Chapter 6

THE DAWNING OF A NEW ERA FOR GENUINE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Bruce J. Avolio
Gallup Leadership Institute, Department of Management, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA
and
Adrian Chan
Training and Doctrine Branch, Applied Behavioral Sciences Department, Ministry of Defense, Singapore

In this chapter, we examine the last 80 years of research that has focused on leadership development to determine the state of research and theory. We begin our discussion by examining how leadership models and research have evolved generally over this same period, and then shift our focus to what can be applied to explaining the process of leadership development. Next, we consider early work on leadership development, followed by reviewing several recent theories that have attempted to explain the process of leadership development and that we believe frame an interesting array of research questions yet to be addressed in the literature. Next, we make the argument that leadership development needs to be more authentic than what has been attempted in the past. We also intend to establish in our discussion the need to use a multiple levels perspective to viewing leadership development, while also incorporating more fully the role of the context and the follower in the leadership development process. In conclusion, we offer suggestions for the way forward in terms of building models and methods, and propose a general framework to help guide researching more genuine leadership development in organizations.

OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP: MAJOR PERSPECTIVES

What is leadership? Leadership has been a topic of interest to scholars, philosophers, and practitioners alike since the beginning of reported human history. Bass (1990, p. 3) stated, "the study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization." While leadership has been the topic of discourse since the beginning of the recorded history of humankind, empirical research on the topic only began in the early 1930s, with the advent of the trait-based leadership approaches (House & Aditya, 1997).

Trait-Based Approaches

The "Great Man" approach to leadership focuses on traits and enduring attributes of the leader (Carlyle, 1907). A key assumption is that there are enduring features that distinguish leaders from non-leaders, which are innate. A more extreme view even states that there is "no such thing as leadership by the masses" (Dowd, 1936).

Unfortunately, early trait approaches were prematurely abandoned due to the inability to replicate and isolate a reasonable set of universal leadership traits. For example, in an influential review, Stogdill (1948) called for more integration of situational factors into the trait-based approach, which redirected the field of leadership studies away from trying to identify a list of traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders.

More recently, the trait approach to leadership has undergone a revival. For example, research into leadership emergence has identified several contributing stable traits such as extraversion and conscientiousness (Judge *et al.*, 2002), self-monitoring (Day *et al.*, 2002), intelligence (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986), and generalized self-efficacy (Smith & Foti, 1998b).

There is also growing evidence for at least the partial heritability of traits that influence the emergence of leadership, including research with both men and women (Arvey *et al.*, 2003). For example, Arvey *et al.* (2007) reported in their study of identical versus fraternal twins that approximately 30% of leadership emergence was heritable, while the remaining variance was attributable to environmental influences. However, at the same time, these findings also challenge a commonly held belief that leaders are either born or made, and suggest that there is considerable room left for developing leadership beyond the individual heritable traits an individual has based on the genetic lottery (Avolio, 2005).

In sum, the original notion of enduring or in-born traits that caused individuals to emerge as leaders traditionally favored selecting the "right leader," rather than focusing energy and investment on leadership development. However, the accumulated evidence of past reviews indicates that if one were to put the made part of leadership over the born part as a fraction, then the

1   denominator, although important, would be relatively small compared to the
2   numerator (Avolio, 2005). As John Gardner (1990, p. xix) said when asked
3   about whether leadership is determined largely by genetic or environmental
4   influences, "Most of what leaders have that enables them to lead is learned."
5
6   **Behavioral Perspectives**
7
8   Early disenchantment with the trait approach contributed to the emergence
9   of the behavioral approach to leadership research. Ironically, like the trait ap-
10 proach, early behavioral approaches to leadership also assumed that there were
11 universal characteristics that could identify leaders, except that here the behav-
12 iors, actions, or styles, not personality traits, were the focus. What was discov-
13 ered by early researchers was the tendency of leaders to focus either on people
14 or on tasks, also known as consideration and initiating structure (measured
15 by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; Stogdill & Coons, 1957).
16 However, the search for universally effective leader behaviors was frustrated by
17 a lack of empirical evidence supporting their connection to effective leadership
18 performance (House, 1971).
19   To this day, the emphasis of the behavioral approach on the careful exami-
20 nation of observable leader behaviors still manifests its influence on the lead-
21 ership literature (House & Aditya, 1997). For example, even when the core
22 tenets of leadership theories focused more on psychological processes occur-
23 ring within the "black box" of how leaders actually think about and influence
24 followers, there is still a strong emphasis on using behavioral measures to as-
25 sess leadership behavior and styles that are related to performance outcomes
26 (Yukl, 2006). Examples of such studies now focusing more on the "black box"
27 include the impact of leadership on follower self-concept (Paul *et al.*, 2001;
28 Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993) or self-presentation processes in leadership
29 (Gardner & Avolio, 1995; Leary, 1989). Other examples of leadership the-
30 ories that were operationalized behaviorally include charismatic (Conger &
31 Kanungo, 1988) and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Even
32 cognitively based leadership theories such as attributional models of leadership
33 rely on behavioral observations to explain how leaders lead (Bresnen, 1995;
34 Calder, 1977).
35   The behavioral emphasis in the leadership literature has also been leveraged
36 by leadership development practitioners, whose leadership training programs
37 often focused on having an impact on leader behaviors and actions that can
38 positively influence performance outcomes. For example, previous leadership
39 development efforts have typically combined a behaviourally oriented training
40 focus with the use of feedback tools such as multi-source feedback (Atwater &
41 Waldman, 1998). Nonetheless, the field of leadership and leadership devel-
42 opment had to evolve more before it began to concentrate on examining how
43 to change leaders' mindsets in terms of areas such as self-awareness (Avolio,
44 2005).

Contingency Approaches

Stogdill's call in 1948 for a greater integration of situational variables was finally heeded through the contingency approach to studying leadership. This perspective introduced the impact of situational contingencies to the study of leadership in various ways. For example, Fiedler's contingency theory (1964) proposed matching leaders on the basis of their background characteristics to better suit the favorableness of the situation for the leader.

In their situational leadership theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) proposed to modify the leader's behavior to suit the situation. Similarly, in his path–goal theory, House (1971) proposed situational moderators to the task and person-oriented behaviors of leaders. Specific to a leader's decision-making style, Vroom and Yetton (1973) suggested seven types of decision-making styles depending on the nature of the problem and the type of followers being led. In all these theories, the distinguishing feature of the contingency perspective is the interaction of the leader with the follower(s) and the situation. This represented the beginning of examining leadership from a multi-level view or perspective, which we will consider in greater detail in a later portion of this chapter.

The contingency theories of leadership brought along with them a greater emphasis on and a better understanding of the theoretical basis for improving the leader–situation fit. These theories also created inroads into unraveling the "black box"; that is, the mind of the leader and follower, as well as the dynamics of their interaction. For example, Vroom and Yetton's (1973) leader decision-making model attempted to incorporate situational considerations for how a leader should think. Subsequent to his contingency theory, Fiedler explored the impact of situationally induced stress as a particular form of situational unfavorableness, and incorporated leader intelligence and experience into his cognitive resource theory (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). As will be seen later, a better understanding of the "black box" is critical for leadership development, as most of the recent leadership development theories to be reviewed later all attempt to move beyond behavioral change to influence deeper change at the level of the cognition of the leader and ultimately the follower.

Cognitive/Information-Processing Approaches

The beginnings of the cognitive/information-processing perspective of leadership is most often associated with the early work of Lord and his colleagues (Lord & Foti, 1986; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). This approach operates on the assumption that leadership is in the eye of the beholder (Bresnen, 1995), and that one's implicit notions about leadership may influence how leadership behaviors are perceived and then processed (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Smith & Foti, 1998a). These implicit theories of leadership not only influence whether a behavior is perceived as leader-like, but they may also bias the

1   extent to which genuine leadership behaviors are perceived when participants
2   in research are asked to rate them (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Eden & Leviatan,
3   1975). An extreme example of such biases is when the leader is "romanti-
4   cized," such that events that occur are misattributed to the leader when in fact
5   the situation in which the leader is operating may have provided a more plausi-
6   ble explanation for these events (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, &
7   Dukerich, 1985).
8   The role that social processes play in leadership is also receiving renewed
9   attention in the formulation of a social identity perspective to leadership that
10 has recently been proposed (Hogg, 2001). Hogg proposed that for leaders to
11 emerge, they need to fit a prototype of how a leader should appear and behave,
12 and that the prototype needs to be one that is liked and socially accepted by
13 the group.
14   While Hogg (2001) provided an explanation of *why* leaders are socially ac-
15 cepted from the perspective of social identity theory, van Knippenberg and
16 colleagues drew from the leadership and identity literature to suggest *how* fol-
17 lowers are affected by leaders (van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004). In their re-
18 view, they proposed that how followers perceive themselves (i.e., follower self-
19 identity) can modify the influence of the leader and the leadership process.
20 Specifically, they proposed that the orientation of follower self-construal (i.e.,
21 identification of self for collective good or in terms of relationships with sig-
22 nificant others) can mediate leadership effectiveness. They also proposed that
23 follower self-efficacy needed to be more carefully considered as pre-conditions
24 for follower action and identification with the leader (van Knippenberg, 2000,
25 as cited in van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, they also identified
26 follower self-esteem and self-consistency as potential areas for future research.
27   Indeed, the cognitive/information-processing perspective has gained a sig-
28 nificant foothold in the leadership literature in terms of guiding how lead-
29 ers emerge, are perceived, and are evaluated (Lowe & Gardner, 2000). More
30 importantly for leadership development, it provides a new perspective and
31 methodology for that development, particularly in the area of enhancing lead-
32 ers' implicit theories of leadership with regards to the *whys* and *hows* of leader-
33 ship (Offerman, Kennedy Jr., & Wirtz, 1994). In later sections, we will review
34 some of the recent progress in leadership development theories that have at-
35 tempted to incorporate these implicit theories.
36
37
38   **Self-Regulation Approaches**
39 The last perspective is in some ways a throwback to the Great Man approach,
40 because the emphasis is again on the leader. This perspective includes ap-
41 proaches to leadership that emphasize the importance of the self, such as self-
42 leadership (Manz, 1987, 1993) and what has been referred to as authentic
43 leadership development (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio *et al.*, 2004; George,
44 2003).

