

RELATIONSHIP, PURPOSE, AND CHANGE—AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL OF COACH BEHAVIOR

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Coaching is an effective intervention to achieve organizationally, professionally, and personally beneficial goals. Although the coach-coachee working relationship constitutes the most critical indicator of coaching success, specific coach behaviors that create effective interaction are poorly understood. Using well-established psychological theories we have derived an integrative model of coach behavior that delineates three behavioral metacategories: (a) relationship-oriented behavior that fosters effective working relationships and entails providing structured guidance, providing personalized support, and activating resources; (b) purpose-oriented behavior that directly supports goal accomplishment and entails enhancing understanding, strengthening motivation, and facilitating implementation; and (c) change-warranting behavior that fosters comprehensive information processing that sustains change and entails the creation of memorable experiences. Each metacategory is further specified by several concrete behaviors. Based on its underlying psychological theories, the integrative model of coach behavior provides concise categories with clear distinctions and relationships. Furthermore, the model's theories generate numerous new hypotheses about the process of coach-behavior effectiveness and its mediators or moderators. Thoroughly testing these hypotheses and overcoming problematic subjective surveys requires the development of objective behavioral measurements for coach behaviors, instant coachee reactions and the associated subsequent cognitive, emotional, and behavioral changes.

What's It Mean? Implications for Consulting Psychology

Employing established psychological theories, we developed an integrative model of essential coach behavior to create successful coaching interactions: (a) three relation-oriented behavior categories, (b) three purpose-oriented behavior categories, and (c) one change-warranting

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behavior category. The specific behavior types of these seven categories will be tested by coaching researchers and embedded in real-life sessions by coaching practitioners.

Keywords: coaching, coach behavior, theory, change, working alliance

Coaching was established to enhance people's professional and personal development. It has shown many positive outcomes: for instance, more effective goal attainment, enhanced general performance, improved skills, increased well-being, and better coping, self-regulation, and personal resilience (for an overview, see Grant et al., 2010). Unsurprisingly, coaching continues to gain popularity in both practice and scientific theory (Theeboom et al., 2014), with numerous studies confirming that working coach-coachee alliances constitute the most important indicator of coaching success (e.g., Baron & Morin, 2009; de Haan et al., 2016; Graßmann et al., 2020; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007). After the coaching relationship, other factors contributing to successful coaching mentioned by executive coaches are coachee readiness (e.g., motivation), coach quality (e.g., expertise), and competencies (e.g., relationship-building, active listening, and personal characteristics such as integrity and empathy; Vandaveer et al., 2016). However, little is known about specific coach behavior that yields successful coaching, and many researchers have called for increased research focused on coach behaviors (e.g., de Haan et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2016; Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015). Many studies used retrospective self-reports (e.g., Baron & Morin, 2009; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014; Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015), and only a handful directly measured behavior (e.g., Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015; Greif, 2010; Ianiro et al., 2015). These behavioral studies employed different theoretical models derived from theories external to coaching literature, which means that inconsistent and even frequently overlapping behavioral categories were used. The authors of three coaching meta-analyses stated that a firm theoretical foundation was lacking (Jones et al., 2016; Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al., 2015; Theeboom et al., 2014) and have called for a comprehensive coaching model that integrates past findings to help guide future research and clarify how coaching creates positive effects.

The present article proposes an integrative model of coach behavior (IMoCB) based on Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, and others' (2015) meta-analytic definition that coaching is "a one-to-one relationship in which the coach and coachee work together to identify and achieve organizationally, professionally, and personally beneficial development goals" (p. 73). Employing this definition, we derived three essential coach behavioral functions to: (a) create effective working relationships, (b) facilitate goal attainment, and (c) create memorable experiences to sustain change in coachees' professional, organizational, and personal daily routines. The IMoCB derives specific coach behaviors for each behavioral function based on well-established psychological theories. The specific behaviors need testing by the scientific coaching community to determine which are optimal and suited for honing in future research. This article focuses on coach behavior that contributes to successful coaching. Because coaching is a social interaction in which the behaviors of coach and client mutually affect each other (see Loop2Loop model, Jonas & Mühlberger, 2017), future research may ascertain how to assess coach behavior that initiates a mutually beneficial feedback loop.

The Three Functions of Coach Behavior

Coaching has become a new buzzword applied to different contexts and approaches, including business, career, life, flirt, and parent coaching, among others, and it involves all kinds of people seeking personal growth and development (Edwards, 2003, p. 298). Even though this contextual diversity has yielded several different definitions, a consensus exists concerning three core elements of effective coaching, namely that it manifests (a) a one-to-one working coach-coachee relationship, (b) has the overarching aim of identifying and attaining professional or personal goals, and (c) produces benefits in an organizational, professional, and personal context. To support these three

elements, coach behaviors should fulfill necessary functions: (a) Relationship-oriented coach behaviors should foster effective working relationships; (b) purpose-oriented coach behaviors should facilitate coachee goal identification and attainment; and (c) change-warranting coach behaviors should ensure generated changes are memorized and transferred into noncoaching-related routines (see also Behrendt et al., 2017).

