P3) in order to support the development of a client's *creative self-efficacy*.

Further, several coaching approaches – or coaching schools (Segers et al., 2011) – can be linked to creativity at work. First of all, the *solution focused approach to coaching* focuses on the strengths rather than the weaknesses of an individual: if a coach therefore follows this approach with the goal to increase the coachee's perception of their creative abilities, the coachee's *creative self-efficacy* will be enhanced (P2). Secondly, the *psychodynamic approach to coaching* helps coachees to identify inner conflicts resulting from conflicting roles. This approach may therefore help coachees to become more aware of these conflicts

and to accept them as different roles, which in turn decreases the tension between roles and encourages better in-role-performance as a result (P6). Accordingly, it can be suggested that the *psychodynamic approach to coaching* can also strengthen the CRI. Thirdly, the *positive psychology approach to coaching* focuses on strengths rather than weaknesses. Following this approach, a coachee might change his or her perception in order to focus more upon the inner locus of control, which is related to *intrinsic motivation* (P8). The awareness of having a free choice strengthens the feeling of doing something for its own sake, and thus would lead to higher creativity.

The systematic literature review also revealed several concrete coaching tools for enhancing creativity at work. Firstly, constructive feedback, roleplay and questioning (P4) have shown to be effective for the development of self-efficacy. These tools can be used to increase awareness of one's own creative strengths as well as one's expectations of creativity: this in turn enhances *creative self-efficacy*. Feedback from the coach as well as from groups strengthens the perception of, and identification with, a specific role. If a coach therefore implements feedback sessions with a focus on a creative role, the coachee's *creative role identity* will increase (P5). A self-regulation framework may be used as a tool that is implemented in the coaching intervention and guided by the coach until it is mastered. This leads to a more effective self-observation skill at the meta-level, and enhances the ability of setting oneself goals as well as the skill of aligning one's behaviour according these goals. Accordingly, the self-regulation framework can be used to promote more effective self-regulation, which is related to *regulatory focus*, and thus leads to more creativity (P7). Finally, tools that support self-reflection and self-awareness can support the clarity of one's feelings; this in turn supports the effective use of personal energy resources resulting from different mood states in order to act in a more creative and productive manner (P9). The illustration in figure 2 summarizes these findings.
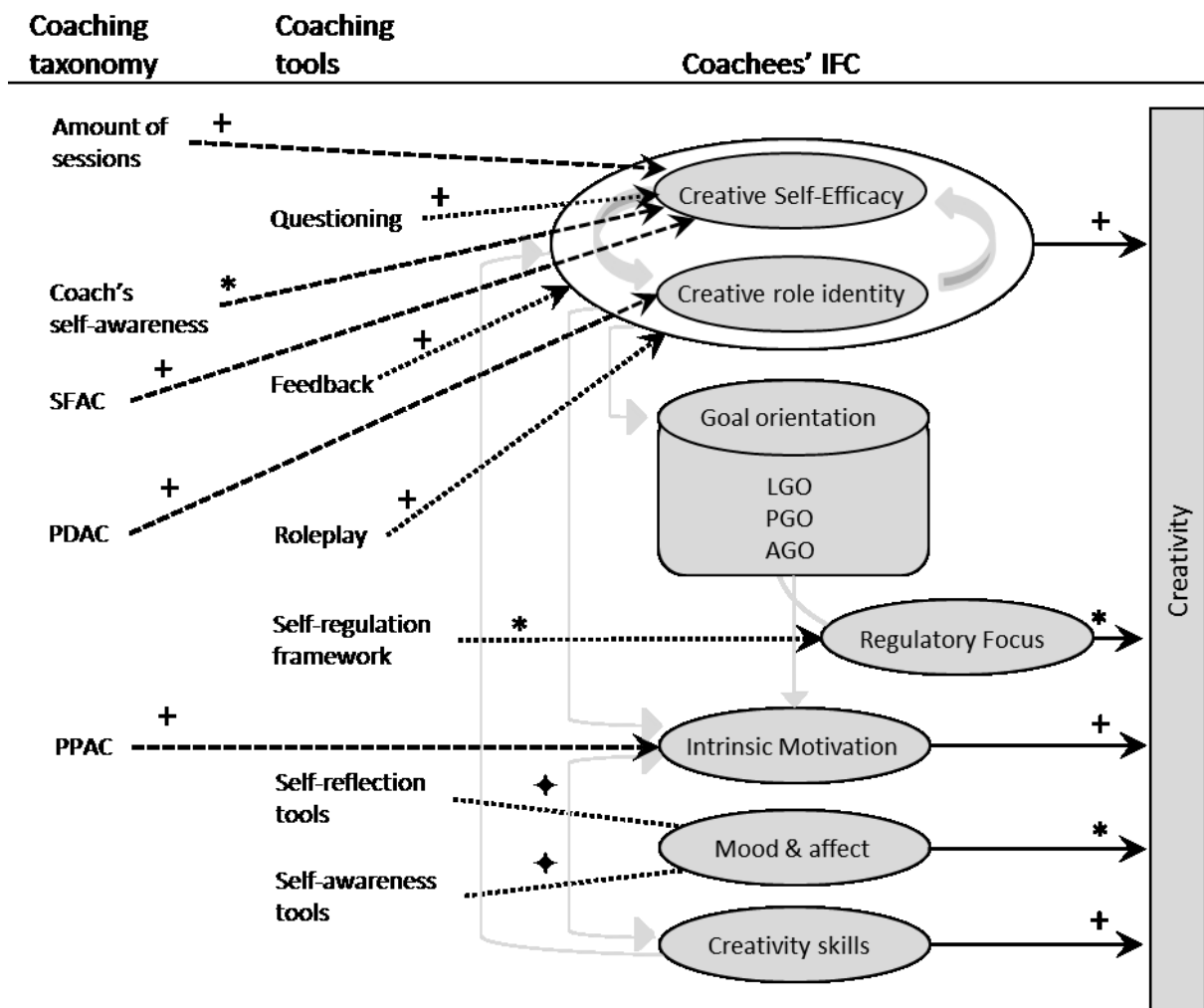
Figure 2. Business coaching for creativity at work: framework of synthesized results
The most dominant interconnections of the IFCs are represented by solid grey lines (compare figure 1). The solid black lines represent the effects of the IFCs on the creative outcome. The dashed black lines represent the links from the coaching taxonomies and tools to the IFCs.
+ foremost positive impact on the IFC or creative outcome
* partly interaction relation and dependent from the context
✦ does not enhance *mood & affect*, but supports in understanding one's *mood & affect*
SFAC = solution focused approach to coaching
PDAC = psychodynamic approach to coaching
PPAC = positive psychology approach to coaching
Note: The moderating or mediating factors between the tools or taxonomies on the IFCs are not represented here. This illustration should therefore be interpreted with caution.

