Can Leadership Be Developed by Applying Leadership Theories? : An Examination of Three Theory-based Approaches to Leadership Development

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CAN LEADERSHIP BE DEVELOPED BY APPLYING LEADERSHIP THEORIES?: AN EXAMINATION OF THREE THEORY-BASED APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

By

Joshua C. Laguerre

An Honors Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Honors in

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Rhode Island College

2010
Can Leadership Be Developed?

Abstract

The objective of this study is to investigate whether leadership can be developed by applying leadership theories through conducting a critical literature review of the effectiveness of three theory-based leadership development approaches drawn from academic literature: Fiedler’s Contingency Model, the Transformational Leadership Theory, and the Authentic Leadership Theory. Empirical studies testing the application of these theories was obtained and reviewed for evidence of efficacy in leadership development. The conclusion of the study indicates that leadership can be generated utilizing each of the three theories, however an overall framework for developing leadership has yet to be created. A possible framework for developing leadership based on transformational leadership and authentic leadership is offered.
Introduction

Can leadership be developed? This is the million dollar question, and I have been searching for the answer since the Fall of 2009. Ever since I was young I’ve always been attracted to the topic of leadership and this interest stems from my own life experiences. My father is an ordained minister, practicing as a pastor in Rhode Island since I was born. When I was a young child he would take me around to his meetings with other pastors, members of the church, and members of the community. From this early introduction to leadership, I was able to learn his leadership style, as well as the leadership styles of others I met. Whether the situation was stressful, controlled, or uncertain, I took note of how different leaders approached different situations. The key lesson that I learned was that leadership is a choice. People choose to apply leadership, whereas they could easily choose to follow. If a leader does decide to choose the leadership path there are many different issues they will face. My key observation was that the leaders I most admired and believed were effective were those who were consistent with their values, kept their word, and actively built caring relationships.

As I grew older I continued to observe other leaders, and began serving as the leader of various groups myself. For example, I have been dubbed the unofficial leader of the youth group of my church ever since I was 12 years old, and although I’m the second oldest child, I’ve always been the leader/spokesman for my siblings. In high school and college, my leadership roles have increased, including Vice President of National Society of Collegiate Scholars, President of Student Government at Rhode Island College, and being selected for College Leadership Rhode Island, so when thinking about a topic to pursue for this honors project, I found it only fitting that I research a topic that I’m very familiar with from a practical perspective: leadership.
Prior to my journey into leadership research, I believed that leadership was something that could be developed, something that a person could be trained to do well. However in the process of searching for the answer to my original question I learned there is a diversity of opinion on many things about leadership that never crossed my mind, including the definition of leadership and the range of leadership theories that have been offered. I learned that there isn’t one generally accepted definition of leadership and that the stable of leadership theories continues to grow.

**History of Leadership Research**

Curiosity about the topic of leadership has existed throughout history; however the topic of leadership as a subject of scientific study did not begin until the 1930’s and 1940’s. According to Yukl (2010) the understanding of leadership behavior since the 1950’s “has followed the pattern set by the pioneering research programs at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan” (p. 45). During this time leadership theorists were interested in effective leadership behavior, and measured how often leaders used these behaviors. Such research indicated that two broad categories of leader behavior existed: behaviors focused on task accomplishment and those focused on developing relationships with followers.

In the 1960’s and 1970’s leadership theorists began to focus on how leaders make decisions, particularly on issues such as participation of and delegation to followers. The relationship between the leader and the follower were also explored, such as whether the leader changed their behavior for different followers. Theories and ideas introduced during this development period include the Leader-Member Exchange theory, implicit leadership theories, impression management concepts and self-management concepts.
Again, the interest shifted towards power as theorists wanted to learn more about how leaders influenced people to carry out requests. What resulted was the acknowledgement of different types of power: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power. Different influence tactics were also found: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange, collaboration, personal appeals, ingratiation, legitimating tactics, pressure and coalition tactics.

In the 1960’s and 1970’s leadership theorists were also interested in “aspects of the situation that enhance or nullify the effects of a leader’s traits or behavior” (Yukl, 2010, p. 224). The first of these theories includes Fiedler’s Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Contingency Model, followed by the Path-Goal Theory of leadership, Situational Leadership Theory, Leadership Substitutes Theory, Multiple-Linkage Model, and Cognitive Resource Theory (in the 1980’s).

Moreover in the 1980’s, researchers became interested in the “emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership” (Yukl, 2010, p. 260). The theories of charismatic and transformational leadership were developed. Debates about the distinction between leadership and management also occurred. This issue tended to recur because some researchers could not delineate the difference between leadership and management. Examples of ideas that were researched during this phase included research on cross-functional teams, self-managed teams, virtual teams, member skill and role clarity.

In the 1990’s and 2000’s as organizational failures attributed to unethical decision making increased, interest in ethical leadership and influence on leader values and integrity grew. What resulted from this focus on ethics were: Ethical Leadership, Transforming Leadership, Servant Leadership, Spiritual Leadership, and Authentic Leadership. There was also
an increased interest in studying leadership in non-Western cultures, and leadership differences among women and men.

**Leadership Defined**

Although there has been much investigation in the study and practice of leadership, there still isn’t a generally accepted definition of leadership. In a popular textbook on leadership, Yukl (2010) defined leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8). Yukl’s definition states that leadership includes efforts to influence and facilitate the current work of the group, and it also ensures that the group is ready to meet future challenges.

Although Yukl’s definition is comprehensive, there are many researchers whose definitions of leadership focus more narrowly. For example, Hemphill & Coons (1957) believe leadership is, “the behavior of an individual directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal” (p. 7). Katz and Kahn (1978) believe leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organization” (p. 528). The reason for the varying definitions is because researchers define leadership according to their own perspective, the areas of leadership that most interest them, and the specific aspects of leadership they attempt to explore. A consequence of this is that when conducting leadership studies, different leadership researchers select different definitions of leadership so as to eliminate any confusion in the interpretation of their research results. This can lead to difficulty in interpreting results across studies to understand the broader topic of leadership. Because of the conceptual ambiguity, leadership may never be defined in a way that all researchers agree on.
The choice of a definition of leadership is of critical importance to leadership development. After all, one has to know specifically what is being developed. For the purposes of this paper, the definition of leadership I will use is Yukl’s definition of leadership, because it focuses on leadership as a process, and addresses activities I believe are critical to a leader successfully fulfilling their responsibilities, namely involving others to understand and agree upon a common goal and plan, and working to accomplish collective and individual objectives.