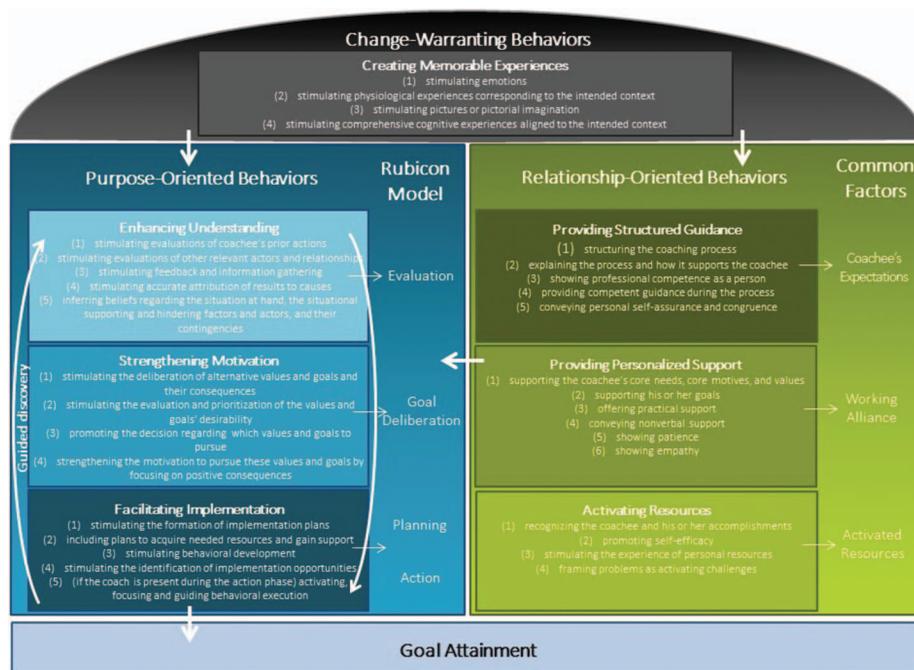
To specify the above three metacategories of coach behaviors (Figure 1), we built on three streams of well-established psychological research (Table 1): (a) models of common psychological intervention factors that specify the mechanisms of effective consulting relationships, (b) theories of motivation and action that explain personal goal identification and achievement processes, and (c) neurological models of human memory that explain how experiences are memorized and produce change across contexts and behavioral routines.

IMoCB

Relationship-Oriented Coach Behaviors

Coaching relationships have been identified as a critical component of effective coaching (e.g., de Haan et al., 2016; Vandaveer et al., 2016) and the component coaches can most readily influence (Ianiro & Kauffeld, 2014). Because coaching literature has not yet provided a coaching-specific model for an effective coaching relationship, many researchers use common

Figure 1
Overview of the IMoCB Showing the Three Meta Categories of Coach Behaviors



Note. Overview of the Integrative model of coaching behaviors (IMoCB) including the three meta categories of coach behaviors. The figure shows (a) relationship-oriented coach behaviors and their effect on the three factors of the counseling interaction of the common factor models; (b) purpose-oriented coach behaviors and their effect on the four phases of goal accomplishment as stated by the Rubicon model; and (c) change-warranting coach behaviors. The coach’s guided discovery is present during all phases of the purpose-oriented category. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

Table 1
Dimensions of the IMoCB and the Psychological Theories They Are Based On

Coach behaviors	Integrated research bodies	Main references
Relationship-oriented coach behaviors	Common factor models of psychotherapy research	Grawe (2004), Wampold (2015)
1. Providing structured guidance	Coachees' positive expectation that their active participation in the process will help them to make progress	Grawe (2004), Wampold (2015)
2. Providing personalized support	Supportive working alliance	Grawe (2004), Wampold (2015)
3. Activating resources	Activation of instrumental resources and functional action	Grawe (2004), Wampold (2015)
Purpose-oriented coach behaviors	Self-efficacy theory	Bandura (1977)
	Expectancy-value-theories	Beckmann and Heckhausen (2008), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)
	Rubicon model	Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2008), Heckhausen and Gollwitzer (1987)
1. Enhancing understanding	Rubicon model	Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2008)
	Attributional theory of motivation and emotion	Weiner (1985)
	Theory of planned behavior	Ajzen (1991), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)
2. Strengthening motivation	Rubicon model	Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2008)
	Theory of planned behavior	Ajzen (1991), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)
3. Facilitating implementation	Rubicon model	Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2008)
	Implementation plans	Sheeran and Orbell (1999)
	Implemental mind-set	Gollwitzer (1990)
Change-warranting coach behaviors	Model of evaluation criteria	Kirkpatrick (1967)
1. Creating memorable experiences	Multiple code theory	Bucci (2002)
	Somatic markers	Damasio (2003)

factor models employing more than a century of psychotherapy research (e.g., de Haan et al., 2016). Wampold (2015) and Grawe (2004) provided the two most renowned common factor models of psychotherapy that assert the relationship between counselor and client is so important that only when social interaction is satisfying is a positive, beneficial collaboration possible.

In such relationships, counselor and the client behaviors mutually affect each other (Jonas et al., 2017). For example, a coachee expresses to a coach the need to gain clarity about future career plans. The coach explains how coaching can support meeting this need, thus promoting trust and optimism in the coachee who will openly share concerns with the coach (Wasylyshyn, 2019). In our model we focus on coaches' relationship behaviors that influence coachees. We derive these relationship behaviors from Wampold's (2015) and Grawe's (2004) common factor models that assert that counselors need specific relationship behaviors in psychological interventions to produce benefits for the counseling interaction. However, coaching success also depends on coachee behaviors, because only when coachees actively participate in the process, for example by being forthcoming and engaged, can a positive relationship occur and success become more likely (Bohart & Tallman, 2010).

Common Factor Models of Psychotherapy

Wampold's and Grawe's models are based on large-scale meta-analytic reviews of intervention-nonspecific factors (e.g., the working alliance) that were shown to explain approximately 70% of intervention outcomes (Grawe, 2007; Wampold, 2001). Common factors¹ having medium to large effects in meta-analyses are working alliances, empathy, and related constructs such as positive regard or affirmation and congruence or genuineness (Wampold, 2015). Grawe's meta-analyses also found that diverse therapeutic methods created similar client benefits, a surprising fact explained by Grawe's common factors being based on well-established neurological and psychological theory. The Wampold and Grawe models describe that these common factors are imbedded in three essential elements of counseling interactions that produce benefits: (a) client expectations that active participation will help them make progress, (b) a personally supportive and engaged working relationship, and (c) activation of clients' resources to foster instrumental action. Both models further describe therapists' effective relationship behaviors that created these essential factors in counseling interactions, and these behaviors have been transferred to the nonclinical counseling context (Behrendt et al., in press). Based on the described behaviors in the common factor models, we delineate the following three behavior categories: (a) providing structured guidance, (b) providing personalized support, and (c) activating resources.