5   DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to address the lack of business coaching as well as creativity literature. Further, I strived to develop a framework that considered whether and how coaching is able to enhance creativity at work. I believe this framework makes a significant

contribution to both research areas. The systematic literature review allowed a structured overview of the relationships between coaching taxonomies, coaching tools and their effects on the intrapersonal factors responsible for creativity at work.

The integration of coaching literature with creativity research was a highly explorative and complex process. Systematic literature review holds methodological advantages for integrating two research areas as done here. First, every step of literature research is described clearly and thus, warrants the reliability of the findings. Second, systematic literature review – compared to narrative approach – minimizes research biases (Tranfield et al., 2003). Third, especially in the endeavour of integrating two research fields, the systematic literature review enables the researcher to work in a well-structured, replicable and efficient manner and makes the research feasible. Final, this reproducible synthesis is able to inspire other scholars for new discussions and follow up research (Frank & Hatak, 2014).

5.1   THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This study stresses the role of intrapersonal factors for creativity at work and outlines their underlying mechanisms. Accordingly, the most important findings in this present study are probably the interrelationship of the intrapersonal facilitators for creativity at work. Therefore this study contributes to the creativity research from the personal characteristics view (Joo et al., 2013), on the individual level of analysis (Anderson et al., 2014), with focus on the malleable individual factors as antecedents of employee creativity. In the view of that, this study holds implications for the overall management research: it outlines the role, the potential and some restrictions of human resource development for future research on creativity. It shows how managers can develop their current employees for higher creativity, rather than hire the right characters or repositions their employees for the right person-environment-fit (e.g., George & Zhou, 2001; Joo et al., 2013; Oldham & Cummings, 1996), namely through coaching their employees based on the solutions focused approach, the psychodynamic approach and the positive psychology approach to coaching. Therefore this study is an excellent complement for the current state of management research. According to Joo et al. (2013) the majority of researchers investigated personal and contextual antecedents' of employee creativity. This study concentrated systematically on the

centrepiece of creativity, namely the malleable mental states and motivations of the creative individuals. Further, this study connects to the *componential theory of organizational creativity* (Amabile, 1997) by making implementable suggestions on *how* the dimension *motivation* can be manipulated.

Secondly, the general coaching literature has not yet made a link between coaching approaches and the creativity research. This study describes how the intrapersonal facilitators for creativity are malleable through business coaching: it stresses the solution focused approach for the enhancement of *creative self-efficacy*, the psychodynamic approach as facilitator for *creative role identity*, and the positive psychology approach as promising for strengthen the *intrinsic motivation* of employees in order to enhance creativity. The framework provided here is the first of its kind. It clearly can serve as s well-structured starting point for further research.