Methodology

During the Fall of 2009 I began my investigation of leadership. The main text that provided me with introductory knowledge of leadership was Yukl’s (2010) “Leadership in Organizations,” supplemented by a variety of readings from other sources. I chose to use a theory-based approach to leadership because it clearly defines what the scholar proposes leadership is, how leadership works, and offers implications for how leadership may be developed. The main criteria for selecting a theory consisted of the fact that the leadership theory has been sufficiently developed and researched, it offers specific implications for leadership development, and has a focus on leadership that I was curious about and resonates with my life experience.


A critical literature review method was chosen to analyze each theory. Articles to include in the review were identified by various online databases, for example Psych Info and EBSCO, conducting keyword searches for relevant leadership research as well as searching relevant reference lists. Examples of terms used in the keyword search include the explicit names of each
theory, leadership theory, leadership development, etc. Articles were then examined and analyzed to identify the methods that were used to develop leadership and any evidence that addressed the efficacy of these approaches. The next three sections of the paper present the results of that examination for each of the three theories.

Fiedler’s Contingency Model

*What the Theory Proposes about leadership and how it works:*

The contingency model was created by Fred Fiedler (1964, 1967), an organizational behavioral scholar. Fiedler’s model is a situational model of leadership and one of the earliest models that clearly articulates how to develop leaders. Fiedler’s LPC contingency model is based on the assumption that “the performance of a leader depends on two interrelated factors: (1) the degree to which the situation gives the leader control and influence—that is, the likelihood that the leader can successfully accomplish the job and (2) the leader’s basic motivation—that is, whether the leader’s self-esteem depends primarily on accomplishing the task or on having close supportive relations with others” (Fiedler, 1967, p. 29). Fiedler believes that leaders are either primarily task motivated or relationship motivated, which forms the basis for a leadership style that is resistant to change. To be effective, Fiedler believes a leader must learn to mold or change the leadership situation in order to create a match between their leadership style and the amount of control with the situation at hand.

*Key Concepts and Their Measurement*

A leader’s style is assessed using a trait measure called the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale. The LPC scale is a projective measure made up of 18 items containing bipolar adjectives. Instructors ask the leader to consider all their past and present coworkers, and to select the one coworker which the leader could work least well with. They then rate this person
based on a set of opposing positions such as the extent to which the coworker is cheerful of gloomy. A leader who is highly critical of their least preferred coworker would obtain a low LPC score, whereas a leader who was cared more about their relationship with their coworker would obtain a high LPC score.

Situational control is seen as having three aspects: leader-member relations, position power, and task structure. Table 1 defines each situational factor.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situational Variables:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leader-member relations</strong>: The extent to which subordinates are loyal, and relations with subordinates are friendly and cooperative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Position power</strong>: The extent to which the leader has authority to evaluate subordinate performance and administer rewards and punishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task structure</strong>: The extent to which standard operating procedures are in place to accomplish the task, along with a detailed description of the finished product or service and objective indicators of how well the task is being performed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The degree of situational control is a combination of scores yielded by a questionnaire that assesses each factor. Fiedler proposes eight combinations of the situational factors, which he calls octants (Table 2).

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Octant</th>
<th>L-M Relations</th>
<th>Task Structure</th>
<th>Position Power</th>
<th>Effective Leader</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Low LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Low LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Low LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>Low LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>High LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>High LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>High LPC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>High LPC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the model, the situation is most favorable for the leader when relations are good, task structure is highly structured, and position power is strong. According to Yukl (2010) the
least favorable position for the leader is when relations are poor, task structure is unstructured, and position power is weak.

**Developing leadership using the Leader Match Concept**

Based on the contingency model, the training program that can be used to develop leaders is Fiedler and Chemers’s (1984) **Leader Match Concept**. The Leader Match Concept is a self-study training manual, requiring 4-6 hours, that teaches individuals to identify their leadership styles, diagnose their leadership situation, and respond to situational factors for effective leadership. Fiedler and Chemers’s (1984) recommended order for the Leader Match concept is shown below.

**Step 1: Evaluate Leadership Style using the LPC scale**

**Step 2: Evaluate Leadership Situation using self-report questionnaires in the Leader Match book**

- Leader-Member Relations
- Task Structure
- Position Power
- Computing Situational Control

**Step 3: Match Leadership style with the Situation**

Which leadership style appropriately matches which situation according to Fiedler (1984) is clarified below.

1. Task motivated (low LPC) leaders perform best in situations of high control or low control.
2. Relationship-motivated (high LPC) leaders perform best in situations of moderate control.

3. Moderate LPC leaders are much more difficult to describe. “Such leaders may tend to be perceived as isolated, less concerned about what others think, however more open to the environment. They enjoy situations in which there is high control, and don’t perform as well in situations of low control” (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984, p. 25). Fiedler states middle LPC individuals will need to “determine for themselves which LPC fits them best” (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984, p. 21). This can be problematic, because if a leader is seeking to learn about their leadership style, and they’re classified as a middle LPC leader, and there isn’t a clearly defined middle LPC group, then which grouping do these individuals belong to? Of course it’s easy to request middle LPC leaders to choose a grouping, either the high LPC group or low LPC group, however it is not an accurate process, and will lead to individuals in the wrong group, and therefore placing individuals in situations that does not suit their leadership style.

If the leader matches their leadership style with the appropriate situation, the leader is likely to improve their performance. Fiedler (1984) suggests that “if you learn to avoid situations which you are likely to fail, you’re bound to be a success” (p. 176).

The Fiedler Leader Match concept was created and geared towards individuals, which explains why Fiedler recommends leaders engineer their leadership situations that match their leadership style. For example, with a high control situation Fiedler (1984) recommends providing training and coaching, and providing support and high position power to a task motivated leader. However organizations could adapt Fiedler’s program and change situational elements within the organization to place leaders in situations which are the best fit.
Research on Theory and Attempts to Implement

Fiedler’s Leader Match program has been tested in a number of studies by different researchers, (e.g., Leister, Borden, & Fiedler, 1977; Csoka & Bons, 1978; Fiedler & Mahar, 1979) as well with a number of different individuals from different settings, including naval officers, public health volunteer leaders, urban county government managers, and college ROTC members. I will present the results of three illustrative empirical studies along with two important meta-analytic studies.