1   Unlike prior information-processing/cognitive approaches that focus on the
2   informational content of leadership such as one's ideas of leadership, self-
3   regulation approaches focus on the identity of the leader, and how one's iden-
4   tity as a leader provides one with a sense of self-direction and self-regulation.
5   Leadership development efforts arising from this perspective typically empha-
6   size self-discovery and self-direction, followed by quantifiable changes in one's
7   leadership while taking into account situational challenges and contingencies.
8   Thus, this approach builds on previous leadership models and perspectives dis-
9   cussed above in terms of focusing on the individual and his or her self-concept,
10   the situation in which the leader is leading, and ultimately the behaviors that
11   are exhibited. This approach will be revisited toward the end of the chapter in
12   the section on authentic leadership development (ALD) theory.
13
14
15   **Conclusions and Synthesis Based on Prior Approaches**
16   **to Examining Leadership**
17   This brief overview of approaches to examining leadership serves to provide a
18   backdrop to our subsequent focus on leadership development. Our intent was
19   not to cover all of the prior models that have been discussed in more detail
20   elsewhere. For example, in a recent historical review of leadership research,
21   Hunt organized the review of the literature based on nine perspectives (Hunt,
22   2004). These perspectives included, in addition to those reviewed above, no-
23   tions of leadership as shared influence (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Pearce,
24   Conger, & Locke, 2007), and a multi-level perspectives of leadership (Tosi,
25   1991; Yammarino *et al.*, 2005). These additional perspectives will be intro-
26   duced later in the chapter.
27   As noted above, leadership research began from a focus on the "person,"
28   with the trait perspective. This perspective asked: "Who is a leader?" With
29   the behavioral perspective, leadership research then proceeded to address the
30   question of what a leader does. Next, leadership research shifted focus away
31   from the person to include a contingency perspective that explored the role of
32   the context, and is reflected in questions such as: "What situations are most
33   favorable for me as a leader?" The contingency perspective also lent focus to
34   the role of followers and the overall leadership process, including the leader,
35   follower, and context dynamic. Essentially, the question this perspective aimed
36   to address was: "How do I decide as a leader how to lead given the followers I
37   have and the situation that I am confronting?"
38   As the leadership literature began to shift to more of an information-
39   processing/cognitive perspective, the focus for research returned to the leader,
40   or more specifically to the "black box" inside the leader's mind. Here, the
41   notion is that one's ideas regarding leadership are important determinants of
42   how one behaves as a leader, or evaluates behaviors in leadership terms. This
43   re-emphasis on the inner thoughts of the leader is built on further with the
44   self-regulation perspective reviewed above. Self-regulation perspectives such

as the one taken by work on authentic leadership development focus on the identity of the leader, and on the role of self-regulation in the leadership process. Hence, with this approach leadership research has gone full circle since the era of trait-based approaches to leadership. However, now it also includes an inner focus on the follower, and how the follower reacts to the leader being dependent on the followers' cognitive information perspective.

The above discussion is summarized in Table 6.1. It provides a brief description of each approach reviewed above, and then highlights some of the assumptions and implications for leadership development.

It is important to note that our intent is not to come to any specific conclusion regarding which leadership perspective is "the best." In fact, as will be elaborated more later in the chapter, we think that all of the prior perspectives inform the direction that future leadership development models and methods should consider. Indeed, where leadership development is concerned, it is more likely the case that the more perspectives toward leadership the leadership practitioner is cognizant of, the better the leadership development effort will be.

In addition, it is also interesting to note that the historical trend of leadership research has swung from a leader-centric to a leadership-centric perspective and back again. Thus far, we have used the term "leadership development" loosely, when in fact there is a clear distinction between leader and leadership development that will be made in a later section below. For now, it is important to note that leadership (or leader) development is not about choosing which is better. Rather, just as leadership research has explored the leader and the leadership process, so too developmental efforts need to incorporate both the person and the process in order to understand fully how to optimize leadership and its development.

Finally, it is also important to note the implications of leadership research for leadership development. The next section briefly reviews some of these implications.

Observations Regarding Past Leadership Research

Extensive research has been conducted on leadership, particularly over the last 20 years (Bass & Riggio, 2006; House & Aditya, 1997). However, the abundance of leadership research is no guarantee of a better understanding of leadership development. In fact, a prominent leadership scholar went so far as to title a recent book chapter provocatively: "Why leadership research is generally irrelevant for leadership development" (Schriesheim, 2003). In his chapter, Schriesheim listed six reasons this may be so. For example, he argued that leadership scholars and managers are simply interested in different agendas, with the former focused on theory building and validation and the latter on practical application. Consequently, the language used by leadership scholars (e.g., constructs and latent variables) fundamentally differs from that of managers.

Table 6.1 Approaches to leadership and implications for development

Leadership Approaches	Description	Assumptions for Leadership Development
Trait-based/"Great Man" approach	Who are leaders? Are there traits that can distinguish leaders from non-leaders?	Enduring traits are identifiable (i.e., can be selected) but are not amenable to development.
Behavior-based approaches	What do leaders do? What are the distinguishable styles and behaviors or leaders?	Development should focus on behaviors and styles. These behaviors can be learned, and are assumed to be useful across situations.
Contingency/Situational (e.g., Substitutes for leadership, LPC)	What are the situations in which leaders matter?	Development should take into consideration situational factors. Development can consist of modifying one's own style, or allocating the right leader to the optimal leadership situation.
Cognitive/Information Processing	What are the ideas and implicit theories people have of what leaders are and how they ought to behave?	The better-developed these ideas and implicit theories are, the more impact on one's perceptions and behaviors regarding leadership.
Self-based/Relational-based/Authentic leadership	What are the internal processes within the "black box" that underpins the leader, the leadership situation, and the leadership process?	Development should focus on these social-psychological processes not only within the leader, but also within followers as well as between leaders and followers.

1   We contend that prior leadership research does have a great deal to contribute
2 to our understanding of what constitutes genuine leadership development. For
3 example, we now have better answers to the age-old question of whether leaders
4 are born or made. From our review, we now know that leadership emergence is
5 only partially heritable, and that only a select set of core traits matter that appear
6 to predispose some individuals to lead and others to not. We also know that
7 to a large extent leadership emergence is not necessarily pre-ordained and that
8 many other factors contribute to whether a leader emerges or not. In addition,
9 we also know, especially given recent insights from the cognitive/information
10 process approaches, that leadership as an influence process can be en-
11 hanced. This gives us a basis for moving forward to investing in leadership
12 development.
13
14
15   **Findings from a Meta-analysis of Leadership**
16   **Experimental/Quasi-experimental Studies**
17 As a starting point for exploring leadership development, we build on a recent
18 meta-analysis of the leadership intervention literature that set out to examine
19 what we know about changing or developing leadership (see also Reichard &
20 Avolio, 2005). This meta-analysis only looked at leadership studies conducted
21 in the last 100 years that were experimental or quasi-experimental in nature.
22   First, perhaps not surprisingly, not all research that has claimed to investigate
23 leadership actually manipulated leadership itself! Out of most of the 12 500 or
24 so "hits" that were uncovered and reported in this meta-analysis, only about
25 200 studies satisfied the inclusion criteria of having some form of leadership
26 manipulation (e.g., by selection or training, or use of leadership scenarios or
27 confederates). The general observation of the work that has been completed
28 on leadership research was in line with that recently reported by Yukl (2006),
29 who concluded that less than 5% of the thousands of published studies in the
30 field of leadership had used experimental research designs to test the cause-
31 and-effect impact of manipulating leadership on some mediating variables or
32 performance outcomes. In fact, an earlier critique of the research in the field
33 of leadership studies by Yukl (1998, p. 438) also noted that "past research on
34 leadership has relied too much on weak research methods." It appears that
35 this worrying trend has remained unabated in terms of creating leadership to
36 examine its impact on followers.
37   The meta-analysis also revealed that when leadership is manipulated in ex-
38 perimental or quasi-experimental studies, the bulk of the manipulations are
39 done in lab rather than in field settings. Also, these manipulations tended to
40 be one of the following categories: manipulation by assignment of leader or
41 by manipulation of leader expectations, manipulation of leader effects through
42 the use of scenarios, role play, or the use of confederates. Less than half of the
43 200 studies actually manipulated leadership through leadership training itself.
44 Also, most of the leadership manipulations lasted less than a day. Thus, going