Thirdly, coaching literature mostly focused on coaching for executives. The ordinary employee and their individual mind has only recently emerged as the centre of research. This thesis emphasizes the important role of the ordinary employee in order to become and stay competitive in the market. Therefore, this thesis meets the current interest of today's scholars. Finally, coaching literature is regarded as still being in its infancy. This thesis contributes to the coaching literature and serves as one step forward towards coaching being considered as an area of professional research.

5.2   PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results from this research have significant implications for the practice of business coaching. Firstly, the study emphasizes the importance of developing a coachee's self-esteem, which in turn has shown to impact the other intrapersonal facilitators directly or indirectly. Secondly, current practitioners struggle with the credibility of coaching interventions. This thesis contributes to praxis with its well-structured overview of the proven effects of coaching, which in turn can make the decision to invest in coaching interventions easier. For example could HRD practitioners now ask the coach for the specific tools the coach works with: This research suggests questioning, feedback, roleplay, self-regulation framework and self-reflection tools as effective coaching tools for enhancing creativity at work. Thirdly, the findings provide several practical suggestions on how a coach

can enhance employees' creativity. For example, it has shown that it is crucial for a practitioner to reflect upon their own capabilities to consistently develop themselves (see P3) in order to reach the results desired. Furthermore, the findings suggest different coaching approaches (i.e. *solution focused approach to coaching*, *psychodynamic approach to coaching* and *positive psychology approach to coaching*) as appropriate approaches for creativity development. A coach can focus on make use and develop implementable tools, which are likely to enhance creativity at work (such as questioning, feedback, roleplay, self-regulation and self-reflection tools). Another practical conclusion from the findings is that a coach should first establish the conditional situation of a coachee regarding the IFCs as a principal step, and followingly, strive to define the needed steps in order to reach another desired state. For example, if a coachee has a chronic prevention focus (focussing on what could go wrong), it is advisable for the coach to make use of dialogue, exercises and positive feedback. In this way a coachee can learn to think more positively and develop at least a partial promotion focus, which in turn leads to more creativity at work..

5.3   LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Like every study, the internal or external validity of my findings may not be guaranteed. First of all, the search terms used might be incomplete regarding the full spectrum of the respective intrapersonal factors. For example, during the research process it became clear that the construct of *clarity of feelings* – as part of the IFC mood and affect – was more central in the context of coaching than *mood or affect* itself. Accordingly, the variable *mood and affect* might be incomplete or not fully appropriate in my model. Also, I did not take into account that coaching on its own can be experienced as a recognition reward, which in turn can lead to a change in affect and mood (George & Zhou, 2002). Similarly, the variable creativity-skills was researched with key words such as creative skills and divergent thinking, but no article could contribute to my coaching model. It can be assumed that additional terms such as *innovative thinking* (White, 1996), *problem solving*, *disciplined thinking* and *cognitive flexibility* would have led to other results. Secondly, I cannot preclude research bias as described by Tranfield et al. (2003), as the search terms used were not discussed with other professionals, and thus could be considered as insufficiently reflective (Frank & Hatak, 2014). Thirdly, coaching is a business with high financial potential and many researchers in this area are working as coaches themselves. This might affect the research done in this field

in favour of unrealistic findings regarding the positive effects of coaching. On the other hand, scholars that self-practice have the best insight into the topic. Fourthly, creativity research in general might be overly optimistic regarding the malleability of creativity (Collins & Amabile, 2009). Managers and researchers tend to believe that creativity can be enhanced, because that thought is much more attractive than the admission that creativity might be a trait rather than a state (Nickerson, 2009). Finally, the findings in this thesis do not distinguish between branches or culture, and only articles from two databases were respected, namely Scopus and the Web of Science. This raises questions regarding its generalizability to different contexts. Accordingly, the findings should be interpreted with care and should be regarded as a preliminary basis for further research.

There are many potential avenues for future research and for the examination of the framework developed in this study. Firstly, interviews with managers, coaches and coachees regarding their experiences with business coaching for creativity will lead to deeper insights into the effectiveness of coaching approaches and tools. It would also be advisable to conduct experimental research into the side-effects of coaching, so as to exclude, for example, the Hawthorne effects – the potential effect that individuals change their behaviour due to the knowledge that they are being observed. In the context of business coaching it might be that employees who are coached feel observed or more recognized, and might therefore behave more creatively, independent of the coaching approach or tools used. Secondly, this study has not taken different cultures or branches into account. A controlled study regarding the effects of *psychodynamic approach to coaching* in different branches, for example, could show which role different branches play regarding the effectiveness of coaching approaches. Thirdly, as there is scarce literature on business research, a systematic consideration of psychology research or perhaps even sports coaching might reveal interesting transferable insights for creativity coaching. Fourthly, the inclusion of praxis literature such as, for example, *Coaching Magazin*, *managerSeminare*, or *Training aktuell* should be considered for practical insights into the coaching praxis and into suggestions for the configuration of a coaching intervention. Fifthly, the integration of other theories, as for example the *theory of individual creative action* (Ford, 1996), was not respected in this thesis. The theory by Ford (1996) illustrates the role of intentional action in relation to evolutionary processes for creative behaviour and includes factors as capability

beliefs and emotions. Therefore it might hold interesting insights in coaching for creativity as well. And finally, every IFC should be examined more deeply on its own as follows.