Providing Structured Guidance

Both common factor models note that an essential factor in counseling interactions is a positive client expectation that active participation will help them make progress. This requires that clients believe their treatment will effectively remedy the problem (Wampold, 2015). According to the models, such belief is facilitated if coaches provide structured guidance—that is, that they structure, explain, and guide the process and show competence, self-assurance, and congruence. Coaches being clear, confident, and congruent helps coachees believe in the treatment, thus prompting quick and active engagement, which is important given that treatment typically involves only three to 10 sessions (Theeboom et al., 2014).

Behavioral studies provide evidence for the effectiveness of structured guidance. Self-assured and assertive behavior (e.g., speaking with a clear and firm voice) structures the interaction process (e.g., assigning tasks), so that coachees engage more actively in it, and leads to improved goal attainment (Ianiro et al., 2013; Ianiro et al., 2015). Coaches structuring and guiding the process is an inherent task, especially in the early stages, to provide orientation for coachees and their subsequent progress. Furthermore, self-confident coach behaviors provide security and prompt attributing competence to the coach. These coach behaviors facilitate coachees embracing their coaches' support and actively following the provided guidance and exercises (Ianiro et al., 2013, 2015). Another behavioral study found that if coaches provided structured guidance, coachees reported more progress, including both goal identification and attainment (Behrendt, 2006). In particular, progress was facilitated if coaches explained coaching structures and how these support coachees' goal attainment; if coaches conveyed competence by self-assurance, explicitly demonstrating professional competence and shared professional knowledge; and if coaches provided competent guidance throughout via competent ad hoc interventions such as asking questions that identify new opportunities involving frustrating situations.

Based on the above findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential subcomponents of the coach-behavior category "providing structured guidance" (see Figure 1): (a) structuring the coaching process, (b) explaining the process and how it supports the coachee, (c) showing

¹In addition to the common factors, there are also specific factors. In psychotherapy those are the ingredients beneficial for the treatment of particular disorders (Wampold, 2015). Effect sizes of specific factors, including, for example, treatment differences, competence, and adherence to protocol, are small and also difficult to transfer to the coaching context. Therefore, we will not go into detail about the specific factors.

professional competence, (d) providing comprehensive guidance during the process, and (e) conveying personal self-assurance and congruence.

Providing Personalized Support

The common factor models' second essential counseling-interaction factor is a supportive working relationship, which is facilitated by coaches adopting personalized approaches so that "the dyad is engaged in collaborative, purposive work" (Hatcher & Barends, 2006, p. 293). This means that coaches, who are coaching-process experts, should support coachees, who are experts of their own situation, including their personal goals, purposes, and solutions (Jones et al., 2016). Coachees should determine the coaching content and thereby actively participate in the process by openly and willingly engaging, viewing the process as supportive, and being agentic, reflective, and creative, as well as integrating their experiences into everyday life (Bohart & Tallman, 2010). To elicit such active participation, coaches should support coachees using a "warm, caring, and empathic interaction" (Wampold, 2015, p. 273), which supports and nurtures active efforts to change (Bohart & Tallman, 2010).

To support coachees, coaches can offer different tools, methods, and conversational techniques that align with a coachee's specific personal situation. This empathic and adaptive behavior ensures that processes match particular situations; for example, Beutler et al. (2002) showed that adjusting the therapist's level of directiveness to the client's level of reactance improved therapy efficiency and outcome. Such adaptive behavior is not visible per se but is expressed in different relationship behaviors described below. Accordingly, the coach-behavior category "providing personalized support" ensures effective working alliances by providing warm, empathic, and practical support attuned to each coachee's situation.

Behavioral studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of providing personalized support, and lag sequential analyses revealed that supportive coach behavior (e.g., expressing support for coachee autonomy) enables coachees to reflect on goal identification and plan for goal achievement (Klonek et al., 2016; see also Behrendt, 2006). Moreover, interaction analyses showed that if coaches support their coachees' goals and contributions (e.g., by agreeing to a coachee-set goal), subsequent goal attainment increases (Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015). Self-reported coaching progress and coachees' goal attainment further increases if coaches offer practical support to coachees' solution search and support their rational goals and core emotional motives (Behrendt, 2006). The importance of such support is obvious from studies showing that coachees benefit most from coaches who use tools, interventions, and language befitting the coachee's underlying regulatory orientation (regulatory fit theory; Higgins, 2005). For example, a study using ratings of video recordings of real coaching processes found that when coaches adapted to coachees' language—that is, used similar words and phrases—coachees reported more coaching success (Mühlberger et al., *in press*). In summary, if coaches support their coachees' core needs, motives, goals, and contributions, the coachees deepen their involvement, report progress, and have subsequently enhanced goal attainment.

In addition to active support, several studies have indicated the importance of a nurturing, supportive atmosphere created by warm and empathic emotional support. In this vein, dominant coach behaviors only produced coachees' engagement and subsequent goal attainment if enacted in a friendly and supportive manner that employed smiling, leaning forward, or maintaining friendly eye contact, rather than acting in a detached or even hostile manner (Ianiro et al., 2015). Moreover, warm and caring nonverbal support increases emotional insight, reduces helplessness (Greif et al., 2010), and boosts reported coaching progress and subsequent goal attainment (Behrendt, 2006). Self-reported coaching progress and subsequent goal attainment were also fostered if coaches created supportive conditions for coachee engagement by showing patience and empathy (Behrendt, 2006). Based on the above findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential subcomponents of the coach-behavior category "providing personalized support" (see Figure 1): (a) supporting the coachee's core needs, motives, and values; (b) supporting coachee goals; (c) offering practical support; (d) conveying nonverbal support; (e) showing patience; and (f) showing empathy.

Activating Resources

The common factor models' third essential factor for counseling interactions is the activation of instrumental resources to strengthen functional action; it is facilitated if coaches promote functional resources (Behrendt et al., *in press*). Unlike patients in therapy, coachees are normally healthy, well-functioning individuals with specific needs for support (Greif, 2008; Theeboom et al., 2014); consequently, they should possess a wealth of functional resources (motivation, cognitive abilities, personal traits and competences, interpersonal skills, and material resources), and even if they are not all immediately accessible within the coaching context at hand (Greif, 2010), an effective positive relationship helps raise coachees' awareness and focus to access these resources (Bandura, 1977).

