Successful Behavior in Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership

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Abstract

Meta-analyses have established coaching, career counseling, and leadership as being effective in supporting professionals: These activities increase job seekers' success in obtaining a job, coachees' being successful in a job, and followers' success in achieving shared objectives in their teams. However, leading scientists and meta-analysts have criticized the lack of detailed scientific understanding and called for the development of a comprehensive theory that explains which specific behaviors enhance the success of coaches, career counselors, and leaders. This thesis develops an integrative model of successful behavior and three context-specific adaptations based on well-established foundational theories and distinct context-specific theories that reflect the definitory differences of the contexts (Chapter II on coaching, Chapter IV on career counseling, and Chapter V on leadership). Coaches, career counselors, and leaders influence their counterparts in personal relationships to increase their counterparts' goal achievement. Based on these definitory similarities, two foundational theories are identified for theoretical integration: (1) motivation and action theories that explain how individuals deliberate, select, pursue, and achieve their goals. These theories inform the delineation of *goal-oriented behaviors*; and (2) common factor theories that explain how supportive relationships create a successful influence. These theories inform the delineation of *relation-oriented behaviors*. The definition of coaching additionally refers to the need of coaches to create effects in the organizational context in which the coaches are not present. Therefore, the model of successful coach behavior also consulted (3) theories that explain how the human mind processes and memorizes experiences and finally retrieves the memories again in other contexts. These theories inform the delineation of *change-warranting behaviors*. In each of the three contexts, the context-specific model adaptations integrate existing behavioral research results and distinct theories that account for definitory specificities. For example, leaders not only influence individuals but also their team within a collective relationship. Consequently, the integrative model of leadership behavior also consults group and engagement theories that explain under what conditions individuals invest their efforts into a group's endeavor.

The resulting three model specifications of successful behavior provide high generality and external consistency due to their well-established foundational theories, high internal consistency due to the theory-based delineations of categories, high testability due to the 39 context-specific delineated behaviors, and concise parsimony: the model spans three areas of research, includes existing behavioral taxonomies, and addresses all essential definitory functions of coaching, career counseling, and leadership. Nevertheless, the integrative model of successful behavior proposes only three meta-categories and seven categories of successful behavior: (1) enhancing understanding, (2) strengthening motivation, and (3) facilitating implementation as *goal-oriented behavior* categories;

(4) fostering coordination, (5) promoting cooperation, and (6) activating resources as *relation-oriented behavior* categories; and (7) creating memorable experiences as a *change-warranting behavior* category.

To empirically validate the integrative model of successful behavior and its three specifications for coaching, career counseling, and leadership, the thesis calls for the development of objective behavior measures and a comprehensive validation strategy to validate (1) the behavior categories and their context-specific successful behaviors and (2) theory-based mediators and (3) to validate theory-driven hypotheses on potential moderators. A prestudy investigated the success-relevance of counseling process quality in a field-setting of 444 Swiss career counseling sessions (**Chapter III**): The counselors' supervisors' evaluation of process quality significantly predicted faster reemployment by almost four weeks. However, the specific success-relevant counselor behaviors were not identified in this study. Well-established observer errors significantly make lay observers' behavior perception flawed with, e.g., halo effects and confirmation biases. Therefore, the thesis develops and tests a first objective measure of successful behavior: the Freiburg Counselor Behavior Rating Manual (Chapter IV). In the first field study (Chapter IV), the video-based ratings of trained scientific observers yielded excellent intra-rater reliability and good to excellent inter-rater reliabilities for fourteen of the fifteen rated behaviors. An exploratory factor analysis (PCA) supported the theory-based factor structure. The counselor behavior ratings predicted the success of the 32 Swiss career counselors: the ratings of the behavior category 'providing structured guidance' predicted reemployment speed with a significant correlation of $r = .58$. This effect on faster reemployment is economically significant: a behavioral improvement of one quartile in national career counseling sessions would amount to savings in Swiss unemployment benefits of 831 million CHF (839 million US $) per year. The other two measured correlations were not significant. However, due to the small sample size and low testing power, the confidence intervals of all correlations overlapped. Hence, this first pilot study could only provide first indications of the more extensive endeavor of empirically validating the integrative model of successful behavior.

In addition to the critical continuation of the empirical validation, the thesis calls for additional theoretical advancements: (1) the further completion of the three model specifications for coaching, career counseling and leadership, and (2) the testing of the transferability of the model to other related fields. The integrative model of successful behavior explains by means of which behaviors individuals create a sustained influence and enhanced goal achievement for their counterparts within individual or collective relationships. For roles that share these definitory similarities, the model could inspire context-specific model adaptations. If it does, the model might fertilize knowledge transfers between as yet unrelated scientific communities and thereby spur new hypotheses.

Zusammenfassung

Meta-Analysen haben bestätigt, dass Coaching, Arbeitssuchendenberatung und Führung effektive Formate sind, um Menschen in Ihrem Berufsleben zu unterstützen. Sie erhöhen den Erfolg von Jobsuchern bei ihrer Jobsuche, den Erfolg von Coachees in ihrem Job und den Erfolg von Teammitgliedern bei der Erreichung gemeinsamer Ziele. Dennoch haben führende Wissenschaftler und Meta-Analysten das unvollständige wissenschaftliche Verständnis dieser Wirkung kritisiert. Sie haben daher zu fundierter Theorieentwicklung aufgerufen, die erklärt, welche spezifischen Verhaltensweisen den Erfolg von Coachs, Karriereberatern und Führungskräften erhöhen. Diese Dissertation entwickelt dementsprechend ein integratives Modell der erfolgsrelevanten Verhaltensweisen mit kontext-spezifischen Anpassungen in jedem der drei Kontexte, basierend auf generellen, gut etablierten Kerntheorien sowie kontext-spezifischen Theorien, die die definitorischen Besonderheiten der einzelnen Kontexte abbilden (**Chapter II** für Coaching, **Chapter IV** für Arbeitssuchendenberatung und **Chapter V** für Führung). Coachs, Arbeitssuchendenberater und Führungskräfte beeinflussen alle ihre Gegenüber in einer persönlichen Beziehung, um die Zielerreichung Ihrer Gegenüber zu erhöhen. Auf der Basis dieser definitorischen Gemeinsamkeit werden zwei Kerntheorien für die theoretische Integration herangezogen: (1) Motivations- und Handlungstheorien, die erklären, wie Individuen ihre Ziele reflektieren, auswählen, verfolgen und erreichen. Diese führen zur Ableitung der *ziel-orientierten Verhaltensweisen.* Und (2) Wirkfaktoren-Theorien, die erklären wie in unterstützenden Beziehungen erfolgreich Wirkung erzeugt werden kann. Diese führen zur Ableitung von *beziehungs-orientierten Verhaltensweisen*. Die Coachingdefinition verweist zudem auf die spezifische Notwendigkeit, dass Coachs Wirkung in einem organisationalen Kontext kreieren, in dem sie selbst nicht anwesend sind. Daher bezieht das Modell der erfolgsrelevanten Coach-Verhaltensweisen (3) Theorien mit ein, die erklären, wie das menschliche Gehirn Erfahrungen verarbeitet, erinnert und dann in anderen Kontexten wieder abruft. Die Konsultation dieser Theorien führt zur Ableitung von *veränderungs-orientierten Verhaltensweisen*. In jedes der drei kontext-spezifischen Modellanpassungen wurden die Ergebnisse existierender Verhaltensforschung und spezifische Theorien integriert, die die Kontextbesonderheiten abbilden. Z.B. beeinflussen Führungskräfte nicht nur einzelne Individuen, sondern ebenso ihre Teams und müssen auch in einer kollektiven Beziehung Wirksamkeit entfalten. Daher hat das integrative Modell des Führungs-Verhaltens auch Gruppen- und Engagement-Theorien konsultiert, die erklären, unter welchen Bedingungen Individuen hohen Einsatz für ihre Teams erbringen.

Die resultierenden drei Modellspezifikationen zu erfolgsrelevantem Verhalten besitzen eine hohe Allgemeingültigkeit und eine hohe externe Konsistenz, da sie auf gut etablierten Kerntheorien

beruhen. Sie besitzen hohe interne Konsistenz, da die Verhaltenskategorien alle theorie-basiert klar voneinander abgegrenzt wurden, und eine hohe Testbarkeit durch die insgesamt 39 abgeleiteten konkreten kontext-spezifizierten Verhaltensweisen. Gleichzeitig verfügen die drei Modelle über eine prägnante Sparsamkeit: obwohl das Modell drei Forschungsbereiche abdeckt, bestehende Verhaltenstaxonomien integriert und alle essentiellen definitorischen Funktionen von Coaching, Arbeitssuchendenberatung und Führung adressiert, schlägt das integrative Modell erfolgsrelevanter Verhaltensweisen nur drei Metakategorien und sieben Kategorien erfolgreichen Verhaltens vor: (1) Verständnis vertiefen, (2) Motivation stärken und (3) Handlungskompetenz verbessern als *ziel-orientierte Verhaltensweisen*, und (4) Koordination stärken, (5) Kooperation fördern, und (6) Ressourcen aktivieren als *beziehungs-orientierte Verhaltensweisen*, sowie (7) einprägsame Erfahrungen erzeugen als *veränderungs-orientierte Verhaltensweise*.

Die Thesis ruft dazu auf, das integrative Modell erfolgsrelevanter Verhaltensweisen und seine drei Spezifizierungen für Coaching, Arbeitssuchendenberatung und Führung empirisch zu validieren. Dafür sollen Forschungsmethoden zur objektiven Verhaltensbeobachtung entwickelt und eine umfassende Validierungsstrategie umgesetzt werden: Diese soll (1) die Verhaltenskategorien und die kontext-spezifischen erfolgsrelevanten Verhaltensweisen, (2) deren theorie-basierten Mediatoren, sowie (3) theorie-getriebene Hypothesen zu potenziellen Moderatoren validieren. In einer entsprechenden Feld-Vorstudie mit 444 Schweizer Sitzungen der Arbeitssuchendenberatung wurde die Erfolgsrelevanz der Beratungs-Prozessqualität geprüft (**Chapter III**): die Bewertung der Prozessqualität durch die Vorgesetzten der Berater sagte tatsächlich eine Beschleunigung der Wiedereingliederung um fast vier Wochen vorher. Allerdings blieben in dieser Studie die einzelnen erfolgsrelevanten Berater-Verhaltensweisen ungeklärt. Etablierte Beobachterfehler verzerren die Verhaltenswahrnehmungen von Laienbeobachtern signifikant z.B. durch Halo-Effekte und Selbstbestätigungstendenzen. Daher entwickelt und testet die Dissertation ein erstes objektives Messinstrument der erfolgsrelevanten Verhaltensweisen: Das Freiburger Rating Manual für Beraterverhalten (**Chapter IV**). In einer Feldstudie (**Chapter IV**) ergaben die video-basierten Ratings von trainierten wissenschaftlichen Beobachtern eine exzellente Intrarater-Reliabilität und gute bis exzellente Interrater-Reliabilitäten in 14 der 15 Verhaltensweisen. Eine explorative Faktorenanalyse (PCA) bestätigte die theorie-basierte Faktorenstruktur. Darüber hinaus sagten die Ratings des Beraterverhaltens den Erfolg von 32 Schweizer Arbeitssuchendenberatern vorher: die Ratings der Verhaltenskategorie ‚strukturierende Prozessführung geben' korrelierten mit der Geschwindigkeit der Wiedereinstellung signifikant mit $r = .58$. Dieser Effekt ist auch ökonomisch signifikant: Eine entsprechende Verhaltensverbesserung um ein Quartil in nationalen Arbeitssuchendenberatungen entsprächen einer jährlichen Einsparung von 831 Mio CHF (839 Mio US$) in der Arbeitslosenunterstützung. Die anderen beiden gemessenen Korrelationen waren nicht signifikant.

Da die Stichprobe klein und die Teststärke sehr niedrig war, überlappten sich die Konfidenzintervalle aller Korrelationen. Daher kann diese erste Pilotstudie nur erste Anhaltspunkte für die umfassenderen Bestrebungen der empirischen Validierung des integrativen Modells erfolgsrelevanter Verhaltensweisen liefern.

Neben der maßgeblichen empirischen Validierung ruft die Thesis auch zu theoretischen Weiterentwicklungen auf: (1) zur weiteren Komplettierung der drei Modellspezifikationen in Coaching, Arbeitssuchendenberatung und Führung, aber auch zu (2) einem Test der Übertragbarkeit des Modells auf Nachbarbereiche. Das Modell erklärt die Verhaltensweisen, mit denen Individuen in einer individuellen oder kollektiven Beziehung einen nachhaltigen Einfluss auf Ihre Gegenüber ausüben und deren Zielerreichung erhöhen können. Für Rollen, die diese definitorischen Gemeinsamkeiten teilen, könnte das Modell weitere kontext-spezifische Anpassungen inspirieren. Damit könnte das Modell Know-How-Transfer zwischen bisher unverbundenen Wissenschafts-Communities und die Entstehung neuer Hypothesen anregen.

Chapter I

Introduction

Achieving professional goals is essential for 3.6 billion of professionals worldwide (Lexas Information Network, 2016). While some struggle for pure survival, others strive to enhance their social status, their career, or to fulfill their social or creative vocation. To best support professionals in these endeavors, diversified societies have created various roles and methods: Career counselors support professionals to successfully obtain a the job (Behrendt, Göritz, & Heuer, in press, see Chapter III); coaches support them to become more successful on the job (Sonesh et al., 2015); and leaders support them to successfully achieve their goals as a team (Burke et al., 2006). In this way, successful career counselors can significantly shorten periods of individual unemployment and thereby alleviate serious individual unemployment risks such as poverty, mental health issues, suicide ideation, or court conviction and simultaneously create significant economic reductions in unemployment benefits (Behrend et al., in press, see Chapter III). In addition to supporting goal achievement, successful coaches also promote individual performance and skills, coping, positive work attitudes, and personal well-being (Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). Successful leaders not only increase individual and team performance but also the performance of the overall organization (Burke et al., 2006). Currently, in Germany alone, almost 100.000 employees in the German job centers (Bundesagentur für Arbeit, 2018), 8.000 professional coaches (Stephan & Gross, 2013), and 4.9 Mio leaders (Holst & Friedrich, 2017) strive to successfully support professional goal achievement and thereby promote these various individual, organizational, and social benefits.

More than a century of leadership research, as well as several decades of coaching and career counseling research, has shown that coaching (Theeboom et al., 2014), career counseling (Whiston, 2002; Whiston, Brecheisen, & Stephens, 2003; Whiston, Sexton, & Lasoff, 1998), and leadership (Burke et al., 2006) are successful in supporting professionals and increasing their goal achievement. While their general effectivity is undoubtable, leading scientists and meta-analysts have criticized the lack of scientific understanding of the specific successful behaviors that create this effectiveness (coaching: Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016; Sonesh et al., 2015; career counseling: Whiston, Rossier, & Barón, 2016; leadership: van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). In all three areas, studies that investigate observable behaviors are scarce, and their theoretical foundations are scattered. Consequently, leading scientists and meta-analysts have called for more theoretical integration to better understand the successful behaviors of coaches (Jones et al., 2016; Sonesh et al., 2015), career counselors (Whiston et al., 2016), and leaders (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Inspired by the common factor models of clinical research (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015), the thesis develops a theoretical framework of successful behavior specified in each of the contexts

based on well-established psychological theories (Chapter II, IV, and V). Coaching, career counseling, and leadership possess essential definitory similarities: In all three contexts, coaches, career counselors, and leaders exert their influence on supporting (1) the achievement of professional goals (2) within an individual relationship. These similarities facilitate the identification of promising foundational theories for theoretical integration: (1) motivation and action theories that explain how individuals select and achieve their goals, as well as (2) common factor models that explain how supporting relationships create positive influence.

In addition to these similarities, three specificities differentiate the contexts: the type of goals, the degree of freedom of choice, and the exclusivity of the relationship. To account for these contexts' specificities, additional distinctive theories are consulted. Furthermore, the existing findings of behavioral research in each context are integrated into those context-specific adaptations. Based on these distinct theories and findings, the papers delineate specific behaviors in each of the three contexts to be tested in future behavioral studies (Chapter II, IV, and V).

Finally, the coaching and leadership papers (Chapters II and V) discuss the delineated integrative models based on the criteria of a good theory: Does the integrative model of successful behavior possess generality and external and internal consistency, parsimony, and testability? The career counseling papers additionally develop an objective measurement of behavior observation and validate it in a first field study to investigate whether the theory-based behaviors can predict the career counselors' success in reemployment (Chapter IV).

In summary, the thesis integrates current findings within one theory-based framework of successful behavior specified in the three contexts of coaching, career counseling, and leadership and delineates specific successful behaviors within each of those frameworks. In this way, the framework possesses two elements of a good theory: a high level of general breadth and a profound level of detail. Thereby, the thesis strives to provide a parsimonious theory that could guide practitioners in their endeavor to support professionals and provide them with specific behavioral guidelines on how to create success in their role-specific routines. Furthermore, the theoretical framework should fertilize new hypotheses to be tested and to inform further theory development. Delineated specific behaviors are provided to the scientific community for investigation, selection for maximum validity and further enhancement in continuous behavioral research. The presented study on successful career counseling behavior exemplifies that endeavor (Chapter IV): The pilot field study develops and validates an objective measure of counselor behavior and criterion-validates the three relation-oriented counselor behaviors. As core elements of the framework span three important areas of organizational psychology, the models and their foundational theories have the potential to integrate and transfer findings from the different scientific communities of coaching, counseling, and leadership. Furthermore, the model's core elements could also inspire the scientific communities in

related fields to further enrich their theory development on the success-relevant behavior of other supporting roles.

The Contexts of Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership

Coaching is defined as 'a one-to-one relationship in which the coach and coachee work together to identify and achieve organizationally, professionally, and personally beneficial development goals' (Sonesh et al., 2015, p. 73). Career counseling is 'intended to enhance an individual's career development or to enable the person to make better career-related decisions' (Whiston et al., 1998, p. 150) and thereby 'promotes jobseekers' reemployment' (Behrendt et al., in press, see Chapter III). Finally, Yukl (2012) defines the essence of leadership as 'influencing and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives' (p. 66). These definitions reveal three important similarities and differences between the three contexts (Table 1). First, the essence of coaching, career counseling, and leadership includes the *support of professional goal achievement*. However, the nature of the supported goals varies: While coaching focuses on personal goals, leadership focuses on shared goals, and job seekers' career counseling focuses on reemployment as a predefined individual goal. Second, coaches, career counselors, and leaders all support goal achievement by an *indirect influence*. However, the level of the professionals' autonomy within that indirect influence varies: while coachees work together with their coaches freely by choice, leaders intend to influence their followers without their prior consent, and career counselors in most countries can even prescribe the counseling and mandatorily promote specific actions of job seekers such as a certain number of applications (Behrendt, et al., in press, see Chapter III). Third, coaching, career counseling, and leadership all take effect *within an individual relationship*. However, the level of exclusivity varies: while coaching and career counseling operate exclusively within the one-to-one relationship, leadership operates within the individual and the collective relationship within the team.

Table 1

Similarities and Differences in the Context of Coaching and Career Counseling of Job Seeker and Leadership based on the Three Reported Definitions

COACHING	CAREER COUNSELING	LEADERSHIP
support professional goal achievement for		
personally beneficial goals	reemployment	shared objectives
by indirect influence		
working together freely by choice	promoting mandatorily	intending to influence and facilitate
within an individual relationship that is		
one-to-one	one-to-one	one-to-one and one-to-several

Foundational Theories

Theories that reflect the context similarities (see Table 1) could inform the overarching model of successful behavior and all three model specifications and therefore build a shared basis for scientific understanding. Accordingly, these foundational theories need to explain the successful behavior of roles that support professional goal achievement by indirect influence within an individual relationship (see Tables 1 and 2). First, theories that explain the process of professional goal achievement could provide a basis for understanding successful supporting behaviors in all three contexts. *Motivation and action theories* provide well-established insights regarding how individuals deliberate, select, pursue, and finally achieve their goals. Within the motivation theories, expectancy-value theories (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) are well developed, validated, and widely accepted. These motivation theories explain the process of deliberating and selecting goals as well as the force of pursuing goals. The rubicon model (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008) further elaborates these theories by explaining the ensuing course of action. Action theory provides a detailed understanding of the process of pursuing and achieving goals. Taken together, these two theories could inform the theoretical framework regarding *goal-oriented behaviors* that successfully supports goal achievement by supporting the deliberation, selection, pursuit, and achievement of goals.

Second, theories that explain the influence within an individual supportive relationship could provide a basis for understanding successful behaviors in all three contexts. Based on meta-analyses of more than a century of clinical research, the common factor models (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015) explain how supporting individuals positively exert positive influence within a psychological and social relationship. The authors argue that these common factors 'entail evolved characteristics of humans as a hypersocial species; as such, psychotherapy is merely a special case' of general

psychological and social interventions (Wampold, 2015, p. 270). Based on meta-analytic results and well-established psychological and neurological theories, these models explain how supporting individuals creates an effective individual relationship, fosters the active participation of the supported person and positively influences his or her ensuing actions. Consequently, these two theoretical models could inform the theoretical framework regarding *relation-oriented behaviors* that successfully supports an effective relationship, creates active participation, and exerts a positive influence.

Table 2

Foundational Theories that inform the Theoretical Framework of Successful Behavior and all Three Context-specific Adaptations in Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership

1) MOTIVATION AND ACTION THEORIES	Inform:
	GOAL-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS
Explain how	Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975
professional goal-achievement is supported	Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008
2) COMMON FACTOR MODELS	Inform:
	RELATION-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS
Explain	Grawe, 2004
influence within an individual relationship	Wampold, 2015

Behavior versus Behavior Perception

In behavioral research, the distinction between behavior and behavior perception is critical. Many studies have investigated behavior by interviewing or surveying lay observers. For example, leadership behaviors are investigated by asking followers what behaviors their leaders execute. Similarly, behavior scientists survey coachees about their coaches' behaviors and job seekers about their career counselors' behaviors. In fact, these studies investigate the behavior perception of the surveyed lay observers. Unfortunately, many studies have established the fact that lay observers are prone to making significant observer errors: In consequence, lay observer behavior perceptions are flawed by well-established errors such as the halo effect, confirmation biases, and the need to answer consistently (for a more detailed literature review and discussion see Chapter V, section on 'The lack of theory-based conceptualizations of leadership behavior'). Consequently, theoretical frameworks on successful behaviors should be built upon research results that measure behavior with more objective research methods, such as video analysis or diary studies. These studies are scarce in all three research areas, but a few studies were identified and consulted for theoretical

integration and the specification of potential successful behaviors within the developed theoretical frameworks.

Overview of the Four Papers

Paper 1: Relationship, Purpose, and Change—An Integrative Model of Coach Behavior

Paper 1 developed the theoretical framework of successful coach behavior that delineates the specific behaviors that enhance the coaches' success: the integrative model of coach behavior (IMoCB). Meta-analysis has already established the effectiveness of coaching and the one-to-one coaching relationship (Theeboom et al., 2014). Consequently, the paper delineated specific *relation-oriented coach behaviors* based on the abovementioned common factor models. In this regard, several coaching studies with objective measurements of relation-oriented behaviors were identified. As these studies had various theoretical backgrounds, the diverse behaviors had to be integrated into IMoCB.

As the definition of coaching (Sonesh et al., 2015) also refers to personal goal achievement, motivation and action theories were consulted to delineate specific behaviors. In the context of coaching, the goals are less formal than in the leadership context, e.g., the coaching goals are freely chosen by the coachee and therefore potentially subject to change during the entire process. To consider these context-specificities, these behaviors were categorized as *purpose-oriented coach behaviors*. Because of the existing research focus on the coaching relationship, very few studies on purpose-oriented behaviors have been identified. Consequently, the delineation of specific behaviors remained mainly theory driven.

The definition of coaching also refers to intended benefits in an organizational context in which a coach is not present. Consequently, the framework also delineates a third behavior meta-category that ensures effects outside of the direct coaching context: *change-warranting coach behaviors*. The multiple code theory explains how the human mind processes personal experiences and then represents and connects the relevant verbal and nonverbal information, creates concurring memories, and finally retrieves them again in other contexts (Bucci, 1997, 2002). Together with a model on somatic markers (Damasio, 2003), multiple code theory was consulted to integrate the few identified studies on change-warranting coach behavior.

Paper 2: Career Counseling Process Quality promotes Reemployment

Meta-analyses established career counseling as the most effective career intervention (Whiston, 2002; Whiston et al., 2003; Whiston et al., 1998). Therefore, one-to-one career counseling forms a key part in most countries' strategies for reintegrating job seekers into the labor market

(Hooley, 2014). Nevertheless, research has not yet concluded whether the quality of counseling and underlying counselor behaviors can promote counseling success. Therefore, paper 2 first investigates whether a higher process quality of career counseling sessions predicts goal achievement, as measured by faster reemployment. The investigation was conducted in three Swiss job centers over a period of five years, investigating 444 counseling sessions and the respective job seeker reemployment. According to Donabedian's (2005) definition of process quality, the process quality of the career counseling sessions was measured by direct observation and evaluation by the career counselor supervisors. The overall evaluation was based on detailed behavioral descriptions of a good process in the job center.

Paper 3: The Effect of Career Counselor Behavior on Reemployment

Based on promising results of the study in paper 2 (Behrendt et al., in press, see Chapter IV), paper 3 developed and validated the theoretical framework of successful career counselor behaviors that delineates the behaviors that enhance the career counselors' success. Research on specific career counselor behavior is very scarce (Whiston et al., 2016). Because several literature reviews and case studies have suggested the one-on-one relationship as a success-critical component of career counseling (Hawthorn & Alloway, 2009; Sheehy, Kumrai, & Woodhead, 2011; Sonesh et al., 2015; Whiston et al., 2016), paper 3 focuses on developing a framework of relation-oriented behaviors as a first step. Based on the common factor models, paper 3 delineates three career counselor behavior categories and relevant specific *relation-oriented behaviors*. Furthermore, paper 3 consults a few existing general counseling behavior studies for theoretical integration and the delineation of specific behaviors within its theoretical framework. To allow for objective, reliable investigation of the delineated behavior categories, paper 3 develops and validates a specific behavior observation measure: the Freiburg Counselor Behavior Rating Manual. The specified behaviors were validated in another field study in the three Swiss job centers: career counselor behavior in 32 counseling sessions was rated by trained scientific observers to investigate correlations with the counselors' reemployment success.

Paper 4: An Integrative Model of Leadership Behavior

Over a century of leadership research has provided an extensive body of literature, studies, and theories on successful leadership behavior that is based on the investigation of leadership behavior perceptions. Consequently, leadings scientists have criticized the lack of sound theoretical foundations and objective measurements and called for the abandonment of current concepts and a move 'back to the drawing board' to develop new leadership behavior theories (van Knippenberg &

Sitkin, 2013, p. 1). Given that aim, paper 4 critically discusses the current state of leadership behavior research, the impediments associated with the flawed measurements that focus on behavior perception and develops a new theoretical framework of successful leadership behavior: the integrative model of leadership behavior (IMoLB). To ensure compatibility with the existing leadership behavior perception research, IMoLB starts the theoretical integration based on one of the best-established comprehensive taxonomies of leadership behavior perceptions (Yukl, 2012).