1   back over 100 years, we have only 100 empirical studies that have been con-
2   ducted examining how leadership can be developed, and most of those used
3   leadership development interventions that lasted less than one day!
4   This short-term focus in leadership interventions uncovered in the meta-
5   analysis is worrying, particularly with regard to the permanence of leadership
6   effects. Interventions that are short may potentially result in leadership impacts
7   that are short-lived. For example, when the authors categorized the effects of
8   the leadership manipulations in the meta-analysis, they discovered that only
9   2% of all effect sizes were based on objective performance outcomes. The
10   overwhelming majority of the effect sizes from the leadership studies that were
11   identified explored the effects of leadership on affective, cognitive, or behavioral
12   outcomes, most of which tended to be relatively short-lived. This makes it dif-
13   ficult for us to draw meaningful inferences with regards to the potency of these
14   interventions for leadership development, because we believe that leadership
15   development implies long-lasting change.
16   The second concern raised by the meta-analysis of this literature involves
17   the continued shortage of empirical research on leadership development itself.
18   The scarcity of empirical work on leadership development is evident even early
19   on in the field of leadership. For example, in an extensive review of leadership
20   conducted in the last decade, Bass (1990) devoted only one chapter to the topic
21   in the definitive *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*. What empirical work
22   on leadership development has been conducted tended to focus on the methods
23   of development such as formal training, mentoring, and job assignment rather
24   than on the constructs to be developed via the use of these methods. As it is, to
25   date, we know of no leadership development theory that has been empirically
26   validated.
27   On the positive side, the multitude of leadership studies provides good oppor-
28   tunities for synthesis of the research for better leadership theory formulation.
29   Indeed, since 1980, there have been no fewer than 32 published meta-analyses
30   of research on leadership and its impact on various measures of performance at
31   the individual, group, and organizational levels (for the complete list of meta-
32   analyses, see Reichard & Avolio, 2005). What is now needed is for this body
33   of research to be re-examined for its implications to informing models and
34   methods for leadership development.
35   Day and O'Connor (2003) recently commented on the difficulty of study-
36   ing leadership development, and pointed out that the practice of leadership
37   development is far ahead of its scientific understanding (Day, 2000). Their
38   observations underscore the importance and urgency of utilizing this rich body
39   of leadership research to draw insights into what constitutes cause-and-effect
40   relationships within the leadership process, thereby facilitating a better under-
41   standing of how to stimulate its development.
42   For example, meta-analyses on transformational leadership (Dumdum,
43   Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) have re-
44   vealed a significant relationship between transformational leadership and

1   performance. Extensive research into transformational leadership has also
2   shown that it positively relates to a variety of motivational and performance
3   outcomes (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Experimental studies have also isolated the
4   processes by which transformational leadership influences followers (Bono &
5   Judge, 2003; Dvir *et al.*, 2002). More such studies need to be conducted to
6   help explicate the core constructs and intermediary processes by which trans-
7   formational leadership positively affects performance. By doing so, we will be
8   better informed on how best to proceed in developing such leaders; that is, to
9   develop a theory of transformational leadership development from the existing
10 body of leadership research.
11   In sum, this short review on leadership theory and research hopefully pro-
12 vides a basis for understanding the wide-ranging approaches to leadership de-
13 velopment that will be examined below. As will be seen later, approaches to
14 leadership development are dependent on how leadership has been previously
15 conceptualized and defined. Unfortunately, as Fiedler (1971, p. 1) puts it:
16 "There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership
17 theories—and there are almost as many theories of leadership as there are
18 psychologists working in the field." Accordingly, it is not surprising that the
19 strategies for developing leadership may also come across as confusingly varied.
20
21

A REVIEW OF PAST APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

25 A basic starting point to address the current state of leadership development is
26 to begin by first distinguishing between developing leaders versus developing
27 a leadership process (Day, 2000). Doing so allows us to distinguish between
28 leadership development that focuses on leader traits and behaviors, as com-
29 pared to that emphasizing the influence and relational processes between a
30 leader and his or her constituency in context.
31   Following this discussion, examples of each approach to leadership develop-
32 ment will be provided. Next, a review of more recent leadership development
33 theories that incorporate both approaches will be undertaken. Because these
34 recent theories are relatively new, many of them are still in their conceptual
35 stage of development, with little or no empirical validation as yet.
36
37

The Base Starting Point: Development of the Leader

39 McCauley and her colleagues argue that leadership development should fo-
40 cus on the development of the leader. They view leader development as the
41 "expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and pro-
42 cesses" (Van Velsor, McCauley, & Moxley, 1998, p. 4). This perspective has
43 spawned numerous methods of leader development, many of which are famil-
44 iar to leadership development practitioners. Examples of such methods include

1 the use of mentoring, job assignment, multi-source feedback, formal training,
2 personal growth programs, assessment centers, personality tests, performance
3 evaluations, and action learning approaches.
4   The aim of this chapter is not to review these various tools/methods of
5 leader development, because more extensive treatments have been provided
6 elsewhere, by Howard (2001) and McCauley (2001). Rather, the focus of this
7 chapter will be on the constructs of leadership to be developed. Here, a con-
8 cern we have is one that has been echoed by several leadership scholars (e.g.,
9 Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004; Mumford & Manley, 2003), which is that the
10 practice and technology of leadership development have far outpaced the the-
11 ory and science of leadership development. In other words, while the methods
12 of leadership development are numerous, the criteria for selecting any of these
13 methods remain under-developed. More importantly, if it is unclear what lead-
14 ership constructs these methods are intended to target, then it follows that the
15 evidence to support their continued use will not be forthcoming, if indeed it
16 was collected at all in the first instance as part of the leadership development
17 effort. For now, we move beyond the methods of leadership development to
18 focus instead on the major theoretical approaches.
19
20
21   **Adult Learning Approaches**
22 A key ingredient for any theory of leadership development is that it must incor-
23 porate theories of leadership with theories of development. This is important
24 because leadership development implies lasting growth and change, whereas
25 for leadership development to be justified, the change in leadership must lead
26 to effective performance outcomes.
27   An early attempt to incorporate a life-span perspective to situate leader
28 development as part of adult development was evident in the constructive-
29 developmental framework for leadership development proposed by Kuhnert
30 and Lewis (1987). They drew from the work of Kegan (1994) in linking leader
31 development as a natural extension of one's moral development. In their frame-
32 work, just as moral development occurs in stages (Kohlberg, 1984), Kuhnert
33 and Lewis proposed that leader development is linked to one's ego development
34 and occurs in discrete stages as well. Hence, at the lowest stage the egocentric
35 leader is focused purely on him- or herself. At the relational stage, the leader
36 draws a sense of identity from the relational self. At the next stage, the self as
37 distinct from others manifests itself as a leader with a strong sense of values
38 and identity. Finally, the theoretical apex of their framework describes a leader
39 who transcends beyond one fixed set of value systems to be able to negotiate
40 freely between systems of values.
41   It is also important to note that Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) chose to
42 focus their leadership development model on differentiating how transac-
43 tional and transformational leaders develop. Essentially, these authors built on
44 prior theory and construct validation work pertaining to transformational and

1 transactional leadership, and attempted to move this literature forward by us-
2 ing their model to explain how such leaders developed. Avolio and Gibbons
3 (1988) also paralleled this approach of taking a life-span view of development
4 in their qualitative and quantitative analysis of why some leaders are eventually
5 more transactional, while others are more transformational.
6   The constructive-developmental approach of Kuhnert and Lewis manifested
7 the important ingredient of incorporating a theory of development (moral de-
8 velopment, in this instance) with a theory of leadership (transformational lead-
9 ership). However, its utility is limited by its narrow focus on a single dimension
10 of moral development in the leader. For example, not all leader behaviors can
11 be explained by values. Whether one's values are triggered also depend on the
12 attributes of the issue at hand (Jones, 1991; May & Pauli, 2002).
13   Another leader development approach that also drew from adult learning
14 theory was proposed by Shamir and colleagues (Shamir, Dayan-Horesh, &
15 Adler, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Focusing on popular constructs of lead-
16 ership such as charismatic, visionary, and transformational leadership, they
17 argued that evidence of leadership development can be articulated as elab-
18 orations of one's life story, because embedded within the story are essential
19 elements of one's self-concept as a leader. Likewise, when leaders reflect on
20 their life stories, their implicit theories of leadership are made explicit and
21 hence become more elaborated, thereby leading to a change in their implicit
22 leadership theories.
23   At this stage, there is little empirical evidence for this approach to leader de-
24 velopment. However, there appears to be possible support from the practical
25 intelligence literature at least to support the need for further work in this area.
26 For example, Cianciolo, Antonakis, & Sternberg (2004) advocated that tacit
27 knowledge gained from experience can be reliably measured, and does con-
28 tribute to leader effectiveness. They suggested that by making tacit knowledge
29 explicit (such as through narrating one's life stories), practical intelligence is
30 increased (Wagner & Sternberg, 1990). We suggest that the same process could
31 be tested in terms of promoting leadership development.
32   It is important to situate leadership development within the larger frame of
33 the overall developmental path of the leader in his or her life-span. Conse-
34 quently, the onus of genuine leadership development is then to demonstrate
35 that a leader has developed at a faster pace than what he or she would have at
36 that particular point in life without programmatic intervention.
37
38   **Intelligence and Leadership Development**
39
40 Still within the adult learning perspective, another approach to leader devel-
41 opment is provided by Sternberg's WICS (Wisdom, Intelligence, Creativity,
42 Synthesized) model of leadership (Sternberg, 2003a, 2003b). Sternberg dis-
43 tinguished the individual utility of each of these constructs for leadership. Next,
44 he proposed that leadership needs to follow a balanced approach incorporating