Behavioral studies have provided evidence for the effectiveness of activating resources; indeed, if coaches affirm or recognize the coachees' competences, actions, and thoughts, this increases coachees' positive and optimistic reflections on goal identification and achievement plans (Klonek et al., 2016), thus increasing their willingness to change (Will et al., 2019), report more coaching progress, and improve goal attainment (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010). Furthermore, if coaches promote confidence in the future, coachee helplessness declines (Greif et al., 2010) and subsequent goal attainment becomes more likely (Behrendt, 2006). Finally, if coaches stimulate coachees to assess their resources (Greif et al., 2010) and life experience (Behrendt, 2006), coachees' motivation and subsequent goal attainment increases.

These effects have been theoretically established in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), in which coachees believe that they can overcome problems (Wampold, 2015). Heightened self-efficacy beliefs result in behavior enactment, behavioral effort, and behavioral persistence all improving. Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs are promoted by verbal persuasion, focusing vicarious success, personal accomplishments, and an accompanying emotional connection (Bandura, 1977). According to behavioral theory, recognizing initial accomplishments reinforces, shapes, and sustains functional behavior (Gassmann & Grawe, 2006).

In addition to the pure positive orientation, coachees also face challenges in coaching processes. For example, research on therapeutic behavior has demonstrated that focusing on chances and change-oriented outlooks rather than negative situations increases therapeutic progress (Smith & Grawe, 2005). Although no studies on behavioral coaching have been conducted yet, questionnaire studies indicate that coaching is more effective when coaches frame problems as activating challenges (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014) or when they focus on possible solutions (Grant, 2012). Such a challenge-focus helps coachees see their resources as exceeding the demands of a problematic situation, which enhances their performance when facing it (Blascovich & Mendes, 2000).

Based on these theories and findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential subcomponents of the coach-behavior category "activating resources" (see Figure 1): (a) recognizing coachees and their accomplishments, (b) promoting self-efficacy, (c) stimulating the use of personal resources, and (d) framing problems as activating challenges.

Purpose-Oriented Coach Behaviors

Relationship-oriented behaviors contribute to but by themselves do not ensure successful coaching. As de Haan et al. (2016; p. 203) stated, "Coaching is an inherent goal- and task-focused enterprise . . . , and it is the explicit role of the coach to support and facilitate [that]," and according to Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al. (2015), coaches and coachees work together to identify and achieve developmental goals for a specific organizational, professional, or personal purpose. Purpose-oriented coach behaviors directly support the goal identification and achievement process,² while motivation and action theories elucidate how individuals generally and coachees specifically

² When we talk about goals, we are referring to the client's purpose for seeking a coach. So it is the "why" of the coaching interaction. This purpose can be specific goals as well as goals in a broader sense that are value-based, vague desires.

identify, pursue, and achieve goals. According to expectancy value theories (Beckmann & Heckhausen, 2008; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the coachees' motivations to strive for a goal is defined by the personal value of the accomplished goal multiplied by their personal expectancies to achieve the goal. These theories were elaborated by Heckhausen and Gollwitzer (1987) to show that human cognitive function changes once individuals have come to a decision and formed an intention. The Rubicon model (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008) makes a clear distinction between different phases of goal pursuit. Before a decision to act, individuals' thoughts are preoccupied with their (unconscious) needs and (conscious) values and expectations; then, having weighed these factors, they choose a wish to set as a goal (predecisional phase). Once this choice is made the Rubicon is crossed, as the deliberation phase terminates with a clear commitment to pursue the goal. Here, thoughts focus on the implementation of action (Grawe, 2004), and the necessary plans are made to achieve the goal (preactional phase) before putting these plans into action (action phase). Finally, the outcomes and behaviors are retrospectively evaluated (postactional phase).

Drawing on the Rubicon model, we see the purpose-oriented coaching process as characterized by four iterative phases: (a) the evaluation of outcomes to understand the causes of desired outcomes (postactional or evaluation phase), (b) the deliberation and identification of coachees' wishes to identify the values and goals that they want to attain (predecisional or goal deliberation phase), (c) planning to initiate the actions necessary for goal achievement (preactional or planning phase), and (d) taking action to accomplish the goal (action phase; Behrendt et al., 2017). Each of the four phases is delineated by a clear end-state—(a) goal deliberation, (b) goal identification, (c) action initiation, and (d) goal accomplishment—and each is iterative with the action phase, again followed by an evaluation phase, and so forth—the coachee contemplates goals, plans appropriate action, executes the action, then evaluates results.

Similarly, in his concept of narrative coaching, Drake (2018) also described four phases: people express and thereby understand the current situation (situate; evaluation phase in the Rubicon model), clarify their desires to strengthen their motivation (search; goal deliberation phase in the Rubicon model), experiment with changes to facilitate implementation (shift; planning and action phase in the Rubicon model), and then integrate and reflect on the changes (sustain; evaluation phase in the Rubicon model), which then initiates a new loop. Thus, coaching has numerous such loops in which different goals are identified and pursued. Because this is an iterative process, coachees may consider adjusting goals, plan further actions, and so forth; hence, the coachee often experiments and makes adjustments during the process to seek the optimal path toward goal attainment, with the coach providing guidance (i.e., guided discovery, see Figure 1).³

Drawing on these theories, we propose the following three purpose-oriented coach-behavior categories that directly support the process of goal accomplishment: (a) enhancing understanding during the evaluation phase, (b) strengthening motivation during the goal-identification phase, and (c) facilitating implementation during the planning phase. Facilitating implementation behavior

³Purpose-oriented behaviors can be routine or change-oriented, depending on the set goal. For example, in a company there are lots of processes that follow a strict routine (e.g., applying for absence or executing standard well-running processes). Without being questioned, these behaviors undergo a specific routine of evaluation, goal setting (aims for next week), planning (tasks for next week), and implementation. Such processes can also be change-oriented, which means that one wants to understand which behavior to show in order to attain one's goals. The steps of these processes (evaluation, motivation, planning, and implementation) remain similar but become more in-depth and experimental if routine behavior does not achieve the intended outcome and more change is needed. However, this differentiation is not categorical but continuous, becoming more and more broad and experimental as needed. Coaching is sought if routine behaviors fail to produce desired outcomes. Therefore, coaching focuses on change-oriented purpose cycles, demanding more change orientation and both goal and behavior adjustments. As such, coaching processes help coaches eliminate nonfunctional routines and develop new functional behaviors.

directly supports the planning phase and simultaneously sets the stage for the action phase that occurs purely in coachees' personal or professional contexts.