Fiedler and Mahar (1979) conducted a field experiment in which 46 Reserve Officers Training Corps programs at universities and colleges in the western region of the U.S. from nine schools were randomly selected for training, and nine schools for control. Fiedler’s Leader Match program was administered to cadets prior to attending their four week advanced summer camp. Cadet performance was rated by adviser ratings, peer ratings, and tactical ratings. The results for the officers that received training demonstrated that “cadets with Leader Match training received significantly higher performance ratings than cadets in the untrained groups” (p. 251).

Csoka and Bons (1978) reported the results of the two experiments using student military leaders as the subjects. In each study, there was a group that performed Leader Match training (n=27 and n=37, respectively) and attempted to manipulate their own leadership situation based on the prescribed contingency model match between their leader style and the favorableness of their situation. Subjects in the treatment group were matched against control groups over a 3-month and 6-week period, respectively. The first experiment hypothesized that subjects in the experimental group would have significantly higher performance rankings than those in the control group. The results indicate that subjects in the Leader Match training were significantly
more in the top third and less in the bottom third categories than subjects in the control group. The experimental subjects appear twice as often in the top third of the category. The results of the study demonstrate what Fiedler predicts will occur for those who experience the Leader Match training.

Leister, Borden and Fiedler (1977) also conducted an empirical evaluation of Fiedler’s Leader Match training program. Subjects in the study were 52 naval officers, 27 in the Leader Match training group and 29 in the untrained group. The criterion was performance ratings completed by superior officers. Results demonstrated statistically significant changes in ratings of trained versus the untrained group. Leister, Borden and Fiedler (1977) stated that “substantial improvement in performance can occur when leaders receive training with Leader Match” (p. 469).

Taken together these three studies support efficacy of applying Leader Match to improve leader performance.

Research on the theory and the Leadership Match concept has also been examined in two key meta-analytic studies, Strube and Garcia (1981) and Burke and Day (1986). Strube and Garcia (1981) examined 145 hypothesis tests attempting to validate Fiedler’s model, as well as the 33 results which were based on the tests Fiedler used to derive the contingency model. Results indicate support for some of the predictions that Fiedler suggests. For example, “overall support was found when field and laboratory studies were combined, however only Octants I and IV were supported at an acceptable level of significance” (p. 312). Strube and Garcia’s (1981) research is important because it examined and tested a large amount of research pertaining to Fiedler’s model, and support for the theory argues for further usage of the Leader Match concept.
Burke and Day (1986) explored the effectiveness of a range of management training interventions, including the Leader Match concept. In their study meta-analytic procedures were applied to the findings of 70 managerial training studies. The meta-analysis resulted from 34 distributions of managerial training effects representing six training content areas, seven training methods, and four types of criteria. The training content included general management programs, human relations/leadership programs, self-awareness programs, problem solving/decision making programs, rater training programs and motivation/values training programs. The training methods included lectures, group discussions, Leader Match, sensitivity training, and behavioral modeling. The training criteria consisted of subjective learning, objective learning, subjective behavior and objective results.

Table 3 provides descriptions of the studies on Leader Match training from Burke and Day (1986).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Sample description</th>
<th>Type of training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Csoka &amp; Bons (1978)</td>
<td>College ROTC military leaders</td>
<td>Self-paced workbook, Leader Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiedler &amp; Mahar (1979a) Study 1</td>
<td>Public health volunteer leaders</td>
<td>Self-paced workbook, Leader Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study 2</td>
<td>Same</td>
<td>Leader Match vs. alternative training program of similar format and length vs. control group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiedler &amp; Mahar (1979b)</td>
<td>College ROTC military leaders</td>
<td>Leader Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiedler, Mahar, &amp; Schmidt (1976) Study A</td>
<td>Urban county government middle managers</td>
<td>Leader Match, group discussion, audiovisual aids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study B</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study C</td>
<td>Public works supervisors</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leister, Borden, &amp; Fiedler (1977)</td>
<td>Naval officers</td>
<td>Leader Match, visual aids</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the meta-analysis revealed that on the whole the Leader Match training supports some of the predictions of improved performance. Specific to the question in my research, Burke and Day (1986) found that Fiedler’s Leader Match Program was effective in improving on the job behavior as measured by peer, supervisor, and trainee ratings of performance. Burke and Day (1986) argue that the Leader Match program is a method of leadership training to be strongly encouraged, because of its cost-effectiveness compared to other leadership training programs, and the effectiveness of this training method. These results combined with the conclusions of the Strube and Garcia (1981) analysis support the implementation of the Leader Match program.

**Criticisms and Concerns**

Although Fiedler’s Leader Match Program has received reasonable support from leadership researchers, concerns remain. For example, Mitchell et al. (1970) argue that there are a number of flaws with Fiedler’s program. A number of studies have not supported the interpretation of the LPC score as relating to task-versus relationship orientation. Fiedler (1987) himself revised the theory and created Cognitive Resource Theory, which proposes that the performance of the leader of a group is determined by the interaction between a leader’s intelligence and experience, type of leader behavior, and aspects of the leadership situation, which include interpersonal stress and the nature of the group’s task. The further development of Fiedler’s theory is important because it suggests that Fiedler’s original Leader Match concept doesn’t address all the necessary aspects of leadership. This is not to suggest that the Leader Match concept should be rejected, it merely demonstrates that there is more to leadership, and that Fiedler himself believes is the case.
Conclusion about the theory and what it tells about leadership development

It’s difficult to ignore the fact that Fiedler’s theory has been widely researched, and that research has yielded reasonable support for Fiedler’s predictions and the Leader Match program. Although Fiedler’s theory has received reasonable support, there are a number of issues that should be addressed. For example, much of the research on the Leader Match training program took place in a military setting. Also, the problem of relying on moderate LPC individuals to choose their appropriate grouping can yield misclassified actions. The fact that Fiedler offered Cognitive Resource Theory is recognition that there are other aspects of leadership that were missing from the original theory.