Yukl's (2012) definition of leadership (see above) refers to the aim of achieving shared objectives. Accordingly, IMoLB delineates successful leadership behaviors based on motivation and action theories that explain how humans deliberate, select, pursue, and achieve their goals. Because the shared objectives of teams are bound to the more general teams' organizational task, these behaviors were categorized as *task-oriented leadership behaviors* consistent with other leading leadership behavior taxonomies (Yukl, 2012).

Yukl's (2012) definition of leadership (see above) also refers to the leader's individual and collective relationship. Accordingly, IMoLB delineates successful *relation-oriented leadership behaviors*. To reflect the individual supporting relationship, common factor theories were consulted. To reflect the collective relationship, IMoLB additionally consulted group and engagement theories that explain under what conditions individuals invest their efforts into the group's shared objectives (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Ellemers, Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; Ingham, Levinger, Graves, & Peckham, 1974; Karau & Williams, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995).

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Chapter II

Paper I:

Relationship, Purpose, and Change – An Integrative Model of Coach Behavior

Citation

Abstract

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, little is known about the specific coach behaviors that create a successful interaction. Based on well-established psychological theories, we derived an *integrative model of coach behavior* that delineates three meta-categories of coach behavior. (A) The meta-category *relationship-oriented coach behavior* fosters an effective working relationship and entails the specific behaviors *providing structured guidance, providing personalized support* and *activating resources*. (B) The meta-category *purpose-oriented coach behavior* directly supports goal accomplishment and entails the specific behaviors *enhancing understanding, strengthening motivation,* and *facilitating implementation*. (C) The meta-category *change-warranting coach behavior* fosters comprehensive information processing that sustains change and entails the specific behavior *creating memorable experiences*. Each of these behavioral meta-categories is further specified by several concrete behaviors. Based on its psychological root-theories, the integrative model of coach behavior provides concise categories with clear distinctions and relationships. Furthermore, the model's root theories spur a wealth of new hypotheses regarding the process of coach behavior effectiveness, as well as its mediators and moderators. To thoroughly test these hypotheses and overcome the limitations of subjective surveys, we call for the development of objective behavioral measurements of coach behaviors, instant coachee reactions, and the associated subsequent cognitive, emotional and behavioral changes.

Keywords:

coaching, coach behavior, theory, change, working alliance

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[1] Shared first authorship

Implications for Consulting Psychology:

Based on established psychological theories, we develop an integrative model of essential coach behaviors that create a successful coaching interaction: (1) three relation-oriented behavior categories, (2) three purpose-oriented behavior categories, and (3) one change-warranting behavior category. The specific behaviors in these seven behavior categories are proposed to be tested by coaching researchers and embedded in real-life coaching sessions by coaching practitioners.

Introduction

Coaching has gained increasing popularity not only in practice but also in scientific theory (Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). Coaching is defined as "a one-to-one relationship in which the coach and coachee work together to identify and achieve organizationally, professionally, and personally beneficial development goals" (Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al., 2015, p. 73). Correspondingly, coaching was established to enhance people's professional and personal development (for an overview, see Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh & Parker, 2010), and it has shown many positive outcomes such as increased goal attainment and general performance, as well as improved skills, well-being, coping, self-regulation, and personal resilience (e.g., de Haan, Grant, Burger, & Eriksson, 2016; Grant, 2013; Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2015; Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al., 2015; Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). Numerous studies have found that the working alliance between coach and coachee constitutes the most important indicator of coaching success (Baron & Morin, 2009; de Haan, Duckworth, Birch, & Jones, 2013; de Haan et al., 2016; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; Kemp, 2008; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014; Theeboom et al., 2014). To measure this relationship, many researchers have focused on the working alliance scale (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989). This scale subjectively surveys the coach and coachee's mutual agreement concerning the goals that they want to achieve with coaching, on the tasks that help to achieve these goals, and the strength of their bond that entails trust, respect, and liking (Bordin, 1979). A meta-analysis found that a high-quality working alliance is related to desirable coaching outcomes such as satisfaction with coaching (Graßmann, Schölmerich, & Schermuly, 2019). The importance of the coaching working alliance emphasizes that coaching is an interactional process in which both parties must effectively work together. However, the specific coach behaviors that create an effective coaching interaction remain unclear. Consequently, many researchers have called for increased research focused especially on coach behaviors that create positive coaching effects (de Haan et al., 2016; Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015; Jones et al. 2016; Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015). To date, many studies continue to use retrospective self-reports (e.g., Baron & Morin, 2009; de Haan et al., 2013; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014; Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015; Visser, 2011), and only a handful have measured behavior directly (e.g., Behrendt, 2006; Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015; Greif,

2010; Greif, Schmidt, & Thamm, 2010; Ianiro, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Kauffeld, 2015; Ianiro, Schermuly, & Kauffeld, 2013; Klonek, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Kauffeld, 2014; Klonek, Wunderlich, Spurk, & Kauffeld, 2016). Unfortunately, the few behavioral studies are based on different theoretic models derived from theories outside of the coaching literature. Consequently, these studies use inconsistent and even frequently overlapping behavioral categories. As such, the authors of three coaching meta-analyses state that a firm theoretical foundation is generally 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 and has the potential to explain how coaching creates positive effects and guide future research on effective coaching in general and coach behaviors specifically.

The present article proposes an integrative model of coach behavior (IMoCB) based on Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, and others's (2015) meta-analytic definition of coaching above. Based on this definition, we derived three essential functions of coach behaviors: (A) to create an effective working relationship, (B) to facilitate goal-attainment, and (C) to create sustainable change in one's professional, organizational and personal daily routines. The proposed IMoCB derives specific coach behaviors for each of these behavioral functions based on well-established psychological theories. The specific behaviors are proposed to the scientific coaching community to be tested, selected for maximal validity and continually honed in future coach behavior research.

The Three Functions of Coach Behavior

In their meta-analysis, Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, and colleagues (2015) defined coaching as "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). Although this is only one of the various definitions of coaching, broad consensus exists concerning the core elements of coaching. The definitions include three essential mechanisms of effective coaching: Coaching is A) a one-to-one working relationship between a coach and a client; B) has the purpose of identifying and attaining professional or personal goals, and C) has benefits in an organizational, professional, and personal context. To support these essential functions, coach behaviors should A) foster an effective one-to-one working relationship between the coach and the coachee, B) facilitate the goal identification and attainment of the coachee, and C) ensure that the generated beneficial changes are transferred into the organizational, professional, and personal contexts. Consequently, a comprehensive coach behavior model should include coach behaviors that fulfill the following three essential functions: (A) *Relationship-oriented coach behaviors* should foster an effective working relationship; (B) *Purpose-oriented coach behaviors* should facilitate coachee goal identification and attainment; and (C) *Change-warranting coach behaviors* should ensure the generated changes are

memorized and transferred into routines outside of the coaching context (see also Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017; de Haan et al., 2016).

To specify the above three meta-categories of coach behaviors, we built on three corresponding streams of well-established psychological research: (A) common factor models of psychological interventions that specify the mechanisms of an effective consulting relationships (e.g., the psychotherapy models by Grawe, 2004 and Wampold, 2015), (B) motivation and action theories that explain the process of personal goal identification and achievement (e.g., the Rubicon model by Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008), and (C) neurological models of human memory that explain how experiences are memorized and produce change across different contexts and behavioral routines (e.g., multiple code theory by Bucci, 2002).

Integrative Model of Coach Behavior (IMoCB)

Relationship-Oriented Coach Behaviors that Foster an Effective Working Relationship

The coaching relationship has been identified not only as critical component of effective coaching (Baron & Morin, 2009; de Haan et al., 2013, 2016) but also as the component that the coach can influence most (Ianiro & Kauffeld, 2014). Relationship-oriented coach behaviors focus on the coaching relationship, rather than directly on the purpose of coaching. Although the coaching literature has not yet provided a comprehensive coaching-specific model of the effective coaching relationship, many researchers refer to common factor models based on more than a century of psychotherapy research (de Haan et al., 2016). These models assert that specific relationship behaviors are needed to be effective in the context of psychological interventions. Wampold (2015) and Grawe (2004) provided the two most renowned models. Both models are based on large-scale meta-analytic reviews of intervention-non-specific factors (e.g., the working alliance) that were shown to explain approximately 70% of the intervention outcomes (Grawe, 2007; Grawe, Donati, & Bernauer, 1994; Wampold, 2001). Both common factor models describe three essential proximal intervention outcomes: (1) the clients'/patients' expectations that their active participation in the process will help them to make progress; (2) a personally supportive and engaged working alliance; and (3) the activation of the patients'/clients' resources to foster instrumental action (Behrendt, Göritz, & Heuer, in press). Both common factor models describe the effective relationship behaviors of therapists/counselors who create these proximal outcomes (specified in the following sections). For example, clients' positive expectations are created through the counselor's personal competence and through convincing explanations of a consistent and well-structured counselling/therapeutic process. These behaviors were transferred to the context of nonclinical counseling (Behrendt et al., in press) to delineate the following three behavior categories: (1) providing structured guidance, (2)

providing personalized support, and (3) activating resources. In the following section, we specify these three behavior categories in the context of coaching based on the existing behavioral coaching literature.

Providing structured guidance. The first essential proximal outcome present in the common factor models by Wampold and Grawe is the coachee's positive expectation that their active participation in the process will help them to make progress (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). According to these models, this outcome is facilitated if the coach convinces the coachee by providing a clear orientation. This helps coachees to quickly engage in the coaching process. As coaching processes typically involving no more than three to ten sessions (Theeboom et al., 2014), coachees must quickly engage in the coaching for an effective working alliance. A clear orientation is important to facilitate adequate engagement. Therefore, the coach behavior category "providing structured guidance" entails that the coach gives convincing explanations of a well-structured process and demonstrates his or her personal competence (Behrendt et al., in press).

Behavioral studies provide evidence for the effectiveness of structured guidance. When coaches show self-assured and assertive behavior (e.g., speaking with a clear and firm voice) and behavior that structures the interaction process (e.g., assigning tasks), coachees engage more actively in the coaching process and indicate improved goal attainment (Ianiro et al., 2013, 2015). Structuring and guiding the process is inherent to the coach's role, especially at the beginning of the coaching process to provide an orientation for the coachees and their subsequent progress. Furthermore, self-confident coach behaviors meet the coachee's role expectations, provide security and facilitate attributions of competence to the coach. Furthermore, these coach behaviors facilitate coachees opening up to their coaches' support and actively follow their provided guidance and exercises (Ianiro et al., 2013, 2015). Another behavioral study found that if a coach provides structured guidance, coachees report more coaching progress, including goal identification and subsequent goal attainment (Behrendt, 2006). Several specific coach behaviors that formed the behavior category together predicted this coaching progress: In particular, coaching progress improves if the coach explains the coaching structure and how it supports coachees goal attainment; if the coach conveys competence by self-assurance, explicitly demonstrating professional competence and shared professional knowledge, and if the coach provides competent ad hoc interventions such as asking a question that identifies new opportunities within a frustrating situation.

Based on the above findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential subcomponents of the coach behavior category "providing structured guidance" (Figure 1): (1) structuring the coaching process, (2) explaining the process and how it supports the coachee, (3)

showing professional competence as a person, (4) providing competent guidance during the process, and (5) conveying personal self-assurance.

Providing personalized support. The second essential proximal outcome in the common factor models by Wampold and Grawe is a supportive working alliance (Behrendt et al., 2017; Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). According to the common factor models, this outcome is facilitated if the coach provides personalized support. Although the coach is the expert of the coaching process, the coachee is the expert of his or her own personal situation, including their personal goals, purposes, and adequate solutions (Jones et al., 2016). Therefore, the coachee should determine the content of the coaching, and the coach should support the coachee in this personal situation in a "warm, caring, and empathic interaction" (Wampold, 2015, p. 273). As such, the coach offers different tools, methods, and conversation techniques to support the client. Accordingly, the coach behavior category "providing personalized support" ensures an effective working alliance by providing warm, empathic, and practical support.

In fact, lag sequential analyses revealed that supportive coach behavior (e.g., expressing support for the autonomy of the coachee) enables coachees to reflect on their 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 goal set by the coachee), subsequent goal attainment increases (Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015). Self-reported coaching progress and the goal attainment of coachees further increases if coaches offer practical support to the coachees' solution search and support the coachees' rational goals and emotional core motives (Behrendt, 2006). In summary, if coaches support their coachees' core motives, goals, and contributions, the coachees further increase their constructive engagement, report progress and subsequently enhance their goal attainment.

In addition to the notion of active support, several studies have indicated the importance of a more subtle, supportive atmosphere created by warm and empathic emotional support. In this vein, coaches with more dominant behaviors only produced positive effects if they were enacted in a friendly and supportive manner, rather than in a neutral or even hostile manner. Only coach dominance accompanied by smiling, leaning forward or friendly eye-contact fostered coachees' engagement and subsequent goal attainment (Ianiro et al., 2015). Moreover, warm and caring nonverbal support increase emotional insight, reduce helplessness (Greif et al., 2010), increase reported coaching progress, and subsequent goal attainment (Behrendt, 2006). Self-reported coaching progress and subsequent goal attainment is 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" (Figure 1): (1)

supporting the coachee's core motives, (2) supporting his or her goals and needs, (3) offering practical support, (4) conveying nonverbal support, (5) showing patience, and (6) showing empathy.

Activating resources. The third essential proximal outcome in the common factor models by Wampold and Grawe is the activation of instrumental resources and functional action (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). According to these models, this outcome is facilitated if the coach promotes functional resources (Behrendt et al., in press). Unlike patients in therapy, coachees are by definition healthy and generally well-functioning clients with a specific need for support (Greif, 2008; Theeboom et al., 2014). Consequently, coachees possess a wealth of functional resources (generally available motivation, functional cognitions, personal traits and competences, interpersonal support, or material resources), even if they are not accessible with regard to the coaching topic at hand (Greif, 2010). An effective positive working relationship helps coachees raise awareness, focus, and access these resources (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, the coach behavior category "activating resources" promotes functional resources by focusing, rewarding, encouraging and positively shaping these functional resources (Behrendt et al., in press).

In fact, if coaches affirm or recognize the coachee, his or her competences, actions, and thoughts, coachees increase their positive and optimistic reflections with regard to goal identification and subsequent achievement plans (Klonek et al., 2016), increase their willingness to change (Will, Schulte, & Kauffeld, 2019), report more coaching progress, and improve subsequent goal attainment (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010). Furthermore, if coaches promote confidence in the future, the coachee helplessness declines (Greif et al., 2010) and subsequent goal attainment becomes more likely (Behrendt, 2006). In addition, if coaches stimulate coachees to explore their resources (Greif et al., 2010) and their lively experience (Behrendt, 2006), coachees' motivation and subsequent goal attainment increases.

These effects are theoretically founded in self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977): Behavior enactment, behavioral effort, and behavioral persistence increase with increasing self-efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs are promoted by verbal persuasion, focusing vicarious success and personal accomplishments, and accompanying emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). According to behavioral theory, recognizing initial accomplishments additionally reinforces, shapes, and sustains functional behavior (Gassmann & Grawe, 2006).

In addition to the pure positive orientation, coachees also face challenges in the coaching processes. For example, therapeutic behavior research demonstrates that focusing on chances and change-oriented outlooks rather than negative situations increases therapeutic progress (Smith & Grawe, 2005). Although no behavioral coaching studies have been conducted yet, questionnaire studies indicate that coaching is more effective if coaches frame problems as activating challenges (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014) or if they focus on possible solutions (Grant & O'Connor, 2010).

Based on these theories and findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential subcomponents of the coach behavior category "activating resources" (Figure 1): (1) recognizing the coachee and his or her accomplishments, (2) promoting self-efficacy, (3) stimulating the experience of personal resources, and (4) framing problems as activating challenges.

Figure 1. Relationship-oriented coach behaviors and their effect on the three proximal outcomes of the common factor models.

Purpose-Oriented Coach Behaviors that Facilitate Goal Identification and Attainment

"Coaching is an inherently goal- and task-focused enterprise…, and it is the explicit role of the coach to support and facilitate [that]" (de Haan et al., 2016, p. 203). According to Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al.'s (2015) definition, coaches and coachees work together to identify and achieve developmental goals. Thus, coachees seek coaches for a specific organizational, professional or personal purpose. Purpose-oriented coach behaviors directly support the process of identifying certain goals and accomplishing them.

Motivation and action theories provide well-established insights regarding how individuals in general and coachees specifically identify and achieve their 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 decided. These observations were captured in the Rubicon model (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008), which describes the course of an action. According to this model, before a decision to act, individuals' thoughts are preoccupied with the values and expectations of the action. After the decision, however, thoughts are focused on the implementation of the action (Grawe, 2004). Based on the Rubicon model, the purpose-oriented coaching process is characterized into four iterative phases: (1) the evaluation of previous outcomes to deliberate and understand the relationships, causes, and values of alternative outcomes; (2) the deliberation and identification of the coachee's wishes to identify the goals that the coachee wants to attain; (3) action planning to initiate the actions necessary to achieve the goal; and (4) action to accomplish the goal (Behrendt et al., 2017). Each of these four phases is delineated by specific end-states: (A) goal deliberation, (B) goal identification, (C) action initiation, and (D) goal accomplishment.

Based on these theories, we propose the following three purpose-oriented coach behavior categories that directly support the process of *goal accomplishment*: (1) *enhancing understanding* during the evaluation phase, (2) *strengthening motivation* during the goal-identification phase, and (3) *facilitating implementation* during the planning phase. Facilitating implementation behavior directly supports the planning phase and simultaneously prepares the action phase that occurs outside of the coaching setting in the coachee's personal or professional context. In the following section, we specify these behaviors within the context of coaching.

Enhancing understanding. The purpose-oriented coach behavior category "enhancing understanding" supports the evaluation phase. This phase requires an accurate and impartial evaluation of the current situation, coachee's own prior actions and their consequences (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008), other relevant actors, and subsequent contingencies (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These evaluations result in causal attributions that attribute events to causes (Weiner, 1985) and beliefs concerning success-relevant factors for future action (Ajzen, 1991). The role of the coach during this phase is to support the coachee in gathering comprehensive information and feedback, comprehensively reflect on and calibrate the information, delineate accurate assessments about him- or herself and the context, and derive adequate beliefs that foster well-adjusted future behaviors (Behrendt et al., 2017).

Two behavioral coaching studies assessed coach behaviors related to enhanced understanding: Greif et al. (2010) assessed coach behaviors that enhanced understanding of the self, problems, and affective reflections, and Behrendt (2006) assessed behaviors that stimulated a better

understanding of the coachee himself, the situation at hand, and other actors. Both studies relied on small samples and failed to establish significant relationships between these behaviors and coaching effectiveness (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010). Although stimulated self-reflection reduced coachees' motivation, stimulated self-reflection did not affect goal attainment (Greif et al., 2010).

In the field of career coaching, however, coaching is more successful if it offers clients 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, Hoffman, and Hill (1994) conducted a case study on the effect of coaching with regard to goal attainment and client reactions. Coach behavior was measured by asking the coach to identify intentions for each speaking turn during tape-assisted reviews conducted immediately after each session and related to postsession client reactions and goal attainment. Eliciting insight, giving information, and enhancing clarity were among the most helpful coach behaviors.

Another coach behavior that enhances understanding is feedback, which is often mentioned (in leadership coaching) as a necessary coach competence (e.g., Gregory, Levy, & Jeffers, 2008; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014). Hall et al. (1999) interviewed 75 executives about the factors of coaching effectiveness and found that executives valued honest, realistic, and challenging positive and negative feedback. In a survey by Ladegard and Gjerde (2014), the coach's feedback increased the coachee's goal attainment. Likewise, Dahling, Taylor, Chau, and Dwight (2016) investigated the effect of coach behavior on the goal attainment of 1,246 sales representatives over one year. In accordance with earlier findings, coaches who were rated as highly skilled on a rating scheme that included feedback delivery were more effective at supporting coachees' goal attainment. Importantly, this effect was partially mediated by coachees' role clarity.

In view of those few and mixed coaching research results, 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" (Figure 2): (1) stimulating feedback and information gathering, (2) stimulating evaluations of coachee's own prior actions, (3) stimulating evaluations of other relevant actors and relationships, (4) stimulating accurate attributions of results to causes, and (5) inferring beliefs regarding 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?" "Should I quit, or should I fight for my conviction?" Thus, the deliberation of the coachees' wishes is necessary to identify their goals. The purpose-oriented coach behavior category "strengthening motivation" supports the deliberation of alternative goals and the eventual decision as to which goal(s) to pursue with a firm sense of commitment (Achtziger &

Gollwitzer, 2008). Research has demonstrated that individuals' motivations predict the choice of implementing behaviors, the likelihood of enactment, the effort devoted and the ultimate performance (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to the Theory of planned behavior, four multiplicative factors predict motivation: (1) the probability that a behavior creates a consequence; (2) the desirability of that consequence; (3) the likelihood that relevant others will approve or disapprove of the behavior; and (4) the motivation to comply with relevant others (Ajzen, 1991). Accordingly, the coach behavior category "strengthening motivation" stimulates the deliberation of the consequences of alternative goals, the evaluation of the desirability of these consequences, and the identification of the goal to pursue and strengthen 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. Williams and Lowman (2018) investigated the effectiveness of goal-focused coaching compared with a control group on leadership effectiveness among 64 senior executives from a large company who were coached by external professional coaches. The executive coaches received precoaching training on goal-focused coaching. Leadership effectiveness was measured by the coachees themselves and their direct supervisor. The results showed an increase in leadership effectiveness for the coaching group but not for the control group as rated by the coachees only.

In an fMRI study, Jack, Boyatzis, Khawaja, Passarelli, and Leckie (2013) investigated the effect that coaching supports positive emotional attractors by focusing on the coachee's compassion for their hopes and dreams. The authors found that this coaching style is associated with brain activity characteristic of the mental processes centered on the individual's desired goals, objectives or outcomes, and positive affect. In other words, coaches who stimulate the deliberation and evaluation of personal goals in a positive and engaging way affect their client's mindsets in that they evoke a motivating elaboration of personal goals. According to that study, these brain activations and mindsets ultimately foster change behavior.

In their meta-analysis, Liu et al. (2014) concluded that career coaching interventions that include promoting goal setting are superior to those that do not. In terms of behavioral coaching studies, however, evidence is scarce. Studies that have directly measured certain coach behaviors (instead of obtaining self- or other ratings) have only included small samples. They fail to establish a significant relationship between these behaviors and coaching outcomes (Behrendt, 2006; Greif et al., 2010). The clarification of goals decreases negative feelings but does not predict goal attainment (Greif et al., 2010).

Based on the empirical evidence regarding the effectiveness of goal-focused and goal-setting coaching as well as the more detailed causal relationships of the well-established motivation and action theories, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach behavior category "strengthening motivation" (Figure 2): (1) stimulating the deliberation of alternative goals

and their consequences, (2) stimulating the evaluation and prioritization of the goals' desirability, (3) promoting the decision regarding which goals to pursue, and (4) strengthening the motivation to pursue these goals by focusing on the positive consequences.

Facilitating implementation. The fundamental goal of coaching is to enable coachees to more successfully accomplish their personal goals (de Haan et al., 2016). The purpose-oriented coach behavior category "facilitating implementation" supports the planning regarding how to accomplish identified goals and the subsequent implementation of these plans (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). Concrete implementation plans predict behavioral execution, the overcoming of challenges, and eventual goal accomplishment (Milne, Orbell, & Sheeran, 2002; Sheeran & Orbell, 1999). These plans include learned routine behaviors, necessary deliberate behaviors, and/or new behaviors that must be developed through coaching. For a performant, persistent, and flexible implementation, an implemental mindset is beneficial (Armor & Taylor, 2003; Brandstätter & Frank, 2002; Pösl, 1994). The implemental mindset is characterized by an intense and focused information search to identify the right opportunity and avoid distraction. For a steadfastly and persistent execution, an actional mindset is beneficial. This mindset is characterized by focused absorption to ensure undistracted focus on the cues that guide the intended action (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). Accordingly, the coach behavior category "facilitating implementation" stimulates the formation of appropriate implementation plans, the identification and development of required behaviors, the identification of the best opportunities for execution and the facilitation of focused behavioral action (Behrendt et al., 2017).

Two behavioral studies have measured these behaviors, although one failed to produce significant results (Behrendt, 2006). However, the coach behavior ratings in the second study provided evidence that the stimulation of detailed implementation plans decreases coachee helplessness, while increasing their motivation and self-management (Greif et al., 2010). Other authors have also advocated for the importance and effectiveness of the stimulation of implementation plans (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014).

Grant (2012) investigated the effectiveness of a solution-focused coaching approach that focused on developing ideas, opportunities, and plans concerning how to implement solutions. The authors compared implementation- and solution-focused coaching with a problem-focused approach with regard to positive and negative affect, self-efficacy, goal approach, and action planning. A total of 225 participants were randomly assigned to either a problem-focused or solution-focused coaching condition: Solution-focused approaches were more effective in terms of increasing goal approach, positive affect, and self-efficacy as well as decreasing negative affect. Additionally, the solution-focused techniques lead coachees to generate significantly more action steps to help them reach their goal. Grant and Gerrard (2019) replicated the effectiveness of solution-focused coaching

and further differentiated it, finding that solution-focused coaching techniques are especially helpful for coachees who harbor strong dysfunctional attitudes.

Summarizing these action theories and tentative results concerning the effectiveness of solution- and implementation-focused coaching, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach behavior category "facilitating implementation" (Figure 2): (1) stimulating the formation of implementation plans, (2) including plans to acquire needed resources and gain support, (3) stimulating behavioral development, (4) identifying implementation opportunities, and (5) (if the coach is present during the action phase) activating, focusing and guiding behavioral execution.

The coaching process structured by purpose-oriented coach behavior. Based on the reported theories, we propose that purpose-oriented coach behavior supports the coachees' processes of goal accomplishment. The coach behavior category *enhancing understanding* supports the evaluation phase, the category *strengthening motivation* supports the goal deliberation phase and the category *facilitating implementation* supports the planning and action phase. If applied within the correct phase, these coach behaviors should be beneficial; if applied during the incorrect phase, however, they might be counterproductive. For example, a coach who provides new feedback enhances understanding during the evaluation phase but risks unsettling the coachee during the action phase. Furthermore, even the best implementation plan might flop if the coachee has failed to develop motivation to accomplish the goal. Therefore, effective coaches should time their behavior based on the goal-identification and accomplishment phases. As a consequence, coaches should ensure that the defined end-state of a given phase has been reached before adjusting their behavior to the next phase. Furthermore, to provide structured guidance and orientation to the coachee, the coach should highlight the achieved end-states and communicate the impending phase transition to the coachee.