Although the systematic literature review as applied in this thesis has revealed no available online article discussing the *motivational interviewing approach* for the development of *creative self-efficacy*, there is evidence that the *motivational interviewing approach* might contribute to *creative self-efficacy*. For example, Anstiss and Passmore (2013) stress the potential of this relatively new approach of coaching for the development of general self-efficacy. Accordingly, the link between *motivational interviewing* and *creative self-efficacy* is highly promising for future research. Further, roleplay has been found effective for the development of general self-efficacy, and is a typical tool used in the *narrative coaching* approach (Pousa & Mathieu, 2015). Although my study has not shown the link to *creative role identity*, the *narrative coaching* approach has been found to strengthen an employee's specific identity (Drake, 2010). Steinhouse (2011) suggests *neuro-linguistic programming* is a useful approach that can enhance identities. Research should identify its potential positive effects on *creative role identity*. Next, the *solution focused approach to coaching* has been shown to potentially affect *creative self-efficacy*, but I consider its inherent iterative steps also promising for the development of *regulatory focus* (Yeow & Martin, 2013). Green et al. (2006) as well as (Grant, 2003) stress the positive effects of *cognitive behavioural approach to coaching* on self-regulation; it therefore seems to be a promising approach for *regulatory focus*. Besides, I assume that the potential to develop *intrinsic motivation* is broader than the *positive psychology approach to coaching* approach discussed in my model. For example, Collins and Amabile (2009) state that reflection alone upon the intrinsic reasons to do something can boost *intrinsic motivation* in and of itself. Accordingly, reflection and reflection upon *intrinsic motivation* should be evaluated in terms of its positive effects on *intrinsic motivation*. This could be a tool that is easy to apply in coaching sessions. Furthermore, the alignment of personal values with the task at hand is crucial for *intrinsic motivation* (Gray, 2006; Hon, 2011). Future scholars should identify the approach and tools with which a coach could best guide a coachee to align his or her goals with the creative goals of the company. Finally, the IFC mood and affect, as well as creativity skills, have been underrepresented in this model. The next steps that are necessary to figure out the full potential of coaching effects on mood and affect involve the further evaluation of the effects of coaching on job satisfaction and job involvement: these are related to mood (Baas et al.,

2008; Baas et al., 2010). In terms of the effect of coaching upon creative skills, further research should focus on creative thinking skills. Some promising key terms for this include: innovative thinking, problem solving, disciplined thinking, strategic thinking and reflection on self-effectiveness (Moen & Allgood, 2009), and cognitive flexibility.

6   CONCLUSION

This thesis opens up new possibilities for seeing and enhancing the different pathways to creativity in work related settings. Given the vibrancy and breadth of interest in, and importance of, the research of coaching (Cox et al., 2010; Grant et al., 2010) and creativity (Anderson et al., 2014), the framework provided here helps to organize and bring coherence to an increasingly diverse collection of theory. This also makes this paper particularly timely. In this paper, I outlined the interrelationship between seven intrapersonal facilitators for creativity at work and developed the different implementable pathways of how these function as mediators between coaching interventions and creative outcome. Further, I provided illustrative propositions for practical use, including suggestions as to which tools of coaching or which coaching approaches seem most promising for the encouragement of the several intrapersonal factors linked to creativity.

In a world where companies are forced to compete through innovation, and therefore creativity, the flexibility and agility of companies are the new leading terms. This is why standardized human development approaches no longer fit the requirements of the market. Accordingly, the need for coaching interventions is expected to increase even further in the future. In addition, there is a rising awareness regarding the necessity of each individual employee's contribution to the company to ensure its market competitiveness. With this thesis I hope to open up the consideration of, and further investment in, the question of how coaching can contribute to creativity in ways that add value to coaches, companies and researchers.

7   APPENDICES

7.1   JOURNALS WITH PUBLICATIONS REGARDING COACHING

Table 2. *Exemplary overview of journals that published articles with* coaching *in the area of Business, Management and Accounting*

Journal	N Hits[9]	SJR average prestige[10] 2004 – 2014[11]
Journals with most document hits on the Scopus database		
Coaching	69	0,215 (since 2011)
Industrial and Commercial training	60	0,247
Human Resource Management international Digest	48	0,105 (since 2006)
Development and Learning in Organizations	46	0,127 (since 2006)
T and D	44	0,107
Example of HRD relevant well-known Journals with a high SJR prestige		
Human Resource Management	6	0,966
Management Learning	9	0,857
Harvard Business Review	18	0,713
Human Resource Management Review	4	0,523 (since 2008)
Human Resource Development Quarterly	14	0,506 (since 2006)

Note. This table contains an exemplary excerpt from journals and is not a representative sample according to academic standards. The only goal here is to understand and support what other researchers have already found: Coaching is not well represented in high prestige journals and is missing its own high quality academic research body.