Lastly, Fiedler’s theory does not include what I believe what are two of the most important elements to leadership, which include motivating followers to go above and beyond expectations, as well as leaders being interested in the development of other leaders. This theme is picked up in the other two theories that are presented next.

Transformational Leadership and the Full Range Leadership Model

What the Theory Proposes about Leadership

Transformational leadership theory has been largely influenced by the work of James McGregor Burns (1978), who authored a best-selling book on political leadership, “Leadership,” and the research done by Bernard M. Bass (1985, 1996). The origins of interest in transformational leadership stemmed from the interest in charismatic leadership. According to Avolio (2010) charismatic leaders are “those who could energize followers through their use of symbols, images, stories, and rhetoric to perform at extraordinary levels” (p .4). They typically had a vision for a better future, and were willing to sacrifice everything to show to their followers how committed they were to achieving the vision. Burns incorporated a moral element
into leadership that was missing from charismatic leadership. According to Burns, transformational leaders are charismatic, inspiring, morally uplifting, and most importantly worked to develop followers into leaders themselves. Avolio (2010) reinforces this point. He states the main difference between charismatic and transformational leaders is that there could be positive charismatic leaders and negative charismatic leaders, whereas with transformational leaders are assumed to have a positive moral compass and are interested in the development of their followers into leaders. Transformational leaders “can produce significant organizational change and results because this form of leadership fosters higher levels of intrinsic motivation, trust, commitment, and loyalty from followers” (Antonakis and House, 2007, in Kinicki and Kreitner, 2009, p. 358).

An essential prerequisite to transformational leadership is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership stands in contrast to transformational leadership. According to Avolio and Yammarino (2002) transactional leadership “focuses on clarifying employees’ role and task requirements and providing followers with positive and negative rewards contingent on performance” (in Kinicki and Kreitner, 2009, p. 358). This seems to capture the kind of leadership that was the focus of many earlier leadership theories, including Fiedler’s theory and Path Goal theory.

Table 4 displays the relationship between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio argue that transformational leadership is the highest level of leadership that an individual can pursue.
### Table 4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational and Transactional Behaviors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence- behavior that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual consideration- includes providing support, encouragement, and coaching to followers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation- includes communicating an appealing vision, and using symbols to focus subordinate effort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation- behavior that increases follower awareness of problems and influences followers to view problem from a new perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent reward- includes clarification of the work required to obtain rewards and the use of incentives and contingent rewards to influence motivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active management by exception- defined in terms of looking for mistakes and enforcing rules to avoid mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive management by exception- includes use of contingent punishment and other corrective action in response to obvious deviations from acceptable performance standards.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Transformational leadership is important because of the follower outcomes that are produced if it is implemented effectively. These outcomes include trust towards the leader, admiration, loyalty, and respect. These outcomes are important because they help leaders lead, and ultimately accomplish goals. When a leader has the trust admiration, loyalty, and respect, of the follower, then the chances of followers accepting and committing to the goals of the leader are very high, therefore leaders would benefit from the results of transformational leadership.

Components of this theory have been widely researched for the last decade, and there is overall support of the theory (e.g., Yukl, 2010).

Bass and Avolio (2005) offered the Full Range Model of leadership as way to incorporate work on transactional and transformational leadership. According to Bass the leader transforms and motivates followers by, “(1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team, and (3) activating their higher-order needs” (Yukl, 2010, p. 275). For Bass (1985), transactional
and transformational leadership are distinct but not mutually exclusive. Transactional leadership “motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest and exchanging benefits” (Yukl, 2010, p. 261). Transformational leadership increases follower motivation and performance more than transactional leadership, but effective leaders use a combination of both types.

Figure 1 from AtWork Consulting (2010) displays the continuum from transactional leadership to transformational leadership.

*Figure 1*

**Full Range Diagram**

[Diagram available in the print version of this Honors Project, located in the collections of the James P. Adams Library, Rhode Island College, Providence, Rhode Island and at: http://www.atworkconsulting.com.au/page.asp?id=60]

To assess one’s classification as a transactional or transformational leader, the leader would take a behavior questionnaire called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The taxonomy was identified by factor analysis which is a useful statistical tool used to develop behavioral taxonomies. The current form of the MLQ(5X) contains “36 standardized items, four items assessing each of the nine leadership dimensions associated with the Full Range Leadership
model” (Bass and Riggio, 2006, p. 21) and nine additional outcome items. Sample items from the MLQ(5X) are listed in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Sample Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Attributed Charisma)</td>
<td>My leader instills pride in me for being associated with him or her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized Influence (Behaviors)</td>
<td>My leader specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several studies (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Berson & Avolio, 2004; Kirkbride, 2006; Mannheim & Halamish, 2008) have assessed the validity of MLQ. According to Yukl (2010) most of the studies found support for the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership as broad categories, but in some cases only after eliminating many weak items or entire subscales. Therefore such elimination of items and entire subscales weakens the support for the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership.

Tests of the theory’s predictions by Brown and Keeping (2005) found that transformational behaviors were all highly correlated with subordinate liking of the leader, and explained most of the effect of transformational leadership on outcomes. Therefore if followers/subordinates demonstrate a liking toward the leader, the leader has an increased likelihood of follower commitment and support, which are necessary to lead.

The majority of attempts include the initial evaluation of the leader via the MLQ, and then depending on the organization there would be follow up training to assist leaders to be transformational. The trainings took place in various settings (e.g., military, banking, prison) in the U.S. However, due to the transformational leadership theory being a contemporary theory there hasn’t been enough research to support a single framework for applying the theory to leadership development. Although this theory is still in development and testing there are a
number of commonalities in the implementation of the theory, which are addressed in the next section.

**Research on Theory and Attempts to Implement**

Some research suggests that the transformational leadership concept can be successfully utilized to develop transformational leaders. For example, Crookall (1989) conducted a controlled field experiment, using Canadian shop supervisors in minimum, medium, and maximum security prisons, called a Full Range Leadership Program (FLRP). The supervisors were evaluated with the MLQ by the inmates attending their class in their shop. They also received training after the assessment of their results. The design of the experiment tested the impact of the training programs on increasing the leadership of supervisors and its effectiveness in various industrial and vocational shops in the prison system. According to Crookall (1989) the “performances of both trained samples improved, in comparison to the three other groups of supervisors, those who were trained in transformational leadership did as well or better at improving productivity, attendance, and citizenship behavior among the inmates; they also won more respect from the inmates” (Crookall 1989, in Bass and Riggio, 2006, p. 159). This study demonstrates that transformational leadership development is effective even in non-traditional settings like prisons.