Nevertheless, these notions do not mean that coaching strictly follows the phases step-by-step. Some coachees might start a coaching with a clear, firm and motivating goal and merely need support for implementation. Other coachees might possess all of the needed implementation skills as soon as they have identified the right goal (Grawe, 2004). Finally, the development process is iterative: Each implementation is followed by a renewed evaluation, and subsequent goal and plan adjustments.
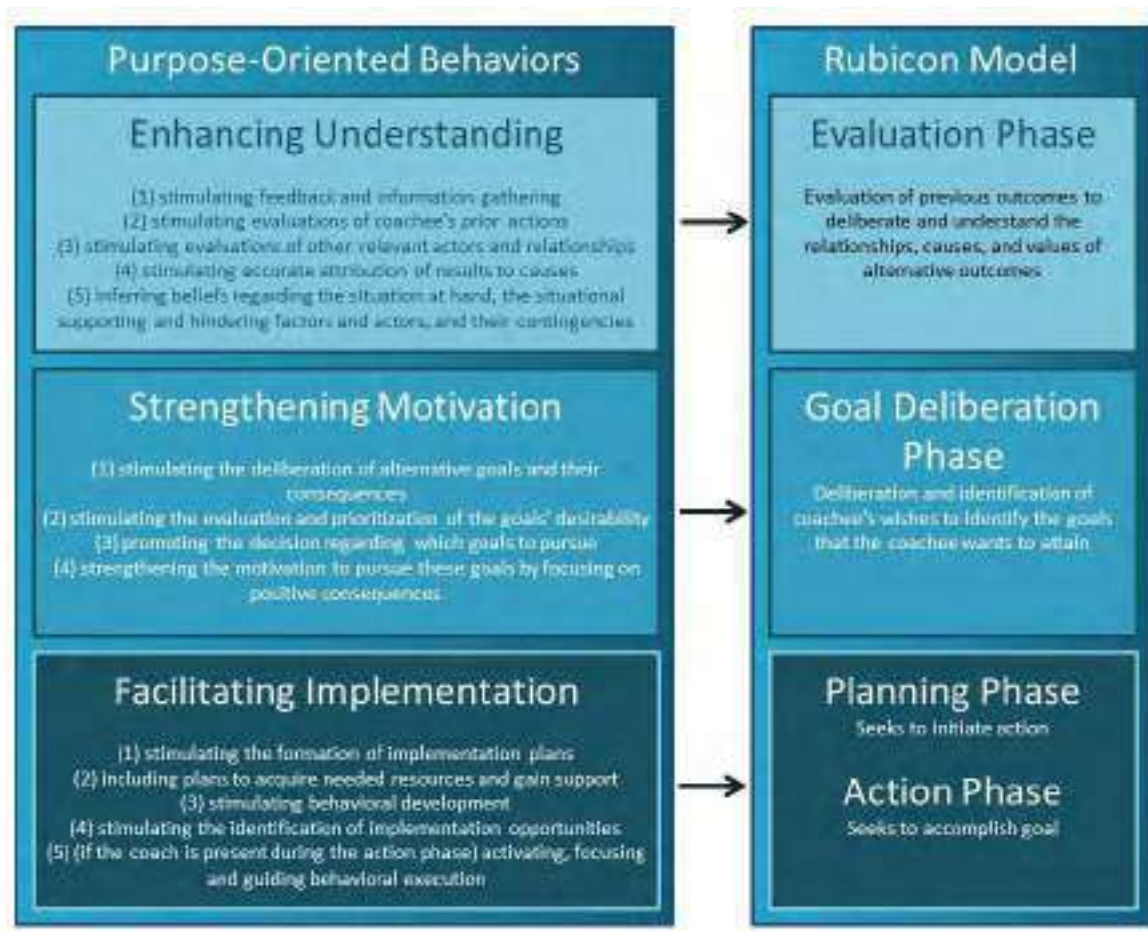
Figure 2. Purpose-oriented coach behaviors and their effect on the four phases of goal accomplishment as stated by the Rubicon model.

Change-Warranting Coach Behaviors that Ensure Changes that are Effective in the Intended Context

The purpose of coaching is defined as producing benefits in organizational, professional, and personal contexts (Sonesh, Coultas, Marlow, et al., 2015). These benefits constitute the fourth level of Kirkpatrick's (1967) model of evaluation criteria (i.e., the results). The results of coaching are reflected in its effect on individual-, team-, and organizational-level performances such as productivity (Jones et al., 2016). Thus, coach behaviors that ensure that the changes are transferred into the coachee's organizational, professional and personal routines are important (see also Behrendt et al., 2017; de Haan et al., 2016). Accordingly, change-warranting coach behaviors facilitate a transfer from basic individual reactions within the coaching process to the coachee's personal life. In a meta-analysis, Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al. (2015) found that coaching ameliorated the coachees' personal- and work-related attitudes (e.g., reduced stress, improved commitment to the organization, and increased motivation to transfer job skills) and led to coachee

behavior changes (e.g., improved skills and job performance). Therefore, coaching changes the coachee's attitudes and behaviors that consequently result in self-benefits, whether in coachee's private or work life. How can a coach support this change?

In the following section, we propose creating memorable experiences as a change-warranting coach behavior that ensures that the changes achieved within coaching are memorized and transferred to a context outside of coaching.

Creating memorable experiences. The challenge of effective coaching is to produce sustainable changes in one's organizational, professional or personal life routines via a coaching intervention of only a few hours. The coach behavior category "creating memorable experiences" ensures that the intended changes are comprehensively memorized and transferred into organizational, professional, and or personal routines.

To memorize the changes achieved within the coaching process and trigger the motivation to transfer them to a context outside of coaching, holistic experiences are important. These include the emotional, cognitive, and physiological processes that accompany the experience. According to multiple code theory (Bucci, 2002), information is represented in the mind in symbolic and subsymbolic ways. Subsymbolic refers to physiological experiences and affect. In this regard, Damasio (2003) discussed the 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 the subsymbolic and symbolic systems is the basis for psychological functioning. For example, a coachee might 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 system enables one to reach the conscious symbolic system. Importantly, verbal descriptions alone do not create sustainable memories. Connections among words, pictures, physiology, and emotions are important (Bucci, 1997, 2002) to create memories and transfer them to another context. A coach can stimulate holistic experiences by deliberately stimulating his or her clients' cognitive, physiological, and emotional processes.

Two initial coach behavior studies indicate that these behaviors are effective. In fact, the stimulation of emotions improves goal attainment (Behrendt, 2004). Furthermore, when simulation and role playing are rated by scientific observers (as part of the broader behavior category "support transfer into practice"), motivation and self-management improve (Greif et al., 2010). Evidence that the holistic experience fosters people's goal attainment also stems from the research concerning the Zurich resource model (Storch & Krause, 2014; Storch, 2004). Here, the subsymbolic and symbolic systems are incorporated into the goal-attainment process: Coaching clients choose a picture that evokes positive somatic reactions such as positive bodily feelings and then define their goal.

Research shows that this method fosters goal commitment, self-determination, and motivation (for an overview see Mühlberger, Büche, & Jonas; Weber, 2013). Furthermore, embodiment research shows that people remember information better if they encode information by not only listening or reading but also by making associated bodily movements (Engelkamp, 1997). For example, people remember information better when they combined listening to certain phrases (e.g., "combing one's hair") and executing the content of the sentences (Engelkamp, 1997). Summarizing these theories and tentative research results, we propose the following behaviors as subcomponents of the coach behavior category "creating memorable experiences" (Figure 3): (1) stimulating emotions, (2) stimulating physiological experiences corresponding to the intended context, (3) stimulating pictures or pictorial imagination, and (4) stimulating comprehensive cognitive experiences aligned to the intended context.
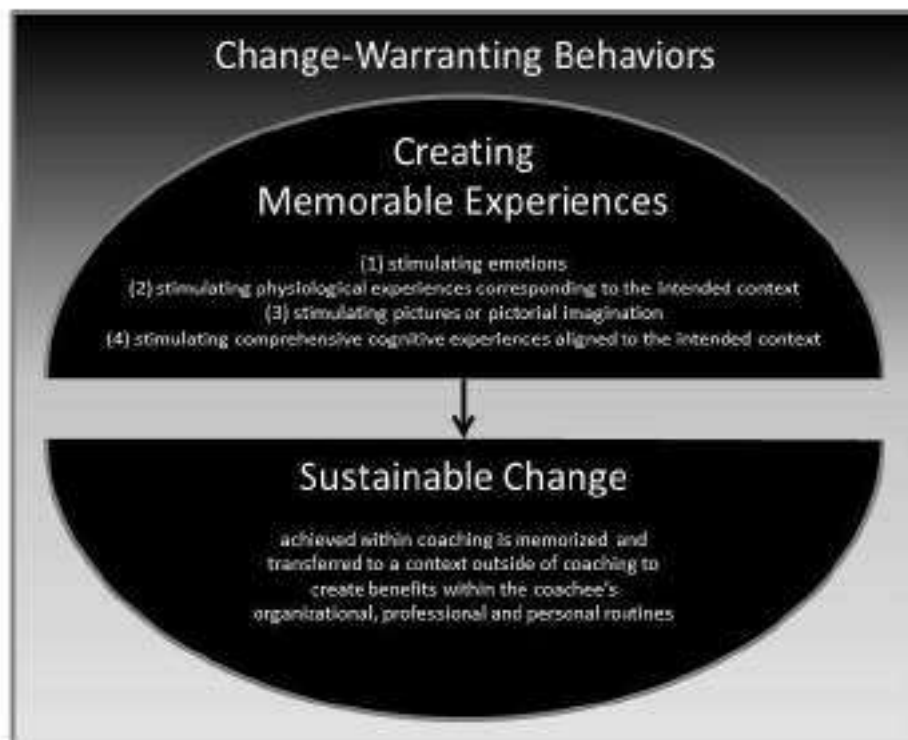
Figure 3. Change-warranting coach behaviors and their effect on sustainable change.

Overview of the Integrative Model of Coach Behavior (IMoCB)

Figure 4 illustrates the IMoCB based on three streams of psychological theory and coaching-specific research. The model depicts seven categories of coach behavior that are posited to increase

coachee's sustainable goal attainment. Purpose-oriented coach behavior directly supports goal attainment, whereas relationship-oriented coach behavior supports this process by creating an effective working relationship. Change-warranting coach behaviors create memorable experiences so that other behaviors spur sustainable effects that are memorized and sustained.
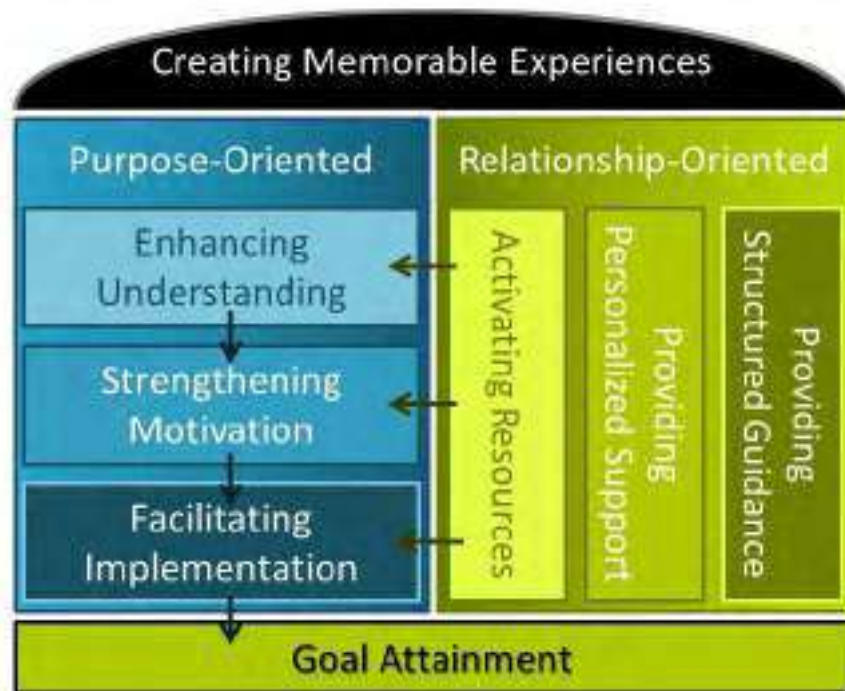
Figure 4. Integrative model of coaching behaviors (IMoCB).

According to the above theories, purpose-oriented coach behaviors are only effective if they are applied during the appropriate coaching phase, that is, enhancing understanding during the evaluation phase, strengthening motivation during the deliberation phase and facilitating implementation during the planning and action phases. By contrast, the relationship-oriented behaviors support goal attainment regardless of phase. 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. Change-warranting coach behaviors are relevant across all coaching phases to ensure sustainable effects of coaching: The coaches' competent guidance should be memorized, as well as the inspiration for important insight during the evaluation phase or the activation of a resource during the implementation phase.

In addition, purpose-oriented, relationship-oriented and change-warranting behaviors differ with regard to their target. Although purpose-oriented behaviors shape the content of coaching, relationship-oriented behaviors shape the form of relationship interactions. Therefore, change-warranting behaviors influence the form and comprehensiveness of information processing. For example, when deliberating the desirability of specific options and their consequences (content), the coach can show empathy for the client's 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 value of the IMoCB as a new theory in coaching research, we discuss the following criteria of an adequate theory proposed by Filley, House, and Kerr (1976): (1) generality, (2) external consistency, (3) internal consistency, (4) parsimony, and (5) testability.

Generality. Generality refers to the breadth of both the applicability and the knowledge domain spanned by the theory (Filley et al., 1976). The IMoCB is based on widely recognized psychological models and theories that have been developed and tested across a broad range of settings; moreover, these theories have been validated across various contexts (see Table 1). Therefore, the generality of the IMoCB seems to be high. While the proposed model spans all three definitory functions of coaching (i.e., creating an effective working relationship, facilitating goal attainment, and creating sustainable change), most other coaching models focus only on one specific factor (e.g., the content [solution- vs. problem-oriented] or the interaction [interpersonal dominance, affiliation, or autonomy]).

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)
	Self-efficacy theory	Bandura (1977)
Purpose-oriented coach behaviors	Expectancy-value-theories	Beckmann & Heckhausen (2008); Fishbein & Ajzen (1975)
	Rubicon model	Achtziger & Gollwitzer (2008); Heckhausen and Gollwitzer (1987)
1) Enhancing understanding	Rubicon model	Achtziger & Gollwitzer (2008)
	Attributional theory of motivation and emotion	Weiner (1985)
	Theory of planned behavior	Ajzen (1991); Fishbein & Ajzen (1975)
2) Strengthening motivation	Rubicon model	Achtziger & Gollwitzer (2008)
	Theory of planned behavior	Ajzen (1991); Fishbein & Ajzen (1975)
3) Facilitating implementation	Rubicon model	Achtziger & Gollwitzer (2008)
	Implementation plans	Milne, Orbell, & Sheeran (2002)
	Implemental mindset	Armor & Taylor (2003); Brandstätter & Frank (2002)
	Flow	Csikszentmihalyi (1975)
Change-warranting coach behaviors	Model of evaluation criteria	Kirkpatrick (1967)
1) Creating memorable experiences	Multiple code theory	Bucci (2002)
	Somatic markers	Damasio (2003)

External consistency. External consistency refers to a model's compatibility with research outcomes and observations (Filley, House, & Kerr, 1976). The foundation of the IMoCB has high external consistency because it is based on widely accepted psychological theories. The proposed constructs and associated behavioral categories have been validated extensively in various contexts. The sections above discuss the model's compatibility with coaching-specific behavior research. Because coaching is a young field, and the literature has so far focused on the coaching relationship, support exists for relationship-oriented behavior categories; nevertheless, few empirical tests and little evidence exists for purpose-oriented and change-warranting behaviors. In fact, several coaching-specific surveys and case studies provided indications that the proposed behaviors effectively support coachee goal attainment.

Internal consistency. Internal consistency refers to the absence of contradictions within a theory and among its propositions (Filley et al., 1976). The main internal consistency risk in theoretic behavioral models is rooted in categorial overlaps or contradictions. The IMoCB delineates its

behavioral categories based on well-established theories. The three meta-categories are distinguished by their target: Purpose-oriented behaviors shape the content, relationship-oriented behaviors shape the interaction, and change-warranting behaviors shape the information processing in coaching. Furthermore, the three purpose-oriented categories are phase-specific. Therefore, they are separated by three well-defined end-states: goal deliberation, goal identification, and goal accomplishment. The three relationship-oriented behaviors are separated by their focus. Although all three behaviors define the coaches' interaction style, *"providing structured guidance"* behavior defines interactions focused on the coaching process, "providing personalized support" behavior defines interactions focused on the coaching content, and "activating resources" behavior defines interactions focused on the coachee's personal resources. Based on these phase- and concept-based delineations, specific behaviors can be assigned to categories, and categories can be distinguished from each other.

Parsimony. Parsimony refers to the reduction of complexity into a clear and concise model (Filley et al., 1976). The IMoCB spans all three essential functions of coaching and describes 33 effective coach behaviors. Despite its breadth and depth, the model provides a clear and simple structure delineating three meta-categories and seven behavioral categories that integrate the important findings of coach behavior research (see above).

Testability. To fulfill the criterion of testability, a theory should provide hypotheses that can be tested and falsified. To that end, behavioral models must specify concrete behaviors that can be observed in theory-testing research. The IMoCB specifies four to six concrete behaviors in each of its seven categories, thereby providing a base of 33 behaviors to specify behavioral measures.

A hallmark of the IMoCB lies in the deducibility of a wealth of new hypotheses. Contextualizing several comprehensive psychological theories in the field of coach behavior enables researchers to deduce many new hypotheses. The following paragraph exemplifies the fertility of the model: Based on the Rubicon model and self-efficacy theory, one might deduce hypotheses regarding the phase-specific effectiveness of activating resources and appreciative coach behavior. According to the Rubicon model, the coach should enhance understanding during the evaluation phase. As a consequence, coaches should show appreciative behavior in response to specific functional coachee behaviors to stimulate accurate evaluations and enhance understanding. By contrast, too general and unspecific appreciations might undermine the accuracy of the coachee's evaluations or even suggest false conclusions and increase self-efficacy for nonfunctional behaviors. According to the Rubicon model, however, the action phase demands an actional mindset characterized by undistracted, focused and persistent execution. Accordingly, the coach should promote an actional mindset during the action phase. General self-efficacy predicts motivation and persistent behavior implementation. General self-efficacy is enhanced by general appreciation. As a

consequence, coaches' general appreciation during the action phase should encourage implementation and increased persistence. By contrast, appreciations that are too detailed might distract the implementation and disrupt focused absorption during the coachee's action execution

Outlook and Empirical Validation

We propose the IMoCB as the starting point of further theory development within the field of coaching. As discussed above, behavioral research on coaching is scarce but promising. As a consequence, the IMoCB still requires thorough testing, validation, differentiation and refinement.

To enable IMoCB's validation, the scientific community needs comprehensive and precise behavioral measures. Based on other research fields and methodological considerations, we know that perceptions of behavior differ from behavior (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Nevertheless, many survey studies seek to measure coach behavior by approximating behavior through the perception of the coach or coachee. These survey studies are often flawed due to a range of observation errors. In particular, the halo effect leads to significant overestimations of intercorrelations and blurs categories (Behrendt et al., 2017). Therefore, we call for the development of objective behavioral measures that delineate behavior from perception (e.g., video-analytic rating systems by trained scientific observers or computerized analyses based on machine learning that analyses coaching session transcripts or videotaped facial expressions, postures and gestures). For scientific advancement, we propose a set of measures that consistently assess (1) coach behavior, (2) associated instant coachee reactions, (3) subsequent coachee cognitive and emotional changes, (4) coachee changes in their organizational context, and (5) eventual goal accomplishment. The scientific understanding of effective coaching would be improved if researchers were able to precisely measure (1) enhancing understanding behavior of the coach such as stimulating feedback, (2) the related "aha" experience or visually perceptible insights of the coachee, (3) the coachee's enhanced understanding of his or her strengths and weaknesses, (4) the coachee's behavioral changes in his or her working routine, and (5) the coachee's eventually enhanced working relationships. With precise behavioral measures at hand, we propose three phases of IMoCB's validation.

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

phase of the validation should examine the potential moderating function of change-warranting behaviors. According to IMoCB, change-warranting behaviors lead to the memorization of the changes called forth by other behaviors. As a consequence, the effectiveness of these other behaviors should be moderated by change-warranting behaviors by the coach.

During the second phase of IMoCB's validation, the model's anticipated mediating processes between coach behavior and goal accomplishment should be investigated. During this phase, behavioral measures would be of value to validate the process of coaching effectiveness from coach behavior to coachee reactions, coachee cognitive and emotional changes, changes in the organizational context and eventual goal attainment. Based on IMoCB, we propose the following as mediating factors: (1) the coachee's expectation that active participation in the coaching process will help; (2) an effective working alliance; (3) activated resources and increased self-efficacy; (4) enhanced understanding and accurate evaluations and attributions; (5) strengthened motivation and clarified goals; (6) implementation plans and newly developed behaviors; and (7) sustainably memorized experiences that cause changes in the organizational context.

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

Conclusions

Following the call of current coaching meta-analyses, we propose IMoCB as a starting point for comprehensive theory development in coaching. IMoCB possesses high generality and parsimony, external and internal consistency and provides testability. Although the model integrates the current findings on coach behavior, it fertilizes new research by stimulating hypotheses concerning mediating and moderating factors and provides concrete coach behaviors as the foundation. The development of comprehensive and precise measurements of coach behavior is critical to harness the model's full potential. To free measurements from widespread observation errors, they should promote objective observations via scientific behavior observation or automated analyses based on machine learning. As a consequence, the integrative model might be used as a cornerstone in coaching theory development and refinement as well as stimulate practical research on the detailed process of coaching effectiveness. To fertilize this endeavor, the model taps a wealth of well-established psychological theories that provide concreteness and specificity while spanning all essential functions of coaching. We would be delighted if IMoCB spurs corresponding research activity and hence advancement in the young field of coaching effectiveness research.

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Chapter III

Paper II:

Career Counseling Process Quality promotes Reemployment

Citation

Behrendt, P., Göritz, A. S., & Heuer, K. (in press). Career Counseling Process Quality promotes Reemployment. *Journal of Career Development*.

Abstract

One-on-one career counseling has been established as the most effective type of career intervention. Prior research results have suggested that process quality determines counseling success. In this multilevel study, career counseling process quality is validated as a predictor of job seekers' reemployment at three Swiss job centers. Supervisors' evaluations of the process quality of mandatory counseling sessions predicted faster reemployment of the 444 counseled job seekers by 18.9 working days on average. This effect equals yearly savings of 418 million CHF (422 million US $) in Swiss unemployment benefits. While in many countries, the counseling of the unemployed is predominantly an administrative process, the findings should encourage investments in process quality of career counseling to promote reemployment. Furthermore, the study calls for further research on the underlying factors of career counseling process quality and the respective career counselor behaviors.

Keywords

career counseling, process quality, supervisor evaluation, unemployment

Introduction: The challenge of unemployment and one-on-one career counseling

In 2014, a total of 201 million people were unemployed worldwide (Statista, 2019), of which 136,764 were unemployed in Switzerland. The economic and personal consequences of this unemployment have been tremendous. On the one hand, all Swiss job seekers received 22.2 million CHF in unemployment benefits per working day in 2014 (Staatssekretariat für Wirtschaft SECO, 2015; Winkler, 2015); moreover, unemployment means foregoing economic potential and the loss of gross domestic product and taxes. On the other hand, research has revealed hardships for the unemployed person: an increase of more than 200% in the risk of poverty (Liu, Huang, & Wang, 2014), a 110% increase in mental health problems (Paul & Moser, 2009), an increase of 40% in alcohol consumption (Deb, Gallo, Ayyagari, Fletcher, & Sindelar, 2011), and a 300% increase in crimes committed by youths (Farrington, Gallagher, Morley, St. Ledger, & West, 1986). Additionally, the risk of court conviction and suicide ideation for youths is increased (Fergusson, Horwood, & Woodward, 2001), as is the risk of death (Liu et al., 2014).

Many interventions are effective at tackling unemployment: They increase job seekers' reemployment success (Meyer, 1995) and decrease the mental health decline due to unemployment (Liu et al., 2014; Paul & Moser, 2009). Meta-analyses have established one-on-one counseling as more effective and efficient (Whiston, Sexton, & Lasoff, 1998) than counselor-free computer interventions and purely text-based interventions (Whiston, 2002; Whiston, Brecheisen, & Stephens, 2003). Furthermore, one-on-one career counseling is more effective than financial interventions that offer reemployment bonuses (Meyer, 1995) or wage subsidies (Fay, 1996). It is also more effective than tighter monitoring of job seekers' eligibility and compliance (Bloom, Hill, & Riccio, 2001; Dolton & O'Neill, 2002). The effect size of one-on-one career counseling is substantial (d = .75 in the meta-analysis of Whiston et al., 1998), and its effect persists for more than five years (Dolton & O'Neill, 2002). In almost all field experiments, investments in career counseling were repaid within the first year, and the total return can reach more than 600% of the investment (e.g., Dolton & O'Neill, 2002; Meyer, 1995). Therefore, career counseling 'forms a key part of active labor market policies" in most countries (Hooley, 2014, p. 7). Meta-analyses conclude that counseling's intensity (e.g., the number and duration of sessions) is unrelated to its outcome (Liu et al., 2014; Whiston et al., 1998). In contrast, preliminary research results have suggested that process quality determines counseling success (Meyer, 1995).

However, only a few studies have investigated career counseling's process quality, and to our knowledge, none has tested the effect of varying levels of process quality on counseling success. To shed more light on process quality in career counseling, career counseling's process quality is tested as a predictor of objective reemployment success. Validation of process quality as predictor of

reemployment points governments and agencies to focus their policies on improving process quality of one-on-one career counseling to battle unemployment. Furthermore, the study explores a field-proof measurement of counseling process quality, which equips practitioners in career counseling agencies to direct their quality improvements.

Career Counseling Process Quality as a Predictor of Employment Success

In most Western countries, governmental job centers offer and prescribe career counseling to job seekers as long as the job seeker draws unemployment benefits. For example, Swiss job centers prescribe monthly counseling sessions. Whiston et al. (1998) and Hooley (2014, p. 7) define career counseling for job seekers as a process that enables unemployed job seekers 'to identify their capacities, competences and interests, to make (…) occupational decisions and to manage their individual life paths in (…) work (…) settings in which those capacities and competences are learned and/or used". In other words, career counseling promotes job seekers' reemployment via (1) enhanced understanding of their capacities, competences and interests, (2) strengthened motivation to make and pursue occupational decisions, and (3) facilitated implementation of their job search competences (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017). Many studies have confirmed that career counseling promotes understanding, motivation and implementation (Bernaud, Gaudron, & Lemoine, 2006; Davidson, Nitzel, Duke, Baker, & Bovaird, 2012; Liu et al., 2014; Obi, 2015; Perdrix, Stauffer, Masdonati, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2012). However, only a few studies have investigated the actual process by which career counseling creates understanding, motivation and implementation on the part of the job seeker. Meyer (1995) discovered that a more effective counseling intervention was one that focused on enhancing process quality instead of offering additional support. However, to date, no studies have systematically compared interventions that vary in their level of process quality and investigated the resulting effects on reemployment.