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[9] June 2015

[10] *"SCImago Journal Rank is a prestige metric based on the idea that 'all citations are not created equal'. With SJR, the subject field, quality and reputation of the journal have a direct effect on the value of a citation. It is a size-independent indicator and it ranks journals by their 'average prestige per article' and can be used for journal comparisons in the scientific evaluation process." (Elsevier B.V., 2015)*

[11] Not all journals have been existed since 2004 or were not included in the SJR ranking. Journals ranked later than 2004 are marked respectively.

7.2 RESEARCH PROTOCOL

Table 3. *Amount of hits in the respective databases and remaining articles after each round. The key terms (column on the left) were al searched in combination with the term coaching.*

Search term (mediating or dependent variable)	*n* articles in *Scopus* (In the subject area *Business, Management and Accounting*	*n* articles in the *Web of Science* (In the research area *Business & Economics*)	Databases combined amount of *N* different articles after title and abstract scan	After scan of whole article, remaining amount of *N* articles which met the criteria[12]
	Round 1 (Round 2)	Round 1 (Round 2)	Round 3	Round 4
Creative Self Efficacy				Total 16
Creative self-efficacy	0 (0)	0 (0)	0	0
Self-efficacy	239 (25)	443 (39)	22	13
Self-confidence	31 (4)	130 (4)	3	1
Core-self-evaluation	5 (4)	6 (2)	3	0
Self-sufficiency	2 (0)	3 (1)	0	0
Self-evaluation	60 (7)	44 (6)	1	1
Efficacy expectation	9 (1)	32 (1)	0	0
Expectations	223 (34)	369 (41)	1	0
Self-esteem	57 (7)	148 (10)	5	1
Extinction of anxiety	0 (0)	0 (0)	0	0
Anxiety	229 (9)	497 (12)	0	0
Anxiety regulation	10 (1)	23 (0)	0	0
Emotional stress	59 (4)	108 (1)	0	0
Arousal	22 (1)	43 (1)	0	0
Physiological states	11 (0)	60 (0)	0	0
Creative Role Identity				Total 2
Creative role identity	0 (0)	0 (0)	0	0

(Continued)

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[12] Due to lack of access and non-response from the authors in time, articles from Korean journals are not included.

Table 3. *(Continued)*

Search term	*n* articles in *Scopus*	*n* articles in the *Web of Science*	*N* different articles (after round 3)	*N* articles which met the criteria
Role identity	44 (10)	95 (8)	1	1
Identity	131 (26)	291 (28)	3	0
Self-concept	175 (1)	137 (1)	0	0
Self-view	0 (0)	1 (0)	0	0
Self-scheme	0 (0)	0 (0)	0	0
Scheme	49 (6)	82 (8)	0	0
Self-perception	20 (1)	58 (0)	1	1
(Learning) Goal Orientation	v. i.	v. i.	v. i.	v. i.
Expectations	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Achievement Goal Orientation				**Total 13**
Goal orientation	27 (6)	175 (8)	4	0
Performance orientation	39 (13)	184 (25)	4	0
Learning orientation	43 (7)	82 (9)	Same articles as for goal orientation	0
Prove orientation	0 (0)	12 (0)	0	0
Mastery orientation	5 (0)	38 (0)	0	0
Self-scheme	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Self-esteem	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Self-efficacy	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Expectations	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Self-prime	0 (0)	0 (0)	0	0
Regulatory Focus				**Total 2**
Regulatory focus	9 (3)	18 (3)	3	0
Promotion focus	44 (3)	99 (7)	3	0
Prevention focus	56 (3)	243 (14)	4	0
Self-regulation (strategy)	42 (3)	93 (2)	4	2
Expectations	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.
Mood	v. i.	v. i.	v. i.	v. i.
Mind-set	2 (0)	24 (3)	0	0
Intrinsic Motivation				**Total 2**
Intrinsic Motivation	47 (5)	243 (13)	4	0
Core-self-evaluation	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.	v. s.