these constructs when negotiating competing demands and tensions in the environment. He proposed that leadership development needs to develop these individual attributes to the extent that they are more state based versus trait based. More importantly, apart from raising the levels of these attributes, he suggested that leadership development needs also to focus on how the leader can successfully integrate their use to become more balanced in negotiating situational tensions.

A take-away here for building a theory of leadership development is to demonstrate the extent to which leaders have successfully differentiated and integrated the use of their inherited capabilities. This distinguishes leadership development theories from leadership theories, because although both are concerned with performance outcomes, the former is also concerned with growth for performance, and not just performance itself.

Development of the Leadership Process

Broadly speaking, when examining the leadership process we must go beyond individual factors such as how the leader is motivated, makes decisions, and regulates his or her actions. Specifically, we have to include the influence process or dynamic that occurs between the leader and the follower. As noted earlier in reference to the contingency model approaches, it entails a consideration of the situational factors surrounding and defining the leadership milieu (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2006).

In essence, when we put these core elements of leader, influence, and impact of situation together, the development of leadership as a process reflects the endeavor of leadership research on the whole. For example, enhancing the psychological processes of the leader is reflected in research associated with raising leader self-efficacy (Eden & Sulimani, 2002; McCormick, 2001; Paglis & Green, 2002), improving the leader's goal-setting abilities (Locke & Latham, 1990), enhancing the leader's agency (Berdahl, 1996) and identity (Lord & Hall, 2005), as well as assisting him or her to solve problems more effectively (Mumford et al., 2000).

Additionally, research on enhancing the leadership influence process is found in topics such as relationship management (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2001; George, 2000), team and role boundary management (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003), leader–follower relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995a; Scandura & Lankau, 1996), enhancing follower identification (De Cremer et al., 2006; Hogg, 2001), and collective/shared leadership processes among team members (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003; Pearce, 2004). It will also include assisting the leader in managing the situational factors better, while incorporating those situational factors into how they lead (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Vroom & Jago, 1995).

From this point moving forward, it is less useful to review in detail the individual theoretical components of leadership development that have been

1 highlighted above. Rather, the next section will review specific leadership de-
2 velopment theories that have attempted to put some of these components to-
3 gether, followed by a synthesis of the state of leadership development theories
4 thus far.
5
6
7   **Development of Leadership Skill and Identity**
8 The theory of leadership development proposed by Lord and Hall (2005)
9 focuses on the development of the leader with regard to his or her general
10 problem-solving skills and leadership-specific skills as leaders. Drawing from
11 theories of learning and expertise (e.g., Anderson, 1987), they proposed that
12 as a leader develops from a novice to intermediate and to expert, both the
13 content of the leader's knowledge as well as the way it is processed change with
14 increased experience, making problem solving more efficient. At the expert
15 level, performance is marked by the ability to see and interpret the underlying
16 principles behind a problem or in a situation, instead of relying on heuristics
17 or surface features.
18   A premise of the theory is that problem solving is a primary function of
19 the leader, or is a "task" skill, according to the authors. In order to become
20 proficient at problem solving, the leader needs to draw on his or her identity
21 as a leader to proactively improve his or her skills. The authors suggested that
22 as leaders progress from novices to experts, their identities shift in focus from
23 one of emphasizing individual uniqueness to collective identities that define the
24 self in terms of specific collectives such as groups or organizations (Brewer &
25 Gardner, 1996). In addition, each level of shift in identity focus brings along
26 an accompanying set of associated leadership skills to be mastered. At the
27 expert level, the leader has assimilated all the skills of the preceding levels and
28 is able to switch between them in accordance with the requirements of the
29 situation.
30
31
32   **Relationship Development**
33 In contrast to Lord and Hall's theory of leader development, Uhl-Bien (2003)
34 proposed a theory of leadership development that focuses on the leadership
35 process, specifically the relational aspects of leadership. Her theory builds on
36 previous research in leader–member exchange (Dansereau, 1995; Graen &
37 Uhl-Bien, 1995b; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997), which emphasized the value of
38 high-quality work relationships between managers and subordinates. From the
39 perspective of leadership as using influence to create change (Kotter, 2001;
40 Yukl, 1998), Uhl-Bien (2003) proposed that relationships are important gen-
41 erators of influence and should therefore be a key emphasis in leadership de-
42 velopment. She also borrowed from the information-processing/cognitive per-
43 spective in her argument that just as leaders and their constituencies have
44 implicit leadership theories, so too they are likely to have what she called

"implicit relational theories" to help them recognize when relationships are favorable and ripe for development. Finally, with regard to leader development, Uhl-Bien (2003) proposed that leaders need to develop their relational skills, such as managing the relationship-building process, being aware of one's implicit schemas at play in the relationship, and relational self-management such as the ability to accept feedback and adapt one's behaviors in response to feedback.

Leadership Skills Strataplex

Incorporating an organizational twist to leader development is the empirical validation of the notion that different leadership skills are layered (strata) depending on the level within an organization a leader operates at, as well as segmented (plex) within each layer. Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007) built on stratified systems theory (Jacobs & Jaques, 1987; Jaques, 1976) to identify a typology of four major segments of leadership skills—namely cognitive, interpersonal, business, and strategic skills—that varied quantitatively and in qualitatively different combinations across organizational stratas.

According to Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007), cognitive skills are foundational, and consist of collecting and processing information, critical thinking, learning and adaptation, oral or verbal communication, and reading comprehension. Interpersonal skills are social skills involved in interacting with and influencing others, such as coordination, negotiation, and persuasion. They also includes what the authors term "social perceptiveness," which entails having empathy for and awareness of other people. Business skill requirements are functional skills related to managing people, finances, material resources, and operations analysis, while the skills that fall under the strategic category are more abstract/conceptual, which requires individuals to take a systemic perspective to plan for and envision the future, identify key causes and consequences, as well as identify and solve problems.

Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007) further propose that higher-level skills build on each other. For example, interpersonal skills depend partially on cognitive skills such as communication, while business skills associated with managing people or resources would require interpersonal as well as cognitive information-processing skills. Similarly, strategic skill requirements of solving problems and planning for the future would depend on the foundational skills in other categories as well. Thus, in their typology, the authors identify that cognitive skills are required most often/in greater amounts, followed by interpersonal then business skills, while strategic skills are required in the least amounts.

Their typology also reveals that with regard to organizational levels, the higher within an organization a leader is positioned, the more of each skill he or she will require. However, the combination of skills also varies according to the operational level of the leader within an organization.

Leader Development in Organizational Settings

Another leader development approach situated in organizational settings is proposed by London and Maurer (2004). In their model, they drew linkages between the organization's learning and development culture and the leader's involvement in learning activities. Hence, unlike adult learning approaches reviewed earlier, which situated leadership development within the context of adult development, London and Maurer (2004) proposed the organizational context to be the overarching frame instead.

In addition, they intended their model to be diagnostic in nature, for assessing the continuous learning needs of the leader. Their model is centered on learning, both at an organizational level as well as at the individual level of the leader, with the belief that there can be congruence between the development goals of the organization and the leader. According to London and Maurer (2004), once the developmental goals of the leader are identified and framed within the needs of the organization, the appropriate leadership theory can be applied to design leadership development interventions. These interventions can then be operationalized through various developmental methods such as the use of mentoring, assessment centers, and formal training.

Leader Development: From Leadership Complexity to Self-Awareness and Adaptiveness

When leadership complexity was first introduced in the form of the Leaderplex model (Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997), it integrated cognitive, social, and behavioral complexity research in a single framework for leadership. Cognitive complexity is one's ability to think multi-dimensionally and to synthesize information at various levels of abstraction (Jaques, 1976). In their model, the authors defined *cognitive differentiation* in terms of the number of dimensions and categories within dimensions used to describe the environment. They also referred to *cognitive integration* as the extent to which these dimensions can be combined in different ways to meet the needs of the environment.

Within the Leaderplex model, social complexity is defined as the leader's "capacity to differentiate the personal and relational aspects of a social situation and integrate them in a manner that results in increased understanding or changed action-intention valence" (Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997, p. 382). *Social differentiation* refers to the extent to which relationships and networks can be understood, whereas *social integration* refers to the capacity to synthesize the various aspects of a given social situation.

Hooijberg, Hunt, and Dodge (1997) proposed that both cognitive and social complexity result in behavioral complexity, which is the span of behavioral repertoires a leader brings to his or her roles(s) and the ability to differentiate and adapt these roles to the needs of the situation at hand (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995; Hart & Quinn, 1993). Collectively, these three

aspects of complexity result in managerial and organizational effectiveness (for further details see Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997).

From a leadership development perspective, the notion of complexity is interesting, because complexity is related to growth and development, to one's capacity for leadership effectiveness, and also forms the building blocks of self-awareness and adaptiveness in leadership (Day & Lance, 2004). Furthermore, when cast as a competency, it provides a useful, parsimonious, and yet theory-based approach for selecting and developing leaders (Hollenbeck, McCall, & Silzer, 2006). In fact, some scholars even refer to self-awareness and adaptiveness as representing leadership meta-competencies (e.g., Hall, 2004).

Although it has been 10 years since its introduction, the Leaderplex model has yet to receive much empirical attention. This is partly because of the need for leadership research methodology to catch up. For example, exploring changes in leader complexity requires a clear understanding of the nature and type of changes represented and the use of advanced growth-modeling techniques (Day & Lance, 2004). More significantly, it also requires leadership research to buck the current trend of short-term focus identified earlier in the review of leadership theory and research, and adopt more experimental and quasi-experimental research designs.

Implications for Leadership Development

The theories reviewed above provide several additional implications for leadership development theorizing in general, over and above those already mentioned in the previous sections. In particular, the empirical study by Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007) provides practical implications as well, even though the authors make no claim for their organizational-level typology of leadership skills to be a theory of leadership development.

First, a viable theory of leadership development needs to take into account the situational determinants and operating context of the organization. Although typological in nature, the leadership skill Strataplex model put forth by Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007) nevertheless demonstrates the need to develop particular leadership competencies, in line with the defining characteristics and challenges of the organization in question.

Secondly, since learning is integral to leadership development, there is a need to specify clearly which learning approach is being utilized. For example, Lord and Hall's (2005) model of leadership skill acquisition adopts a learning framework adapted from how novices become experts. Other learning approaches include adult development, such as that adopted by Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) on moral development, and Shamir and colleagues on the use of life stories (Shamir, Dayan-Horesh, & Adler, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). In addition, what constitutes learning and development also needs to be clearly defined; this point will be addressed in a later section.

1   Thirdly, as mentioned previously, leadership development theories need to
2 address both the nature of the leader and leadership development (Day, 2000;
3 Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004). The conceptual work by Lord and Hall (2005)
4 and Uhl-Bien (2003) together demonstrates that the two constructs are both
5 sides of the development coin, so to speak.
6   From a practitioner standpoint, the practical implications, particularly from
7 Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson's (2007) study, are that given the spe-
8 cific differences between organizational strata, leadership development should
9 therefore not be expected to be a "one size fits all" program for participants
10 across organizational levels. Rather, different programs need to be tailored to
11 address the different aspects of leadership such as states of motivation and
12 ability, and the different developmental stages of leaders operating at different
13 levels within the organization. In addition, by linking the individual leader's
14 development to the developmental needs of the organization, London and
15 Maurer's (2004) diagnostic model of developmental needs can help clarify
16 for stakeholders how investing in leadership development can be timely for
17 spurring organizational development and can generate real returns for the
18 organization.
19
20
21   **Implicit Theories at Play when Designing or Implementing**
22   **Leadership Development**
23 All the theories of leadership development reviewed above differ in how leader-
24 ship development is conceptualized and how it is operationalized, and almost
25 all are still untested. Hence, the empirical evidence to guide our choice of
26 theory to use is still lacking.
27   In addition, as reviewed in the section on theories of leadership above, it is
28 clear that there is more than one definition and model of leadership. Given
29 this state of affairs, multiple strategies abound for developing leadership, each
30 accompanied by its own operating assumptions, arising from the adoption of
31 different leadership definitions and models. These operating assumptions can
32 also manifest themselves as implicit theories of leadership in the minds of the
33 leadership development program designer.
34   A typical recipe for leadership development entails the following: (1) mea-
35 suring existing levels of leadership according to one (or several) of the many
36 leadership theories; (2) instituting leadership development interventions such
37 as feedback, mentoring, formal training, reflection; (3) validating that the in-
38 tervention actually had a positive impact; (4) measuring change in leadership
39 (again according to one of the leadership theories); and (5) measuring effects
40 of leadership with some measures of performance outcomes.
41   At first glance, this recipe appears straightforward and easy enough to imple-
42 ment. In reality, the approach is confounded by two common problems. The
43 first is a lack of implementation rigor, particularly for the subsequent steps of
44 validating the intervention and eventual leadership impact. This problem is

so pervasive that some authors have even challenged leadership development practitioners to produce evidence that their leadership development programs actually work or, even more extreme, to stop all leadership development for one year and see if anyone notices (compare Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005).

A second problem is a lack of agreement with regard to which leadership theory to use. The crux of the issue here is not whether one leadership theory is intrinsically superior to another, because empirical evidence can be found to determine the boundary conditions of each theory. In any case, if such evidence is not available, then these leadership theories should not be considered in the first instance. Rather, the problem is that leadership development practitioners may have their own preferences for one theory over another, and consequently adopt a particular leadership theory without a critical and empirical assessment of whether other theories may have been more appropriate for the demands of leadership being addressed (Collins & Holton, 2004). Worse, the boundary conditions of the leadership theories chosen may have been violated, making them theoretically inappropriate. When this happens, even well-executed leadership development programs will still suffer from a lack of bottom-line impact on performance.

Another approach to leadership development is to create leadership frameworks specific to the needs of a particular organization. This approach is particularly common in the military context (e.g., Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2005). Of course, implicit theories come into play in a few ways when one is creating leadership frameworks for a particular type of organization. First, there is a mixing and matching of leadership theories to fit identified organizational, situational, and even cultural demands. When identifying such demands, it is important to recognize the implicit theories of leadership currently in use in the organization. These theories in use may prematurely influence the "final solution." For example, some military organizations may be high in power distance, with current leadership behaviors being observed largely approximating transactional leadership. It would be premature to suggest a leadership development program to accelerate the development of the current leadership theory in use—that is, transactional leadership—without a holistic assessment of the needs of the organization at large. The implicit operating assumptions and "theory-in-use" need to be taken into account if any development is to happen in the organization (Argyris, 1999; Argyris & Schon, 1974).

Secondly, once the demands are identified, there is a process of mixing and matching leadership theories to compose the overall leadership framework. Here again, the choice of leadership theories may become subject to the knowledge and implicit theories of the leadership intervention designer, as discussed above.

Finally, in the overall design of the leadership framework, it is important to distinguish and strike a balance between efforts aimed at leadership development for performance versus leadership development aimed at facilitating learning and development. This is because the outcomes of these divergent

approaches and the time interval required for these outcomes to emerge are very different.

Performance gains in the short term are important for maintaining the momentum for development. Yet at the same time, for sustained performance gains to be realized there needs to be an emphasis on learning, even though learning takes time and effort, and the organization may incur performance decrements in the short term. For example, when the performance focus outweighs the focus on learning and development, this can quickly induce actors to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors, and it is likely that in the short term their followers' performance would be positively affected. Yet, because of the emphasis on immediate performance gains rather than on learning, participants may not have truly understood the underlying rationale behind why and how the behaviors in question are potent. In the long run, those same participants may fail to enact the appropriate transformational leadership behaviors in response to changing situations. When this happens, the longer-term performance gains are not realized. Hence, while participants in leadership development may have learned to enact behaviors associated with transformational leadership, they may not truly assimilate the knowledge, or develop into true transformational leaders. Thus, what constitutes true leadership development needs to be clarified. We turn our attention to this task next.

WHAT CONSTITUTES DEVELOPMENT?

What is development? We can view development as a superordinate category of learning. Within this superordinate category, one can also include maturation, which is natural organismic growth over time (Schunk, 2004).

Maurer (2002) defined development as a series of ongoing changes that occur through multiple learning experiences. Learning within the context of leadership development, according to Maurer (2002), is an increase or change in knowledge or skill as a result of experiencing something. Schunk (2004) defined learning as being reflected in a change in behavior, or the *capacity* to behave as a result of experience or practice.

The above interpretation of learning with respect to leadership places an emphasis on skills and knowledge. Even so, most leadership intervention studies do not clearly articulate what, if indeed any, learning has occurred. As mentioned previously, the recent meta-analysis of 200 leadership intervention studies conducted in the last 100 years revealed that fewer than half were based on direct training (the rest consist mainly of manipulation by scenarios, and role-plays; Reichard & Avolio, 2005). Additionally, 42% of the training in these studies occurred over a period of less than one day, while another 24% took place over periods from one to seven days in duration. It appears counterintuitive that training for a complex skill like leadership can successfully occur within a week or less.

An earlier conceptualization of learning by Säljö (1979) identified five categories of learning: (1) a quantitative increase in knowledge and the acquisition of information; (2) memorization for subsequent reproduction; (3) the acquisition of facts, skills, and methods for subsequent use; (4) making sense or abstracting meaning so as to relate parts of the subject matter to other parts and to the real world; and (5) (re)interpretation of knowledge leading to a different understanding of reality.

Subsequent learning scholars have identified the first three categories as constituents of what is commonly known as "surface learning" and the latter two as "deep learning" (Biggs, 1999; Ramsden, 1992). This taxonomy of categories of learning corresponds rather closely to most leadership development conceptualizations, such as the one adopted by Maurer (2002).

It is quite likely that most leadership training may have focused on a "surface learning" approach. Evaluations of whether new leadership skills are acquired are often measured by leadership scales derived from the associated leadership theory. These scales tend to measure observable behaviors of the new skills, which are conceptually similar to the third category of learning proposed by Säljö (1979). Such a focus reflects the emphasis on surface learning.

A popular framework used for leadership training evaluation is the one proposed by Kirkpatrick (1994). There are four levels of evaluation in the Kirkpatrick model. At level 1, trainees are evaluated on their affective reactions to the training. At level 2, trainees are evaluated on the increase in content knowledge. At level 3, trainees are evaluated on the extent to which they have applied their learning and changed their behaviors. Finally, at level 4, trainees are evaluated on the attainment of desired organizational or business outcomes as a result of the changed behaviors. With each level of training evaluation, it becomes increasingly resource-intensive and time-consuming to accomplish the evaluation. For example, at levels 1 and 2, typical evaluations consist of post-training feedback and knowledge content assessments. At level 3, however, the behavioral assessments may take the form of lengthy interviews or multi-source feedback. Hence, it is not surprising that the two main meta-analytic evaluations of managerial training conducted in the last 20 years found that Kirkpatrick's level 2 outcomes of learning remain the primary focus of many programs (Burke & Day, 1986; Collins & Holton, 2004). Hence, we can conclude that surface learning is the main focus of most leadership training.

"Deep learning," on the other hand, places an emphasis on the internal dynamics of the person, whereby he or she relates knowledge from different domains as well as experiences and integrates them into a larger whole (Ramsden, 1988). Unlike surface learning that focuses on the overt signs of the behaviors and skills to be mastered, deep learning goes beyond these overt signs to what is being signified (i.e., meanings, context, assumptions, etc.) to achieve a better understanding of what is to be learned.

In the context of leadership development, deep learning must therefore have an impact on one's implicit understanding of leadership, one's self-concept,

1   and one's role as a leader (Engle & Lord, 1997; Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz,
2   1994). As long as surface learning remains the focus of leadership development,
3   we are restricted to evaluating training at the affective (level 1) and knowledge
4   transfer (level 2) levels of Kirkpatrick's (1994) four levels of training evalua-
5   tion. Only when deep learning has occurred can leadership development be
6   evaluated in terms of the extent to which new learning has being transferred
7   to daily practice (level 3) and to eventual performance impact and return on
8   investment (level 4).

WHAT CONSTITUTES GENUINE/AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT?

14   Thus far, we have concluded that in order for leader or leadership development
15   to occur, there must be evidence of leadership-related learning at both a surface
16   and a deep level. We also asserted that it is likely that much of leadership devel-
17   opment today has been limited to a surface level of learning, with little impact
18   on deep knowledge structures. There have been claims that many leadership
19   development efforts have been instituted without demonstrating evidence for
20   real development (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005). In view of this, we
21   must ask what exactly constitutes authentic leadership development.
22   In essence, for leadership development to be more authentic, it must demon-
23   strate a change in leadership that has an impact on real performance. What this
24   means is that the roadmap for the development of one's leadership needs to
25   be guided by sound theories of leadership that have demonstrated empirical
26   evidence of performance impact. It also means that an integral component of
27   any leadership development effort needs to make serious attempts to measure
28   whether the developmental manipulation (e.g., training or feedback) has been
29   successful, based on some form of evaluation framework, such as Kirkpatrick's
30   (1994) training evaluation framework mentioned previously. Only then is it
31   possible to ascertain systematically the nature and extent of changes in per-
32   formance that can be attributed validly to the training and development in-
33   tervention targeted at improvements in leadership. Such changes in leadership
34   need to reflect accelerated development over and above the natural growth of
35   the leader. Leaders naturally grow and mature as they progress through life.
36   With age comes experience, and experience is a great learning tool (Kolb,
37   1984) as well as a great leadership development intervention in and of itself
38   (Cianciolo, Antonakis, & Sternberg, 2004; Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, & Rickers,
39   2001). The primary challenge of authentic leadership development, therefore,
40   is to demonstrate that the intervention has improved leadership development
41   faster than life's natural intervention. As discussed above, it is highly desirable
42   in this connection that such accelerated learning should go beyond surface
43   learning. A key aspect of this "deeper learning and development" concerns the
44   leader's identity, and effective training and development interventions should

1 culminate in enhanced meta-cognitive skills and abilities (i.e., greater self-
2 awareness and self-regulation) on the part of the leader.
3   A theory of leadership development proposed by Lord and Hall (2005) based
4 on deep learning and the role of leader identity has already been presented
5 earlier. As reviewed in the section on leadership theories, the theoretical foun-
6 dations for the impact of identity for leadership stemmed mainly from work by
7 Lord and colleagues on implicit theories, mental models, and follower values
8 and self-concept (Lord, 1985; Lord & Brown, 2001; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg,
9 1999; Lord & Emrich, 2000). In focusing on a natural characteristic of growth
10 (i.e., identity development) and providing a theoretical framework to under-
11 stand the acceleration of natural learning, centered on deep learning outcomes,
12 Lord and Hall's theory of leadership development represents an example of
13 what makes for a more authentic approach toward leadership development.

At What Level of Analysis Does Authentic Leadership Development Occur?

18 Another requirement for genuine leadership development to occur is the need
19 to clarify the levels of analysis at which training and development initiatives
20 should most appropriately be targeted. Broadly speaking, levels of analysis is-
21 sues in research refer to the need for correct specification of a phenomenon
22 at the appropriate level of theoretical formulation, and matching the explo-
23 ration of the phenomenon at the same level of operationalization and mea-
24 surement (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Dansereau, Yammarino,
25 & Markham, 1995; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).
26   The review on leaders and leadership development in the previous section
27 alluded to the fact that leadership can and does occur at different levels of
28 theoretical formulation, depending on how leadership has been defined. More
29 often than not, prior authors suggest that leadership exists simultaneously at
30 multiple levels (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Dansereau & Yammarino, 1998; Klein
31 & House, 1998; Schriesheim, Cogliser, & Neider, 1995; Yammarino & Bass,
32 1990; Yammarino & Bass, 1991). Consequently, leadership development ef-
33 forts must likewise clearly specify the appropriate level (or multiple levels) in
34 which to affect the leadership phenomenon (Chan, 2005; Hunt & Ropo, 1995).
35 In what has been described thus far, it is likely that leadership development will
36 always operate at a minimum of three levels of analysis, which would include
37 the leader, the led, and the situation or organizational context.

Re-emphasizing the Follower in the Leadership Development Process

42 Leadership is relational, and is about influencing and influences in relation-
43 ships (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Traditionally, this
44 influence is perceived as unidirectional, from the leader to the follower. For

1   example, earlier theories of leader–member exchange cast the leader as a dif-
2   ferentiator of dyadic relationships between the leader and selected followers,
3   reflecting the fact that followers in the in-group are given much greater lati-
4   tude and freedom of action by the leader (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen &
5   Uhl-Bien, 1995b).
6   The composition and nature of the followers/leader constituency can directly
7   affect what kind of leadership is needed and how the leader ought to behave,
8   as well as be developed (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995; Fiedler, 1967).
9   As an example, the path–goal theory of leadership (Evans, 1996; House, 1971;
10 House & Mitchell, 1974) acknowledges the impact of follower characteristics
11 on leadership effectiveness: Followers with high internal locus of control would
12 better appreciate leaders who are participative, while followers with external
13 locus of control benefit more from directive leadership. As another example,
14 charismatic leadership theories operationalize charisma in terms of follower
15 reactions to leaders (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, &
16 Arthur, 1993), while transformational leaders are considerate to the individual
17 needs and differences among followers (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bass & Avolio,
18 1990). According to Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988), the extent to which
19 a leader is even seen as charismatic depends on the attributions made by fol-
20 lowers, which may also relate to their implicit notions of what constitutes such
21 leadership.
22   In sum, followers can have a profound impact on leadership. Therefore, the
23 type of followers that a leader works with form the most immediate context that
24 needs to be considered in the design of any intervention seeking to facilitate
25 genuine leadership development.
26
27
28   **Who Is the Follower Anyway?**
29 While followers can affect leadership, followers can also become leaders. There
30 are other conceptualizations of leadership that have sought to loosen the dis-
31 tinction between the leader and the led. For example, self-leadership theory
32 specified that when followers are knowledgeable, skilled for the task at hand,
33 and motivated, they can exercise self-leadership and alleviate the need for for-
34 mal supervision (Manz & Sims, 1980, 1987). Shared leadership proposes lat-
35 eral influences among peers as additional agents of influence over and above
36 traditional vertical influence from the supervisor (Cox, Pearce, & Perry, 2003;
37 Pearce & Sims, 2000).
38   The above approaches allude to the fact that under certain conditions, fol-
39 lowers take on the role of traditional leaders. Hence, if we were to adopt a
40 developmental perspective and view followers as leaders in the making, then it
41 becomes necessary to understand how such followers eventually develop into
42 leaders, and to incorporate them into the leadership development process.
43   Here, a social identity approach to leadership may offer some useful insights
44 for how followers evolve their identities to become leaders. For example, Hogg's

social identity approach to leadership informs us that (1) followers who best fit the behaviors of leaders become nominated as leaders; (2) such leader-prototypical behaviors can be learned and reinforced by other followers; (3) hence, leadership emergence and development involve followers who are most able to mimic leader-appropriate behaviors (Fielding & Hogg, 1997; Hains, Hogg, & Duck, 1997; Hogg, 2001).

This social identity perspective enriches Lord and Hall's (2005) theory of leadership development reviewed earlier, which alluded to identity develop-ment as a key component of the skill development process, as leaders grow from novice to expert. Clearly, part of this identity development entails the acquisition of the prototypical leadership behaviors required for leadership emergence and acceptance. It also entails achieving increasing levels of self-efficacy. In seeking to develop what constitutes leadership in their followers, extant leaders can play an important role by shaping their self-concepts and identities, particularly their self-construal and self-efficacy beliefs, through re-peated leadership enactments, as reviewed earlier (see also van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004).

In sum, genuine leadership development must focus on followers. This is because they directly influence the type of desirable leadership to be devel-oped. Another reason for their inclusion is that they are potential leaders in the making, whose development is influenced by the leadership practices to which they are exposed.

Beyond the Leader–Led Distinction: Leadership as an Emergent Construct

An approach that moves completely away from the leader/follower distinc-tion stems from the notion of relational leadership, as opposed to the "en-tity" perspective (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Whereas the entity perspective maintains the leader–led distinction intact, the focus being on how individuals in their respective roles can enhance their respective relational values (e.g., Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000), the relational perspective conceives of leadership as a social construction, inseparable from the context in which interactions oc-cur, irrespective of whether or not particular individuals are formally appointed as leaders. According to Hunt and Dodge (2000, p. 448), the relational per-spective "recognizes leadership wherever it occurs; it is not restricted to a single or even a small set of formal or informal leaders; and, in its strongest form, functions as a dynamic system embedding leadership, environmental, and or-ganizational aspects." In other words, according to this perspective, leadership exists not because of the presence of individuals in positions of influence. It ex-ists when there is communication and dialogue between participants that leads to organization, and a promotion of the common good within a given context. Because this social interaction can occur at, within and between various levels, and between multiple groups within the organization, leadership according to

1 the relational perspective must be viewed as a multi-level phenomenon. Since
2 leadership within this conception is regarded as a social construction, leader-
3 ship development should not just be focused on individual leaders themselves.
4 On the contrary, in keeping with the above discussion on followers, all agents
5 within a given context are important participants in the leadership process
6 and merit attention. However, the primary focus of attention arising from the
7 relational perspective is on activities directed to the enhancing the quality of
8 interactions among agents (Uhl-Bien, 2003).
9   Summing up this entire section on the ingredients of authentic leadership de-
10 velopment, we propose that for leadership development to be considered more
11 authentic it needs to have a demonstrable impact on criteria of effectiveness that
12 matter to the organization concerned. Growth and development outcomes aris-
13 ing from interventions seeking to facilitate authentic leadership development
14 must also occur at deeper levels and at rates faster than life's natural interven-
15 tions. Reflecting the multi-level nature of organizations, authentic leadership
16 development interventions can potentially affect individual, dyadic, group, and
17 organizational processes and outcomes, and should incorporate more fully the
18 role of the follower. In the next section, we review a body of work that has laid
19 essential building blocks on which to develop a more comprehensive theory of
20 leadership development that might ultimately meet these requirements.
21
22
23   **AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT**
24   **(ALD) THEORY**
25
26   **A Short History of ALD**
27 In recent years, a theory of authentic leadership development has been ad-
28 vanced. It first began with popular writers, who coined the label "authentic"
29 to describe a type of leader who is courageous (Terry, 1993), principled and
30 able to navigate his or her organization through turbulent and chaotic times
31 (Abdullah, 1995), build lasting organizations (George, 2003), and develops
32 others (Villani, 1999). In parallel, a popular theory of leadership, namely
33 transformational leadership theory, was undergoing a fundamental concep-
34 tual rethink, amid debates concerning the question of whether a leader can
35 be transformational but also unethical. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) introduced
36 the label "authentic transformational leadership" to distinguish genuine trans-
37 formational leaders from psuedo-transformational leaders. The latter manifest
38 transformational behaviors but lack the necessary ethical development. Given
39 that authenticity itself is a construct that has received some attention in psychol-
40 ogy (Harter, 2002), this distinction between authentic and inauthentic leaders
41 spurred some management scholars to explore the ethical component of au-
42 thentic leadership (May et al., 2003). Interest in incorporating authenticity as
43 a valid leadership construct began in earnest when the authentic leadership
44 framework was proposed.

What is ALD?

Avolio, Gardner, and Walumbwa (2005, p. 12) defined authentic leadership development as a process that "draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context to foster greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, producing positive self-development in each" (see also Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). According to Avolio, Gardner, and Walumbwa (2005, p. 13) such leaders know who they are and what they believe in, display transparency and consistency between their values, ethical reasoning, and actions, focus on developing positive psychological states such as confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience within themselves and their associates, and are widely known and respected for their integrity.

Figure 6.1 provides a foundational view of the authentic leadership development process, as viewed from the perspective of the individual leader. The figure is meant to be a starting point for building a more sophisticated multi-level model of authentic leadership development. For parsimony, omitted from the diagram is any consideration of follower development, which in essence mirrors the process depicted for the leader. Omitted also is any consideration of the impact of followers' behaviors on the leader's development. As can be seen, the model emphasizes that leadership is a continuous process of becoming, which occurs potentially across the entire life-span. At the core of this process is the individual's self-concept, a key building block around which past and present experiences are organized.

ALD Challenges and the Way Forward

Building on the proposed model in Figure 6.1, an important first step that must be taken is to understand the internal dynamics of the individual and the
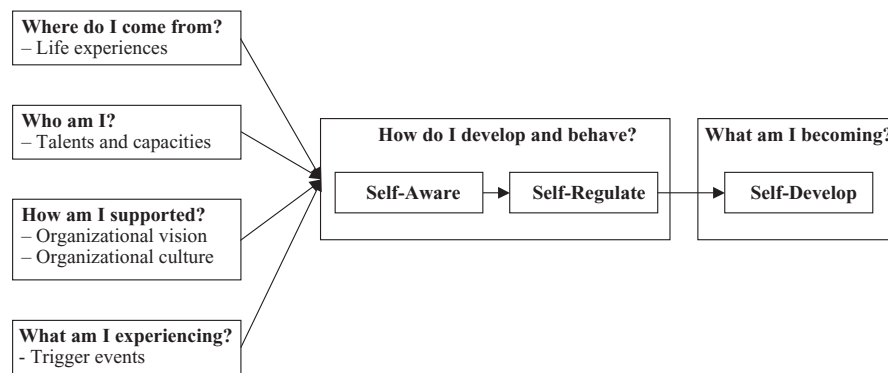

Figure 6.1 The leadership development process as viewed from the perspective of the individual leader.

1 context in which that individual is embedded over time. In terms of focusing
2 on internal dynamics, by targeting the psychological resources and capacities
3 of the individual leader one has to recognize that leaders start out at different
4 points in terms of what can be developed. Hence, it is more meaningful from
5 this perspective to chart development using the individual person rather than
6 norms as the yardstick. Such an approach is akin to the *ipsative* approach in
7 measurement theory, in which more meaning is attributed to within-person
8 change using the person as the yardstick, rather than comparing the change
9 against established norms (Saville & Wilson, 1991). An example of this ap-
10 proach is articulated by Shamir and Eilam (2005), who exhorted authentic
11 leadership development to move away from measuring normative behaviors to
12 measuring unique identities and their development through such strategies as
13 the telling of one's individual life story.
14   Because authentic leadership development is new, the best research methods
15 to approach its investigation are still under development. It presents several
16 significant methodological challenges, not least the need to incorporate more
17 longitudinal research, recognize more the individual differences of leaders and
18 take them into account when tracking their development.
19
20
21   ## WHAT WILL BE THE NEXT GREAT ADVANCES
22   IN LEADERSHIP?
23
24 Thus far, this discussion on leadership development has not addressed current
25 trends faced by leaders in organizations. We would like to highlight two such
26 trends that have a fundamental effect on what will constitute effective and
27 genuine leadership development.
28
29
30   ### Global Mindset
31 First, genuine leadership development needs to take into account the in-
32 creasingly global nature of today's organizations. Leaders are increasingly en-
33 gaged in organizations that span multiple borders. Consequently, contempo-
34 rary leaders are in greater need of global mindsets (Gupta & Govindarajan,
35 2002; Murtha, Lenway, & Bagozzi, 1998). Leaders with global mindsets, also
36 known as "transnational mentality" (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1998), are willing to
37 learn and are able to adapt more readily to environmental changes (Estienne,
38 1997). They possess high levels of conceptualization skills, such as the ability
39 to handle complexity and appreciate the impact of cultural and social forces
40 on business (Kefalas, 1998; Tichy *et al.*, 1992). In addition, they are vision-
41 ary (Harveston, Kedia, & Davis, 2000), have high levels of problem-solving
42 skills and abilities, and can make sense of ambiguous or ill-defined situations
43 (Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Mumford & Connelly, 1991; Schwandt,
44 2005).

1   Developing such leaders presents a fresh set of challenges. First, it com-
2   pels us to pay even more attention to ensuring that leadership development
3   interventions are devised with due regard to the demands of the situational
4   context. As noted earlier, effective leaders take the organizational context into
5   account (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Tosi, 1991), but increasingly that context
6   is more complex in nature, being multi-layered, spanning diverse cultures and
7   nationalities. Moreover, increasingly multiple individual, organizational, and
8   national identities are at play. It is true that some aspects of leadership are
9   cross-culturally generalizable (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999). However, the need
10   for cross-cultural examinations of leadership remains (House *et al.*, 2002). In
11   the absence of more cross-cultural research on leadership, finding the right
12   blend of leadership attributes for any given set of contexts will be a challenge
13   indeed.
14
15
16   **Technology**
17   The second trend facing leaders is technology proliferation. Leadership ex-
18   pressed through virtual media is qualitatively different and poses differ-
19   ent challenges from traditional face-to-face leader–constituent interactions
20   (Avolio, Kahai, & Dumdum, 2001; Zaccarro & Bader, 2003). Hence, lead-
21   ership development needs to take into account the increasingly technologi-
22   cal operating environment confronting leaders. This manifests itself in various
23   ways, such as the greater proliferation of virtual team set-ups, working in teams
24   comprising members from different geographic locations, brought together to
25   work on short-lived projects and then dismantled, and working in a technology-
26   saturated operating environment.
27   What are some of the issues that come to the forefront as a result of the
28   introduction of such new technology and work practices? These issues include
29   how one develops leaders to work across time, distance, and culture simul-
30   taneously. Additionally, we might ask what constitutes "distance" when one
31   leads through technology (Howell, Neufeld, & Avolio, 2005). Does the use
32   of technology mediate physical distance, making social distance less extreme
33   when working virtually? What about issues of trust and trust development?
34   How does working with temporary teams affect the need for swiftly developing
35   trust (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996)?
36   We also suggest that technology can be used to enhance leadership develop-
37   ment in context. For example, one can offer very short face-to-face leadership
38   development interventions that can be boosted over time via portable technol-
39   ogy (Luthans *et al.*, 2006). For instance, a three-day training program can be
40   reconfigured to a one-day face-to-face training program, followed by boosters
41   consisting of reflection questions sent to the trainee via mobile devices after the
42   trainee returns to work. Such an approach may have a more positive impact on
43   transferring training to the work context, supporting adaptive reflection and
44   reinforcing behavioral changes.

1   **INTEGRATION AND CONCLUSIONS**
2

3   In the two decades since the last review in this series on leadership, by Fiedler
4   and House (1988), the amount of leadership research has outnumbered all
5   leadership research in the previous 80 years (Reichard & Avolio, 2005). Yet
6   for all that we know about leadership, empirical research on leadership devel-
7   opment remains scarce. In their meta-analytic review of 70 studies conducted
8   from 1952 to 1982 on managerial training effectiveness, Burke and Day (1986)
9   concluded that while managerial training was moderately effective, more em-
10   pirical research was needed. In a follow-up meta-analysis of 83 studies from
11   1982 to 2001, Collins and Holton (2004) similarly echoed the need for more
12   clarity on the effectiveness of managerial training, especially the lack of sys-
13   tematic evaluation of training programs with organizational performance as an
14   outcome. They also remarked that the majority of the studies reviewed did not
15   elaborate on the type of needs assessment (if any) that was conducted prior
16   to implementing managerial training. Not surprisingly, they concluded that
17   some of the training programs could have incorporated leadership dimensions
18   that were inappropriate for the organization. Finally, they recommended that
19   training objectives need to be tailored to directly affect the implementation of
20   the organization's strategic plans.
21   These recommendations provide sound advice for the way forward regarding
22   the use of measures of return on leadership development. First, leadership de-
23   velopment needs to incorporate a measure of return on development (ROD)
24   in monetary terms (Avolio & Luthans, 2006), in order to get organizations
25   seriously to consider investing in deep change. Having such an index or mea-
26   sure will hopefully compel organizations to invest in leadership development
27   programs that are based on more rigorous training needs analyses, and to be
28   more cost-effective in terms of the types of leadership interventions selected,
29   to be more systematic regarding how the resultant performance improvements
30   are measured, and to assess the perceived value of such improvements vis-à-
31   vis the development investments made; in short, to make better decisions for
32   future investments in leadership development.
33   A second point concerns a common request by clients for the "best" lead-
34   ership development program "out there." There is no such thing. The best
35   leadership development program is yet to be devised, because our understand-
36   ing of leadership development is incomplete, and our theories of leadership
37   development are still at an embryonic stage.
38   Regarding theories of leadership development, we noted at the outset that
39   many theories make a conceptual distinction between "leaders" and "leader-
40   ship development," the general consensus being that it is not a case of either/or,
41   but incorporating both of these notions, with due regard also to the operating
42   context. Nonetheless, we believe that the context in which leaders operate needs
43   to receive more conceptual and empirical attention. In our review, the Leader-
44   ship Skill Strataplex model of leadership by Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson

(2007) was an example of a leadership development framework that attempted to incorporate organizational variables. Their framework mapped out the different skills that are needed by leaders across levels of organizational hierarchy. What about leaders within the same level of hierarchy who may be called on to operate differently across time? For example, military leaders need to demonstrate more managerial qualities in times of peace, but more leadership qualities in times of chaos and tension. Another example is top management teams, who are required to demonstrate different aspects of strategic leadership in times of stability as opposed to times of growth or change, as in the case of mergers or acquisitions. What theoretical framework can we call on to develop such leaders and their followers in these sorts of situations?

Going back to the issue of determining a good leadership development program, we believe that programs that incorporate a measure of return on development, described earlier, are safer bets than those without. This is because such a measure forces the leadership development program designer to show proof of the predictive validity of the leadership development interventions. It also will likely garner more support for transfer of training, if the managers back in the organization realize the real costs of success and failure.

From another perspective, the "best" development program may simply be the one that has been executed well. Pragmatically speaking, there are many factors that stand in the way of the effective implementation of leadership development interventions, such as the extent of management support, the degree of organizational readiness for change, the individual's motivation to develop, and the extent of organizational support for such development (London & Maurer, 2004). In practice, those individuals responsible for leadership development interventions need to be cognizant of these "ground-level" constraints, which lie outside the theoretical considerations of many leadership development approaches.

Finally, the onus of leadership development in organizations traditionally falls on the shoulders of human resource practitioners, and is typically viewed as an expensive cost item (Training, 2005). This perception needs to change. Leadership development must no longer be viewed as an expense item, but as an investment strategy. To help managers negotiate this perspective shift, the resources expended on leadership development need to be translated to the same metric of comparison as the benefits reaped. Measuring return on development can help managers better visualize the net gains made from investing in leadership development.

In conclusion, notwithstanding the call by Collins and Holton (2004) for more empirical studies of managerial training, it is encouraging to note that their meta-analysis reported more primary studies (83 studies over 19 years) compared to the one by Burke and Day (1986; 70 studies over 30 years). It is also encouraging that in contrast to the managerial training programs uncovered by Burke and Day (1986), Collins and Holton (2004) remarked that the studies they uncovered had a wider focus that moved beyond mere

knowledge acquisition to higher-order outcomes, such as the impact on the worldviews of leaders and their organizations. Finally, it is also encouraging to note that although there is still no theory of leadership development that has been comprehensively validated empirically, as demonstrated in this review there are a number of useful building blocks at various stages of development and validation that have laid suitable foundations for this endeavor.

The timing is propitious for putting forth new models and tests of genuine leadership development. On a global basis, we are entering a period that will likely be labeled the "war for leadership talent." Why? Because in the most successful economies an unprecedented number of senior leaders will soon depart, as the baby boom generation enters retirement. Unless we figure out how to accelerate genuine leadership development, there is no doubt that the competition for a limited pool of talented leaders will increase, and, perhaps more problematic, more individuals not ready for leadership roles will be promoted prematurely. The time for authentic leadership development is now.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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