To define counseling process quality, most authors cite Donabedian's (1966) clinical model of structure, process, and outcome quality. Donabedian (2005, p.694) defines high process quality as when "what is known to be good (medical) care has been applied." According to Donabedian (2005), assessing process records is inadequate because of veracity and completeness issues. As basis for assessment, he suggests "direct observation of the (physician's) activities by a well-qualified colleague" (Donabedian, 2005, p. 698), assessing the quality in categories from excellent to poor. In the field of counseling, direct supervisors of job counselors are the most qualified experts who regularly observe and evaluate a variety of counseling sessions. We posit:

Hypothesis 1: *The process quality of one-on-one career counseling as evaluated by the counselor's direct supervisor predicts faster reemployment of job seekers.*

Method

The predictive validity of counseling process quality for employment success is tested using evaluations by the counselor's supervisor. The study investigates individual mandatory career counseling sessions for job seekers at three Swiss job centers in a time-lagged field study. Over a period of five years, beginning in 2010, the counselors' supervisors evaluated the process quality of 444 counseling sessions. The effect of process quality on objective employment success was investigated using multi-level analysis.

Intervention and Procedure

The evaluated monthly career counseling sessions were mandatory for job seekers who drew unemployment benefits. In these 30-minute-sessions, the job seekers' personal career counselors review the job seekers' job search activities, discuss individual goals, progresses, challenges, and next steps, as well as potential support offers or penalties of the job centers. Process quality had to be rated four times a year for every counselor by their supervisor. Therefore, counselors were regularly requested to select any of their upcoming sessions for evaluation. The counselees did not receive any reward but had to consent prior to the evaluation. The acceptance rate was not captured in the archival data, but is estimated to be higher than 99%. The supervisor evaluations were entered by the supervisors themselves in a particular excel spreadsheet of the job centers. This data collection process was cleared by the job centers' juridical consultancy. As a basis for supervisor feedback - and as required in Donabedian's (1966) definition of process quality - the job centers' quality model defined the expectations for good practice in the counseling process. The quality model based good practice on an internal research review and hence demanded a clear, supportive, and resource-activating counseling process in line with a solution-oriented approach and success relevant counselor behaviors (Behrendt, Heuer, & Göritz, 2019; Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). The quality model was implemented in 2010 before the study began.

Participants

At the three governmental Swiss job centers all ten supervisors evaluated 533 counseling sessions of all 68 counselors who worked in the three centers. The 533 counseling sessions were unique in that they took place with 533 different job seekers. To ensure sufficient data on all levels of a multi-level analysis, the 26 counselors who conducted fewer than five sessions and their respective job seekers were excluded from the multi-level analysis. Moreover, the 22 counseling sessions with missing process quality evaluations were excluded, leaving 444 counseling sessions nested within 42 counselors to be analyzed. The job center executive team provided the authors with the data in

2015. Using these archival data implied that the authors did not interact directly with any of the studied individuals, thus preventing experimenter and Hawthorne effects. Demographic data were not contained in the archival data. However, a subset of the counselors and supervisors who were still present in the organization in 2015 provided their demographic data post-hoc, thus delivering an estimate of the overall demographics. On average, the 32 present counselors were 47.8 years old (SD = 9.5), their counseling experience averaged 10.9 years (SD = 6.7), and 78.1% of them were women. On average, the seven still present supervisors were 49.0 years old (SD = 6.5), their career counseling supervisor experience averaged 8.9 years (SD = 5.8), and 71.4% of them were women.

Research Instruments

Reemployment speed as an objective outcome.

Employment success was objectively operationalized as the reemployment speed, given by the officially recorded number of working days the job seeker received unemployment benefits before reemployment. This measure of employment success directly reflects economic costs: Unemployment insurances payed 22.2 million CHF (22.4 million US $) in unemployment benefits per working day in 2014 to the Swiss job seekers (Staatssekretariat für Wirtschaft SECO, 2015; Winkler, 2015). The counseled job seekers received unemployment benefit for an average of 196.7 working days (SD = 126.3). The regional unemployment rate was used to control for macro-economic influences. During the studied time frame, the regional unemployment rate was low and stable, varying between 2.1 and 3.5% (M = 2.5%, SD = 0.29%).

Supervisors' evaluations of process quality.

The supervisors evaluated the process quality of the counseling sessions on a scale of 1 (insufficient) to 4 (excellent) and entered the evaluation in the excel spreadsheet of the job center. To promote the evaluations' objectivity, the job centers' quality model defines the process that is expected. Evaluator calibration sessions have been held regularly since 2010 to compare the supervisors' independent evaluations and align standards. The job centers promoted the evaluations based on video-taped sessions to ensure more objective and reliable observations. To warrant data privacy protection, counselors could alternatively opt for real-time observations by their supervisors. As a result, eighty percent of the evaluations were based on video-taped sessions, and twenty percent were based on real-time observations. The average supervisor evaluation was positive with an average of 3.23 (SD = .66).

Data Analysis

For testing process quality as a predictor of reemployment speed, a multi-level-analysis was conducted using SPSS package 23. The multi-level analysis controls statistical dependencies in complex longitudinal data sets (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) and controls for differences among individual counselors who counsel job seekers from different professions with different employment prospects.

Results

In total, there were 444 counseling sessions nested within the 42 counselors. First, as a base model we calculated the unconditional means model. The next model tested for year (2010-2015) and for regional unemployment rate (in %) as linear predictors, whereby they revealed themselves to not be significant. Hence, the unconditional means model without covariates was kept as the reference model. Next, the supervisor evaluation of overall process quality was tested as a linear predictor of speed of reemployment (Model 1 in Table 1): Process quality significantly predicted reemployment. When comparing the unconditional means model with Model 1 both the AIC and the likelihood-ratio test ($D = 8.15$, $df = 1$, $p = .004$) attested a better fit to Model 1. A job seeker who received counseling one point higher in quality as judged by the supervisor on a four-point scale found reemployment earlier and received unemployment benefits for a period that was 18.9 working days shorter. Thus, H1 is supported. Swiss unemployment insurances pay 22.2 million CHF of benefits per working day to all Swiss job seekers. In consequence, a one-point increase (which equals a 25% increase) in overall process quality would amount to savings of national unemployment benefit of 418.7 million CHF (422 million US $) per year.

Table 1

Multi-Level Analysis of Process Quality and Employment Success.

	Unconditional means model	Model 1
	Est. (SE)	Est. (SE)
Intercept	196.74*** (6.63)	257.81*** (30.73)
Overall process quality		-18.94* (9.30) $p = .042$
Log-Likelihood	5555.3	5551.2
AIC	5561.3	5559.2
N	444	444

Notes. The results are presented as days of unemployment benefits received before reemployment. $N = 444$ jobseekers in $N = 444$ counseling sessions conducted by $N = 42$ counselors and evaluated by $N = 7$ supervisors; Intercept = estimated number of days if all other variables are 0; Est. = estimated effect of predictor; SE = standard error of estimate; AIC = Akaike information criterion (the lower the better fit); *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Discussion

This study confirms Donabedian (1966): The higher the process quality of one-on-one career counseling sessions the faster the counseled job seekers find new work. In detail, job seekers' reemployment accelerates by almost four weeks if the supervisors' evaluation of overall process quality improves by 25% (i.e., one out of four scale points). The magnitude of this effect accords with Meyer (1995), who found that improvements in process quality of one-on-one counseling accelerate reemployment by four weeks.

Economically, the effect is highly relevant: By improving process quality by one quarter, more than 400 million CHF of unemployment benefits per year could be saved. The economic effects of improved one-on-one counseling are consistent with studies that demonstrate that counseling interventions pay back quickly, and that their benefits are manifold (Dolton & O'Neill, 2002). We do not have figures on the cost of improving process quality by 25%. Counselors' personnel development as well as evaluation processes conducted by supervisors, however, are part of everyday working life, at least in Swiss job centers. Thus, the marginal costs of improving process quality seem to be small when compared to the potential gains of faster reemployment.

As regards practical implications, the study reveals supervisor evaluations of process quality as a valid methodological approach to predict counseling success. Thus, on the one hand, career counseling agencies such as job centers are encouraged to invest in the process quality of their counseling to speed up reemployment by way of supervisors. On the other hand, individual career counselors are encouraged to invest their efforts in improving the process quality of their counseling sessions. To this end, Fukkink, Trienekens and Kramer (2011) have shown that appropriate supervisor

behavioral feedback improves subordinates' skilled behavior and consequently may be a valuable means to promote counselor personnel development.

As regards strengths and weaknesses of our study, although there was a time delay between the predictor (i.e., counseling session and its evaluated process quality) and the outcome (i.e., days until job seeker's reemployment) we are cautious of making claims about causality because the predictor was observed "as is" and not manipulated. This points to the need to sound out the robustness of the results in other samples in general as well as to conduct experiments in particular. The internal validity of the present findings is increased through using archival data of a large sample, state-of-the-art statistical methodology, an objective outcome, and the study's multi-center structure (i.e., data stem from three different job centers). The findings' external validity is promoted through the fact that this was a field study (i.e., we used data that were produced in the natural context); yet, the generalizability of our results to other job centers remains an open empirical question.

To our knowledge, this is the first study that has compared varying levels of evaluated process quality within the same counseling intervention with regard to employment success. In this manner, the study has demonstrated supervisors' process quality evaluation as a valuable operationalization of the level of process quality and as a predictor for reemployment speed. While the current findings are promising, future studies should also investigate if evaluated process quality predicts reemployment quality and sustainability as two additional facets of employment success. Furthermore, the theoretical and practical value of process quality as a predictor of counseling success so far is limited because of its generality. While up-to-now having validated process quality only in general, the success-critical components of process quality remain largely unknown. Next, research needs to find out: What are important behavioral components of process quality, and therefore, which counselor behaviors should quality models prescribe and supervisors focus on?

Conclusion

Globally, nearly 200 million people are exposed to the harmful effects of unemployment, more than 100.000 in Switzerland alone (Statista, 2019). One-on-one career counseling has been proven to speed-up job seekers' reemployment. While in many countries, the counseling of the unemployed is predominantly an administrative process, the current study stresses the importance of the counseling process' quality for fast reemployment. To improve the life of the unemployed and simultaneously realize economic savings, the findings should encourage investments in process quality to promote reemployment and stimulate further research on the underlying factors of career counseling process quality and the respective career counselor behaviors (for a first step into that direction please see Behrendt et al., 2019).

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Chapter IV

Paper III:

The Effect of Career Counselor Behavior on Reemployment

Citation

Abstract

When looking at career interventions, on-on-one career counseling is one of the most effective and firmly established types of intervention. Furthermore, career counseling process quality has been validated as a predictor of job seekers' reemployment. To elucidate the underlying components of a high-quality counseling process, the effects of counselor behavior in mandatory counseling sessions at three Swiss job centers are investigated. Based on a transfer of psychotherapeutic effectiveness research into the domain of career counseling, three behavior categories are proposed as components of a high-quality counseling process: providing structured guidance during the counseling process, providing personalized support, and activating job seekers' resources. Scientific observers rated these counselor behavior categories in 32 counseling sessions. The ratings of "providing structured guidance" predicted job seekers' reemployment speed at a correlation of .58. The measured effect equals yearly savings of 831 million CHF (839 US $) in Swiss unemployment benefits. The correlations with the other two behavior category ratings were in the same direction but non-significant.

Keywords

career counseling, process quality, behavior analysis, unemployment

Introduction

During the financial crisis that began in 2007, the world encountered its worst unemployment situation since the Great Depression. The economic and personal consequences have been tremendous. Unemployment means foregoing economic potential, a loss of gross domestic product and taxes, as well as payments of unemployment benefits to the job seekers. At the same time, research has revealed hardships for the unemployed person: an increase of poverty (Liu, Huang, & Wang, 2014), mental health problems (Paul & Moser, 2009), alcohol consumption (Deb, Gallo, Ayyagari, Fletcher, & Sindelar, 2011), crimes committed (Farrington, Gallagher, Morley, St. Ledger, & West, 1986), risk of court conviction and suicide ideation (Fergusson, Horwood, & Woodward, 2001).

One-on-one career counseling has been established as the most effective and efficient intervention in tackling unemployment (Bloom, Hill, & Riccio, 2001; Dolton & O'Neill, 2002; Fay, 1996; Meyer, 1995; Whiston, 2002; Whiston, Brecheisen, & Stephens, 2003; Whiston, Sexton, & Lasoff, 1998) with an effect size of d = .75 (Whiston et al., 1998) that persists for more than five years (Dolton & O'Neill, 2002) and pays back the investment within less than a year (e.g., Dolton & O'Neill, 2002; Meyer, 1995). Although the benefits of one-on-one career counseling are accepted in research and politics, meta-analysts (e.g., Whiston, 2002) and governmental agencies (Hooley, 2014) have called to elucidate the actual process of effective one-on-one career counseling. Career counseling process quality per se as evaluated by the counselors' supervisors predicts the speed of reemployment (Behrendt, Göritz, & Heuer, 2019). Nevertheless, the specific counselor behaviors that constitute high process quality await investigation.

Counselor Behaviors as Potential Components of Career Counseling Process Quality

Studies on the process of career counseling are sparse (see Theeboom et al., 2014). In particular, few studies have investigated the concrete career counselor behaviors that predict employment success (Whiston, Rossier, & Barón, 2016). To fill the gap, researchers have made a case for tapping the large body of psychotherapy effectiveness research as a starting point for elucidating the success-critical components of career counseling process quality, based on the assumption that psychotherapy and career counseling have similarities (Heppner & Heppner, 2003). More than a hundred years of process research in clinical psychology have revealed that the specific intervention methods do not influence patient outcomes much; instead, more than 70% of the desirable effects of psychotherapy are due to intervention-independent, general or common factors (Wampold, 2001). Psychotherapy researchers underline the transferability of the common factors to other settings such as counseling, arguing that these common factors 'entail evolved characteristics of humans as a

hypersocial species; as such, psychotherapy is merely a special case' of general psychological and social interventions (Wampold, 2015, p. 270).

The two most renowned meta-analyses on clinical common factors (Grawe, Donati, & Bernauer, 1994; Wampold, 2001) and those authors' later research (e.g., Grawe, 2004, 2007; Wampold, 2015) established the following three intervention-independent mechanisms as essential common factors of any psychological intervention delivered by a counselor/therapist: (1) creating in the client/patient the *expectation* that their active participation in the process will help them; this expectation can be created through convincing explanations of a consistent and well-structured counseling/therapeutic process and through the counselor's/therapist's personal competence, (2) a personally supportive and engaged *working alliance* to ensure effective collaboration, and (3) the *activation of* the patients'/clients' instrumental *resources* to strengthen functional actions.

Both two common factor models do not conceptually distinguish behavioral input delivered by the therapist/counselor (e.g., the convincing explanation of the counseling process) from the proximal desired outcome (e.g., the clients' expectation that active participation in the process will help). To explore and test the career counselor's behavioral inputs into career counseling process quality, we extricate the counselors' behavioral inputs from each of the three common factors to arrive at: (1) providing convincing explanations of a well-structured process and personal competence of the counselor to engender the job seekers' positive expectations that their active participation in the process will help as summarized in a first behavior category called *providing structured guidance*; (2) engaging for the individual job seeker, and supporting the job seekers' personal goals to strengthen a cooperative working alliance and ensure engaged collaboration as summarized in a second behavior category called *providing personalized support*; and (3) activating the job seekers' functional behavior and instrumental resources to strengthen functional actions as summarized in a third behavior category called *activating resources* (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017).

After transferring the behavioral components of the three well-established common factors from psychotherapy research to the context of career counseling, the next step is to carve out the specific behavioral components within the career counseling process as predictors of employment success. For this, we consult meta-analyses on employment antecedents (Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001; Liu et al., 2014), a literature review on the working alliance in counseling (Whiston et al., 2016, p. 598), and a few existing quantitative studies on counseling behavior in settings outside of career counseling. Based on these contributions, we propose specific counselor behaviors as potential sub-components of the three counselor behavior categories to be tested in a field study in three Swiss job centers as predictors of employment success and as such as components of a high-quality career counseling process (Behrendt, Mühlberger, Göritz, & Jonas, submitted). In this

endeavor, the study develops and tests a rigorous and detailed measurement of the counselor behaviors that are expected to contribute to process quality.

Career Counselor Behaviors

Providing structured guidance

The counselor behavior category 'providing structured guidance' facilitates job seekers' positive expectations that their active participation in the process will help. These positive expectations can be created by the counselors' personal competence and convincing explanations of a well-structured process rational (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015).

Furthermore, the counselor behavior category 'providing structured guidance' increases job seekers' conscientiousness, which is the sixth predictor of employment success according to Kanfer et al. (2001): Job seekers who possess the self-discipline to reliably follow systematic, well-organized plans achieve reemployment faster. Counselor behavior that structures the therapeutic/counseling process has been identified as important in several studies outside of the career counseling context and in both prominent common-factor models (Behrendt, 2006; Grawe, 2004; Shaw et al., 1999; Wampold, 2015).

In addition to delivering a good process, counselors need to obtain the job seekers' cooperation and engagement by providing compelling guidance. While job seekers' physical participation in the mandatory counseling session can be enforced, their actual engagement in the reemployment process is out of the counselors' direct sphere of influence. Behavioral studies outside of the career counseling context and common-factor reviews show that explaining the process and the ways the process supports the individual job seeker enhance counseling success (Behrendt, 2006; Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015).

The psychotherapeutic literature has identified a link between therapists' credibility and patients' engagement in treatment (Karver, Handelsman, Fields, & Bickman, 2005). Psychotherapy research has also shown that therapists who appear organized and confident are trusted more (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Correspondingly, common-factor models and studies outside the career counseling context have shown that counselors are more successful if they convey professional competence (Behrendt, 2006; Hawthorn & Alloway, 2009; Ianiro et al., 2013; Shaw et al., 1999; Wampold, 2001, 2015), provide competent process guidance ad hoc (Behrendt, 2006; Wampold, 2015) and are self-assured (Behrendt, 2006; Ianiro et al., 2013).

Based on these findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential sub-components of the career counselor behavior category 'providing structured guidance': (1) structuring the counseling process, (2) explaining the process, (3) explaining how the process supports the job

seeker, (4) showing professional competence as a person, (5) providing competent guidance during the process, and (6) conveying personal self-assurance. We propose:

Hypothesis 1: *The counselor behavior category 'providing structured guidance' and its respective sub-components speed up job seekers' reemployment.*

Providing personalized support

The counselor behavior category 'providing personalized support' strengthens the working alliance through the counselor's engaging for the individual job seeker and supporting the job seekers' personal goals, commitments and contributions. A trusted working alliance needs to be established on the basis of a warm, personal, and supportive relationship as well as on goal consensus (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015; Whiston et al., 2016). Social support as the second predictor of employment success according to Kanfer et al. (2001) promotes the job seekers' reemployment success. Furthermore, supporting the job seekers' individual motivation promotes their personal employment commitment, which is the fifth predictor of employment success according to Kanfer et al. (2001).

In the context of career counseling, a quantitative survey on the impact of working alliance on success (Bloom et al., 2001) states that a counseling relationship that is perceived to be personalized increased employment success by up to 50%. Confirmingly, an experimental study found that a counseling intervention that emphasized a personalized relationship was more effective than other interventions that provided additional support (Meyer, 1995). Correspondingly, counselors outside the career counseling context are more effective when they activate and personally support the job seekers' core motives (Behrendt, 2006; Grawe, 2007; Kanfer et al., 2001) as well as goals and needs (Behrendt, 2006; Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015; Klonek et al., 2014, 2016; Wampold, 2001, 2015). Correspondingly, personalized counseling provides freedom and flexibility for meeting the job seekers' individual needs. This fact contrasts with the rigid, predetermined procedures used in text- or computer-based interventions, which were found to be less effective (Whiston, 2002; Whiston et al., 1998). In addition, psychotherapy effectiveness studies identify a patient's active engagement as a critical factor (Tschacher, Junghan, & Pfammatter, 2014). Correspondingly, counselors should create leeway, provide room for reflection, and show patience to enable job seekers to explore their own thoughts and solutions (Behrendt, 2006; Klonek et al., 2014, 2016; Wampold, 2015). To ensure a productive use of the leeway created, counselors should emphasize the value of the job seeker's contributions to the success of the counseling process (Behrendt, 2006; Grawe, 2004; Kanfer et al., 2001; Klonek et al., 2016; Wampold, 2015).

Based on these findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential sub-components of the career counselor behavior category 'providing personalized support': (1) supporting the job

seeker's core motives, (2) supporting his or her goals and needs, (3) showing patience, and (4) emphasizing the value of the job seeker's contributions to the counseling's success. We postulate:

Hypothesis 2: *The counselor behavior category 'providing personalized support' and its respective sub-components speed up job seekers' reemployment.*

Activating resources

The counselor behavior category 'activating resources' promotes functional resources and ensuing job search behavior by empathetically encouraging, rewarding and shaping proactive behavior on the part of the job seeker. While prompting and activating healthy actions of job seekers enhances general counseling effectiveness (Wampold, 2015), promoting job seekers' proactivity and job search skills increases reemployment success in particular (Kanfer et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2014). Many job seekers experience disappointing rejections in their hunt for a job. To sustain functional behavior despite failure, counselors should acknowledge the job seekers' first steps and any functional behavior (Gassmann & Grawe, 2006). With this positive reinforcement, counselors can sustain, build and shape functional behavior (Estes, 1944; Grawe, 2004). Positive reinforcement works more effectively and sustainably than punishment (Azrin & Holz, 1966). If the counselor achieves that the job seeker activates his or her interpersonal resources to be harnessed in the job search reemployment will be promoted (Kanfer et al., 2001). The activation of functional behavior includes the strengthening of self-efficacy to implement those behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Grawe, 2004)[2]. Specifically, job search self-efficacy predicts employment success (Kanfer et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2014): First, self-efficacy enhances the successful implementation of behaviors in general (Bandura, 1977); therefore, job search self-efficacy enforces successful reemployment behavior in particular (Guan et al., 2014; Kanfer et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2014; Spurk, Kauffeld, Barthauer, & Heinemann, 2015). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), self-efficacy is enhanced through verbal persuasion, vicarious success, personal accomplishments, and emotional arousal. To promote the job seekers' self-efficacy, counselors should strengthen job seeker's self-esteem and confidence via verbal persuasion or case reports of vicarious success (Behrendt, 2006; Grawe, 2007; Greif et al., 2010; Hawthorn & Alloway, 2009; Kanfer et al., 2001). In addition, counselors should focus on and recognize the job seeker's accomplishments and evoke relevant emotional experiences (Behrendt, 2006; Gassmann & Grawe, 2006; Grawe, 2004; Greif et al., 2010; Wampold, 2015). To validate and strengthen these positive emotional experiences, counselors should show empathy

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[2] While providing structured guidance aims at enhancing the job seeker's counseling-focused expectation that his or her active participation in this process will help ("process-efficacy"), activating resources aims at enhancing the job seeker's self-focused expectation that his or her personal job-search behavior will succeed ("self-efficacy").

(Behrendt, 2006). By validating emotions, empathy activates the underlying motivational resources. Research indicates that therapists (Moyers & Miller, 2013) and counselors (Greif et al., 2010) who show empathy achieve better treatment outcomes and higher satisfaction regarding goal attainment (Gassmann & Grawe, 2006; Wampold, 2015).

Unemployment can lead to hopelessness, passivity and depression (Paul & Moser, 2009). To positively cope with these impediments (Lipshits-Braziler, Gati, & Tatar, 2015) and sustain the proactivity that is crucial for success (Bloom et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2014), job seekers need encouraging activation. Therefore, counselors should focus on chances and change-oriented outlooks instead of problems (Smith & Grawe, 2005) and reframe the situation as an activating challenge instead of demoralizing fate (Ginevra, Pallini, Vecchio, Nota, & Soresi, 2016). To emotionally boost activation, counselors should show empathy for the job seekers' negative emotions and the underlying motivation for change.

Based on these theories and findings, we propose the following behaviors as potential sub-components of the career counselor behavior category 'activating resources': (1) promoting self-efficacy, (2) recognizing accomplishments, (3) stimulating the experience of personal strengths, (4) showing empathy, and (5) framing problems as activating challenges. We postulate:

Hypothesis 3: *The counselor behavior category 'activating resources' and its respective sub-components speed up job seekers' reemployment.*

Method

To specify the counselor behaviors that underlie a high-quality counseling process, the three behavioral common factors of therapy success were transferred to the context of career counseling. The effect of the three proposed success-critical categories of career counselor behavior (H1-H3) and their behavioral components on reemployment speed is tested in the field based on video-taped counseling sessions that were rated by trained scientific observers. These behavior ratings were examined as to whether they correlated with the counselors' success at reemploying their counselled job seekers over a period of five years.

Participants and Procedure

In 2015, the 40 active counselors in three Swiss job-centers were offered participation in the study and were asked to provide one video-tape of a personal counseling session. The career counselors were asked to choose a follow-up-counseling session with a counselee with average education level and without language barriers or other unusual job search difficulties. First counseling session are more formal than consecutive sessions and therefore were not included in the sample. As a reward for providing the video-tape, participating counselors received a personal video-

feedback including a report with their personal scores in the career counselor behaviors. A total of 32 counselors (i.e., 80%) and their seven respective supervisors volunteered to participate in the study. Each of the counselors had one of their monthly counseling sessions video-taped. The career counseling sessions were mandatory for job seekers who drew unemployment benefits. In these sessions, the job seekers' personal career counselor reviews the counselee's job search activities, discusses individual goals, progresses, challenges, and next steps, as well as potential support offers or potential penalties by the job centers. The counselees did not receive any reward for participating in this study. They freely consented prior to the video-taping. The acceptance rate was not captured but was in similar studies estimated to be higher than 99% (Behrendt et al., 2019). The data collection process was cleared by the job centers' juridical consultancy. The average duration of the counseling sessions was 33 minutes. On average, the 32 counselors were 47.8 years old (SD = 9.5), their counseling experience averaged 10.9 years (SD = 6.7), and 78.1% of them were women. On average, the 32 counseled job seekers were 38.6 years old (SD = 13.3), 46.9% of them were women, and 50.0% were Swiss, whereas 50.0% were foreigners.

Measures

Employment success was operationalized by the reemployment speed, measured by the officially recorded working days of receiving unemployment benefits before reemployment. This measure of employment success directly reflects economic costs: Unemployment insurances payed 22.2 million CHF (22.4 million US $) in unemployment benefits per working day in 2014 to the Swiss job seekers (Staatssekretariat für Wirtschaft SECO, 2015; Winkler, 2015). The macro-economic situation was operationalized as the regional unemployment rate and controlled in the analysis.

Expert Raters

The counselors' behavior was rated by psychologists based on video-taped counseling sessions. To ensure objectivity and reliability, the Freiburg Counselor Behavior Rating Manual (Behrendt, 2013) was used to provide observable indicators and anchor examples for each of the fourteen component behaviors proposed within the three counselor behavior categories (Table 1). The manual specifies a valence scale ranging from 1 = negative to 5 = particularly positive (e.g., unstructured to well-structured behavior) and a degree scale ranging from 1 = superficial to 5 = particularly intensive (e.g., superficial to particularly intensive explanations). Prior to the ratings, all five scientific raters had undergone a 10-day rater training program, and each rater had to achieve a personal interrater-reliability of $r_{Pearson} > .7$ with the manual developer's master ratings in two consecutive test ratings.

Table 1

Freiburger Counselor Behavior Rating: Interrater reliability, observable indicators and anchor examples.