Barling, Weber and Kelloway (1996) conducted training for twenty bank managers in a large Canadian bank. Participants in the training group were evaluated with the MLQ, and other subordinates also took the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. After the assessments, nine managers were involved in a training session that familiarized the participant with the transformational leadership concept, followed by individual one-to-one booster sessions in which the trainers assisted in the development of personal development plans. Five months later, data
was collected on the branch employee’s perception of the managers’ leadership and their organizational commitment, in addition to two measures of branch financial performance. Results from the study demonstrated that “subordinates of trained leaders reported significantly more positive perceptions of leaders, and higher organizational commitment” (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996, p.830). Specifically managers receiving training were perceived by their subordinates as higher on intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration than subordinates of managers in the no-training control group. Some support was also reported for the notion that branch-level financial indicators might be affected.

Avolio and Berson’s (2004) study also provided support for transformational leadership development. Avolio and Berson examined the relationship between the leadership style of top and middle-level managers in a large Israeli telecommunications organization to their effectiveness in communicating strategic organizational goals. This study surveyed a total of 2200 employees. All participants rated their managers on leadership and unit/organizational outcomes, for example the types of influence tactics their supervisor used, and communication style. One half of the sample was randomly assigned to rate their supervisor on communication style, and the other half rated the influence tactics he or she used. Leadership style was measured using the MLQ. Communication style was measured using an 18-item measure created by Klauss and Bass (1982), assessing things such as whether a leader was a careful listener, whether communication was open and two-way, and whether the leader was a careful transmitter.

The results of the study demonstrated that “leaders who were rated as more transformational exhibited more of prospector strategy in their perception and articulation of strategic goals. Ratings of transformational leadership of leaders who were perceived and articulated organizational goals with a prospector orientation versus those with a defender
orientation indicated that leaders with a prospector orientation were rated significantly higher on transformational leadership” (Berson & Avolio, 2004, p. 636).

Kirkbride (2006), a leadership consultant, wrote a paper on the Full Range Leadership model and discussed how the transformational leadership style highly correlates with leader performance. Kirkbride (2006) drew on his extensive personal consulting experience. Specifically Kirkbride elaborates on two organizations in which he attempted to apply the model, Pirelli, and Beiersdorf and ITT. The significance of Kirkbride’s paper is the fact a practitioner was on more than one occasion able to implement the elements of the transformational theory, and yield positive results.

Conclusion about the theory and what it tells about leadership development

Overall support of using the transformational leadership theory as the basis for leadership development: research done to date supports the idea that people can be taught to be more transformational. However more research is needed to create a framework for future implementation. Barling, Weber and Kelloway (1996) recommend research with larger sample sizes, and they also recommend evaluating the effects of the training sooner than five months after the training. Avolio et al. (2002) suggest that training sessions following the MLQ may create a Hawthorne effect (in which the attention given to the participant may improve their attitudes and performance).

The scope of transformational leadership as a basis for leadership development has also received scrutiny. For example, Avolio (2010) recognized that the transformational leadership theory doesn’t assess a leader’s moral perspective or how genuine a leader is. Therefore as a result of Avolio’s observation, I’m open to contemporary leadership theories that assess moral perspective and authenticity, because I believe that being authentic results in more trustworthy
followers. Overall the transformational leadership theory can be beneficial to augment leadership development; however more research is required to develop a framework for leadership development.

**Authentic Leadership Theory**

*What the Theory Proposes about Leadership*

The authentic leadership theory attempts to integrate earlier ideas about effective leadership with concerns for ethical leadership. The roots of the authentic leadership theory can be traced back to transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio (2010) discussed the possibility that there could be two types of transformational leaders, an authentic transformational leader and an inauthentic leader, the pseudo-transformational leader. The pseudo-transformational leader could look like the transformational leader, however was not genuine in that he could display transformational actions and qualities, but lack the “moral basis for being transformational” (Avolio, 2010, p.10). As Avolio’s interest increased with work on moral-perspective taking, his interest in leadership development began to focus on genuine leadership development. According to Avolio (2010) authentic leadership means to “know oneself, to be consistent with oneself, and to have a positive and strength-based orientation toward one’s development and the development of others” (Avolio2005, p. 194). This means that authentic leaders know what they stand for and know their values, pursue actions that are consistent with their values, and are always seeking to develop themselves as well as develop others. This idea resonates with me because I believe that in order to be perceived as a leader, as well as be an effective leader, the leader has to be consistent in their actions, words, and values. If a leader is consistent, then it is likely that they’ll have the support of their followers, and if they’re not
consistent, then there is an increased likelihood that they will not gain commitment/support for set goals from their followers.

The idea of authentic leadership has received much attention in recent years (Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, Luthans, May & Walumbwa, 2005; Avolio & Gardner 2005; Avolio, 2007). The passages that follow present the main assumptions and concepts proposed by the theory of authentic leadership, how to develop authentic leaders, and provide research that supports authentic leadership, as well as criticisms and recommendations for the theory.

Authentic leaders are believed to have a high self-awareness about their values, beliefs, and emotions, self-identities, and abilities. According to Yukl (2010) their actions are strongly determined by their values and beliefs, not by a desire to be liked and admired or to retain their position. The core values for authentic leaders motivate them to do what is right and fair for followers, and to create a special type of relationship with them that includes high mutual trust, transparency, guidance toward worthy shared objectives, and emphasis on follower welfare and development. Most versions of the theory propose that people who follow authentic leadership share the leader’s values and beliefs, and “followers recognize that the leader’s behavior is consistent with their shared values” (Yukl, 2010, p. 424). According to Yukl (2010), “the effectiveness of authentic leadership comes from their (authentic leader) motivation, as defined by their energy, persistence, optimism, and clarity about objectives in the face of difficult challenges, obstacles, setbacks, and conflict with rivals or opponents” (Yukl, 2010, p. 424).