(Continued)

Table 3. *(Continued)*

Search term	*n* articles in *Scopus*	*n* articles in the *Web of Science*	*N* different articles (after round 3)	*N* articles which met the criteria
Emotional stability[13]	10 (1)	15 (1)	0	0
Emotional stable	3 (1)	8 (1)	0	0
Locus of control[14]	19 (1)	23 (4)	4	2
Mood				Total 6
Mood	61 (0)	121 (2)	1	1
Affect	314 (35)	1154 (91)	0	0
Clarity of feelings	1 (0)	0 (0)	0	0
Self-awareness	62 (16)	61 (10)	8	4
Coping	158 (6)	364 (11)	1	1
Creativity Skills				Total 1
Creativity	67 (21)	79 (22)	1	0
Creativity skill(s)	1	1	1	1
Creative skill(s)	34 (6)	31 (3)	3	0
Divergent thinking (strategy)	3 (0)	3 (0)	0	0
Skills	1760 (205)	2561 (133)	3	1 (same article as for creative skills)

Note. This table reflects the search term clusters (column one), amount of search hits in the relative search engines (column two and three), the total amount of different articles remained after title and abstract scan (column four), and the amount of articles which met the quality criteria (column five) and thus were used for proposition development. The latter are described more in detail in the data extraction form in appendix 7.3. The abbreviation "v. i." (vide infra) and "v. s." (vide supra) are used if the same search term also belongs to a concept group mentioned above or beneath respectively.

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[13] Emotional stability is part of core-self-evaluation
[14] Locus of control is part of core-self-evaluation

7.3   DATA EXTRACTION FORM

Table 4. *Study characteristics and outcome overview of studies included in the proposition development*

Study	*Design, n* & participants	*Intervention,* Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	*IFC group* & • Constructs & Outcomes
Aas and Vavik (2015)	*FS* 170 students	*Group coaching* Target-oriented coaching (related to SFAC) • Small groups coaching • 306-degree interviews • Discussion of role expectation • Discussion of role identity • Feedback • Personal preferences • Practical problem solving	3 (whole day) 20 days	*CRI* • Leadership identity Target-oriented group coaching process may have a profound positive effect on newly appointed leaders' context-based identity development.
Ammentorp and Kofoed (2010)	*QEF* 20 pairs of employees	*External coaching for employees* n.s. • short lectures • dialogue • reflection • role-plays	3 (whole day) 3 days	*CSE* • Self-efficacy (regarding communication skills) Coaching can improve self-efficacy
Baron and Morin (2009)	*PPD* 73 managers 24 coaches 31 Coach-coachee dyads	*Executive coaching** n.s. (Compared class seminars and action learning groups) • Face-to-face interaction	up to 14 (90') 8 month	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • Coach's self-efficacy The coach–coachee relationship plays a mediating role between the coaching received and development of the coachees' self-efficacy.

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	Design, *n* & participants	Intervention, Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	IFC group & • Constructs & Outcomes
Baron and Morin (2010)	*PPD* 73 managers	*Executive coaching** n.s. (Compared class seminars and action learning groups) • Face-to-face interaction	Up to 14 (90') n.s.	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • performance Number of coaching sessions has a positive and significant relationship with post-training self-efficacy.
Baron et al. (2011)	*QEF* 73 coachees 30 coach-coachee dyads	*Executive coaching* n.s.	3 – 11 (75') 8 month	*CSE* • working alliance • self-efficacy Coaches' estimation of the working alliance is the best predictor of post-coaching self-efficacy in coaches.
Cilliers (2011)	*QDCS* *11* *leaders*	*Executive coaching* PPAC • encounter group methodology (Rogers, 1982)	10 (60') 3 month	*IM* • Coaching context • Engagement in role • Understanding role-complexity • Emotional self-awareness (e.g., locus of control) & demands* • Self-authorisation The leadership coaching programme improved the leaders' intrapersonal awareness of feelings and needs, and to express them more openly than before, it improved the leaders' awareness of their leadership role, but did not equip the leaders sufficiently to enter relationships with colleagues in order to facilitate growth.

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	*Design, n* & participants	*Intervention,* Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	*IFC group* & • Constructs & Outcomes
Cilliers and Terblanche (2010)	*QR* 6 managers	*Executive coaching* Systems psychodynamic coaching (related to PDAC) • n.s.	10 (n.s.) 10 weeks	*CRI* • Anxiety • Task • Role • Authority • Boundaries • Identity (role behaviour) Coaching created a reflective space for the development of leadership awareness. Participants moved from being mostly ignorant and unconscious containers of system domain, socially constructed and personal defences, to containers of personal and leadership awareness. They took up their leadership roles with significantly more self-authorisation.
David and Cobeanu (2015)	*PPD* 88 Students	*Coaching* CBC • Role-play (ABC model) • Feedback	i) 1 (60') ii) 2 (90') iii) 1 (120') n.s.	*Mood & affect* • Stress • Sadness • Emotions (depressed mood, worry, anxiety) • Performance Reduction in the participants' level of depressed mood, as well as an improvement in their work performance. The active components were the emotion–regulation skills acquired and the quality of their homework tasks.
Dobrea and Maiorescu (2015)	*QS* 125 Entrepreneurs	*Executive coaching* n.s. • n.s.	*(Compared effect of one with more sessions)*	*CSE* • locus of control • self-efficacy business coaching showed to develop both