Item	Interrater reliability ICC(3,1)unjust	Observable indicators for positive rating	Criteria for rating (valence vs. degree scale)	Anchor example for small positive valence or first degree rating
Providing structured guidance				
Structuring the counseling process	.74**	Clear thread of interventions provided prospectively (explanations in advance), ad hoc (current process management) and retrospectively (summaries and visualizations of the achievements)	valence: comprehensiveness, clarity (for each of the three aspects)	Clear thread with visualization or summary of the results
Explaining the process	.85**	Explaining the effects of the counselling methods	degree: detail, plausibility of the explanations (conclusive, not necessarily objectively true); relevance to the counseling issue	Short sentence to explain the method
Demonstrating that the process supports the jobseeker	.60°	Verbal and/or non-verbal communication, 'We will manage this together' or 'I am there for you'	degree: detail; strength of imparting optimism regarding the success of the counseling; intensity of commitment to the jobseeker and his/her concern	'We will manage this together"
Showing professional competence	.91**	Explanations by the counselor regarding solutions, models or counseling approach	valence: comprehensiveness; clarity, plausibility (conclusive, not necessarily objectively true)	Competent communication of an explanatory model
Showing competent process guidance	.57°	Fit of the intervention and clear thread of the intervention	valence: comprehensiveness; distinctness	One situation with the implementation of one

Item	Interrater reliability ICC(3,1)unjust	Observable indicators for positive rating	Criteria for rating (valence vs. degree scale)	Anchor example for small positive valence or first degree rating
		provided by the counselor		remarkably competent approach
Conveying self-assurance	.88**	Non-verbal self-assurance of the counselor	valence: comprehensiveness; distinctiveness	Steady visual contact, body tension, dedication, clear and confident voice
Providing personalized support				
Supporting core motives	.86**	Aligning the interventions with the jobseeker's core motives (ideal self)	valence: self-centrality of the processed motives; strength of the solution-oriented support provided in the interventions	Not only working on concrete rational goals but on topics and questions that are highly significant to the jobseeker
Supporting needs	.97***	Perceptible need of the jobseeker AND the counselor does not fulfill this (only negative ratings)	degree (only negative ratings): abrupt ignoring; intensity of communicating need	Weak need that is only addressed briefly and is not followed (only negative ratings)
Showing patience	.73**	Non-verbal patience	valence: comprehensiveness; distinctness	Perfectly calm, very attentive and enduring listening with no explicit intervention to calm down the jobseeker
Emphasizing jobseeker contributions	.81**	Clarifying former or current contributions the jobseeker makes to counseling	degree: comprehensiveness; intensity of the jobseeker's contribution; intensity in increasing consciousness of the value of contributions	'Good idea"

Item	Interrater reliability ICC(3,1)unjust	Observable indicators for positive rating	Criteria for rating (valence vs. degree scale)	Anchor example for small positive valence or first degree rating
		Activating resources		
Promoting self-efficacy	.88**	Focusing on relevant strengths, reducing the anticipation of subjective difficulties or providing encouragement	degree: detail; verbal persuasion; non-verbal persuasion; relevance to the jobseeker's issue	'You'll get there, you have managed similar situations previously."
Recognizing	.95***	Explicit verbal or non-verbal recognition	degree: duration; verbal positivity; non-verbal positivity	'Yeah" (with a very confirming intonation)
Stimulating the experience of personal strengths	.85**	Stimulate the re-experience of a positive skill	degree: detail; intensity of experience; the counselor's esteem	In short: 'Please recall how you managed this at that time"
Showing empathy	.90**	Appropriate emotional reaction to the jobseeker's emotions or his/her description of an emotional situation	valence: duration; intensity of emotions	'When I listen to you and put myself in your situation, I assume that you were totally annoyed. Am I right?"
Framing problems as challenges	.95***	Addressing problems and conveying an optimistic action orientation and drive	valence: duration; intensity of attitude	'I can see that you are ready for action. Use this to convince the boss that you are not a shy person"

Notes. ICC: n2rel = 7 counseling sessions were completely reassessed; °p < .1, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Working with transcripts, the first raters watched the video-taped sessions twice before they rated it. Subsequently, a second rater watched the video and revised each behavior rating to improve reliability. Receiving previously conducted ratings as a guideline reduced cognitive load and allowed a more reliable rating. To ensure that rating scores did not inflate as the session duration increased, the rating sum for each behavior was divided by the session's duration. To ensure intuitive

understanding and maintain score comparability of behaviors with highly different occurrence probabilities, the scores were transformed into standardized percentiles.

Results

An explorative factor analysis (PCA) of the data with varimax rotation yielded a three-factor solution based on the scree-test and the parallel test (O'Connor, 2000) that explained 61% of the variance with a significant Bartlett test (p < .001) and KMO = .58. The three-factor structure matches the three theoretically derived factors because all items significantly load on their expected factor at r > .4. Only the item 'structuring the counseling process' additionally loaded slightly higher on the factor 'providing personalized support'.

The interrater reliabilities were calculated based on blind re-ratings by different raters of a random sample of nrel = 7 (i.e., 20%) counseling sessions of this study (Wirtz & Caspar, 2002). The average reliability of the ratings of the fourteen behaviors (ICC(3,1)unjust = .86) was excellent according to Cicchetti's (1994) criterion (below .40 = poor; .40 to .59 = fair; .60 to .74 = good; .75 to 1.00 = excellent). Eleven of the fifteen behaviors were rated with excellent reliability, three with good reliability and none with poor reliability. Intra-rater reliability was calculated based on two counseling sessions that were reassessed by the same first rater one year after the first rating. The ICC(3,1)unjust indicates an excellent reliability for both rerated counseling sessions: ICCintra1 = .93 and ICCintra2 = .94.

For testing the career counselor behaviors as predictors of reemployment speed, correlational analyses were conducted using SPSS package 23. To investigate the number of days until reemployment as a function of counselor behavior, the scientific observers' behavior ratings for each counselor were correlated with the counselors' average success in reemploying their job seekers between 2010 and 2015. Job seekers whose counselor provided more structured guidance in the videotaped session received unemployment benefits for fewer days. The effect size of r = -.58 was large (p < .001; 95%-confidence interval: -.77 < r < -.29). Hence, H1 was supported. When a counselor 'provided more structured guidance' and was rated one quartile better by the scientific observers in that respect, the counselor's job seekers were reemployed 37.5 working days earlier on average. Swiss unemployment insurances pay 22.2 million CHF of benefits per working day to all Swiss job seekers. In consequence, an improvement of structured guidance by one quartile would amount to annual savings of 830.8 Mio CHF for Switzerland. The other two behavior categories, 'providing personalized support' and 'activating resources' were not significantly correlated with the reemployment speed ('providing personalized support':

r = -.19, p = .30, 95%-confidence interval: -.51 < r < .17; 'activating resources':

r = -.12, p = .51, 95%-confidence interval: -.45 < r < .24). Given a conventional level of statistical significance, H2 and H3 were rejected. However, in terms of descriptive tendencies the effect sizes were in the expected direction in that if the counselor provided more personalized support and activated resources more their job seekers received unemployment benefit for fewer days (Table 2).

A similar mixed picture applies to the correlations between the individual counselor behaviors and job seekers' speed of reemployment. The individual behaviors 'structuring the counseling process', 'showing competent process guidance' and 'conveying self-assurance' shortened the job seekers' unemployment to a medium to large degree and are statistically significant (p < .05) despite the small sample of 32 counseling sessions. Descriptively, the individual behaviors 'explaining the process', 'demonstrating that the process supports the job seeker', 'showing professional competence', 'supporting core motives' and 'recognizing' had a perceptible effect on reemployment (all correlations between -.29 < r < -.21); however, they failed a conventional level of significance (p > .05). Finally, the individual behaviors 'supporting needs', 'showing patience', 'emphasizing job seeker contributions', 'promoting self-efficacy', 'stimulating the experience of personal strengths', 'showing empathy' and 'framing problems as challenges' did not correlate at all or only to a trivial degree with the speed of job seekers' reemployment (all correlations between -.15 < r < .14).

Table 2
Correlation of career counselor behaviors with speed of reemployment.

Career counselor behavior (category)	Correlation with speed of reemployment $r_{pearson}$
(Providing structured guidance)	-.58***
Structuring the counseling process	-.37*
Explaining the process	-.23
Demonstrating that the process supports the jobseeker	-.28
Showing professional competence	-.22
Showing competent process guidance	-.42*
Conveying self-assurance	-.43*
(Providing personalized support)	-.19
Supporting core motives	-.23
Supporting needs	.13
Showing patience	-.14
Emphasizing jobseeker contributions	-.04
(Activating resources)	-.12
Promoting self-efficacy	-.05
Recognizing	-.27
Stimulating the experience of personal strengths	-.09
Showing empathy	.01

Career counselor behavior (category)	Correlation with speed of reemployment $r_{pearson}$
Framing problems as challenges	-.11

Notes. Speed of employment was measured by days of unemployment benefits received before reemployment. $N = 32$ jobseekers who were counseled in $N = 32$ counseling sessions conducted by $N = 32$ counselors; please note that the confidence intervals of all reported correlations do overlap; *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Discussion

On the level of behavioral factors, counselors who 'provide more structured guidance' speed up their jobseeking clients' reemployment by more than seven weeks. In contrast, counselors who provide better 'personalized support' or those who more successfully 'activate resources' do not significantly shorten the period of unemployment. On the one hand, these results confirm the importance of the common factors to create positive expectations in the job seeker (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015) and highlight the importance of a competent (Ianiro et al., 2013; Wampold, 2015) and well-structured process (Grawe, 2004; Whiston et al., 2003) that facilitates job seekers' conscientiousness (Kanfer et al., 2001). On the other hand, the two common factors working alliance and activating resources (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015) that strengthen personal commitment, proactivity, job search skills and self-efficacy (Kanfer et al., 2001) were not confirmed to significantly lower time until reemployment in the current study. The participating job centers had been reinforcing a solution-oriented approach that focused on job seekers' personal support (Bloom et al., 2001; Meyer, 1995) and activating their resources (Bloom et al., 2001) for five years. This distinctive focus on personal support and activating resources - by way of a ceiling effect - could have restricted the range of observed behaviors that were supportive in a personalized or resource-activating manner, thereby concealing otherwise noticeable effects. Moreover, Whiston et al. (2016) estimate a correlation of approximately r = -.30 between the quality of the working alliance and days of unemployment, a value contained in all of the three confidence intervals of the factor-reemployment-correlations.

Beside the correlations of the coarse-grained behavior categories (i.e., factors) and days of unemployment, the fine-grained correlations of specific counselor behaviors and days of unemployment provide a more detailed picture: The counselor behaviors 'structuring the counseling process', 'showing competent process guidance' and 'conveying self-assurance' significantly shortened the job seekers' period of unemployment. These effects were of medium to large size. 'Explaining the process', 'demonstrating that the process supports the job seeker', 'showing professional competence', 'supporting core motives' and 'recognizing' perceptibly sped up reemployment but failed a conventional level of statistical significance. The remaining counselor behaviors we explored did not influence reemployment at all or only to a slight degree. To sum up results, the presented study confirms that career counselor behavior affects the speed at which job

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seekers find new employment. Thereby, the counselor's behavior category 'providing structured guidance' can be considered an established component of process quality. The magnitude of these effects corresponds to high economic value, consistent with findings on the benefits and returns of counseling interventions (Dolton & O'Neill, 2002). The associated savings are highly likely to significantly surpass investments: More than 800 million CHF per year could be saved by improving counselors' behavior.

With regard to strengths and limitations of this study, the results' internal validity is augmented through state-of-the-art statistical methodology, objective outcome data, and behavioral observation with established reliability. Due to the relatively small sample (N = 32) and hence low statistical power, all confidence intervals of the correlations between any counselor behavior and days of unemployment are wide, and additional existing relevant effects might have remained undetected. External validity is augmented by a field study approach; however, transferability to other job centers remains an open question. Furthermore, as counselor behaviors were observed and not manipulated all findings are correlational; consequently, the findings are unable to establish that counselor behavior causally influenced the speed of reemployment.

Conclusions that amount to delivering a definite list of distinct career counselor behaviors that shorten the period of unemployment are impossible due to the explorative nature of this study that ventured into uncharted territory as well as due to the relatively small sample size. In this study, we spent available resources in favor of video-taping, transcribing, coding and recoding of 32 counseling sessions, thereby being able to work with intersubjectively rated behavioral data rather than low-hanging but error-prone subjective reports of the counselors or the job seekers. By way of trade-off, the considerable effort of processing the counseling sessions amounted to relatively small statistical power. Given the explorative state of any research into individual counselor behaviors on career counseling success, we focused on discovering traces and overall categorial structure that may be followed up in future research rather than to test one or two behaviors with high statistical power.

As regards practical implications, career counselors are encouraged to invest their efforts in enhancing structured guidance of the job seekers especially by conveying personal competence, self-assurance and providing a well-structured process. Accordingly, counselors should provide competent, clear, and plausible explanations, keep eye contact, body tension, speak with dedication and a clear and confident voice, as well as structure the process with a clear thread with prospective explanations, visualizations and summaries. The resulting employment acceleration pays off. Supervisors should focus their behavioral assessments and related feedbacks on these specific behaviors to foster the counselors' personnel development. Quality manuals should provide structure and guidance to support counselors in doing so themselves. Furthermore, career

counseling organizations such as job centers are encouraged to invest in their counselors' behavioral competence by behavior training and coaching that uses behavioral feedback (Fukkink et al., 2011). Once specific success-critical behaviors have been replicated in further research, these behaviors can inform counselor selection, evaluation, and development.

The current study lends support to the value of detailed behavioral process analysis in the context of career counseling. The well-established common factors of psychotherapy effectiveness have been transferred and specified to the context of career counseling and thereby have taken in meta-analytical results on the antecedents of employment success. The study revealed that it is possible to reliably assess the proposed behavioral components of career counseling process quality in the form of video-based ratings by trained scientific observers. Further research is required on the Freiburger Counselor Behavior Rating manual to corroborate and perhaps improve its quality for measuring counselor behavior. Moreover, this study opens up many avenues for future empirical research and theory building. On the aggregated level of the behavioral factors that influence career counseling success, future research could sound out whether the three-factor structure replicates or needs to be modified by subtracting or adding factors both in the same and in different counseling contexts. If the three-factor structure holds, it might be refined by dropping or adding individual counselor behaviors.

On the fine-grained level of individual counselor behaviors, the findings likely are not the final words on this issue. The present results provide a starting point for future research, in that some of the individual counselor behaviors that were examined in this study could probably be dropped from consideration (more likely those that in this study did not correlate with reemployment), while other behaviors' operationalization could be refined and new behaviors be added.

In general, similar studies need to be conducted in the career counseling context but with new and larger samples as well as in additional counseling contexts such as partnership and marriage counseling. Future studies should also experimentally vary aspects of counselor behavior to examine and establish causality and to investigate the theoretically proposed mediating variables such as job seekers' conscientiousness, counselor credibility, the job seekers' expectation that the counseling will help, job seekers' cooperation in the process and job seekers' job-search engagement. Furthermore, experimental settings could evaluate interventions that foster important counselor behavior and consequently increase reemployment success. Finally, examining other dependent variables such as client wellbeing, client satisfaction with the counseling and even counselor's job satisfaction would help painting a differentiated picture.

Conclusions

All over the world, almost 200 million individuals suffer from the harmful consequences of unemployment, over 100.000 in Switzerland (Statista, 2019). Counseling process quality has been shown to speed-up job seekers' reemployment. This study has started to reveal a set of counselor behaviors to be components of process quality that speed reemployment by more than seven weeks. The proposed model and the resulting findings should stimulate further research on common factors of career counseling success and guide investments in process quality to promote reemployment, realize economic savings and improve the life of the unemployed.

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Chapter V

Paper IV:

An integrative model of leadership behavior

Citation

Abstract

Decades of questionnaire and interview studies have revealed various leadership behaviors observed in successful leaders. However, little is known about the actual behaviors that cause those observations. Given that lay observers are prone to cognitive biases, such as the halo effect, the validity of theories that are exclusively based on observed behaviors is questionable. We thus follow the call of leading scientists in the field and derive a parsimonious model of leadership behavior that is informed by established psychological theories. Building on the taxonomy of Yukl (2012), we propose three task-oriented behavior categories (enhancing understanding, strengthening motivation and facilitating implementation) and three relation-oriented behavior categories (fostering coordination, promoting cooperation and activating resources), each of which is further specified by a number of distinct behaviors. While the task-oriented behaviors are directed towards the accomplishment of shared objectives, the relation-oriented behaviors support this process by increasing the coordinated engagement of the team members. Our model contributes to the advancement of leadership behavior theory by (1) consolidating current taxonomies, (2) sharpening behavioral concepts of leadership behavior, (3) specifying precise relationships between those categories and (4) spurring new hypotheses that can be derived from existing findings in the field of psychology. To test our model as well as the hypotheses derived from this model, we advocate the development of new measurements that overcome the limitations associated with questionnaire and interview studies.

Keywords

effective leadership behavior; theory; observer bias

Introduction

Over 100 years of leadership research has yielded strong evidence that an organization's success depends upon its managers' leadership (e.g., Wang, Tsui, & Xin, 2011). According to Nohria, Joyce, and Roberson (2003), CEOs account for up to 15% of the variance in an organization's financial outcomes. Consequently, a large proportion of leadership research has been devoted to the question of what constitutes effective leadership behavior. This field of research aims to identify the qualities that distinguish excellent leaders from their average colleagues, rendering the former more successful in excelling at financial goals, inducing follower satisfaction and securing external resources.

Although our understanding of effective leadership behavior has advanced over the past 100 years and now constitutes an established research area, leading scientists in the field have recently questioned certain widespread assumptions regarding effective leadership behavior (e.g., Avolio, 2007; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 2012). These critics have found evidence of confusion of actual leadership behavior with followers' perceptions of leadership behavior (Dinh et al., 2014). This confusion is generated and aggravated by flawed measures. As a result, van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) emphasized two major problems in current leadership theory that threaten the validity of many previous findings: 1) a lack of distinct conceptual definitions, resulting in considerable overlap among different concepts, and 2) a lack of coherent causal models that include specific mediating and moderating processes.

Contending that those problems are too severe to be resolved through minor modifications to existing theories, van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) called for the abandonment of the current focus on contemporary leadership concepts and hence for new conceptualizations. In line with other authors (e.g., Avolio, 2007; DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011), they encourage the scientific community to generate more sophisticated and integrative leadership theories that are based on sound methodology and that span different streams of research outside the core leadership literature.

In this paper, we follow van Knippenberg and Sitkin's (2013) call: We derive a model of leadership behavior that integrates the most fundamental findings of past leadership behavior research with well-established psychological theories and that ceases to perpetuate the flaws of contemporary models. We begin by first reviewing the fundamental criticisms. We then review the findings of recent meta-analyses (DeRue et al., 2011) and taxonomies (Yukl, 2012) of effective leadership behavior (perceptions) that are related to superior leadership outcomes. Next, we integrate these behaviors into a coherent theoretical framework based on fundamental psychological research. The theoretical framework is derived from the essence of leadership, "influencing and

facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2012, p. 66), and is based on the two meta-categories of task- and relations-oriented leadership behavior. Corresponding to these two meta-categories, we integrate two streams of psychological research: 1) motivation and action theories that explain how individuals establish and accomplish their goals and 2) group and engagement research that analyses the conditions under which individuals invest their resources in a collective endeavor. We then derive an integrative model of leadership behavior that fulfills the following criteria:

1. It discriminates actual behavior from perceived behavior.

2. It sharpens the behavioral concepts and reduces overlap among them.

3. It suggests specific relationships between its concepts, introduces a process perspective and hence prompts new hypotheses that could motivate future studies.

4. It integrates established psychological theories and thus taps into a wealth of scientific knowledge to spark theoretic proliferation.

Equipped with these four contributions to the field of leadership research, the integrative model of leadership behavior is proposed as an advance in scientific efforts towards a more integrative and theory-driven leadership theory. We show that the new model meets all of the criteria of a good theory (Filley, House, & Kerr, 1976): generality, parsimony, external and internal consistency as well as testability. As such, the model offers orientation by providing a parsimonious and coherent framework in the discussion of effective leadership behavior. Such a framework allows for a consistent and meaningful integration of co-existing – and often diverging – leadership concepts. Thereby, the framework helps to prevent duplication of effort and promotes cooperation between distant research groups and disciplines. Despite being parsimonious, the model provides rich detail and concreteness as it connects to a considerable wealth of existing psychological theories and research. This theoretical foundation grants researchers immediate access to untapped resources and knowledge outside of the core leadership community and stimulates new research hypotheses. Taken together, the model combines two important strengths of a good theory: It offers a high level of general breadth as well as a profound level of detail.

We are aware that the endeavor to develop and establish such a model requires the expertise and support of the entire scientific community in this area. The proposed model is therefore not intended to be the ultimate truth but rather a starting point to spark new thoughts and hypotheses, as well as new models and methods to test them.

Current state of leadership behavior research

Before beginning any endeavor, it is crucial to realize where one stands in terms of theory and to take stock of the tools at one's disposal. In our case, we need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of current leadership behavior research to avoid perpetuating its flaws.

The lack of theory-based conceptualizations of leadership behavior

Contemporary leadership behavior research has been criticized for its weak theoretical foundation (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). One reason for this might be that, in the 100 years of leadership research, the majority of studies have investigated leadership behavior using interviews or questionnaires. The model of charismatic-transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999) exemplifies this approach: as a first step, researchers interview a group of theoretical or practical experts. The experts explicate their cognitive models that describe what distinguishes the best leaders. In a second step, based on qualitative analyses of these interviews, researchers generate survey items (e.g., the MLQ in Avolio et al., 1999). The MLQ survey and its subsequent revisions are the foundation of the vast majority of current research on transformational leadership.

Although an observation-based, inductive procedure guarantees the practical relevance of the identified leader behaviors, it is beset by problems that question the usefulness and validity of ensuing theories[3]: Most conceptualizations of leadership neither offer theory-guided criteria for the inclusion and exclusion of particular behaviors and/or categories nor explain how these categories relate to one another. Rather than being based on theoretical assumptions and grounded in established theories, most leadership conceptualizations constitute a conglomerate of behaviors attributed to successful leaders.

We argue that leadership behavior models developed solely on the basis of interviews and surveys share a major flaw: they fail to differentiate between leadership behavior and perceptions of leadership behavior. Whoever answers the survey or interview is bound to report his or her personal perception of leadership behavior (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015). There are good reasons to assume that the reported behavior perception differs from the behavior itself (Davis & Luthans, 1979; Hansbrough et al., 2015; Lee, Martin, Thomas, Guillaume, & Maio, 2015; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Observation research has demonstrated that the reliable and valid observation of behavior is an art. A reliable behavior rating can only be mastered by highly trained observers who are equipped with rating manuals and specific descriptions of the intended

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[3] As van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) offer a detailed discussion on the conceptual limitations of current leadership theories, we only summarize their points. Readers are invited to consult the original work to understand the full complexity of these issues.

behaviors and are intentionally focused on observing these behaviors. In consequence, we expect that most contemporary leadership behavior research is fraught with the well-established observation errors of lay observers (Dinh et al., 2014; Hansbrough et al., 2015) such as the halo effect (Frone, Adams, Rice, & Instone-Noonan, 1986; Thorndike, 1920), confirmation biases based on implicit leadership theories (Phillips & Lord, 1986) or the need to answer consistently (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

The severity of the consequences of the confusion of real behavior and behavior perception depends on the type of observation error. If observation errors are random, they merely increase error variance and hence conceal existing effects or decrease their estimated size. However, the high correlations of leadership behavior perception scales with other constructs suggest that the observation errors are systematic: most studies establish high correlations between profoundly different leadership behavior scales. The MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) is an example, wherein transactional leadership is defined as the opposite of transformational leadership. However, the transactional leadership scale 'Contingent Reward' correlates with transformational leadership at $r > .79$, reaching up to $r = .93$ for some of the sub-factors (Avolio et al., 1999). A well-established observation error explains this finding: the halo effect (Thorndike, 1920). If a lay observer believes the leader to be effective, this general judgment superimposes differentiated observation, and the observer reports more positive leadership behaviors in all categories – and vice versa (Frone et al., 1986). The stronger the halo effect, the larger the intercorrelations among supposedly distinct leadership behaviors.

Due to the halo effect, current leadership behavior theories contain blurred categories. This shortcoming is reflected in the considerable variety of competing leadership theories with substantially overlapping components. Given the frequently reported intercorrelations of $r > .7$ for supposedly distinct types of leadership, the unique value of most current leadership theories remains unclear, for example, charismatic-transformational leadership and consideration (DeRue et al., 2011); charismatic-transformational and empowering leadership (Tekleab, Sims, Yun, Tesluk, & Cox, 2007); consideration, transformational and ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005).

Most extant studies have surveyed the leader's subordinates as lay observers. However, subordinates' leadership perceptions are confounded by leadership outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011), which gives rise to an additional shortcoming in current leadership theories: an overestimation of the effects of leadership behavior on leadership outcomes. If subordinates attribute high success to their leader, they are likely to 1) attest to her highly effective leadership behavior (Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, 1978), 2) identify with her (Ellemers, Gilder, & Haslam, 2004) and 3) act to support the group's success (Karau & Williams, 1993).

The confusion between behavior and behavior perception has given rise to another observation error in contemporary leadership behavior research: confirmation bias based on implicit leadership theories (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Phillips & Lord, 1986). Based on this observation error, subordinates report more of a particular leadership behavior if they expect to observe that behavior based on their implicit leadership theories: Imagine a leader who does not offer explicit appreciation. Nevertheless, her followers might feel appreciated if the leader often solicits their opinions, allows them to influence important decisions, cares about their needs and supports them when needed. As a consequence, her followers strongly believe that she appreciates them. As part of the confirmation bias, her subordinates are likely to falsely report more explicit appreciating behavior because such behavior would be in line with their expectations. Thus their feeling of being appreciated has influenced the reported behavior perception. Theories that do not differentiate behavior from behavior perception risk reiterate prevailing implicit leadership theories, overlooking causal relationships that are not part of those implicit theories and thus overestimating the effects of leadership behavior on leadership outcomes that are in line with implicit leadership theories. Moreover, if leadership behaviors and leadership effects are as strongly intertwined by implicit leadership theories as suggested for explicit appreciating behavior and the feeling of being appreciated, researchers will have difficulty in empirically distinguishing the actual behavior from its effects. In questionnaire studies, this observer error is further intensified by the observer's need to answer consistently (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986): accordingly, observer would unconsciously refrain to report the feeling of being appreciated and in the same time no appreciating behavior, even if they were originally observing these inconsistent observations.

As a result of these methodological problems, contemporary leadership behavior theories have failed to empirically establish precise causal models (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013)[4]. If the behavioral concepts cannot be distinguished empirically from each other, their differentiated effects cannot be distinguished either. Furthermore, if the behaviors cannot be distinguished from behavior perceptions and other important leadership effects, precise causal models cannot be established. Finally, researchers risk misinterpreting correlations between behavior perceptions and leadership effects as the causal effect of leadership behaviors (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), thereby reestablishing the implicit leadership theories that created lay observers' expectations in the first place.