Enhancing Understanding

The purpose-oriented coach-behavior category "enhancing understanding" supports the evaluation phase in which coachees contemplate their situation. This phase requires an accurate and impartial evaluation of the current situation, coachees' prior actions and their consequences (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008), other relevant actors, and subsequent contingencies (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These evaluations result in causal attributions among events, causes (Weiner, 1985), and beliefs concerning success-relevant factors for future actions (Ajzen, 1991). The coach's role during this phase is to: (a) support the coachee in gathering comprehensive information and feedback, (b) meaningfully reflect on and calibrate the information, and (c) delineate accurate coachee self-assessments and the context before (d) deriving adequate beliefs that foster well-adjusted future behaviors (Behrendt et al., 2017).

Two studies of behavioral coaching assessed coach behaviors related to enhanced understanding: Greif et al. (2010) evaluated coach behaviors that enhanced understanding of the self, problems, and affective reflections, while Behrendt (2006) appraised behaviors that stimulated a better understanding of the coachee, the situation at hand, and other actors. Both studies used small samples and failed to establish significant relationships between these behaviors and coaching effectiveness (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010). Surprisingly, stimulated self-reflection even reduced coachees' motivation and did not affect goal attainment (Greif et al., 2010). However, a survey of 1,217 coachees about their past coaching processes found positive correlations between self-rated stimulated self-reflection, problem-reflection, and affective reflections and self-rated goal attainment and satisfaction with coaching (Kinder et al., 2020).

Career coaching is most successful if it offers coachees opportunities to explore their own thoughts (e.g., by asking open-ended questions and using complex reflections; Klonek et al., 2016). In a similar vein, Kirschner et al. (1994) conducted a case study of the process and outcomes of career counseling. Using audio- and videotapes of the sessions, counselors were asked to identify their intentions for each speaking turn—that is, everything the counselor said between two client speech acts. Eliciting insight, giving information, and enhancing clarity were among the most helpful counselor behaviors.

Another coach behavior that enhances understanding is feedback, which is often mentioned in leadership coaching as a necessary coach competence: Hall et al. (1999) interviewed 75 executives about effective coaching factors and found that honest, realistic, and challenging positive and negative feedback rated highest. In a survey by Ladegard and Gjerde (2014), coaches' feedback increased coachee goal attainment, while Dahling et al. (2016) investigated coach behavior effects on goal attainment for 1,246 sales representatives over the course of 1 year. In accordance with earlier findings, coaches rated as highly skilled on a rating scheme that included feedback delivery were more effective at supporting coachees' goal attainment, although, importantly, this was partially mediated by coachees' role clarity.

In view of those few and mixed results from coaching research, we propose relying on well-established motivation and action theories to further elucidate the relationships among potentially effective coach behaviors. Therefore, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach-behavior category "enhancing understanding" (see Figure 1): (a) stimulating evaluations of coachee's own prior actions, (b) stimulating evaluations of other relevant actors and relationships, (c) stimulating feedback and information gathering, (d) stimulating accurate attributions of results to causes, and (e) inferring beliefs about the situation at hand, the situational supporting and hindering factors and actors, and their contingencies.

Strengthening Motivation

Coachees often seek coaching because of decision conflicts such as, "Should I invest or divest?" and "Should I quit, or should I fight on?" Thus, deliberation on the coachees' wishes is necessary to identify their goals. The purpose-oriented coach-behavior category "strengthening motivation"

supports deliberation of alternative values and goals and the eventual decision of which goal(s) to pursue with firm commitment (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). Thus, individuals' motivation is an important factor predicting behavior, enactment, effort, and performance (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). How such motivation emerges is described in the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), where motivational factors that influence behavior are captured in people's intention. The motivational factors "are indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). Two multiplicative factors that predict people's intention to adopt a behavior are: (a) their attitude toward a behavior (that is, the probability that it will create a consequence and that consequence's desirability) and (b) the subjective norm (that is, the likelihood that relevant others will approve or disapprove and the motivation to comply with these relevant others; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Accordingly, the coach-behavior category "strengthening motivation" stimulates deliberation of the consequences of alternative goals, evaluation of the desirability of these consequences, and identification of the goal to pursue while strengthening the motivation to actively pursue such goals (Behrendt et al., 2017). In accordance with this idea, empirical evidence supports the effectiveness of goal-focused coaching. Compared with a control group, executive coaches receiving goal-focused coaching showed increased leadership effectiveness (Williams & Lowman, 2018). In a study employing functional magnetic resonance imaging, Jack et al. (2013) found that coaches who stimulated the deliberation and evaluation of personal goals in positive and engaging ways evoked a motivating elaboration of personal goals, which then fostered change behavior. A meta-analysis concluded that career-coaching interventions that promote goal setting are superior to those that do not (Liu et al., 2014); however, for behavioral coaching studies evidence is scarce. Studies that have directly measured certain coach behaviors have only used small samples and failed to establish a significant relationship between these behaviors and coaching outcomes (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010).