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	*Design,* *n* & participants	*Intervention,* Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	*IFC group* & • Constructs & Outcomes
Evers et al. (2006)	*QEF* Intervention group: 30 managers Control group: 30 managers	*Executive coaching* n.s. • Role playing • Disclosing deepest motives • Rational emotive training • Brainstorming • Goal formulation & planning • Entering agreement to display the behaviour desired	n.s. (n.s.) 4 month	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • Outcome experiences The coached group scored significantly higher than the control group on two variables: outcome expectancies to act in a balanced way and self-efficacy beliefs to set one's own goals.
Grant and O'Connor (2010)	*QS* 35 students	*Self-coaching* SFAC vs. problem focused questions • n.s.	2 (30') 1 week	*CSE* • self-efficacy • problem understanding • positive & negative affect • goal approach SFAC & problem focused questions both enhanced GSE, but *solution focused approach to coaching* more effectively
Grant et al. (2009)	*EFC* 41 executives	*Executive coaching* Mix from CBC, SFAC, PPAC • 360-degree feedback	4 (n.s.) 10 weeks	*CSE* • Goal attainment • Resilience • Workplace well-being Compared to controls, coaching enhanced goal attainment, increased resilience and workplace well-being and reduced depression and stress. Qualitative responses indicated participants found coaching helped increase self-confidence and personal insight, build management skills and helped participants deal with organisational change.

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	Design, *n* & participants	Intervention, Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) & duration	IFC group & • Constructs & Outcomes
Ladegard and Gjerde (2014)	*MM* 24 leaders 63 followers	*Managerial coaching* Co-active coaching = *solution focused approach to coaching* & PPAC • Fulfilment • Balance • Process (based on Whitworth, Kinsey-House, Sandahl, and Whitmore (1998))	8 (60'- 90') 6 month	*CSE* • Leader role efficacy • Trust in subordinates Coaching group – but not control group – showed increase in leader role efficacy
Lang-von Wins and Triebel (2005)	*QS & QR* 100 for QS, 45 for QR diverse	*Coaching* PPAC • Kompetenzbilanz (evaluation of own competence)	3 (n.s.) n.s.	*IM* • Locus of control* • Self-concept of own abilities Proactivity, self-concept of own abilities and internal locus of control increased during the coaching process
Luthans and Peterson (2003)	*FS* 20 managers 67 workers	*Executive coaching* Systematic coaching • 360-degree feedback • Managerial feedback profile	n.s.	*Mood & affect* • self-awareness • self-attitudes • employees' *attitudes* Feedback & coaching resulted in improved manager and employee satisfaction, commitment, intentions to turnover, and at least indirectly, this firm's performance
MacKie (2015)	*QEF* 30 executives or senior managers	*Executive coaching* n.s. • feedback (on leadership and strengths, goal setting, strength development)	6 (n.s.) 3 month	*CSE* • Developmental readiness • Change readiness • Core self-evaluation (locus of control, neuroticism, self-efficacy, self-esteem) Significant positive change in core self-evaluation in coaching group and leadership effectiveness, but not in control group

(Continued)

Business coaching for creativity at work

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	*Design, n & participants*	*Intervention, Approach &* • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	*IFC group &* • Constructs & Outcomes
McDowall and Butterworth (2014)	*FSR* 32 Students	*Group coaching* Strengths-based (comparable to PPAC) • SMART model of goal setting	1 (45') 1 day	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • Confidence in goal attainment • Strength knowledge No statistically difference between control and intervention group
Moen and Allgood (2009)	*E* *127* *CEO executives*	*Executive coaching* n.s. • questioning • active listening	n.s. (n.s.) 1 year	*CSE* • Self-efficacy* Significant increase in means of self-efficacy only in experimental group; no significant change in control group
Moen and Federici (2012)	*EFC* 20 Executives	*Executive coaching* SFAC • n.s. (assessment, group & individual coaching)	10 group & up to 7 individual (60' – 90') 12 month	*CSE* • Goal setting strategy • Leadership self-efficacy • Causal attributions to strategy Goal setting strategy dimension, leadership self-efficacy and successful causal attributions to strategy increased in the experiment group compared to the control group.
Pousa and Mathieu (2015)	*QS* 122 employees	*Managerial coaching* n.s. • analogies to learn • broadening up the perspective • feedback • setting expectations • questioning	n.s. (n.s.) 6 month	*CSE* • Managerial coaching • Self-efficacy • Behavioural performance • Results performance Managerial coaching can increase employee self-efficacy, which in turn fully mediates the effects of coaching on results and behavioural performance

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	Design, *n* & participants	Intervention, Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	IFC group & • Constructs & Outcomes
Theeboom et al. (2014)	*MS* 18 Empirical articles	*n/a*	n/a	*RF* • Performance/skills • Well-being • Coping • Attitudes • Self-*regulation* Coaching has significant positive effects on all outcomes (e.g., goal-directed self-regulation).
Wang (2013)	*QS* *127 employees* *23 managers*	*Managerial coaching* n.s. • Feedback • Encouragement • Support • Role-modelling vision	n.s. (n.s.) n.s.	*IM* • Intrinsic motivation • Managerial coaching • Prior work experience • Satisfaction with HRM practices (training, incentive *pay* system) An R&D employee's satisfaction with the firm's HRM practices (incentive pay system and training) strengthens the relationship between individual characteristics (e.g., IM) and innovative behaviours. Managerial coaching has a positive impact on employees' innovative behaviours, and serves as moderator for the relationship between *intrinsic motivation* and innovative behaviour.
Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009)	*DS* 42 Employees	*Managerial coaching* Next to autonomy and team climate • n.s.	n.s. (n.s.) 5 days	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • Self-esteem • Optimism • Work *engagement* Day-level coaching had a direct positive relationship with day-level work engagement, which, in-turn, predicted daily financial returns.

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	Design, *n* & participants	Intervention, Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) & *duration*	IFC group & • constructs & Outcomes
Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2012)	*DS* 42 Employees	*Managerial coaching* Next to autonomy and team climate • n.s.	n.s. (n.s.) 5 days	*CSE* • Self-efficacy • Self-esteem • Optimism General perceptions of job resources are related positively to daily job resources. Positive emotions mediated the relationship between daily job resources (autonomy and psychological climate of cooperation and warmth) and daily personal resources.
Yeow and Martin (2013)	*EFC* Intervention group: 15 leaders, 46 followers Control group: 25 leaders, 109 followers	*Executive coaching* n.s. • Multisource feedback • Goal setting based on self-regulation framework (Brown, Miller, & Lawendowski, 1999)	1 (5 hours) 6 month	*RF* • Self-regulation • Self-*awareness* Leader self-regulation intervention led to increased followers' ratings of leader's effectiveness, higher team financial performance and higher final team grade compared to the control (non-intervention) condition. The benefits of the self-regulation intervention were mediated by leaders' attaining task-relevant competencies.

(Continued)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Study	*Design, n &* participants	*Intervention,* Approach & • Tools	Nr. sessions & (Min./session) *& duration*	*IFC group &* • Constructs & Outcomes
Zhang (2008)	*QS* 340 managers	*Managerial coaching* n.s. • self-awareness enlightenment • psychological support • vocational development • role modelling	n/a	*Mood & affect* • self-awareness enlightenment • psychological support • vocational development • role modelling • contextual performance • task performance All of four types of managerial coaching tools have positive influences on contextual performance, and self-awareness enlightenment and role modelling have positive influences on task performance.

Notes.
General abbreviations:
n.s. = not specified; n/a = not applicable; * = methods, tools, and constructs only relevant for this thesis are included in this table and do not represent the complete study outcomes.
Abbreviations for study design:
DS = diary study; E = experiment, details not specified; EFC = experimental field study with control group design and randomized allocation of participants; FS = field study; FSR = field study with random allocation of participants to intervention vs. non-intervention group; MM = mixed methods study (two-phase exploratory sequential design consisting of qualitative and quantitative research methods with control group and field experiment); MS = meta-study; PPD = pre-test post-test design; QDCS = qualitative and descriptive research design with a case study; QEF = quasi-experimental field study with non-randomized allocation of participants; QR = qualitative research design; QS = Questionnaire or quantitative survey study.
Abbreviations for coaching intervention:
CBC = cognitive-behavioural approach to coaching; MI = motivational interviewing; NC = narrative coaching; NLP = neuro-linguistic programming; PDAC = psychodynamic approach to coaching; PPAC = positive psychology approach to coaching; SFAC = solution focused approach to coaching

7.4 TABLE OF APPREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Explanation
AGO	Avoidance goal orientation
CBC	Cognitive behavioural coaching
CRI	Creative role identity
CSE	Creative self-efficacy
GO	Goal orientation
GSE	General self-efficacy
HR	Human resources
HRD	Human resource development
HRM	Human resource management
IFC	Intrapersonal facilitator for creativity at Work
IFC-Cluster	group of preceding factors of the relative IFC
IM	Intrinsic motivation
LGO	Learning goal orientation = mastery orientation
MI	Motivational interviewing approach
NC	Narrative coaching
NLP	Neuro-linguistic programming
P	Proposition
PDAC	Psychodynamic approach to coaching
PGO	Performance goal orientation = approach orientation
PPAC	Positive psychology approach to coaching
RF	Regulatory focus
ROI	Return of investment
SFAC	Solution focused approach to coaching
WoS	Web of Science (data base)
v. i.	vide infra (= see beneath)
v. s.	vide supra (= see above)

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