In summary, systematic observation errors have likely given rise to contemporary leadership behavior models that (1) overestimate the effects of desirable leadership behaviors, (2) blur

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[4] As van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) offer a detailed discussion on the theoretical limitations of current leadership theories, we also only summarize their point here. Readers are invited to consult the original work.

distinctions between different leadership behaviors and overestimate overlaps, (3) misinterpret empirical relationships between leadership perceptions and leadership outcomes as the effects of leadership behaviors, and (4) fail to establish precise and valid causal models. All of these flaws have been criticized by leading scientists in the field (esp. van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Despite these important concerns, current behavioral leadership concepts are not irrelevant (Lee et al., 2015). In fact, several behavior perceptions have been established as predictors of leadership effectiveness (Burke et al., 2006). However, it remains unclear which leadership perceptions are rooted in the respective leadership behaviors and which leadership perceptions are relevant but have other causes. Therefore, leadership perceptions could play an essential role in advancing our understanding of the mediating processes and moderating factors captured in causal models of leadership behavior (Lee et al., 2015). By contrast, the current hybrid use of leadership perceptions as proxies for both the predictive behaviors and the leadership outcomes threatens the validity of behavioral models of leadership.

Leadership behavior (perception) as the basis for theoretic integration

Burke et al.'s (2006) meta-analysis on leadership behavior research identified three leadership behavior perceptions that predicted leadership success best: (1) boundary spanning, (2) empowerment, and (3) transformational leadership. First, boundary spanning refers to the management of external relationships and encompasses three distinct leadership behaviors: (a) representation of the group's interests with powerful stakeholders, (b) coordination of work activities with the needs of external partners, and (c) accessing external resources, such as the information and expertise of external partners (Marrone, 2010). Second, empowerment is defined by its leadership effect on subordinates: an active orientation of the subordinate towards the work role in which the subordinate "wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). Spreitzer (1995) identified two leadership behaviors as antecedents to empowerment: (a) providing access to information and (b) providing rewards that recognize individual contributions. Third, transformational leadership is a conglomerate of different behaviors perceived in effective leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Avolio et al. (1999) established four behavioral factors that are observed in transformational leaders: (a) charisma, which incorporates perceptions of enthusiasm, power, confidence and ethical behavior, as well as focusing a collective mission, (b) intellectual stimulation, which incorporates behaviors that foster innovation and creativity such as suggesting new perspectives or re-examining assumptions, (c) individual consideration, which incorporates listening, developing and delegating behaviors, and (d) contingent reward, which

incorporates behaviors that recognize and motivate individual contributions[5]. However, while each of the three leadership behavior perceptions significantly predicts leadership success, there are two major concerns.

First, the three behavior perceptions considerably overlap. For example, empowering and transformational behavior both include rewarding and recognizing behaviors. Second, the behavior perceptions are confounded with leadership effects. For example, charisma is defined by the leader's charismatic effect on his/her subordinates, who perceive the leader as an enthusiastic, powerful, confident and ethical role model. However, the behaviors that lead to this charismatic effect remain unclear.

DeRue et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis on leadership behaviors and traits replicates Burke et al.'s (2006) findings regarding the effectiveness of perceived transformational leadership behavior and establishes one additional behavior perception that correlates highly with group performance: initiating structure. Initiating structure includes behavior perceptions such as clarifying tasks, relationships, and expectations, as well as coordinating action (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Although these behaviors are not specifically outlined in Burke's meta-analysis, several overlaps with Burke et al.'s (2006) behavioral categories can be identified upon closer scrutiny: 'clarifying relationships' overlaps with the boundary-spanning behavior 'access external resources' which includes behaviors to "understand the general environment" and identify "target actors" (Marrone, 2010, p. 918). Furthermore, 'clarifying tasks' provides subordinates with access to relevant information. Providing access to information was earlier identified as empowering behavior.

In summary, current meta-analyses have established four essential behavior perceptions that best predict leadership success: boundary spanning, empowerment, transformational leadership and initiating structure. However, the meta-analyses do not provide a comprehensive framework of consistent behavioral categories. Rather, they assemble different behaviors that overlap in an unsystematic manner.

In attempting integration, several authors have suggested comprehensive taxonomies of effective leadership behavior perceptions (e.g., DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl, 2012). As these taxonomies offer a structured overview of existing findings, they provide a valuable starting point for further theory development. Yukl's (2012) taxonomy is based on an extensive literature review and proposes four behavioral meta-categories comprising 15 component behaviors (see Table 1). Each component behavior is specified with detailed behavioral descriptions that are based on between seven and

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[5] Although the model of transformational leadership does not assign *contingent reward* to the transformational behaviors, contingent reward is so highly correlated with the other transformational leadership behaviors (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999) Avolio et al. (1999)that it needs to be considered an integral part of transformational behavior.

seventeen empirical studies. These empirical studies range from diary studies to laboratory and field experiments. To ensure internal validity, most of the studies are based on data from independent sources for behavior perception and leadership success. The four behavioral meta-categories integrate all behavioral concepts of the leadership models discussed above: task-oriented leadership behavior (integrates initiating structure behaviors), relations-oriented leadership behavior (integrates empowering and several transformational behaviors), change-oriented leadership behavior (integrates the remaining transformational behaviors), and external leadership behaviors (integrates boundary-spanning behaviors).

Yukl's (2012) taxonomy exhibits three strengths relative to previous leadership behavior models: (1) It includes detailed behavioral descriptions and abandons certain concepts that cannot be distinguished from their effects (e.g., charisma). (2) It integrates similar behavioral concepts from different models into one systematic taxonomy, thereby eliminating many overlaps among behavioral concepts. For example, Yukl's (2012) component behavior 'clarifying' integrates two previously overlapping behaviors: the empowering behavior 'providing access to information' and the initiating structure behavior 'clarifying tasks'. (3) It incorporates diverse research results and therefore constitutes a basis for generating an integrative model of

Task-oriented	Clarifying
	Planning
	Monitoring operations
	Problem solving
Relations-oriented	Supporting
	Developing
	Recognizing
	Empowering
Change-oriented	Advocating change
	Envisioning change
	Encouraging innovation
	Facilitating collective learning
External	Networking
	External monitoring
	Representing

Table 1: Yukl's (2012) taxonomy of leadership behavior that contains 4 meta-categories and 15 associated component behaviors

leadership behavior. In particular, Yukl not only includes the four previously discussed behavior perceptions of boundary spanning, empowerment, transformational leadership, and initiating structure but also other behaviors that were established in various empirical studies as critical for leadership success (e.g., problem solving or wishful thinking).

Despite the significant advancements in the construction of a more parsimonious model of leadership behavior, Yukl's taxonomy fails to respond to criticisms that derive from systematic observer errors. As his taxonomy is based on the available empirical research, it primarily integrates studies that relied on lay observers. As a consequence, Yukl does not fully differentiate between behaviors and their perceptions. This lack of differentiation becomes obvious in several behavior descriptions that cannot be measured independently of their consequences: "plans that are superficial or unrealistic", "types of monitoring that are intrusive, excessive, superficial, or irrelevant", "false assumptions", or "advocating a costly major change when only incremental

adjustments are necessary" (Yukl, 2012, pp. 70–73). These behavioral descriptions are subjective, as they are rooted in the perception of the observer and can only be measured post-hoc, when the generated effect can be evaluated. Therefore, Yukl's taxonomy is fraught with some of the problems outlined in the previous sections. In particular, it does not offer clear guidance on how several particular leadership behaviors ought to be categorized[6]. Although empowerment, for example, is defined as a separate component behavior, negative empowering behaviors are included in the descriptions of other components (e.g., micromanaging represents negative clarifying, excessive monitoring represents negative monitoring, discouraging input represents negative problem solving). These overlaps even span different meta-categories, suggesting that the meta-categories require more rigorous definition and further conceptual delineation. We argue that empowering behaviors are related to an interaction style, whereas other behaviors pertain to the content of the interaction. Be it through the content of a conversation, the initiation of change or relationships with an external partner, leaders may act in an empowering manner by providing their subordinates with influence or even autonomy with respect to the topic at hand. Defining empowering behavior as an interaction style that can be exhibited in various contexts provides a solution to avoid this overlap. Therefore, a comprehensive new theory needs to embed the separate meta-categories and component behaviors within a coherent framework and define their interrelationships.

Taken together, Yukl's taxonomy provides a comprehensive, well-structured overview of behaviors perceived in successful leaders. However, it does not fully overcome the problems of observation biases and the confusion of behavior with behavior perception. In this paper, we therefore attempt to circumvent these problems by consulting psychological theories outside of the core leadership literature.

The essence of leadership as a guidepost for theory construction

The essence of leadership is defined as "influencing and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2012). This definition posits three entities: the leader, the tasks that are to be accomplished and the followers who are to invest their efforts (Bennis, 2007; Drath et al., 2008). In other words, leadership behavior should essentially be (1) task-oriented and (2) relations-oriented. The dichotomy of these two meta-categories of leadership-behavior has been at

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[6] For example, the behavior *assigning tasks* is assigned to the two components of planning and clarifying; the specific behavior *identifying potential problems, risks or threats* is assigned to the three components of external monitoring, advocating change and problem solving; the specific behavior *building confidence* is assigned to the three components of developing, supporting and envisioning change.

the root of many leadership theories and taxonomies for more than 60 years (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; House, 1971; Likert, 1961; Misumi & Peterson, 1985; Yukl, 2012)[7].

In embedding these two leadership behavior meta-categories into a comprehensive theoretical framework, one must specify (1) the process of accomplishing joint objectives and (2) the relationships that lead to the investment of individual and collective effort. Based on these requirements, two streams of psychological research are consulted for theoretic integration: (1) motivation and action theories that describe and explain the process of how individuals establish and accomplish their objectives and (2) group and engagement research that identifies the conditions under which individuals invest their resources in a group's endeavor (see Table 2). Based on these two research streams, we derive a new integrative model of leadership behavior that sharpens the concepts, reduces their overlaps, reveals relationships between the concepts, and considers a broad body of research outside the core leadership literature. Table 2 provides an overview of the psychological theories employed to develop the model.

Leadership Behaviors	Integrated Research Bodies	Main References
Task-oriented leadership behavior	Rubicon model	Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987 Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008
1) Enhancing understanding	- Rubicon model - Attributional theory of motivation and emotion - Theory of planned behavior	Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008 Weiner, 1985 Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975
2) Strengthening motivation	- Rubicon model - Theory of planned behavior	Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008 Ajzen, 1991
3) Facilitating implementation	- Rubicon model - Implementation plans - Flow	Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008 Milne, Orbell, & Sheeran, 2002 Csikszentmihalyi, 1975

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[7] Different authors have labeled these two categories differently – for example, job-centered' and 'employee-centered' Likert (1961) or 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957). The labels task-oriented and relations-oriented prescribe the direction of behavior rather than a concrete behavior that should be executed (vs. consideration) and are least context-specific (vs. job-centered) (Yukl, 2012).

Leadership Behaviors	Integrated Research Bodies	Main References
Relations-oriented leadership behavior	Ringelmann effect	Ingham, Levinger, Graves, & Peckham, 1974
1) Fostering coordination	- Procedural statements - Coordination in decision making - Standardization	Kauffeld & Lehmann-Willenbrock, 2012 Wilson & Rhodes, 1997 Muenstermann, Stetten, Laumer, & Eckhardt, 2010
2) Promoting cooperation	- Social Loafing - Job Demands-Resources-Model - Empowerment	Karau & Williams, 1993 Bakker & Demerouti, 2007 Spreitzer, 1995
3) Activating resources	- Self-efficacy - Group identity perspective - Resource activation - Positive reinforcement	Bandura, 1977 Ellemers et al., 2004 Grawe, 1998 Estes, 1944

Table 2: Research bodies consulted for the construction and proliferation of the integrative model of leadership behavior (IMoLB)

Task-oriented leadership behavior – substantiated by motivation and action theories

Task-oriented leadership behavior directly supports the process of accomplishing shared objectives. Motivation and action theories – among which expectancy-value theories are the most frequently investigated (Beckmann & Heckhausen, 2008; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) - specify how humans establish and achieve objectives. Expectancy-value theories assert that the motivation to strive for a certain objective depends on the personal value of the accomplished objective multiplied by the perceived likelihood that this objective can be attained. Heckhausen and Gollwitzer (1987) further developed and validated this general assumption by presenting evidence that humans' cognitive functioning changes once they make a decision. Before the decision, their thoughts are preoccupied with values and expectations. Postdecisional thoughts, however, center on implementation. This observation led to the Rubicon model (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). The Rubicon model characterizes a so-called 'course of action' in four phases: (1) evaluation, (2)

deliberation, (3) planning and (4) action[8]. Each of these four phases is delineated by a specific end-state: (A) intention deliberation, (B) intention formation, (C) intention initiation, and (D) intention realization.

Based on the Rubicon model, we suggest three task-oriented behavior categories that support the process of accomplishing objectives: (1) enhancing understanding in the evaluation phase, (2) strengthening motivation in the deliberation phase, and (3) facilitating implementation in the planning and action phase. The model does not assign a separate leadership behavior to the action phase because actions are typically performed by followers rather than by the leaders themselves.

1) Enhancing understanding

The first task-oriented leadership behavior category 'enhancing understanding' supports the evaluation phase. The evaluation phase concerns the evaluation of prior actions and their results (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). The functions of the leadership behaviors in this phase are to provide relevant information, facilitate accurate assessments and elicit adequate beliefs that foster well-adjusted behavior in the future.

According to the Rubicon model, the successful execution of the evaluation phase requires an accurate and impartial assessment of the current situation (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008) to facilitate appropriate behavior. Stiensmeier-Pelster and Heckhausen (2008) have demonstrated that evaluations of past actions affect future action, including its intensity, speed of execution and persistence. This impact is mediated by causal attributions (Weiner, 1985) and the resulting beliefs concerning success-relevant factors (Ajzen, 1991). According to the attributional theory of motivation and emotion (Weiner, 1985), individuals assess the causes of all important, unexpected or negative events with respect to five properties: locus (who/what caused it), stability over time, globality over different situations, controllability, and intentionality. According to the theory of planned behavior, the resulting beliefs that attribute the event to a cause influence subsequent behavior: "It is these salient beliefs that are considered to be the prevailing determinants of a person's intentions and actions." (Ajzen, 1991, p. 189). The relevant beliefs assert contingencies among important factors, one's own behaviors, and other relevant actors in the situation at hand. According to the theory of

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[8] In practice, the four phases are iterative: The action phase is followed by a renewed postactional evaluation phase and so forth. However, any theoretical model must establish a starting point in the iterative process. The original Rubicon model begins with the deliberation phase and ends with the postactional evaluation phase. The starting point proposed here better conforms to the domain of leadership, as the four phases lead to goal accomplishment.

planned behavior, these beliefs originate from direct observation, inferences based on experience or logic, and information from others (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

According to these well-established motivation and action theories, the leadership behavior category 'enhancing understanding' consists of the following behaviors: (1) evaluating prior actions and their results, (2) attributing the results to causes, (3) providing information and (4) inferring beliefs regarding the situation at hand, the situation's supporting and hindering factors and actors, and their contingencies.

2) Strengthening motivation

The second task-oriented leadership behavior category 'strengthening motivation' supports the deliberation phase. This phase involves deliberating objectives and deciding which objective(s) to pursue (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). The functions of leadership behaviors are to deliberate the consequences of possible objectives, weigh the desirability of the consequences, and strengthen the objectives that are in the shared interest to foster appropriate decisions.

According to the Rubicon model, the primary task in the deliberation phase is to transform desirabilities into objectives "with a firm sense of commitment to [the objectives'] enactment" (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008, p. 274). Such affirmed objectives are called intentions. With respect to leadership, it is crucial that the intentions support the shared goals that are to be accomplished. Therefore, the leader should strengthen the motivation to pursue shared goals and individual goals that support the shared goals (see also Karau & Williams, 1993).

Based on the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), researchers have demonstrated that the following multiplicative factors predict motivation: (1) the probability that a behavior creates a consequence, (2) the value of that consequence, (3) the likelihood that relevant others approve or disapprove of the behavior, and (4) the motivation to comply with those relevant others. An empirical analysis of the factors established a prediction of R > .79 for three different behaviors (Ajzen, 1991)[9]. Furthermore, researchers have demonstrated that the resulting motivation significantly predicts the choices of alternative behaviors, the probability of executing a behavior, the effort devoted to the behavior and the resulting behavioral performance (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

In summary, the leadership behavior category 'strengthening motivation' consists of the following behaviors: (1) deliberating possible objectives and their consequences, (2) weighing the

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[9] The theory of planned behavior includes the four above-cited factors and two additional factors: (5) the likelihood of controlling helpful resources and of hindering obstacles, and (6) the influence of these resources or obstacles. These two additional factors are sub-factors of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). As self-efficacy is a powerful predictor not only of motivation but also of successful action and healthy evaluations, self-efficacy-related behaviors are included in a more general leadership behavior category not specific to any one phase (see paragraph 'activating resources').

desirability of the alternative objectives, (3) deriving concrete intentions and (4) strengthening the motivation to pursue shared goals and individual goals that support the shared goals by focusing on the value of positive consequences, approval by relevant others and the motivation to comply with these relevant others.

3) Facilitating implementation

The third task-oriented leadership behavior category 'facilitating implementation' supplements the planning and action phase. The planning phase is concerned with determining "how to best go about attaining the chosen goal" (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008, p. 275). The ensuing action phase focuses on the execution. The functions of the leadership behaviors are to form appropriate plans for implementation, identify the best opportunities for execution and facilitate successful behavioral execution to promote intention realization.

According to the Rubicon model, leaders should support their followers in the planning phase to transform objectives into concrete implementation plans that specify the what, where, when, and how (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008; Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2015; Santos, Caetano, & Tavares, 2015). These implementation plans have been demonstrated to facilitate behavioral execution and the accomplishment of objectives (e.g. Milne et al., 2002; Sheeran & Orbell, 1999) because they help overcome anticipated obstacles. Implementation plans specify the appropriate routine behaviors, necessary deliberate behaviors or behaviors that need to be newly acquired. Furthermore, the implementation plans clarify how to access the resources and gain the support from others necessary for successful implementation.

According to Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2008), procrastination and overlooking viable opportunities constitute frequent pitfalls in the planning phase. To avoid those pitfalls, leaders should support their followers in seeking the appropriate opportunity to execute their plans. The required implemental mindset is characterized by intense and focused information seeking to ensure that the sought opportunity is identified and distractions are avoided. Research has demonstrated that an implemental mindset increases the ability to adapt to changing conditions (Pösl, 1994), behavioral persistence (Brandstaetter & Frank, 2002), and task performance (Armor & Taylor, 2003). In the action phase, leaders should support their followers in steadfastly executing their plans despite potential obstacles and in increasing efforts in the face of difficulties (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008). The recommended actional mindset is characterized by focused absorption (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) to ensure focus on cues that guide the intended action and to avoid distraction.

Summarizing these action theories and research results, the leadership behavior category 'facilitating action' consists of the following behaviors: (1) forming implementation plans and plans for overcoming obstacles, (2) acquiring resources and gaining support, (3) developing skills, (4)

identifying opportunities for implementation and (5) activating, focusing and guiding implementation.

The process of task-oriented leadership behavior

To sum up, task-oriented leadership behavior supports the process of accomplishing objectives by enhancing understanding in the evaluation phase, strengthening motivation in the deliberation phase and facilitating implementation in the planning and action phase. The individual leadership behaviors should be beneficial if applied in the correct phase but could be counterproductive if applied in the incorrect phase. For example, leaders who provide new information on alternative objectives in the action phase risk distracting their followers from focused implementation, while the same behavior might accelerate intention formation if executed in the deliberation phase. Furthermore, even the best implementation plan might fail to have the intended effect if the followers have yet to develop an intention to support the objective. Therefore, successful leaders need to time their behavior according to the phases of the course of action. As a consequence, leaders should ensure that the defined end state of a given phase has been reached before adjusting their behavior to the next phase.

Relations-oriented leadership behavior - substantiated by group and engagement research

Relations-oriented leadership behavior influences other individuals such that they invest their efforts in the process of accomplishing objectives. Group and engagement research has investigated the conditions under which individuals are most likely to invest their efforts. One of the most puzzling findings in group research is the Ringelmann effect, which was first identified in Ringelmann's rope-pull experiment: Groups do not exploit the full potential of their combined effort, which in this case corresponds to the sum of each individual's performance (Ingham et al., 1974). Groups have a weaker pull, generate fewer ideas, or identify fewer targets than the sum of their members' individual outputs (Karau & Williams, 1993). This loss has been attributed to two causes: insufficient coordination and suboptimal engagement (Ingham et al., 1974; Karau & Williams, 1993). Thus, leader behavior should increase (1) collective coordination and (2) individual engagement.

Based on group and engagement research, relations-oriented leadership behavior consists of three behavior categories that lead to effective follower engagement in the process of accomplishing objectives: (1) fostering coordination to synchronize efforts, (2) promoting cooperation to encourage greater individual contribution, and (3) activating resources to expand valuable contributions.

1) Fostering coordination

The relations-oriented leadership behavior category 'fostering coordination' addresses the loss of coordination in groups. Using the analogy of the rope-pull paradigm, coordination prevents group members from pulling in different directions or at different times (Ingham et al., 1974). In the context of a team meeting, for example, leaders need to prevent group members from simultaneously speaking about different topics. The function of leadership behavior is to coordinate collective efforts to create the basis for well-adjusted individual contributions.

While coordination has received less research attention than engagement, the literature nevertheless offers insights into the conditions for effective coordination in groups across three levels of time. First, leaders need to coordinate the ad-hoc behavior of their followers. For example, Kauffeld and Lehmann-Willenbrock (2012) identified coordinating statements in team discussions as behavior that is crucial for a discussion's success: the so-called procedural statements clarified the timing (the when), the procedure itself (the what) and the shared direction within the discussion. The quantity of these coordinating statements predicted organizational success at r = .51. In a similar vein, the meta-analysis of Mesmer-Magnus and DeChurch (2009) identified 'structured discussion' as a predictor of enhanced information sharing and as a mediator of group performance. Taken together, procedural statements and a clear structure of the discussion align the ad-hoc behavior of followers to the situation at hand.

Second, leaders need to ensure coordination among their followers that continues once the leaders are no longer present. Wilson and Rhodes (1997) identified the leaders' declaration of the group's intended decision as a predictor of group coordination in decision-making. The announcement of decisions by the leader coordinated follower behavior, despite the follower behavior being no longer visible to the leaders. Similarly, contemporary organizations widely employ the communication of decisions to sustain behavioral coordination without permanent supervision. Because in real situations decisions are not a given, they have to be made before being communicated. This explains the designation of decision-making by Levine and Moreland as "one of the most important activities that groups perform" (2006, p. 189).

Third, organizations harness standardized processes that prescribe who does what, when and how to establish persistent coordinated behavior. Standardized processes are decisions that have been transformed into written, widely communicated and established prescriptions. As such, they are more durable but less flexible than ad-hoc decisions, which can be adapted to the situation at hand. Walter and Bruch (2010) identified the standardization of processes as a predictor of a productive organizational climate. Consequently, leaders can employ standardized processes to

durably coordinate their followers' behavior and increase group performance (Muenstermann et al., 2010).

Beyond these three levels of time with respect to coordination, it is important to note that the effectiveness of coordination depends on the leader's credibility (Wilson & Rhodes, 1997), here operationalized as a high degree of certainty that the leader's decision is the best decision to follow. Moreover, according to the halo effect (Thorndike, 1920), human judgments are not fully analytical and rational; rather, they are biased towards the general impression of the person and topic at hand. Frequently, the first impression induces a general tendency to think positively or negatively, which prevails in all related judgments. Therefore, leaders are well advised to convey personal certainty and competence when they announce a decision or foster coordination in another way.

Summarizing these group research results, the relations-oriented behavior category 'fostering coordination' consists of the following behaviors: (1) communicating the procedure explicitly and maintaining the structure of communication, (2) ensuring and communicating decisions, (3) employing standardized processes and (4) conveying personal competence and certainty while doing the above.

2) Promoting cooperation

The relations-oriented leadership behavior category 'promoting cooperation' addresses the collective loss of effort by promoting engagement in groups. In terms of the rope-pull paradigm, promoting cooperation establishes the experience that every group member's unique contribution is indispensable, and hence everyone needs to pull the rope with maximum strength (Ingham et al., 1974). The functions of leadership behaviors are to allow every group member to contribute his or her unique competence and to convince the group members that their maximum effort is necessary to accomplish the shared objectives.

Social loafing refers to the phenomenon whereby individuals reduce their efforts when working in a group. A meta-analysis by Karau and Williams (1993) identified several factors that reduce and even eliminate social loafing: individuals perceiving their individual contributions to the group to be known, visible, unique, indispensable, or intrinsically interesting. Thus, leaders should emphasize (1) the necessary individual contributions, (2) the uniqueness of these contributions and (3) the indispensability of these contributions for group progress. Furthermore, leaders should (4) ensure that tasks are assigned based on personal interest. The first three aspects are in line with meta-analytic results regarding information sharing (Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009) that established the uniqueness of individual contributions and openness in sharing information as predictors of group performance.

The importance of the fourth aspect - personal interest - is also supported by meta-analytical evidence (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). Work-role-fit has been established as the most important predictor of engagement, emphasizing the importance of assigning tasks not only according to personal interest but also according to personal competence. This concept is extended by empowerment theory (Spreitzer, 1995): One of the defining components of empowerment is meaning, that is, the individual's evaluation of work tasks as meaningful according to his or her values. Therefore, when assigning tasks, leaders should consider work-role-fit according to followers' personal interest, competences, and values.

Regarding individual tasks, empowerment has been established as one of the most powerful predictors of individual and organizational performance (Burke et al., 2006; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007). According to empowerment theory (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Spreitzer, 1995), leaders should strengthen the personal experience of self-determination and allow subordinates to affect collective outcomes. In a similar vein, in their Job Demands-Resources-Model (JD-M) Bakker and Demerouti (2007), established that personal autonomy increases engagement on the job. Consequently, leaders should permit autonomy in individual tasks, permit influence in collective decisions and emphasize autonomy in the group.

Social support completes the leadership-behavior category 'promoting cooperation'. Social support is the second factor of the JD-M that increases engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Christian & Slaughter, 2007; Crawford et al., 2010). Thus, leaders should not only encourage individuals to contribute to the group's overall progress but also foster mutual support among group members.

According to these group and engagement theories and research results, the relations-oriented behavior category 'promoting cooperation' consists of the following behaviors: (1) encouraging individual contributions to the group's progress, (2) underlining these individual contributions and their uniqueness and indispensability to and effect on collective progress, (3) encouraging and offering social support, (4) delegating individual tasks based on comprehensive work-role-fit regarding interests, competence, and values and (5) permitting autonomy in tasks to allow for self-determination.

3) Activating resources

The third relations-oriented leadership behavior category 'activating resources' also addresses the promotion of engagement in groups but by creating positivity regarding intended behaviors and outcomes. To employ the analogy of the rope-pull paradigm, activating resources fosters stronger pulling at the right moment and in the right direction by creating a "Yes, we can"-atmosphere, by rewarding and shaping intended contributions. In general, leaders should foster

valuable contributions by enhancing personal self-efficacy, strengthening a positive group identity and rewarding valuable contributions.