For Avolio (2010), this theory is unique in that it focuses on leadership development, something he believes is missing in many leadership theories. Given the newness of the authentic leadership theory only a few studies have directly investigated the antecedents, consequences, and facilitating conditions for authentic leadership. Yukl (2010) states that “the large number of
variables in some versions of the theory and the emphasis on development of authentic leadership suggests that intensive, longitudinal case studies may be more useful for the research than static survey studies” (p. 425). This means that developing authentic leaders takes time, and is not a simple process. Avolio (2010) suggested that leadership development is triggered by both positive and negative moments. This would mean that genuine leadership development could have started by so-called trigger events which lead to reflecting on and learning from the event, which could ultimately enhance one’s leadership potential. The leader’s life story can sometimes provide a basis to assess authenticity, because of the trigger events that caused them to arrive to their current position. Figure 2 represents one example of how the various variables work together in authentic leadership development, and provides a conceptual framework for authentic leadership development.

First the leader would gain self-awareness, through understanding their personal history, values, identity, etc. Self-awareness, will lead to self-regulation, via practicing authentic behavior, and positive modeling, which will lead to authentic followership. Once authentic followership takes place, the follower outcomes of trust, engagement, and workplace well-being take place, as well as sustainable follower performance.
Shamir, Dayan-Horesh, & Adler (2005) conducted an analysis of biographical accounts and interviews to show how a leader’s core values and beliefs were shaped by personal life experiences. The researchers identified four major themes, which are located in Table 6.

### Table 6: Major themes in Development of Authentic Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Natural Process</strong></td>
<td>Inherent talent for leadership is discovered, or a sense of destiny develops with regard to serving as a leader or guru for a group of followers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Struggle and Hardship</strong></td>
<td>Ordeals involving the need to overcome some injustice, personal loss, disability, or affliction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Worthy cause</strong></td>
<td>The values and beliefs are internalized and become a strong self-identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experience</strong></td>
<td>Personal mistakes or failures, influence of positive or negative role models.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The research on the development of authentic leaders suggests that an organization cannot duplicate the essential experiences in training seminars, but various approaches can be used to facilitate development. One approach is to ask people to describe events involving their heroes and role models and explain why their behaviors are perceived as worthy of emulation. Another approach is to have people analyze their own experiences and ordeals to better understand their values and strengths. A final approach is to “provide opportunities to experience trigger events in which the need to overcome difficult challenges and crises will help people learn about their individual and shared values, beliefs, and competencies” (Yukl, 2010, p. 426). For example, in a controlled setting, leaders could be faced with organizational issues they’ve never experience before, which will require them to make difficult decisions. This experience could assist the leader in overcoming difficult challenges, and help them to learn about themselves.

*Research on Theory and Attempts to Implement*

Although the authentic leadership theory is a very recent leadership theory, there is research that supports it. Turner and Mavin (2008) conducted a study in the Northeast UK region, in which they gathered qualitative empirical data by conducting semi-structured interviews with 22 senior leaders using a life-history approach to generate findings on how individuals establish and sustain leadership. Findings suggest that the “data highlights elements of the authentic leadership theory. Senior leaders’ life stories and in particular trigger events are significant to their approach as leaders” (p. 376). Shamir and Eilam (2005), working from ideas on life stories by Bennis and Tomas (2002), Gardner (1995) and Tichy (1997), suggested that leaders acquire certain characteristics by constructing, developing and revising life stories. This means that if leaders are informed about the effectiveness of reflecting upon the past, this can possibly lead them to be more effective leaders. While Kegan (1982) argues that life stories can
provide leaders with meaning, allowing them to act in ways that gives their actions a personal meaning. As a result of the study Turner and Mavin (2008) argue that “rather than focusing upon traditional models and theories of how to be a leader, a more powerful approach to leadership development is to enable leaders to reflect upon their own life stories and to enable aspiring leaders to share in others’ life stories, so that they may also engage in meaning making of their leader approach and identity” (p. 388). This work contributes to the study and development of leadership in the sense that it provides a reflective approach to leadership development, and for leadership practice this allows established leaders to learn from the aspiring leaders, and for the aspiring leaders to learn from the life stories of the established leader. Although the study consisted of only 22 individual leaders, it demonstrated that many of the participants’ experiences contributed to their leadership drive in their current leadership role. By allowing more training programs to contain a reflective element to the module this would allow others to learn from each other’s stories and further sustain leadership.

Avolio et al. (2008) conducted a study which developed and tested the authentic leadership theory using five separate samples obtained from China, Kenya, and the United States. In one sample Avolio et al. distributed 610 instrument packets to employed individuals from 11 U.S. multinational companies operating in Kenya. Within this study the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was used. The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire assesses leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. The data was collected at two points separated by six weeks. The first time participants were asked to provide information about themselves (personal information such as age, gender, tenure, etc.) and the 16 items of the ALQ rating their immediate supervisor. At the second point, the same respondents completed a measure of job performance. The results of the
study found authentic leadership seemed to lead to higher follower job satisfaction and job performance. This study by Avolio et al. assists the study of authentic leaders because it shows that this theory is effective globally.

**Criticisms and Concerns**

Despite some support for the authentic leadership theory, there are criticisms. For example Cooper et al. (2005) argue that interventions to develop authentic leaders must do more work to define, measure, and rigorously research this topic. Specifically, they argue that before designing strategies for authentic leadership development, scholars in this area need to give careful consideration to four critical issues: “(1) defining and measuring the construct, (2) determining the discriminant validity of the construct (which is to assess whether the theory is redundant with other similar theories), (3) identifying relevant construct outcomes, and (4) ascertaining whether authentic leadership can be taught” (p. 477).