In summary, research shows that goal-focused coaching is effective but that goals assume several forms (e.g., type and difficulty of the goal, Nowack, 2017). Coaches helping their coachees to identify the right goal can increase the latter's motivation to pursue a goal. For example, there are differences between performance and learning goals; the former focuses on attaining a result (e.g., effectively lead a team), whereas the latter focuses on the learning process itself—that is, on, developing new skills to attain and sustain a desired result (e.g., acquiring the skills to lead a team; Ames & Archer, 1988). Both types of goals can be appropriate, but setting a performance goal is recommended when coachees already have the necessary skills to attain specific outcomes but want to reach a desired level of performance. A learning goal is recommended when coachees lack the skills to master a task (Latham & Locke, 2013). In the same vein, approach goals focus on approaching desired outcomes, whereas avoidance goals focus on avoiding unwanted outcomes (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997), and both can be appropriate depending upon the coachee. This is supported by research on regulatory fit theory (Higgins, 2005), which showed that growth-oriented people try to make progress by approaching matches to their goal while security-oriented people tend to be cautious by avoiding mismatches. Thus, growth-oriented people benefit more from approach goals, and security-oriented people benefit more from avoidance goals (Mühlberger et al., in press).

Another important differentiation is the level of goal formulation. Whereas behavior-based goals can be specific and broken down into many concrete behaviors, attitude-based goals are vague and abstract (Storch, 2004). Decades of research on goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) has suggested that formulating goals as specifically as possible increases the probability of goal attainment. However, specific goals narrow one's focus and can lead to overlooking important issues (Ordóñez et al., 2009). The Zurich resource model (Storch, 2004) suggests that attitude-based goals are more effective than specific goals as coachees address their values and develop the inner attitude needed for goal attainment. They increase commitment toward the goal and strengthen self-determination, intrinsic motivation, and optimistic thinking (Weber, 2013). However, attitude-based and specific goals are not mutually exclusive; rather, they complement each other. Whereas specific goals are better for people already highly committed to their goal, attitude-based-goals should be set

to build underdeveloped commitment—a claim that is supported by self-reporting and neuropsychological studies (Mühlberger et al., 2017).

In a nutshell, goals have different natures, and “being precise with the goals of your client will maximize goal success” (Nowack, 2017, p. 165), which means that goals should fit the coachee and be tailor-made in partnership with the coach in order to maintain motivation and stay on track. This promotes sustainable coaching processes that allow new or altered behavior to endure over time.

Employing the empirical evidence about the effectiveness of goal-focused and goal-setting coaching along with motivation and action theories, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach-behavior category “strengthening motivation” (see Figure 1): (a) stimulating the deliberation of alternative goals and their consequences, (b) stimulating the evaluation and prioritization of the goals’ desirability, (c) promoting the decision about which goals to pursue, and (d) strengthening the motivation to pursue these goals by focusing on the positive consequences.

Facilitating Implementation

Coaching’s fundamental goal is to facilitate coachees accomplishing personal goals (de Haan et al., 2016). The purpose-oriented coach-behavior category “facilitating implementation” supports the planning of how to achieve identified goals and the implementation of these plans. Concrete implementation plans predict behavioral execution, surmounting challenges, and eventual goal attainment (Sheeran & Orbell, 1999). These plans include learned routine behaviors, necessary deliberate behaviors, and new behaviors that must be developed through coaching and where a performant, persistent, and flexible implementation, with an implemental mind-set, is beneficial (Gollwitzer, 1990). The implemental mind-set is characterized by an intense and focused information search to identify key opportunities and avoid distractions. For steadfast and persistent execution, an actional mind-set is beneficial, as characterized by focused absorption to ensure undistracted focus on cues that guide the intended action (Gollwitzer, 1990). Accordingly, the coach-behavior category “facilitating implementation” stimulates the formation of implementation plans, the identification and development of required behaviors, the identification of key opportunities for execution, and facilitation of focused behavioral action (Behrendt et al., 2017).

A behavioral study using coach-behavior ratings showed that the stimulation of detailed implementation plans decreased coachee helplessness while increasing motivation and self-management (Greif et al., 2010); other authors also advocate the value of this approach (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014). Moreover, studies find that solution-focused coaching is more effective than problem-focused coaching in terms of positive affect, self-efficacy, goal approach, and action planning (Grant, 2012; Grant & Gerrard, 2020). This may arise from the fact that solution-focused coaching focuses on developing ideas and plans of how to implement the solution. Thus, solution-focused techniques lead coachees to generate significantly more action steps to reach their goal.

Summarizing the action theories and empirical results concerning the effectiveness of solution- and implementation-focused coaching, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach-behavior category “facilitating implementation” (see Figure 1): (a) stimulating the formation of implementation plans; (b) including plans to acquire needed resources and support; (c) stimulating behavioral development; (d) identifying implementation opportunities; and (e) if the coach is present during the action phase, activating, focusing, and guiding behavioral execution.

The Coaching Process Structured by Purpose-Oriented Coach Behavior

Drawing on the reported theories, we propose that purpose-oriented coach-behavior supports coachees’ processes of goal accomplishment. The coach-behavior category “enhancing understanding” supports the evaluation phase, the “strengthening motivation” category supports the goal deliberation phase, and the “facilitating implementation” category supports the planning and action phase. If applied within the correct phase, these coach behaviors should be beneficial; however, if they are inappropriately applied, they may be counterproductive. For

example, a coach providing new feedback enhances understanding during the evaluation phase but risks unsettling the coachee during the action phase. Nevertheless, even the best implementation plans may fail if coachees fail to develop the motivation to accomplish the goal; hence, effective coaches should time their behavior based on the goal-identification and accomplishment phases. Consequently, coaches should ensure the defined end-state of a given phase has been reached before adjusting their behavior to the next phase. Furthermore, coaches should highlight the achieved end-states and communicate the impending phase transition to provide structured guidance and orientation to coachees.

This does not mean that coaching strictly follows the phases step-by-step. Some coachees may undertake coaching with already clear, firm, and motivating goals and merely need implementational support, whereas others may possess all the needed implementation skills once they identify the right goal (Grawe, 2004). Finally, the development process is iterative because each implementation is followed by renewed evaluation with subsequent goal and plan adjustments.

Change-Warranting Coach Behaviors

The purpose of coaching is defined as producing benefits in organizational, professional, and personal contexts (Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015; also see Kirkpatrick's, 1967 model of evaluation criteria). Thus, coach behaviors that ensure benefits are transferred into coachees' various routines are important. Accordingly, change-warranting coach behaviors facilitate a transfer from basic individual reactions within the coaching process to coachees' personal lives. In a meta-analysis, Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al. (2015) found that coaching ameliorated coachees' personal- and work-related attitudes (e.g., reduced stress, improved organizational commitment, increased motivation to transfer job skills) and led to behavioral changes (e.g., improved skills and job performance). Therefore, coaching changes coachees' attitudes and behaviors that consequently result in self-benefits in either private or work contexts. The question arises, though, how can a coach support this change? We propose "creating memorable experiences" as a change-warranting coach behavior that ensures changes achieved within coaching are memorized and transferred to an external context.

The challenge of effective coaching is to produce sustainable changes after only a few hours of coaching. Creating memorable experiences facilitates changes being comprehensively memorized, stabilized, and transferred into organizational, professional, and personal routines. This means that something which was developed or recognized within the coaching process is consolidated and implemented in daily life. Important factors for an efficient transfer are new behavioral automatisms, which result in changes at the neural level (Storch, 2004).

Holistic experiences within the coaching process, which include emotional, cognitive, and physiological processes that accompany the experience, are important to memorize the changes achieved and trigger the motivation to transfer them to external contexts. For example, in a given situation a coachee experiences certain emotions, thoughts, and bodily reactions, which, according to multiple code theory (Bucci, 2002), are mentally represented in symbolic and subsymbolic ways. "Subsymbolic" refers to physiological experiences and affects that Damasio (2003) speaks of as somatic markers (i.e., bodily reactions) that express people's affective experiences of situations. "Symbolic" refers to verbal information (i.e., describing a situation) or nonverbal information (e.g., pictures). The connection between subsymbolic and symbolic is the basis for psychological functioning in which a coachee may experience certain emotions and bodily reactions to a given situation (subsymbolic), retrieve images about this situation (symbolic nonverbal), and reflect verbally on these images and experiences (symbolic verbal). Here, the subsymbolic triggers the conscious symbolic system. Importantly, verbal descriptions alone do not create sustainable memories because connections among words, pictures, physiology, and emotions are important (Bucci, 2002) to create memories and transfer them to another context. Coaches can stimulate such holistic experiences by deliberately stimulating coachees' cognitive, physiological, and emotional processes.

Two initial coach-behavior studies indicate that these behaviors are effective and that the stimulation of emotions improves goal attainment (Behrendt, 2004). Furthermore, when simulation

and role-playing are rated by scientific observers (within the broader behavior category “support transfer into practice”), motivation and self-management improve (Greif et al., 2010). Evidence that holistic experiences foster goal attainment also stems from research on the Zurich Resource Model (Storch, 2004), which incorporates the subsymbolic and symbolic into goal-attainment processes: Coachees choose a picture that evokes positive somatic reactions, such as positive bodily feelings, and then define their goal. This method fosters goal commitment, self-determination, and motivation (Mühlberger et al., 2017; Weber, 2013). Furthermore, embodiment research has shown that coachees remember information better if it is encoded by listening, reading, and by making associated bodily movements. For example, people remember information better when they combine listening to certain phrases (e.g., “combing one’s hair”) while executing the actual content (Engelkamp, 1997). Such holistic experiences create neural-level changes (neuroplasticity) and thus promote new behavioral automatisms. Similarly, Drake’s (2018) concept of narrative coaching notes that coachees must perceive connections among somatic experiences, stories, and environments before eventually reconfiguring them. Integrating such connections into their being supports personal growth and thus positively impacts their lives.

Summarizing these theories and tentative research results, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach-behavior category “creating memorable experiences” (see Figure 1): (a) stimulating emotions, (b) stimulating physiological experiences corresponding to the intended context, (c) stimulating pictures or pictorial imagination, and (d) stimulating comprehensive cognitive experiences aligned to the intended context.

Overview of the IMoCB

The IMoCB (see Figure 1) depicts seven coach-behavior categories that are posited to increase coachees’ sustainable goal attainment. Purpose-oriented coach behavior directly supports goal attainment, whereas relationship-oriented behavior supports this process by creating effective working relationships, and change-warranting coach behavior creates memorable experiences so new behaviors trigger sustainable effects that are memorized. These three categories are not sequential; the relationship-oriented and change-warranting coach behaviors should always be present in coaching processes, but the purpose-oriented coach behaviors are employed in a specific sequence (from enhancing understanding, to strengthening motivation, to facilitating implementation) and are iterative.

According to the above theories, purpose-oriented coach behaviors are only effective if applied during the appropriate coaching phase—namely, enhancing understanding during the evaluation phase, strengthening motivation during the deliberation phase, and facilitating implementation during the planning and action phases. However, for goal attainment and sustainable change, purpose-oriented coach behaviors need to be embedded in good coach-coachee relationships and coachees’ memorable experiences. Relationship-oriented behaviors support goal attainment during all phases, which means that coaches should activate resources during all three phases—for example, well-adjusted thoughts and insights during the evaluation phase, personal wishes and hopes during the motivation phase, and competent behaviors and support for others during the implementation phase. In the same vein, change-warranting coach behaviors are relevant across all coaching phases to ensure sustainable coaching effects: Coaches’ competent guidance should be memorized and inspire important insight during evaluation phases or activate resources during implementation phases.

Additionally, purpose-oriented, relationship-oriented, and change-warranting behaviors differ with regard to intent. Purpose-oriented behaviors shape coaching content, relationship-oriented behaviors shape relationship interactions, and change-warranting behaviors influence the form and comprehensiveness of information processing. For example, when deliberating the desirability of specific options and consequences (content), coaches can empathize with coachees’ personal preferences (relationship interaction) and stimulate emotional immersion and the imagination of potential consequences (processing style) that create memorable experiences.

Discussion

Theoretical Value

To critically evaluate the IMoCB's value as a new theory in coaching research we discuss the following criteria of an adequate theory proposed by [Filley et al. \(1976\)](#): (a) generality—the breadth of both the applicability and knowledge domain spanned by the theory; (b) external consistency—a model's compatibility with research outcomes and observations; (c) internal consistency—the harmony of the theory's propositions; (d) parsimony—the reduction of complexity into a clear and concise model; and (e) testability—there are hypotheses that can be tested and falsified.

The IMoCB is based on psychological models and theories that have been developed and tested across a broad range of settings, and these theories have been validated across various contexts (see [Table 1](#)). Therefore, the generality of the IMoCB seems adequate because the proposed model spans all three definitory functions of coaching (i.e., creating an effective working relationship, facilitating goal identification and attainment, and creating memorable experiences); most other coaching models focus on one specific factor (e.g., content or interaction). Our model focuses on a sequential process for goal identification and attainment (purpose-oriented behaviors) and on two so-called moderators—that is, effective working relationships (relationship-oriented behaviors) and memorable experiences (change-warranting coach behaviors). Because it is based on psychological theories and coaching-specific behavior research, the IMoCB has high external consistency. Thus far, coaching literature has focused on coaching relationships, and therefore there are few empirical tests and little evidence for purpose-oriented and change-warranting behaviors. However, psychological research on goal pursuit and attainment supports our model. The IMoCB has internal consistency by delineating behavioral categories using well-established theories. The three meta-categories are distinguished by their targets: Purpose-oriented behaviors shape content and can be separated by specific end-states (goal deliberation, identification, and accomplishment), relationship-oriented behaviors shape interactions and can be separated by their focus (structured guidance focuses on coaching processes, personalized support on coaching content, and activating resources on coachees' personal resources), and memorable experiences shape information processing during coaching. The IMoCB is parsimonious because it provides a clear and simple structure delineating three metacategories and seven behavioral categories. The IMoCB is testable because it specifies four to six concrete behaviors in each of its seven categories, thereby providing a base of 33 behaviors to specify behavioral measures.

Although our model fulfills these criteria, achieving one's goals is always a challenge (at least for most people) and each of the phases of our model contains challenges, for both coach and coachee. Because coaching is a social interaction, there are of course also important factors on the side of the coachee that significantly contribute to goal attainment. For example, in the case of losing weight, when coaches show "enhanced understanding," do coachees really engage in reflecting on their problems or do they reduce dissonance ([Festinger, 1957](#)) and suppress them? Or if the coach tries to strengthen the coachee's motivation, it is still possible that the coachee is not ready to change and that his commitment to the goal, and thus his willingness to try, is not big enough and that he may not be able to cross the Rubicon ([Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008](#); [Storch, 2004](#)). Such low commitment might come from setting the wrong goal (see the "Strengthening Motivation" section). In summary, goal achievement is certainly a challenging process containing obstacles and difficulties. The IMoCB proposes coach behaviors that can reduce these difficulties and contribute to goal achievement.

Outlook and Empirical Validation

We propose the IMoCB as a starting point for further coaching-theory development. As discussed above, coach-behavior research is scarce but promising; consequently, the IMoCB still requires thorough testing, validation, differentiation, and refinement. To enable the IMoCB's validation, the scientific community needs comprehensive and precise behavioral measurements. Based on other research fields and methodological considerations, we know that perceptions of behavior differ significantly ([van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013](#)). Nevertheless, many survey studies seek to measure

coach behavior by approximating it through the coach's or coachee's perception. These survey studies are often flawed because of a range of observation errors, such as halo effects leading to significant overestimations of intercorrelations and blurred categories (Behrendt et al., 2017). Therefore, we call for the development of objective behavioral yardsticks that distinguish behavior from perception (e.g., video-analytic rating systems involving trained scientific observers, or computerized evaluations based on machine learning that analyzes coaching-session transcripts or videotaped facial expressions, postures, and gestures). Scientific advancement requires a measuring system that consistently assesses (a) coach behavior, (b) associated instant coachee reactions, (c) subsequent coachee cognitive and emotional changes, (d) coachee changes in organizational contexts, and (e) eventual goal accomplishment. When precise behavioral measurements are at hand, we propose a three-phase IMoCB validation process.

The first phase should focus on the general validation of the model's foundation: the effectiveness of the three metacategories, the seven behavior categories, and the related 33 specific behaviors. Moreover, this phase should also examine the phase-specificity of the purpose-oriented behaviors as well as phase-independence of the relationship-oriented and change-warranting behaviors. A confirmation of the phase-specificity of purpose-oriented behaviors may explain inconsistent results. For example, if purpose-oriented behaviors foster goal accomplishment during one phase but undermine it in another, then neutral effects or inconsistent outcomes could be expected.

The second phase requires investigation of the mediating processes between coach behavior and goal accomplishment where behavioral measurements would be beneficial. Using the IMoCB, we propose the following as mediating factors: (a) coachees' expectations that active participation in the coaching will help, (b) an effective working alliance, (c) activated resources and increased self-efficacy, (d) enhanced understanding and accurate evaluations and attributions, (e) strengthened motivation and clarified goals, (f) implementation plans and newly developed behaviors, and (g) sustainably memorized experiences that cause changes in organizational contexts.

During the third phase of the IMoCB's validation, the root theories of the integrative model of coach behavior should be used to generate and test hypotheses about situation-specific moderators of the effectiveness of coach behavior (e.g., the phase-specificity of appreciating behavior).

Conclusion

Following the call of current coaching meta-analyses, we propose the IMoCB as a foundation for comprehensive theory development because it possesses high generality, parsimony, external and internal consistency, and testability. Although the model integrates the current findings on coach behavior, it stimulates new research by promoting hypotheses concerning mediating and moderating factors while also providing a foundation of concrete and observable coach behaviors. The development of comprehensive and precise measurements of coach behavior is critical to harness the model's full potential and should be objective, with scientific behavior observation or automated analyses based on machine learning to eradicate widespread observation errors. Consequently, the integrative model may be used as a cornerstone in coaching-theory development and refinement, and it can stimulate practical research on the detailed process of coaching effectiveness. To encourage this endeavor, the model taps into a wealth of well-established psychological theories that provide concreteness and specificity while spanning all essential coaching functions. We would be delighted if the IMoCB spurs corresponding research activity and hence advancement in the developing field of coaching-effectiveness research.

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