Self-efficacy is defined as the expectation "that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Self-efficacy is crucial in all task-oriented phases of the accomplishment of objectives: leaders who enhance the self-efficacy of their followers will foster evaluations that promote engagement (Stiensmeier-Pelster & Heckhausen, 2008; Weiner, 1985), strengthen follower motivation (Ajzen, 1991), and facilitate successful action[10] (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Schunk, 1982; Taylor & Brown, 1994). In empowerment research, self-efficacy has been established as a predictor of group effectiveness (Spreitzer, 1995). As self-efficacy is most powerful if it is behavior-specific (Pajares, 1996), leaders should particularly increase self-efficacy in specific intended behaviors. Note that increasing self-efficacy does not create new behavioral competences per se. However, self-efficacy increases confidence, and thus valued objectives are pursued by executing available behaviors that are suitable. In this sense, increasing self-efficacy activates pre-existing resources by creating positivity regarding the intended behaviors.

Bandura (1977) identifies four self-efficacy enhancers: verbal persuasion, emotional arousal, personal accomplishments, and vicarious success. Accordingly, leaders should first verbally persuade their followers to believe in their success by suggestion, exhortation or instruction. Second, leaders should induce positive emotions via positive attributions or imagining positive experiences. Third, leaders should highlight followers' accomplishments. Fourth, leaders should praise the accomplishments of relevant others in a vicarious manner. The positive feedback provided by highlighting and praising accomplishments not only constitutes Bandura's factors three and four, but feedback also constitutes the third major factor in the JD-M (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Accordingly, current meta-analyses have established feedback as a driver of engagement (Christian & Slaughter, 2007; Crawford et al., 2010)[11]. Therefore, leaders enhance self-efficacy and engagement if they highlight the positive in the group: providing feedback on its past accomplishments and its current strengths as well as anticipating its future successes.

According to Ellemers et al. (2004), highlighting shared positive characteristics of the group fosters group identity and thereby engagement with the group's objectives. Karau and Williams' meta-analysis (1993) demonstrates that a strong group identity eliminates social loafing. In the event of success, the positive evaluation of the group enhances the self-evaluations of individual members. The social identity perspective (Ellemers et al., 2004) describes conditions that increase individuals'

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[10] Self-efficacy is a determinant of "whether coping behavior will be initiated, how much effort will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" Bandura (1977, p. 191).

[11] Feedback in the JD-M addresses the individual need for competence (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

identification with a group. This involves a positive distinction of the group from other collectives, the focus on shared attributes of its members, and to create concern and a positive outlook regarding collective power losses or gains.

Creating positivity regarding existing resources has another advantage: While destabilizing dysfunctional behavior is complex, strenuous and often unsuccessful (Caspar, Rothenfluh, & Segal, 1992), strengthening functional behavior, broadening its use and increasing the probability of its execution can lead to immediate success. This process is called resource activation (Grawe, 1998). Resource activation has been demonstrated to work more quickly and successfully than any other behavior in the personal development of patients (Flückiger, Frischknecht, Wüsten, & Lutz, 2008; Grawe, 1998) and coachees (Behrendt, 2006). These results are supported by the finding that positive reinforcement builds, promotes and shapes behavior more sustainably than punishment (Estes, 1944; Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006) while triggering considerably fewer adverse effects (Azrin & Holz, 1966)[12].

According to these theories and research findings, the relations-oriented behavior category 'activating resources' consists of the following behaviors: (1) suggesting or instructing self-efficacy, (2) highlighting positive experiences, past successes, and feasible future accomplishments, (3) focusing positive attributes of individuals and the group as a whole, (4) fostering the expectation to collectively divert impending power losses or to achieve power gains and (5) rewarding and recognizing to call forth and shape future valuable contributions.

The process of relations-oriented leadership behavior

In summary, relations-oriented leadership behavior increases engagement in groups by synchronizing collective efforts and increasing the likelihood of appropriate contributions (fostering coordination), by encouraging more individual contributions (promoting cooperation) and by activating resources to expand valuable contributions. These leadership behaviors should be especially potent if applied in the suggested order. For example, leaders who encourage numerous contributions without an established coordinating structure risk chaos (missing prior coordination). In a similar manner, leaders risk losing credibility if they recognize the contributions of individuals who were previously discouraged from contributing (missing prior cooperation). Therefore, just as meetings should begin with an agenda that guides the process of discussion, leadership should begin

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[12] Punishment in human practice has been criticized for triggering the following adverse effects: negative emotional reactions, decreased concentration, decreased performance, impaired personal relationships, increases in the punished behavior when the punisher is not present, and observational learning that increases the aggressive behavior of the punished individual. Note that leaders can enforce valuable behaviors through positive or negative reinforcement. In the latter case, leaders would relieve an adverse stimulus (e.g., a stressful task).

with fostering a coordinating structure that allows for individual contributions that in turn form the basis for recognizing the most valuable contributions. Nevertheless, this inherent order should not be misunderstood as confined phases or be imposed rigidly.

Integrative Model of Leadership Behavior - IMoLB

Figure 1 illustrates the integrative model of leadership behavior that is based on psychological theory and includes six distinct categories of leadership behaviors. Leadership behavior ought to be (1) task-oriented to support the accomplishment of objectives and (2) relations-oriented to influence the followers such that they invest their efforts into the task-oriented process. Accordingly, the task-oriented behaviors directly contribute to the accomplishment of objectives, while the relations-oriented behaviors indirectly support this process by providing followers' resources.

As mentioned earlier, task-oriented behavior is only relevant in its specific phase of the course of action: 'enhancing understanding' in the evaluation phase, 'strengthening motivation' in the deliberation phase and 'facilitating implementation' in the planning and action phase. By contrast, the relations-oriented leadership behaviors are not phase-specific: for example, coordinating decisions, engaging contributions and demonstrations of self-efficacy are needed in the evaluation phase, the deliberation phase and the planning phase. Task-oriented and relation-oriented leadership behaviors further differ with regard to their target. While task-oriented leadership behaviors pertain to the content of communication, relations-oriented leadership behaviors pertain to the interaction style. For example, when discussing an implementation plan (content), the leader can lead the discussion in a well-coordinated manner, encouraging individual contributions, and in a confident and appreciative manner that highlights the positive (interaction style).
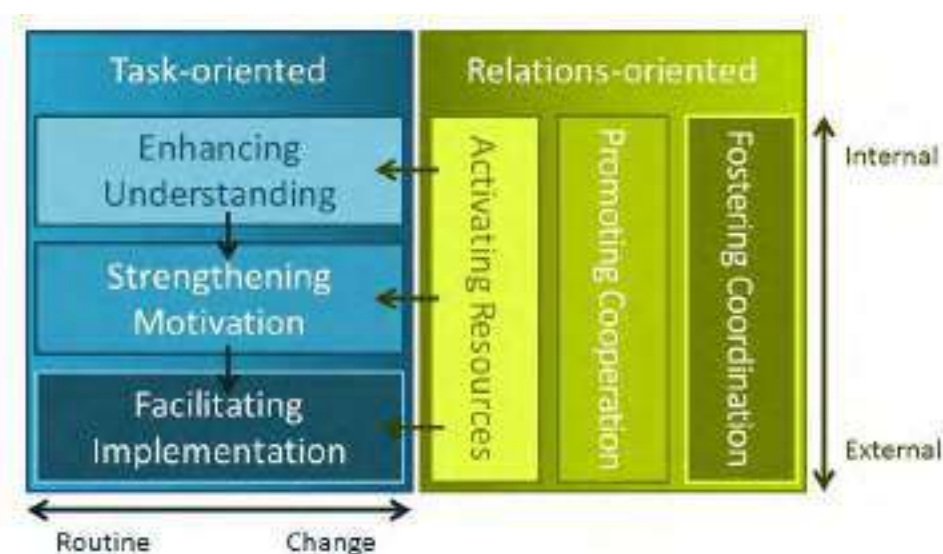

Figure 1: Integrative Model of Leadership Behavior (IMoLB)

Discussion of IMoLB's theoretical value

Each new theory needs to provide evidence of adding substantial value to the research area that it was made for. Following the criteria of a good theory suggested by Filley et al. (1976) this section will discuss and critically evaluate the integrative model of leadership behavior with regard to the following desirable qualities: (1) generality, (2) external consistency and parsimony, (3) internal consistency and (4) testability.

1) Generality

The criterion of generality refers to a theory's "wide range of application" and its "extension of the field of knowledge" (Filley et al., 1976, p. 22). IMoLB spans a broad range of existing theories (see Table 2 for an overview). Given that the validity of those theories has been established in various contexts outside the core leadership literature, IMoLB is a theory of broad generality by origin. In contrast to other current leadership theories, the validity of the integrative model should therefore not be bound to specific contexts (such as hierarchical vs. shared leadership), to specific leader personalities (charismatic vs. non-charismatic), to specific (transformational) challenges, nor to specific (ethical) expectations of the followers.

2) External consistency and parsimony

The criterion of external consistency refers to a theory's consistency "with observations and measures of real life". The criterion of parsimony refers to a theory's minimal complexity to accurately account for real life phenomena (Filley et al., 1976, p. 22). When integrating existing models into a new framework, the challenge is to stay consistent, while at the same time creating a higher level of parsimony. As the criteria of external consistency and parsimony go hand in hand we discuss them jointly in this section. Being based on established psychological theories, IMoLB is consistent with a large body of research outside the core leadership community. In addition, the model integrates existing models and meta-analytical findings on leadership behavior (see sections above; Avolio et al. (1999); Burke et al. (2006); DeRue et al. (2011); Judge et al. (2004); Marrone (2010); Spreitzer (1995); Yukl (2012)). Given that Yukl's taxonomy provides the most comprehensive and integrative overview of current leadership behavior research, it will serve as the gold standard to which IMoLB is compared.

IMoLB has reduced the number of meta-categories suggested by Yukl (2012) from four to two. Yukl's meta-categories of change-oriented and external leadership behaviors are integrated by introducing two continuums: (1) Task-oriented behaviors can be oriented towards tasks that are change- vs. routine-related, depending on the type of objective that is to be accomplished. We argue

that IMoLB's three task-oriented leadership behavior categories cover Yukl's change-oriented leadership behaviors. 'Advocating change' enhances the understanding of the current situation and of prevailing risks and further strengthens the motivation for change. 'Envisioning change' directly strengthens the motivation for new behaviors in a change-situation and can thus be classified as 'strengthening motivation'. Finally, 'encouraging innovation' and 'encouraging collective learning' describe behaviors that enhance a new understanding or facilitate new implementation plans. (2) Relations-oriented behavior can be directed towards individuals who are internal vs. external to the team. Indeed, many leadership endeavors include a core team of individuals, more distant in-house team members who are engaged in the endeavor to varying degrees as well as external individuals such as core customers. Thus, Yukl's external behaviors are accommodated in IMoLB: 'Networking' and 'representing', for example, promote cooperation and coordination with more external individuals to synchronize their actions with internal needs. Finally, 'external monitoring' is essentially task-oriented and enhances the understanding of the situation.

Taken together, IMoLB possesses high integrative power and meets the criteria of external consistency and parsimony. IMoLB integrates a broad set of fundamental theory and research within as well as outside of the leadership behavior literature while at the same time reducing the number of meta-categories from four to two and the number of behavioral categories from 15 to six.

3) Internal consistency

The criterion of internal consistency requires theories and the propositions they make to be "free of contradiction" (Filley et al., 1976, p. 22). For a model of leadership behavior, the main risks to internal consistency are rooted in overlapping or contradicting behavioral categories. IMoLB separates task-oriented from relations-oriented leadership behavior based on their different functions, namely accomplishing objectives vs. creating coordinated engagement. Furthermore, the three task-oriented behavior categories are separated by their phase-specificity, marked by phase-specific end-states. The three relations-oriented behavior categories are separated by their target (coordination vs. engagement) and their operating mode (promoting cooperation vs. creating positivity). As a consequence, one of the core elements of IMoLB is the theory-based distinction of categories.

Taking Yukl's taxonomy as the gold standard, the following sections illustrate two examples of how IMoLB resolves overlaps in behavioral categories: (1) Yukl's taxonomy includes the five negative behaviors 'micromanaging', 'excessive monitoring', 'discouraging useful input', 'allowing no real influence' and 'not involving followers' (Yukl, pp. 70-72). Although these behaviors notably share a common interaction style, they are spread across four component behaviors and two meta-categories. IMoLB, by contrast, consistently categorizes these negative behaviors as negative

empowering behavior in the category 'promoting cooperation', corresponding to a failure to increase followers' autonomy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Spreitzer, 1995) or a failure to increase impact on collective outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995). Instead of conceptualizing each of the behaviors separately according to their specific content, IMoLB highlights their common nature. IMoLB generally states the overarching importance of relations-oriented behaviors for all three action phases rather than duplicating similar relation-oriented behaviors in different categories. (2) Yukl's taxonomy (2012) assigns the same behavior of 'increasing confidence' to three different component behaviors: 'supporting', 'developing' and 'envisioning change'. This conceptualization does not only violate the criteria of parsimony and internal consistency, but it also neglects the fact that the behavior of 'increasing confidence' is directly affected by other component behaviors such as 'recognizing' (see section '3) Activating resources'). Recognition is a way of increasing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), which in turn directly elevates confidence. Based on this conceptual link, IMoLB classifies the behavior of 'increasing confidence' under the behavior category 'activating resources', thereby reducing the overlap between behavioral categories. The two examples demonstrate how IMoLB's theoretical foundation sharpens the distinction among categories. By reducing the overlap among distinct categories, IMoLB achieves higher internal consistency than previous models.

4) Testability

The criterion of testability requires the propositions and predictions of theories to be testable and thus falsifiable (Filley et al., 1976, p. 22). Good theories should therefore (1) provide detailed descriptions of concrete behaviors that can be tested with regard to their effect on desired leadership outcomes and (2) allow for the deduction of new hypotheses.

One of the main criticisms of earlier models of leadership behavior is that they do not distinguish leadership effects from their behavioral causes. For example, Yukl's taxonomy includes alleged behaviors such as 'negotiating agreements', 'influence to obtain resources' or 'building and maintaining favorable relationships' that focus on desired outcomes rather than describing the concrete leadership behaviors required to achieve them. It remains unclear how leaders can successfully negotiate an agreement, influence external stakeholders or build favorable relationships. Without a distinction between actual leadership behavior and its effects, the validity of models cannot be tested. While one might indeed find significant relationships between the proposed 'behaviors' and leadership success, such relationships are misleading as they describe the effect of leadership outcomes rather than actual behavior. In contrast, IMoLB provides a full range of concrete relations-oriented behaviors that can be used to successfully negotiate agreements, influence other people and build favorable relationships with external stakeholders.

In addition to distinguishing concrete leadership behaviors from leadership outcomes, IMoLB spurs new hypotheses that can be derived from established psychological theories. The Rubicon model (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008), for example, suggests the following two hypotheses: (1) The phases of the course of action moderate the effectiveness of the three task-oriented leadership behavior categories, such that 'enhancing understanding' is most effective in the evaluation phase, 'strengthening motivation' in the deliberation phase, and 'facilitating implementation' in the planning and action phase. (2) By contrast, the phases of the course of action do not moderate the effectiveness of the three relations-oriented leadership behavior categories, as each behavior is relevant in all phases.

In addition to the Rubicon model, each of the other theories central to IMoLB's development can be tapped to hypothesize moderators of effective leadership behavior. Theories on group-identity perspective (Ellemers et al., 2004) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), for example, provide hints for potential moderating factors of recognition. Indeed, many leaders fear that individual recognition fosters the engagement of the recognized individual but creates frustration among jealous group members and reduces their engagement. IMoLB suggests 'collectivization' as one moderator of the effectiveness of individual recognition: if the recognized characteristics are framed as typical of the collective, the recognizing behavior is hypothesized to foster the group's engagement. This is less true where the recognized characteristics are framed as differentiating among group members. This assumption is based on the group identity perspective (Ellemers et al., 2004), which posits that highlighting shared positive attributes fosters engagement by strengthening group identity. Additionally, the highlighted vicarious success (Bandura, 1977) is more likely to increase engagement where a greater number of group members consider themselves to be similar to the praised individual.

Taken together, IMoLB's testability is ensured through its concrete behavioral propositions. IMoLB's is scientifically fertile in that it spurs new hypotheses that can be derived from theories that went into IMoLB. The successful realization of these advantages, however, depends on the development of new methods and experimental designs in order to prevent the model test from perpetuating current methodological flaws.

Outlook and empirical validation

To foster scientific advancement and avoid methodological flaws, it is crucial to employ and establish measurements that distinguish behavior from behavior perception. Based on this central aim and scientific best practices, we suggest the following changes to current leadership research

methods[13]: (1) greater focus on experimental designs to separate correlational from causal effects, (2) development of more objective research methods such as video-analysis (van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004) or diary studies that measure behavior instead of subjective behavior perception via questionnaires (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), (3) implementation of longitudinal designs that separate short-term from sustainable effects, (4) analysis of various dependent variables that include objective data on leadership success in addition to subjective leadership behavior perception and leadership effectiveness ratings (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), and (5) implementation of both field and laboratory studies to ensure external and internal validity. Although the first two criteria are crucial for scientific validity, leadership behavior research that meets these two criteria is almost non-existent (Dinh et al., 2014). We invite the community to support the endeavor to move leadership behavior research beyond current standards, by outlining the most important next steps in the following sections.

A first phase of model tests should empirically validate IMoLB's foundation. First, these tests should establish the model's basic prediction that leaders are more effective if they perform behaviors from the six leadership behavior categories. Second, research needs to confirm the phase-specificity of task-oriented behavior and the phase-unspecificity of relations-oriented behavior. Third, the effectiveness of certain behaviors needs to be tested in routine- and change-oriented settings as well as in circumstances involving internal and external individuals.

A second phase of model tests should investigate the relationships among the leadership behaviors, the respective leadership behavior perceptions, other mediating processes and leadership outcomes. We argue that the behavior perceptions play an important role in mediating the effect of leadership behaviors on leadership success (Lee et al., 2015). The high predictive validity of behavior perceptions for a broad range of leadership outcomes substantiates that hypothesis (Burke et al., 2006; DeRue et al., 2011). However, a precise understanding of the causes of these well-established leadership perceptions would represent a cornerstone in the scientific advancement of leadership research. Furthermore, the theories incorporated in IMoLB could spur additional hypotheses concerning mediating processes, for example: (1) enhanced understanding, attributions and beliefs, (2) strong motivation and clear intentions, (3) concrete implementation plans, an implemental and actional mindset, (4) enacted coordination, clear decisions, established processes, and credibility, (5) cooperation, engagement, reduced social loafing, work-role-fit, realized empowerment, and social support, and (6) self-efficacy, group identity, and behavioral reinforcement.

A third phase of model tests should focus on testing moderating factors that explain situation-specific behavior effectiveness. For example, we have suggested that collectivization is

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[13] see Yukl (2012) for similar calls

likely to moderate the leadership effect of individual recognition on group performance. We are confident that the psychological theories on which IMoLB is based can spur fertile hypotheses regarding many other circumstances or practical leadership challenges.

As highlighted before, the success of all three phases depends on methods that clearly distinguish between different leadership behaviors and leadership outcomes. Indeed, using currently available questionnaire measures with substantial factor intercorrelations would obscure relationships and thus impede IMoLB's and other leadership behavior models' sound investigation. To overcome these challenges, the leadership research community should prioritize the development and thorough validation of new leadership behavior measurements, with the aim of better distinguishing leadership behavior from leadership perception. Such measurements need to be thoroughly scrutinized with respect to their objectivity and divergent validity. To free measurements from pervasive observer errors (e.g., the halo effect), it is necessary to go beyond convenient survey approaches and to take approaches that are more proximate to actual behavior, such as video-based behavior analysis.

Summary: Does IMoLB deliver on its promises?

IMoLB has been shown (1) to possess high generality (2), to consistently integrate important taxonomies and concepts of leadership behavior while being more parsimonious, (3) to have higher internal consistency by demarcating leadership behavior categories and by establishing clear relationships among these categories and (4) to provide a testable framework that exploits a wealth of fundamental research and spurs new hypotheses on effective leadership behaviors and their moderators and mediators. Taken together, IMoLB meets the criteria of a good theory and thus provides a valuable starting point for the development and empirical validation of new theories on leadership behavior.

Conclusion

Important flaws in leadership behavior research have long been neglected and critical voices remain a minority. Consequently, "we know much less about how leaders make organizations effective than how leaders are perceived" (Dinh et al., 2014, p. 37).

IMoLB is proposed as a first step in overcoming this predicament by providing a comprehensive framework that spans key aspects of leadership behavior. There have been critical voices, however, arguing that grand theories are too broad and shallow to add any real value to the discussion of leadership effectiveness. Indeed, many researchers agree that the current grand theories have not lived up to their expectations (Zitate: Dinh et al., 2014; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). However, abandoning grand theories altogether would also abandon one essence of scientific

advancement, namely the parsimonious accumulation and integration of evidence across different studies, methods and disciplines. Grand theories also have a heuristic value to stimulate new research and provide a common language for researchers in the field to discuss, compare and evaluate their findings. This does not only provide orientation and facilitate coordination and cooperation in an increasingly complex field, but also limits the risk of conceptual overlaps and 'reinventing the wheel' by producing an overabundance of co-existing theories. In our opinion, comprehensive theories such as IMoLB are an essential tool in advancing leadership behavior research to the next level, and we believe that improving on comprehensive theories is a promising joint endeavor.

We suggest that IMoLB has the advantage of being broad and comprehensive as well while rich in detail, thereby counteracting the criticism of grand theories as being too shallow to be empirically testable. IMoLB provides detail, specificity and concreteness at all sub-levels, because it is grounded in existing psychological theory and therefore taps a wealth of validated theories for leadership behavior research. While IMoLB integrates established leadership behavior perceptions, it is also a fine-grained theory that offers numerous 'sub-theories' on all levels of the grand theory. Rather than coming up with an ever increasing number of new theories and ad hoc hypotheses, IMoLB encourages a guided and joint advancement of leadership behavior that is driven by the entire community rather than separated research groups and disciplines.

Taken together, we hope that IMoLB will encourage other researchers to join in the effort of advancing leadership theories and methods beyond the status quo. Our hope is that IMoLB in conjunction with valid measurements will spawn renewed scientific fertility regarding the question of what actual leadership behaviors cause the well-established leadership behavior perceptions and relevant leadership outcomes.

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Chapter VI

General Discussion

Overview

Meta-analysts and leading scientists of coaching, career counseling and leadership behavior have criticized the lack of scientific understanding of the behaviors that lead to the effectiveness of coaches, career counselors, and leaders (coaching: Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016; Sonesh, Coultas, Lacerenza, et al., 2015; career counseling: Whiston, Rossier, & Barón, 2016; leadership: van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). These scientists have further criticized the gap in relevant sound theories and have called for (renewed) theory development. The aim of this thesis was to fill that gap and derive a model of successful behavior specified in each of the three contexts.

Existing research on career counseling of job seekers was the scarcest: whether counselor behavior influences career counseling effectiveness thus remained an open question. Therefore, the study of Paper 2 first investigated whether the counselor's supervisor evaluation of process quality of career counseling can predict career counseling success. This investigation was a prerequisite to ensure that a more comprehensive understanding of the underlying career counselor behaviors would pay off.

As the core of this thesis, Papers 1, 3, and 4 derived a theory-based integrative model of successful behavior, specified in each of the three contexts. Based on the definitory similarities of coaching, career counseling, and leadership, two foundational theories were identified: (1) motivation and action theories that inform the delineation of goal-oriented behaviors (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2008; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and (2) common factor theories that inform the delineation of relation-oriented behaviors in the supporting one-to-one relationships (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). Based on definitory differences, additional distinct theories were consulted in each of the contexts to ensure the context specificity of the models. Furthermore, each of the model specifications integrated existing behavioral research results in the field to ensure external consistency and the high integrative power of the models. Finally, to ensure testability, each of the specified models delineated a set of concrete measurable behaviors based on the consulted theories and existing findings.

Paper 3 further implemented these behaviors in an observation measure of successful behavior: the Freiburg Counselor Behavior Rating Manual. The measure was validated in the field study of Paper 3 to answer the call for more objective behavior measurements, assess the models' claim to testability, and validate the proposed set of behaviors.

Discussion of Results of Papers 1 to 4

Prestudy: Does the Process Quality of Career Counseling Predict the Reemployment Success?

The results of the field study in Paper 2 provide support for the hypothesis that the process quality of career counseling does predict reemployment success. This finding is consistent with the suggestions of prior research that career counseling intensity does not predict counseling success (Liu et al., 2014; Whiston, Sexton, & Lasoff, 1998)) but counseling that process quality might predict the success (Meyer, 1995). The 444 counseled Swiss job seekers found a job almost four weeks earlier and received 18.9 days less of unemployment benefits when the counselor supervisor evaluated the process quality of career counseling as being 1 point higher (judged on a four-point scale). This effect is economically significant: a similar improvement in the process quality of national career counseling sessions would amount to savings in unemployment benefits of 418.7 million CHF (422 million US $) per year. Accordingly, the conclusion of Paper 2 calls for an increased investment in career counseling process quality, an investigation of the underlying factors of process quality in general and the underlying career counselor behavior specifically.

Integrative Model of Successful Behavior (IMoSB)

Papers 1, 3, and 4 developed a model of successful behavior specified in the three contexts of coaching, career counseling, and leadership, and integrated the findings from relevant behavioral research and distinct theories that accounted for the context specificities. Based on the definitory similarities of coaching, career counseling, and leadership, the proposed foundational theories were consulted to derive goal-oriented and relation-oriented behaviors, and two additional theories were consulted to derive change-warranting behaviors in the coaching context. Table 1 visualizes the resulting delineated behavior categories in the three contexts, grouped into the three meta-categories: (1) goal-oriented behaviors, (2) relation-oriented behaviors, and (3) change-warranting behaviors. *Relation-oriented behaviors* were delineated in all three contexts. *Goal-oriented behaviors* were delineated in the context of coaching and leadership but not in career counseling. Only in career counseling is the overall goal of reemployment predefined. Nevertheless, job seekers need to specify the goal to be successful. To do so, job seekers need to deliberate on their strengths and relevant options, select a certain intended job profile, plan their applications, and persistently pursue these to achieve reemployment. However, the literature on successful behavior in career counseling of job seekers is very scarce, and the existing literature suggests that a one-to-one relationship is a success-critical component of career counseling (Hawthorn & Alloway, 2009; Sheehy, Kumrai, & Woodhead, 2011; Sonesh et al., 2015; Whiston et al., 2016). Therefore, Paper 3 focused only on

successful relation-oriented behaviors and did not consult any other theories as a first step in theory development.

The definition of coaching indicates that coaching aims at benefits in an organizational context in which the coach is not present (Sonesh et al., 2015). Therefore, the integrative model of coach behavior in Paper 1 additionally delineated a third meta-category of successful behavior: *change-warranting behaviors*. Even though the definition of leadership does not explicitly indicate the need for leadership effects to be sustained when the leaders are not present, the daily life of most leaders does: Leaders with more than one follower cannot be everywhere at the same time and therefore could be expected to be more effective if their leadership influence is sustained in their absence (Yukl, 2012). The career counseling paper did not focus on non-relation-oriented behaviors, but career counselors might similarly profit from change-warranting behaviors because their absence in the daily job search life of their job seekers is comparable to the coaches' absence in their coachees' organizational routines.

Consequently, the omitted meta-categories visualized in the overview of Table 1 (by an x) should not be interpreted as a final theory-based difference in successful behavior. In contrast, the omissions signal the first focus in theory development based on definitory emphases and the current state of behavior research in the specific context.

Table 1

Integrative Model of Successful Behavior (IMoSB): Overview of the Derived Categories of Successful Behavior in the three Contexts of Coaching (Paper 1), Career Counseling (Paper 3), and Leadership (Paper 4)

META-CATEGORIES OF SUCCESSFUL BEHAVIOR	CAREER COUNSELING	COACHING	LEADERSHIP
1) GOAL-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS	x	Enhancing Understanding	
	x	Strengthening Motivation	
	x	Facilitating Implementation	
2) RELATION-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS	Providing Structured Guidance		Fostering Coordination
	Providing Personalized Support		Promoting Cooperation
	Activating Resources		
3) CHANGE-WARRANTING BEHAVIORS	x	Creating Memorable Experiences	x

Note: x = Behavior was not part of the derived theory-based framework of successful behavior

Table 1 also represents the behavioral categories delineated in the three model specifications of successful behavior. Six of seven behavior categories were replicated in at least two different contexts: the three goal-oriented behavior categories of (1) enhancing understanding, (2) strengthening motivation, and (3) facilitating implementation, as well as the three relation-oriented behavior categories of (4) providing structured guidance, (5) providing personalized support, and (6) activating resources. Only two relation-oriented leadership behavior categories differ from complementary behavior categories in the other two contexts: the two relation-oriented behavior categories fostering coordination and promoting cooperation. The context specificity of leadership explains that difference: Leaders intend to influence not only within an individual but also within a collective relationship (Yukl, 2012). Therefore, the integrative model of leadership behavior additionally consulted group and engagement research that explains under what conditions individuals invest their efforts into a group's endeavor (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Ellemers, Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; Ingham, Levinger, Graves, & Peckham, 1974; Karau & Williams, 1993; Spreitzer, 1995). According to those theories, leaders need to foster coordination to synchronize collective efforts and foster cooperation to encourage greater individual contributions. From the point of view of group research, coaching and career counselor dyads are a special case of groups: groups of 2. Coaches and career counselors need to foster coordination only between themselves and their direct counterpart: their client. According to common factor theories, they foster coordination by providing structured guidance. Structured guidance enhances their clients' expectation that active participation in the process pays off and therefore increases appropriate, well-coordinated participation in the planned process (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). Similarly, coaches and career counselors need to foster cooperation only between themselves and their clients. According to common factor theories, they foster a cooperative working alliance by providing personalized support (Grawe, 2004; Wampold, 2015). In that sense, the two behavior categories 'providing structured guidance' and 'providing personalized support' are special cases of the two more general categories of 'fostering coordination' and 'promoting cooperation' in the dyads of coach-coachee and career counselor-job seeker.

Based on these reflections, Figure 1 illustrates the integrative model of successful behavior (IMoSB) in coaching, career counseling, and leadership that integrates all delineated behaviors of this thesis in the three contexts.

Figure 1

Integrative Model of Successful Behavior (IMoSB) in Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership
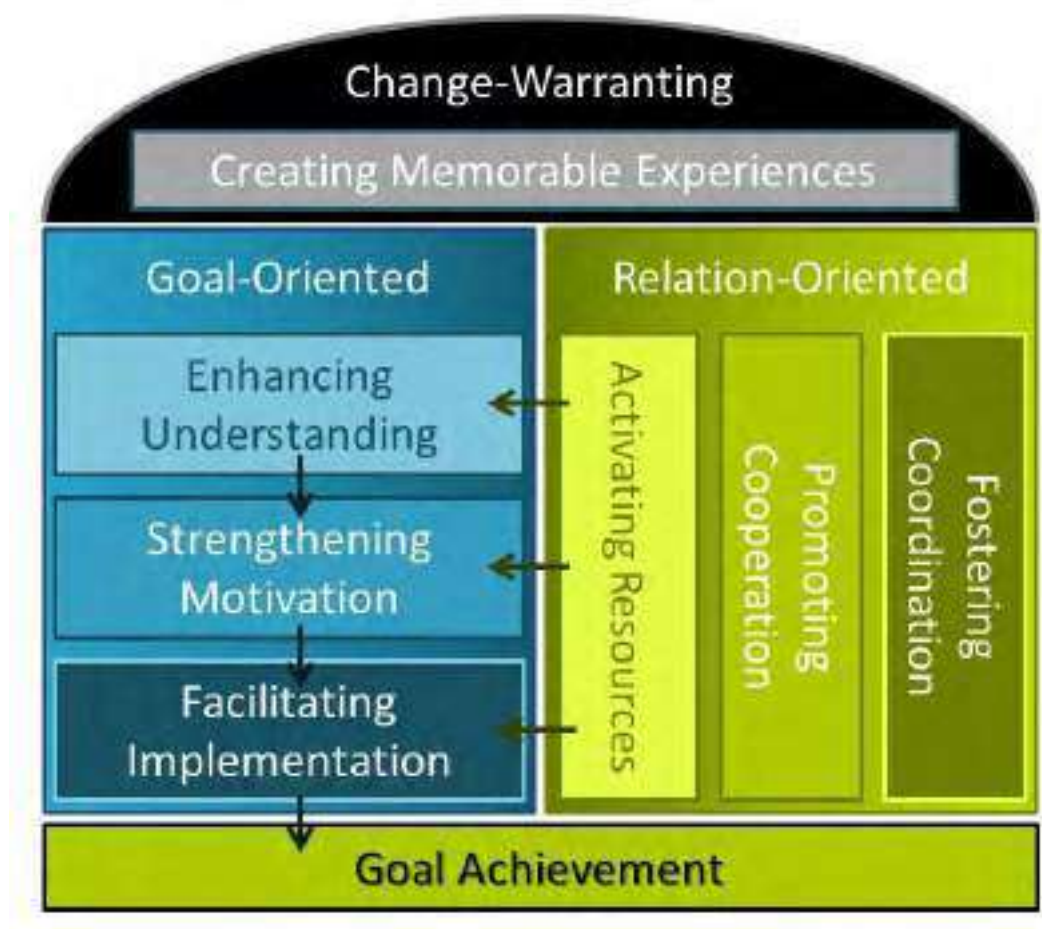

Table 2 specifies the 39 delineated behaviors in the seven categories of successful behavior. The four change-warranting behaviors were only delineated in the coaching context. The other 35 behaviors overlapped to a significant extent: seventeen behaviors were identical in all specified contexts and only five behaviors were completely specific to one context and did not have a behavioral complement in the other two contexts. The other 13 behaviors partly overlapped: being identical in two but not in the third context or being similar in two contexts but still different in detail by being further specified in at least one of the contexts. These significant overlaps signify, on the one hand, the potential transferability of the behavioral theory and research results from one context to another. On the other hand, the imperfect overlap also signifies the need to adjust the concretization of the theory and behavior to the specific context at hand. Beyond that, the similarities and differences in the specifications of IMoSB should not be overinterpreted. The proposed model and its three specifications do not imply an ultimate answer but are proposed as a first step in the development of a comprehensive theory of successful behavior. The model needs to be tested, selected, and further honed in the future by the scientific community. In that endeavor, the overarching IMoSB could spur learning transfers between the different contexts: new learnings in

one context could spur hypotheses in the others to thereby fertilize the research endeavors on all sides.

Table 2:

Integrative Model of Successful Behavior (IMoSB): Overview of the 39 Derived Concrete Behaviors within the Seven Categories of Successful Behavior in the Contexts of Coaching (Paper 1), Career Counseling (Paper 3), and Leadership (Paper 4)

(META-)CATEGORIES OF SUCCESSFUL BEHAVIOR	CAREER COUNSELING	COACHING	LEADERSHIP
1) GOAL-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS			
ENHANCING UNDERSTANDING	X	(1) stimulating feedback and information gathering	(3) providing information
		(2) stimulating evaluations of own actions	(1) evaluating prior actions and their results
		(3) stimulating evaluations of other actors and relationships	
		(4) stimulating accurate attributions of results to causes	(2) attributing the results to causes
		(5) inferring beliefs regarding the situation at hand, the relevant factors and actors, and their contingencies	(4) inferring beliefs regarding the situation at hand, the relevant factors and actors, and their contingencies.
STRENGTHENING MOTIVATION	X	(1) stimulating the deliberation of alternative goals and their consequences	(1) deliberating possible objectives and their consequences
		(2) stimulating the evaluation and prioritization of the goals' desirability	(2) weighing the desirability of the alternative objectives
		(3) promoting the decision regarding which goals to pursue, and	(3) deriving concrete intentions
		(4) strengthening the motivation to pursue these goals by focusing on the positive consequences	(4) strengthening the motivation to pursue shared goals and individual goals that support the shared goals by focusing on the value of positive consequences, approval by relevant others and the motivation to comply with these relevant others

(META-)CATEGORIES OF SUCCESSFUL BEHAVIOR	CAREER COUNSELING	COACHING	LEADERSHIP
FACILITATING IMPLEMENTATION	X	(1) stimulating the formation of implementation plans	(1) forming implementation plans and plans for overcoming obstacles
		(2) including plans to acquire needed resources and gain support	(2) acquiring resources and gaining support
		(3) stimulating behavioral development	(3) developing skills
		(4) identifying implementation opportunities	(4) identifying opportunities for implementation
		(5) (if the coach is present during the action phase) activating, focusing and guiding behavioral execution	(5) activating, focusing and guiding implementation.
2) RELATION-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS			
FOSTERING COORDINATION	(1) structuring the counseling process	(1) structuring the coaching process	(1) communicating the procedure explicitly and maintaining the structure of communication
	(2) explaining the process	(2) explaining the process and how it supports the coachee	
	(3) explaining how the process supports the job seeker	(2) explaining the process and how it supports the coachee	
	(4) showing professional competence as a person	(3) showing professional competence as a person	
	(5) providing competent guidance during the process	(4) providing competent guidance during the process	(2) ensuring and communicating decisions
	(6) conveying personal self-assurance	(5) conveying personal self-assurance	(4) conveying personal competence and certainty while doing the above
			(3) employing standardized processes
PROMOTING COOPERATION	(1) supporting the job seeker's core motives	(1) supporting the coachee's core motives	(4) delegating individual tasks based on comprehensive work-role-fit regarding interests, competence, and values
	(2) supporting his or her goals and needs	(2) supporting his or her goals and needs	(5) permitting autonomy in tasks to allow for self-determination
	(3) showing patience	(5) showing patience	

(META-)CATEGORIES OF SUCCESSFUL BEHAVIOR	CAREER COUNSELING	COACHING	LEADERSHIP
	(4) emphasizing the value of the job seeker's contributions to the counseling's success		(1) encouraging individual contributions to the group's progress (2) underlining these individual contributions and their uniqueness and indispensability to and effect on collective progress
		(3) offering practical support	(3) encouraging and offering social support
		(4) conveying nonverbal support	
		(6) showing empathy	
ACTIVATING RESOURCES	(1) promoting self-efficacy	(2) promoting self-efficacy	(1) suggesting or instructing self-efficacy
	(2) recognizing accomplishments	(1) recognizing the coachee and his or her accomplishments	(5) rewarding and recognizing to call forth and shape future valuable contributions (3) focusing on positive attributes of individuals and the group as a whole
	(3) stimulating the experience of personal strengths	(3) stimulating the experience of personal resources	(2) highlighting positive experiences, past successes, and feasible future accomplishments
	(4) showing empathy		
	(5) framing problems as activating challenges	(4) framing problems as activating challenges	(4) fostering the expectation to collectively divert impending power losses or to achieve power gains
3) CHANGE-WARRANTING BEHAVIORS			
CREATING MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES	x	(1) stimulating emotions	x
		(2) stimulating physiological experiences corresponding to the intended context	
		(3) stimulating pictures or pictorial imagination	
		(4) stimulating comprehensive cognitive experiences aligned to the intended context	

Discussion of IMoSB's Theoretical Value

Papers 1 and 4 discuss the theoretical value of the proposed integrative models according to the criteria of a good theory proposed by Filley et al. (1976): generality, external and internal consistency, parsimony, and testability. Both papers conclude that the model specifications provide high generality and external consistency based upon well-established psychological foundational theories that have been validated in various contexts and research designs. Regarding internal consistency, the foundational theories in both papers provide clear delineations of the proposed categories. Paper 4 provides several examples of internal consistency issues in the pre-existing models that were developed based upon leadership behavior perception research (Yukl, 2012). These internal consistency issues were all solved in the integrative model of leadership behavior by the clarified category delineations suggested by its foundational theories. Furthermore, both papers conclude that the proposed models provide good testability due to the provision of specific observable behaviors in each category. Finally, parsimony was judged to be good: The models span a broad range of different behaviors as well as all essential definitory functions of coaching and leadership. At the same time, the models provide a clear and concise structure, proposing no more than three meta-categories and seven behavior categories. Yukl's well-established taxonomy of leadership behavior (perception) that was used as the gold standard in Paper 4 and that was fully integrated within the proposed model of successful behavior had proposed 4 meta-categories and 15 behavior categories (2012). These arguments were not discussed in Paper 3, but due to their generality are transferable to the model of counselor behavior as well.

Furthermore, the overarching structure of the integrative mode of successful behavior in coaching, career counseling, and leadership (Graphic 1) provides additional theoretical value as it provides the same concise parsimony but covers three adjacent but distinct contexts within one theory-based integrative model—three contexts that were not related before and that are now bridged by a model that allows for the transfer of scientific hypotheses and practical insights.

Outlook and Empirical Validation

Papers 1 and 4 propose a strategy for the empirical validation of the proposed models. First, based upon the differentiation of behavior and behavior perception, the papers call for the development of objective behavior measures that allow us to discern this differentiation (van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Based upon these new measures, the paper calls for a validation strategy in three steps: (1) validation of the models' foundation—the proposed successful behaviors, (2) validation of the potential mediators of the behaviors' effectiveness that are suggested by the foundational theories (e.g., a motivational increase in

'strengthening motivation' behavior or a higher self-efficacy in 'activating resources' behavior), and (3) the development and validation of hypotheses on potential moderators that are spurred by the foundational theories (the papers provide specific examples in their contexts).

The First Objective Measure of the Model of Successful Counselor Behavior

To test the claim of testability and answer the call for more objective behavior measurements (van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), Paper 3 developed and validated an observation measure for the derived successful career counselor behaviors. Based on video-taped counseling sessions, trained and certified scientific observers rated the counselor behavior. The Freiburg Counselor Behavior Rating Manual defines a comprehensive rating procedure as well as observable indicators and anchor examples for each of the fifteen defined relation-oriented counselor behaviors to ensure reliability and objectivity. The study results yielded excellent intra-rater reliabilities and almost exclusively good to mostly excellent inter-rater reliabilities for the observed behaviors (Cicchetti, 1994; Wirtz & Caspar, 2002). These results validate that (1) trained scientific observers can objectively and reliably observe well-defined relation-oriented behaviors (Wirtz & Caspar, 2002) and that (2) the proposed framework of successful counselor behavior is specific enough to be measured and tested objectively.

The First Validation Test of the Model of Successful Counselor Behavior

As a first step in the validation strategy of the proposed model, the study in Paper 3 further tested the derived model of successful counselor behavior in a field setting of three Swiss job centers: the behavior of 32 counselors in 32 career counseling sessions was rated and correlated with the counselors' reemployment success. The results of an explorative factor analysis (PCA) of the behavior ratings matched the theory-based behavioral categories and thereby provided support for the behavior model (O'connor, 2000). Regarding criterion validity, the field study provided mixed results. The test power was low due to the small sample size. Nevertheless, the counselor behavior category 'providing structured guidance' significantly correlated with the counselor's reemployment success at r = - .58. This effect on faster reemployment is economically significant: a behavioral improvement of one quartile in national career counseling sessions would amount to savings in unemployment benefits of 831 million CHF (839 million US $) per year. The ratings of the other two relation-oriented behavior categories did not correlate significantly with reemployment success and thereby did not provide support for the criterion validity of these behaviors. The different validities could be connected to the context specificity of career counseling: As job seekers have less freedom of choice and a career counselor can even prescribe concrete behaviors (see the context definitions

above in Chapter I), the provision of clear and convincing guidance might be sufficient and the provision of personalized support and activation of resources might be less important than in other contexts. On the other hand, the theory has provided many arguments and findings that suggest that personalized support and activated resources are also important in the context of career counseling to promote reemployment (Bandura, 1977; Grawe, 2004; Kanfer, Wanberg, & Kantrowitz, 2001; Wampold, 2015; Whiston et al., 2016). In that sense, the speed of reemployment is only one potential criterion for goal achievement. Reemployment satisfaction and reemployment sustainability would be two important additional indicators of successful goal achievement. The model's foundational theories suggest that providing personalized support might be more important for job seekers in finding a job that fits their personal interests and that activating resources is more important for job seekers in finding a job that fits their strengths. Both aspects might predict reemployment satisfaction and sustainability more than they might predict reemployment speed. Furthermore, due to the small study sample and the low testing power, the confidence intervals of the three behavior correlations overlapped and included r = -.3, a correlation of medium effect size. Consequently, these results should be interpreted as a first indication of the behaviors' true validity and need replication in studies with enhanced samples in various settings and designs.

Strengths and Limitations of the First Validation Study

Paper 3 discusses the strengths and limitations of this first validation study of the model of successful career counselor behavior. First, the study provides a successful example of a behavior measure that objectively and reliably measures successful behaviors and indeed objectively predicts measured counseling success in a field setting. This contribution should not be undervalued in a scientific community that tends to forego the hurdle of objective behavior observation and adheres to easily assessible but flawed behavior perception measures. In the same time, the sample is small and restricted to one specific context, and the results are correlational.

Practical Implications

Without comprehensive empirical validation tests, the practical implications of the theoretical models remain tentative. If future empirical validation confirms IMoSB and the proposed success-relevant behavior, these behaviors should be promoted by individual coaches, career counselors and the leaders themselves, as well as their supervisors and organizations. In particular, for career counselors, the first study in Paper 3 suggests focusing on the quality of the provided structured guidance. Economically, the results suggest significant payback on relevant investments by individual counselors, their supervisors, and job centers. To develop success-relevant behavior, Paper 3 suggests adjusted quality manuals (that is, coaching and leadership guidelines), behavioral training, and personal feedback. Behavioral video feedback in group training and personal behavior

coaching has been established in a meta-analysis as being the most effective in changing concrete behavior and therefore seems the most promising (Fukkink, Trienekens, & Kramer, 2011). Furthermore, video feedback is the most effective if the feedback provides a clear standardized list of intended behaviors (Fukkink et al., 2011), if the feedback reinforces positive behavior instead of reducing negative behavior (Fukkink et al., 2011; Hosford & Johnson, 1983), if the feedback also evaluates behavior quality instead of purely focusing on behavior quantity (Fukkink et al., 2011), and if the feedback focuses on relevant aspects of specific video sequences by stopping the video instead of watching long videos without focus (Rezler & Anderson, 1971). As soon as IMoSB receives broader empirical validation, these suggestions could be transferred and expanded to the validated contexts and behaviors.

Perspectives on Future Research

Hence, the call for the above proposed empirical validation strategy remains valid for the specific models in coaching, career counseling, and leadership as well as for the overarching IMoSB (see section on 'Outlook and Empirical Validation' and Chapters II and V). In particular, the first practical investments and behavioral development programs should be accompanied by experimental studies that test for causality and ensure the effectiveness of the programs. In addition to the critical empirical validations, the IMoSB also suggests promising theoretical advancements.

First, the IMoSB calls for a further theoretical advancement in its context specifications regarding the meta-categories not yet investigated in the specific papers. Job seekers also need to achieve their goal of reemployment and might therefore also profit from specific goal-oriented behaviors of their counselors. These behaviors should be integrated within the model of successful counselor behavior based on theoretical deliberation and integration of existing counselor behavior research. Furthermore, career counselors and leaders are not always present when their clients and followers pursue their goals. Consequently, the counselors' and leaders' effectiveness might also increase when their influence is sustained and when they implement change-warranting behaviors. These behaviors should be integrated into the respective models as well.

Second, the generality of the models' foundational theories suggests that the IMoSB might possess a broader validity than that investigated in this thesis. The proposed relation-oriented behaviors might increase the efficiency of other supporting roles that create an influence within individual or collective relationships. The goal-oriented behaviors might increase efficiency in roles that support others in achieving their goals. The change-warranting behaviors might enhance the support of roles that profit from sustained influence in their absence. Accordingly, an obvious potential transfer would be to models of successful behaviors for supervisors, non-career counselors, consultants, trainers, and mediators as well as for lateral leadership or mutual positive influence

within a team. However, the general definitions above also suggest a potential wider transfer to customer service and sales roles that want to influence potential customers, physiotherapists or physicians who want to increase adherence to their prescribed therapies, as well as teachers, other pedagogues, or parents who intend to positively influence the development of their children, or even politicians who (hopefully) strive for a positive influence on their people. All the roles above strive for role-specific objectives and their effectiveness depends on their ability to create a sustained influence on their counterparts. The foundational theories' generality of IMoSB and the general role similarities outlined here suggest a potential transferability to these roles. Nevertheless, the differences in specific role definitions will certainly demand consulting context-specific theories and integrating context-specific existing research results. These differentiations will certainly lead to adaptations of the specific models of successful behavior and diverse specifications of successful concrete behaviors. At the same time, these differentiations and variations could flow back to the research communities of coaching, career counseling, and leadership to inspire new hypotheses there and spur newly fertilized research endeavors.

Conclusion

Leadings scientists and meta-analysts in their fields have called for new theories of successful behavior that explain the effectiveness of coaching (Jones et al., 2016; Sonesh, et al., 2015), career counseling (Whiston et al., 2016), and leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). The thesis develops the integrative model of successful behavior (IMoSB) and relevant specifications in the contexts of coaching, career counseling, and leadership. The first field study on counselor behavior provides an objective behavior measure of relation-oriented counselor behavior and provides first indications of the validity of the theory-structure as well as successful counselor behaviors. The thesis calls for a comprehensive empirical validation strategy that will certainly lead to new insights and relevant optimizations and adaptations of the theoretical model and its context specifications. Remarkably, the overarching structure of the IMoSB allows for fertile knowledge transfers and inspirations between as yet mostly unrelated fields. Furthermore, the generality of its foundational theories indicates the transferability of IMoSB to adjacent fields to inspire theoretical advancement and integration. IMoSB and its foundational theories could inspire theorists and relevant practitioners who want to sustainably influence the coordination, cooperation, activation and goal achievement of their counterparts in individual or collective relationships. This mission certainly has actual significance for many parts of our national and international societies that are confronted with various crucial challenges. Challenges such as the climate crisis, digital revolution, political polarization and the ensuing international clashes and economic crises provide various opportunities

to test and evolve successful behaviors in the complex endeavor to support struggling individuals and collectives to sustainably achieve their objectives.

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Akademische Laufbahn

- Seit 2012: Laufende Doktorarbeit im Bereich Wirtschaftspsychologie zu „Successful Behavior in Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership"
- 2010: Führungsprogramm für Potenzialträger an der Business School in Harvard
- 2007: 1-jähriges zertifiziertes Training in Organisationsentwicklung an der Universität Basel
- 2005: Diplom in Psychologie an der Albert-Ludwigs-Universität Freiburg: Note 1,1, Diplomarbeit über „Wirkfaktoren und Psychodrama im Transfer-Coaching" mit Note 1,3
- 2003, 2006: Zwei Summer Schools über Friedens- und Konfliktforschung an der Eastern-Mennonite-University, USA
- 1998: Abitur, Note 1,5

Beruflicher Werdegang und Trainings

- Seit 2018: Gründer und Geschäftsführer des Coachingzentrums Freiburg
- Seit 2012: Gründer und Geschäftsführer des Freiburg Instituts: Erfolgsfaktoren in den Bereichen Coaching, Beratung, Führung, Innovation und Kundenservice
- 2007-2014: Associate Director Human Resources Stryker Navigation: Mitglied der lokalen und internationalen Geschäftsführung
- 2003-2007: selbständiger Organisationsberater: Personalentwicklung, Training, Konsensmoderation, Mediation, Coaching und Therapie
- 2000-2005: systemisches und handlungsorientiertes Coaching-Ausbildung (Moreno-Institut Überlingen)
- 2000-2001: Ausbildung Mediation
- 1998-1999: Stellvertretender Direktor der Landersschülervertretung im Bundesland Hessen

Förderungen & Auszeichnungen

- Preisträger beim bundesdeutschen Wettbewerb „Aktiv für Demokratie und Toleranz" 2018 mit der Allianz für werte-orientierte Demokratie e.V.
- Ausgezeichnet als TOP-Coach 2016 in Deutschland in den Kategorien Führung und Teamentwicklung durch Focus, Xing und Statista
- Auszeichnung beim Deutschen Coachingpreis des DBVC 2012 & 2014
- Empfang des Great Place to work award Germany 2010 und 2011 sowie zwei andere Mitarbeiterauszeichnungen für Diversität und work-family-life-balance
- 1. Gewinner des Muwit-Award 2006 (innovative Trainingskonzepte)

- Stipendium für talentierte Studenten der Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
- Drei internationale HR Auszeichnungen bei Stryker inklusive Auszeichnungen für exzellente Zusammenarbeit und exzellente HR Leistungen

Academic Career

- Since 2012: PhD in Business Psychology on "Successful Behavior in Coaching, Career Counseling, and Leadership"
- 2010: High-potential leadership-training at the Harvard Business School
- 2007: 1-year certified training in organizational development at the University of Basel
- 2005: Diploma in psychology at Albert-Ludwigs-University Freiburg: Grade A or 1.1
  Thesis on "Change factors and psychodrama in transfer-coaching": Grade A or 1.3
- 2003, 2006: Two summer schools in USA on peace and conflict studies (Eastern-Mennonite-University)
- 1998: Baccalaureate: Grade A or 1.5

Professional Experience and Training

- Since 2018: Founder and Executive Director of the Coaching Center Freiburg
- Since 2012: Founder and Executive Director of the Freiburg Institut: success factors of coaching, counseling, leadership, innovation and customer service
- 2007-2014: Associate Director Human Resources, Stryker Navigation: member of the local and international management board
- 2003-2007: Self-employed organizational consultant: personal development, training, consensus moderation, mediation, coaching and therapy
- 2000-2005: Systemic and action-oriented coaching-training (Moreno-Institut Überlingen)
- 2000-2001: Certified mediation training
- 1998-1999: Executive Director of the student council of the state of Hessen

Sponsorships & Awards

- Award reception at the German competition 'Active for Democracy and Tolerance' 2018 together with the organization 'alliance for value-oriented democracy'
- Named TOP-Coach 2016 in Germany in the categories of leadership and team development, ranked by Focus, Xing and Statista
- German Coaching Award 2012 & 2014
- Reception of the Great Place to Work Award Germany 2010 and 2011 and two other employer awards for Diversity and work-family life-balance
- 1st winner of the Muwit-Award 2006 (innovative training concepts)
- Scholarship for gifted students of the Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
- Three internal HR awards at Stryker, including awards for synergy and HR excellence

Veröffentlichungen/Publication List

- Behrendt, P., Mühlberger, C.[14], Göritz, A. S. (submitted). Relationship, Purpose, and Change – An integrative model of coach behavior. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*.
- Behrendt, P., Heuer, K. &, Göritz, A. S. (in press). The Effect of Career Counselor Behavior on Reemployment. *Journal of Career Development*.
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