Cooper et al. also pose questions to consider when designing interventions. For example, they argue the four major issues which any authentic leadership development intervention must address are: “(1) ensuring that the program, itself, is genuine, which refers to the idea that an authentic leadership development program is what it proposes to be: authentic. For example, how will the role of context be addressed, and to what degree to which authenticity is in the ‘eye of the beholder’ (2) determining ‘how trigger’ events can be replicated during training, (3) deciding whether ethical decision-making can be taught, and if these first three issues can be addressed, (4) determine who should participate in authentic leadership training” (pp. 483-484). Cooper et al. aren’t suggesting that the authentic leadership theory is a bad concept; they’re making what I feel is a reasonable suggestion that before authentic leadership theory becomes generally accepted as a strong theory for development, more work needs to be done.
Conclusion about the theory and what it tells about leadership development

Authenticity is all about being true to yourself and your cores values. Shakespeare wrote in Hamlet, “To thine own self be true, and it must follow, as the night day, thou canst not then be false to any man” (Shakespeare, 1603, Act.i, Scene 3). Although I am a big supporter of what the Authentic Leadership theory proposes about leadership, I agree that further development and research are needed. At the same time I believe this idea incorporates a critical element of leadership, one that would be important to help leaders develop.

Conclusion: Can Leadership Be Developed?

On the whole, my investigation has led me to conclude that leadership can be developed. Research on each of the three theories I discussed presented positive support for leadership development. However, I don’t support each theory equally as a foundation for leadership development. For example, although Fiedler’s Leader Match concept contained reasonable support for what the theory predicts, I don’t believe that Fiedler’s program is a complete leadership development program. I believe that Fiedler’s program helps leaders/managers learn about their leadership style and helps them understand which leadership situations may best fit their leadership style, but there is also a downside to the Leader Match program, for example the fact that the Leader Match program doesn’t clarify which group a moderate LPC leader belongs to. I’m a strong supporter of the Transformational Leadership Theory and the Authentic Leadership Theory because I agree wholeheartedly with their definition of leadership. Both definitions have some similarities because both argue that leaders inspire followers to go above and beyond their duty. However authentic leadership explicitly mentions the leader being interested in developing themselves, as well as developing followers. There is also research support using them to develop leaders creates positive outcomes for followers.
Despite the fact that I am a supporter of both theories, I still have my reservations about adopting either theory as the best model for leadership development because of the weaknesses and limitations mentioned earlier. For example, with the transformational theory more research is necessary containing larger sample sizes, as well as the possible Hawthorne effect that may take place, and how do address that. For the authentic leadership theory more must be done to define, measure, and rigorously research this topic, and more research is necessary to ensure that the program, itself, is genuine. For example, to what degree to which authenticity is in the eye of the beholder? Since those involved in an authentic leadership development programs will know about the potential impact of their life stories on followers, it’s very possible for them to embellish their life stories to create an image of authenticity.

The issues raised in the last paragraph are just a few of the areas that need further research for leadership development. While the Transformational and Authentic Leadership theories still need more research support for leadership development, I am comfortable with offering a fusion of both theories as a starting point for leadership development.

What do I Recommend for Leadership Development?

The structure of the leadership development program that I am recommending is a blend from the Transformational Leadership and Authentic Leadership Theory. The purpose of this leadership program is to develop leaders who “can produce significant organizational change and results because this form of leadership fosters higher levels of intrinsic motivation, trust, commitment, and loyalty from followers” (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2009, p. 358). This quote was chosen because ultimately if an organization decides to implement this program they want to know that there will be a return on their investment, as well as the production of authentic leaders. The other purpose of this program is to develop leaders who know themselves, are
consistent with themselves, and have a “positive and strength-based orientation toward their
development and the development of others” (Avolio, 2005, p. 194). Ultimately those who
participate in this program should garner trust, commitment and loyalty from followers, and
individuals whom know themselves, behave consistently with their values, and are interested in
the development of themselves and others.

The number of program participants is subject to the needs and resources of the
organization implementing this program. I recommend that this program be targeted towards
those individuals who would contribute to the organization’s strategic goals and those recognized
as high-performers. Depending on the organization it would likely be individuals who have been
identified as having high potential, those who consistently outperform their peers and exceed
their objectives, those who senior management wants to grow in the organization and those who
are interested in growing within the organization. Sources of information to measure these
attributes may include supervisory recommendations, a letter of interest from the applicant, the
organization’s succession plan, and information from the applicant’s performance record
(especially objective data such as goal attainment).

The first step in the leadership development program will consist of an introductory
group session. During this session the importance of the training will be expressed to the group,
along with an explanation of how the training program fits in line with company goals/strategies.
During this first session an explanation of the leadership concepts will also be presented,
comprising elements of authentic leadership and transformational leadership. The trainers will
provide the trainees with a case study and other examples covering the theory, as well as
multimedia presentations, and videos produced by the firm to reinforce their understanding of the
theory.
The second step in this program would be training on assisting participants develop their sense of self. This sense of self refers to the participant understanding who they are, what they stand for, and what or who they’d like to be in the future. Gardner et al. (2005) “view self-awareness in part as being linked to self-reflection; by reflecting through introspection, authentic leaders gain clarity and concordance with respect to their core values, identity, emotions, motives and goals” (p. 37). By assisting the trainees in developing their sense of self and increasing their self-awareness, this will also assist in developing authentic leaders, because one of the core pillars of this leadership program is behaving consistently with their expressed values. This will be done through both group activities in which participants are asked to reflect on their past, and discuss how their decisions relate to their values, as well as a questionnaire which will assess their values initially, and will track whether their values have changed. If the leader understands themselves and their values, then it’s more likely that they will understand themselves and conduct themselves consistently with their values.

Developing an understanding of oneself is a vital component to the training program. If the trainee doesn’t develop this understanding, they will likely not be able to productively contribute to further sessions, because it’s important that each trainee be able to articulate their values to others. The subcomponents that will aid the trainees in developing this sense of self include the following:
1. Reflection on historical conflicts/trigger events
   
   o Mavin and Turner (2007) suggest that “trigger events constitute dramatic and sometimes subtle changes in the individual’s circumstances that facilitate personal growth and development. Shamir and Eilam (2005) “suggest that experiences and events selected by authentic leaders to appear in their life-stories reflect their self-concepts and their concept of leadership” (p.378).

2. Narratives
   
   o Gardner et al. (2005) “view leader’s life stories and key trigger events which continue to shape the leader’s development in that they are reflected upon and interpreted in terms of self” (p.349).

3. Emotions and values
   
   o Gardner et al. (2005) view that one’s values and emotions “provide a basis for eliciting actions that conform to the needs of other individuals and the community at large” (p.350).

In addition to the steps above in assisting participants to develop their sense of self, it’s also necessary that the participants understand their sense of self from a leadership perspective. The participants will be assessed with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Based on a participant’s score, potential classifications include one who avoids involvement, also as one who builds trust and acts with integrity. The MLQ will assess the participants for their ratings of their leadership. The items will assess three aspects of transformational leadership: “(1) charisma obtained by combining idealized influence and inspirational motivation (2) intellectual stimulation and (3) individualized consideration” (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996, p. 828). The MLQ will be taken by all participants in the program, managers, supervisors, etc. Participants will also be provided with the Full Range diagram to understand how their score relates to their leadership classification along the full range continuum.
Following the development of one’s sense of self and identifying one’s leadership classification, it’s important for the trainee to practice balanced processing. According to Lopez (2008), balanced processing refers to the ability to understand that as a leader you will be faced with individuals who advocate for certain issues, and it is your responsibility to understand that these individuals are biased towards certain issues; therefore it is your responsibility to try to understand the context of each individual’s stance. For example, if you are newly promoted manager within a new department, it’s likely that the most tenured subordinate may have influence over your staff, and that tenured employee may suggest ways to do certain things, as well as try to persuade you with various issues that you may not be familiar with. It is your responsibility to listen to this tenured employee and take their suggestions into consideration. However it’s important that you understand that the employee is biased, and you must able to seek out alternative options before you make a decision. This will be incorporated into the trainings via role playing activities which will take place during the trainings.

After practicing balanced processing it’s important for the trainee to practice transparency. In between trainings and during trainings, the trainee should be reflecting on what they’ve learned. For example, this could be done at the end of each training session, where each participant is given an opportunity to discuss what they’ve learned with the group. They should also apply what they’ve learned to the workplace. For example, after the trainee understands their sense of self, their values, and has reflected on their on their narrative, it’s important that if the trainee currently has subordinates, or if the trainee works with a team, this trainee should begin to conduct themselves consistent with their learned and understood values. By conducting themselves consistent with their values it’s possible that others may take notice of the changes, and they may ask what has been the cause of the change. It’s important that the trainee inform
their colleagues about the results of the training, which will make the leader more transparent, and further build upon their authentic leadership skills.

The final stage in the training program would be for the trainees to practice moral actions, which consist of actions (which will be clearly defined by the trainer, and may vary according to each organization), and create self-development plans. Lopez (2008) argues that “to practice authentic leadership development means regularly identifying with your best self, checking in with your core values concerning your leadership agendas and operating practices, and verifying that indeed your actions are aligned with the highest ethical and moral principles you hold” (p. 161). Lopez is stating that once you’ve established your sense of self, you must continuously monitor yourself regarding your values, and pursuing actions that are consistent with your values. Lopez (2008) doesn’t suggest how to do this, however I recommend that the trainees can do this by continuously referring to their core values, and performing actions consistent with their values and their employer can create non-monetary incentives to those whom are performing activities consistent with the core values of the organization, based on measurable data. This can be made part of the training, in which it is required that direct supervisors and subordinates evaluate the progress of the program participant. The list below provides some example measurable features.

1. Organizational citizenship behavior
2. Organizational commitment
3. Satisfaction with supervisor
4. Authentic leadership
   o Measured by ADL
5. Follower job satisfaction
6. Follower individual job performance

Appropriate measures of each of these outcomes would have to be identified prior to the training program implementation.
The recommended structure and schedule of the program is subject to the needs and resources of the organization implementing the program, however I recommend that that the trainees meet at least two or three times per month for at least one hour each meeting, for at least eighteen months. The introductory session should take at least two hours. The rationale for this is because you don’t want to waste your resources. By this I mean that you want those selected into this training to be able to maintain a fresh memory of what they’ve been learning, and provide the group with enough time to learn from each other and enact the lessons they learn.

Potential obstacles to implementing the training program include the idea that management may not support the program due to its being based on a contemporary theory, and a firm may not have the resources to commit many individuals to the program. Management opposition can be changed by providing management with literature describing the program, as well as examples of any success of past applications of the theory at similar sized firms. Limited resources can be addressed by a firm budgeting for the number of projected participants in the program, and based on the results of the first class of participants, they can determine whether to move forward with the program. The final obstacle regarding the evaluations of the training program can be solved by trainers evaluating the trainees for their opinion of the session after every session, and it being the responsibility of the trainers to monitor the progress of the program, and making any necessary changes to make the program more engaging and effective.

The potential benefits to the program are first, potential increases in the number of leaders with transformational and authentic leadership skills. Second, by increasing the number of leaders in the organization this may directly affect the projects and tasks are accomplished. Among the many possible benefits, a firm may increase the quality of the work environment as well as the quality of the products they produce. Finally, increased quality customer service may
take place, and ultimately this may lead to an increase in the market share, as well as an increase in the profit, and a better reputation in comparison to competition.

**Final Thoughts**

Can leadership be developed using a leadership theory-based approach? I believe the evidence says it can, as I originally suspected at the beginning of this process. However, there are many issues to consider before attempting to develop leadership. First you must know what definition of leadership you are seeking to develop. Second, if you are following a model of leadership, I recommend that the theory has been well researched, has received widespread support for what it predicts, and has a framework that can the basis of an leadership development intervention.

Although I support using Transformational and Authentic leadership theory as a basis for leadership development, more research is necessary to create a framework that will allow practitioners to test the approach in their organizations. All three theories researched for this paper contain their own strengths and weaknesses, however my main observation is that there wasn’t much discussion on whether participants for the respective leadership development trainings needed to be at any prerequisite level. Fiedler’s theory didn’t require a prerequisite because they match the leader’s style to the situation. Transformational leadership evaluates leaders based on their MLQ score, therefore a prerequisite isn’t necessary. Yet my research on the Authentic leader didn’t suggest that leaders need to have a certain amount of past experiences to reach the level of authentic leadership.

In comparison to some other fields that have been studied scientifically, leadership is still very young, and more research is necessary to assess leadership and answer many of the questions and concerns that have been raised in all theories. Maybe one day there will be a
generally agreed upon definition of leadership, and a scientifically sound theoretical model to go along with this definition. I believe that time will be more sooner than later, and plan on contributing to the search process.
Reference List:


