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The Theory and Practice of Leader and Leadership Development: A Multi-Level Perspective

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THEORY AND PRACTICE OF LEADER AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: A
MULTI-LEVEL PERSPECTIVE

A Thesis
Presented to
the Morgridge College of Education
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In Partial Fulfillment
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Master of Arts

By
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Advisor: Frank Tuitt
ABSTRACT

The understanding of leadership and how it is developed continues to evolve (Day & Harrison, 2007) and while some essential components of effective leadership have been identified, they have not been forged into a comprehensive framework for development (Avolio, 2005). This paper aims to create a theory of leader and leadership development that can aid individuals in understanding who they are as a leader. Of central importance to this paper is the presentation of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, which provides a framework centered on the development of individual leader and leadership identities at personal, interpersonal, and collective levels, rather than on the procurement of specific skills, traits, or behaviors which have been traditionally associated with leadership development.
Leadership Development at the Social Identity Level

Rationale for Leadership Development at the Social Identity Level

Methods for Leadership Development at the Interpersonal Development Level

Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal Leadership Development

Typology and Interpersonal Leadership Development

Multiple Intelligences and Interpersonal Leadership Development

Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory and Interpersonal Leadership Development

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Interpersonal Leadership Development

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Summary of Implications

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Conclusion

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Appendix
PROLOGUE: A MULTI-DISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO LEADER AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

As a graduate student enrolled in an MBA program as well as in a higher education program, I have become interested in looking at subjects that occur at the intersection of various disciplines and functional areas of study. Thus, the perspectives, theories, models, and ideas in this thesis have resulted from a variety of different disciplines including various fields of psychology, adult and student development, adult education/teaching and learning strategies, management, leadership studies, and popular business literature. It is through the combination of varying disciplines that one can come to a more profound understanding of a social phenomenon, discipline, and practice that transcends many fields of study: leadership.

James McGregor Burns, the most quoted scholar in the field of leadership, also takes a multi-disciplinary approach to leadership. However what makes Burns’ conception of leadership compelling is not just the connection of disciplines, but also his understanding of leadership as a whole and not as a combination of small fragments (Ciulla, 1995). It is my hope that through the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model presented in this paper that individuals will also be able to gain an understanding of their gestalt as a leader, which will aid them in their own effective practice of leadership, from wherever they sit.
INTRODUCTION

In a recent Gallup Poll, 1,001 people were asked to rate their own leadership ability and 97% rated their own leadership ability at or above average with over 2/3 of respondents saying that they had led a group or a team (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Thus, according to Rath and Conchie (2008), whether it is as a leader in the boardroom, on the construction site, or in one’s own home, it is likely that most people will find themselves leading at some point in their life. However, the idea of leadership, what it is, where it comes from, and how it is developed and implemented, has long captured the interest of practitioners, academics, and the general public (Pearce, 2007)—and this understanding of leadership and how it is developed continues to evolve (Day & Harrison, 2007). While some essential components of effective leadership have been identified, they have not yet been arranged into a comprehensive framework for development (Avolio, 2005). The ideas and models in this paper were designed to answer this call.

Of central importance to this paper is the presentation of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, which provides a framework centered on the development of individual leader and leadership identities at personal, interpersonal, and collective levels, rather than on the procurement of specific skills, traits, or behaviors that have been traditionally associated with leadership. Through the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, leader and leadership development can be seen as a more encompassing and integrative process which focuses on the development of an individual’s
leader and leadership identities. Thus the focus is not on the *how-to-s* of leadership (on learning specific leadership-related traits and behaviors), but instead is focused on the *how-to-be-s* of leadership (on developing quality, character, mind-set, values, principles, and courage) (Hesselbein, 2003).

Through framing one’s leader and leadership development with the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, leadership comes to be seen less as a way of behaving and more of a state of mind and way of being. The Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is based upon the premises that anyone can be a leader as well the significance of an appreciative mindset (of seeing what is good rather than what is bad). Additionally, the model examines leader and leadership identity development at three levels: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and collective. It is through understanding the nature of oneself, of others, and of collectives that an individual can come to a more thorough and complete understanding of what it means to be a leader as well as gain a greater mastery of the practice of leadership.
BACKGROUND

Statement of the Problem: The Leadership Quagmire

Concepts and practices of leadership as well as ideas and theories about leadership have been the subject of much thought, discussion, writing, and teaching; but despite this, leadership remains a difficult subject to explain (De Pree, 2003). Not only do hundreds of distinct definitions of leadership currently exist (Kouzes & Posner, 1995), but the idea of leadership seems to be conceived of in as many ways as there are people who study and practice it. Barker (1997) states that leadership has been diluted to simple slogans, equated with economic success, related to the manipulation of people, confused with management, associated with authority, and has been reduced to traits, characteristics, behaviors, roles, styles, and abilities which are alleged to be integral in getting followers to do what the leader wants them to.

In addition to this, Barker (1997) asks us to consider the word *leadership* itself. In words such as statesmanship, seamanship, or craftsmanship, the suffix –ship is used to denote a skill. The suffix –ship can also be used to indicate a relationship as in partnership, apprenticeship, or fellowship. Therefore, according to Barker (1997), there seems to be a legitimate semantic choice to use the word *leadership* to either indicate an ability or skill, or to indicate a relationship. Thus, as a destination, leadership is much like truth and justice – concepts not readily captured by concise definitions. People want truth and justice, but what
these mean most likely varies between individuals and groups—as one’s justice may be another’s exploitation, while one’s truth may be another’s lies (Bell & Morse, 1999).

Due to the lack of a single, concrete, and widely accepted view of the term leadership, critics have and continue to accuse the field of leadership of being unscientific and unempirical (Day & Harrison, 2007). After all, how can something that cannot be defined be scientifically studied and effectively developed (Day & Harrison, 2007)? The fact that leadership is so hard to define and understand is perhaps due to the fact that the study of leadership has undergone a multiplicity of theoretical explanations in various disciplines and fields of study that all seem to embrace different theories, models and approaches de jour. According to Sogunro (1998), the exact meaning of leadership and what it embraces seems to vary depending on the leader, the audience, and the context. Nonetheless, uncertainty surrounding the meaning of leadership has not seemed to reduce the popularity of the concept of leadership and of how leadership is effectively practiced. Pearce (2007) performed a search of the word ‘leadership’ in the book category of Amazon.com on July 7th, 2007 and received 223,726 results. I performed this same search on December 7th, 2009 and received 379,320 results. Clearly, there is an insatiable thirst for knowledge about leadership (Pearce, 2007), which is only increasing by the day.

While the leadership literature is immense, according to Hogan and Kaiser (n.d.), it can be broken down into two main categories: The Troubadour Tradition and the Academic Tradition. The Troubadour Tradition is the larger, more popular of the two and is oftentimes found in the form of account-settling memoirs of former CEOs and politicians. Despite its popularity, the Troubadour Tradition is largely opinion without evidence and is seen by many as entertaining, but unreliable (Hogan & Kaiser, n.d.). The Academic Tradition, on the other
hand, is empirically dependable, but is largely a collection of decontextualized facts that do not add up to a persuasive account of what leadership is and is not (Hogan & Kaiser, n.d.). Moreover, according to Pearce (2007), most current conceptions of leadership focus on transactional or transformational leadership and even more narrowly on individuals who occupy formal leadership positions. While the dominant model used in leadership development today is the transactional-transformational model, a movement has begun which is questioning whether the potential for a broader range of leadership options is being missed by focusing so narrowly on this two-factor model (Pearce, 2007).

Because the theories, ideas, and concepts surrounding leadership continue to evolve, it has proven difficult to pinpoint a single, universal definition (Day & Harrison, 2007). Increasingly, many leadership researchers and practitioners (such as those listed below) are beginning to embrace more dynamic and amorphous conceptions of leadership, created by synthesizing and evaluating existing theories, while taking into account new understandings and current research. These include:

- Kouzes and Posner’s (1995) supposition that leadership is not a thing, it is not a position, it is not qualities or traits, and that leadership is not a person;
- Blackwell and Cummins’ (2007) assertion that leadership should not be understood in terms of specific behaviors but should be understood in terms of the capabilities, knowledge, and skills that make effective leadership possible;
- Day and Harrison’s (2007) belief that depending on the developmental level of an individual, leadership can mean different things and take on different appearances; and
Sogunro’s (1998) claim that leadership must be viewed as a dynamic process that changes depending on the leader, the followers, and the situation.

If leadership is truly dependent on the leader, the followers, the various situational elements and the dynamics that lie within and between these factors, it would seem that coming to a universally accepted conception of leadership would be an exercise in futility. According to Day and Harrison (2007), the complexity and multidimensionality of the nature of leadership lessens the possibility of a simple of unitary definition and leadership cannot mean only one thing because it evolves over time, taking on multiple meanings and appearances to different individuals. However, Barker (1997) contends that there is both a need to re-conceptualize leadership and to come to a common understanding of what it means—if for no other reason than to be able to cope with it. The answer to this, according to Parks (2005), is to create a more spacious conception of leadership, which embraces the creation of new realities as well as an understanding of other people.

A New Conception of Leadership

As the world we live in becomes increasingly complex, diverse, and ambiguous, the definitions and elements of leadership will and must change with the times (Parks, 2005). Accordingly, Stein and Book’s (2006) definition of success gives us a novel way to conceive of leadership. Success is also much like the concepts of truth and justice discussed above and also has not traditionally been captured by a single, concise definition. According to Stein and Book (2006) however, success can be defined as the ability to set and achieve one’s personal and professional goals, whatever they may be. An individual’s definition of success, however, tends to ebb and flow over time as his or her wants and goals change and his or her experience accumulates—as youthful idealism makes way for mature reality and different
imperatives assume differing levels of importance depending on the role one is trying to fill (Stein & Book, 2006). While the definition of success changes for individuals at different points in their lives, most would agree generally that they want to succeed on their own terms (or on terms acceptable to them) in a wide variety of situations (Stein & Book, 2006). The same can be true for leadership. Theoretically, as individual conceptions of leadership will ebb and flow depending on where an individual leader finds him or herself, it stands to reason that most would agree that they want to lead on their own terms (or terms acceptable to them) in a wide variety of situations. It is on this generalized and timeless conception of leadership that the following discussion of leader and leadership development is based.

The Distinction between Leader Development and Leadership Development

As the term development will be quite prevalent throughout this paper, it will be helpful to have a definition of what development is. According to Barker (1997), development is an analysis and an integration of a person’s intellectual and emotional capabilities, which result in greater self-motivation, self-direction, and self-identity. The purpose of development is to increase an individual’s personal effectiveness by providing them with an understanding of themself, their experiences, and their conflicting ideas (Barker, 1997). This, in effect, can describe what is meant when we use the term identity as well. When the term identity is used in this paper, it is defined as the behavioral or personal characteristics of an individual.

According to Brungardt (1996), most leadership scholars agree that leaders are both born and made, however, it was not until recently that scholars and educators alike had begun to question how leaders are developed and how the practice of leadership developed. It is here that an important distinction must be made between leader development and leadership
development. Leader development is based on a traditional, individualistic conception of leadership that occurs through the development of individual leaders whereas leadership development is based on a more contemporary, relational strategy, which helps individuals understand how to relate to others and coordinate efforts by applying self-understanding to social and organizational imperatives (Day, 2001; Brungardt, 1996). In essence, leader development relates to an individual’s development of human capital while leadership development relates to an individual’s development of social capital (Day, 2001). It is especially important to note that leadership development is a proactive and continuous learning process that can span a lifetime, in which knowledge, experience, and sustained action are continually synthesized, attempted, and reinforced, allowing for more advanced learning and growth opportunities (Barker, 1997, Brungardt, 1996, Day, 2001, & Lord & Hall, 2005).

While the distinction between leader and leadership development may seem inconsequential, it is not. Leader development is concerned with the personal development of the individual leader while leadership development is concerned with the development of social relationships and understanding other individuals. Thus, both leader and leadership development must be explored and understood at different levels, offering the possibility of more profound development than efforts that focus merely on a set of tools or skills to be learned (Pearce, 2007). Brungardt (1996) points out that leadership development theory must not only recognize singular experiences in the leadership development process but also must begin to link variables and experiences together for a more complete theory of leadership development. As such, leadership development must be linked with leader development in a way in which leadership development transcends but does not replace the development of the
individual leader (Day, 2001; Day & Harrison, 2007). In order to effectively develop future leaders, conventional educational methods and theories must be replaced with more dynamic and adaptive approaches to leadership theory (Parks, 2005). These calls are what the proposed Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is aimed at answering.
THE LEADER AND LEADERSHIP IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL

As discussed previously, there are a multiplicity of definitions and conceptions of leadership that currently exist and the current leadership literature is replete with specific practices, concepts, models, frameworks, and theories on ways of being an effective leader. However, what seems to be missing from this body of literature is information regarding how leaders have become who they are, how leaders become fit to lead, and how leaders capitalize off of their own natural behaviors and talents. There is now a growing consensus among leadership theorists and practitioners that the presumptions of ‘born leaders’ and command-and-control leadership models are inadequate (Parks, 2005). However, while there have been calls to recompose the art and myth of leadership, individual leaders continue to be studied and used as models because good alternatives (in terms of content and method) to these models have not yet been developed (Parks, 2005).

According to Hesselbein (2003), the leader of the new millennium will not be someone focused on the how-to-s of leadership; instead, the leader of the new millennium will be someone focused on how-to-be-s of leadership—on developing quality, character, mind-set, values, principles, and courage. The leaders of the future can only speculate on the tangibles that will define future challenges, however, the intangibles, the leadership qualities required, are expressed in the character, the power within, and the how-to-be of leaders of the future (Hesselbein, 2003). Of central importance to the self and identity approach to leader and leadership development is that an individual awareness of the way in which one
understands their identity informs their feelings, beliefs, attitudes, goals, and behavior (van Knippenberg et al., 2005). Thus, the development of identity (which is defined as the behavioral or personal characteristics of an individual), according to Day and Harrison (2007), is important for leaders because it grounds them in an understanding of who they are and informs them of their personal strengths and limitations, which, in turn, promotes and accelerates leader and leadership development.

Leadership development itself is a multi-level phenomenon, with individual leader development as the foundation and collective leadership development at the apex (Day & Harrison, 2007). The main premise of this new model of leader and leadership identity development is centered on encouraging individuals to develop and internalize their personal leader identity so that they can move to develop effective and relevant interpersonal and collective leadership identities. It does not reduce leader and leadership development to specific methods that can be used to obtain cooperative behaviors from followers, which is a social-psychological tenant of leadership theory, suggested by Tyler (2003). Day and Harrison (2007) contend that identity transcends one-dimensional leadership approaches (such as trait theory) and rather than focusing on the acquisition of leadership-related knowledge, skills, and abilities, that developmental efforts should focus on creating, strengthening, and understanding one’s individual, relational, and collective identities. When looked at through this model, leader and leadership development becomes less a way of behaving and becomes more of an individual state of mind and way of being. Thus, according to this model, a leader is any individual who has taken time to develop their own individual leader and leadership identities.
The Levels of Identity

Adopting a multi-level perspective of leader and leadership development can greatly enhance one’s understanding of leadership, as individuals are a composite of multiple sub-identities, rather than just an unequivocal self (Day & Harrison, 2007). According to Day (2001), it is important that an individual develop both intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, as an understanding of both personal and social identities is crucial to effective leader and leadership development. Adding to this, Ryan & Deci (2003) state that individuals acquire many different identities over time and once these various identities are adopted, they will play a significant role in the organization and regulation of an individual’s daily life. Simply stated, people enact different identities to fit in within various roles and contexts (Deci & Ryan, 2003).

Much of the self-concept literature differentiates identity at two levels: personal and social (Lord & Brown, 2001; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2003). Lord and Hall (2005) define personal identities as self-categorizations based on similarities and differences from others and define social identities as self-categorizations based on group membership. Adding to this, Lord et al. (1999) believe that an individual’s self-definition actually occurs at three levels: individual, interpersonal, and collective (where the interpersonal and collective levels of identity are both components of social identity). Brewer and Gardner (1996) and Lord and Hall (2005) define these three levels as such: At the individual identity level, one differentiates themself from others via interpersonal comparisons in terms of traits; at the interpersonal identity level, one defines their self-concept in terms of roles that specify their relation to others; and at the collective identity level, one identifies with a particular group or organization as the basis for social understanding and self-definition. In short, the
first level focuses on the individual leader, the second level takes into account the individual’s relationships with others, and the third level constitutes organizational and team development and culture, with each level building on the one(s) previous (Day & Harrison, 2007).

It is the contention of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model that leaders, as well as the effective practice of leadership, are both developed through an understanding of and engagement with the three levels of self-definition. One’s leader and leadership development is fundamentally and inextricably linked to one’s personal development, as whom you are as a leader is whom you are as a person (Avolio, 2005). Both leader and leadership identities, according to the model, are formed along the lines of Lord et al.’s (1999), Lord and Brown’s (2001), van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg’s (2003), Van Velsor and Guthrie’s (1998), Lord and Halls’ (2005), and Day and Harrison’s (2007) theoretical conceptions of identity development. Just as individual self-definition occurs at three distinct levels (individual, interpersonal, and collective), leader and leadership development occurs at three levels as well.

Looking at the model on page 18, Individual Leader Development occurs at the personal (or individual) self-definition level, where an individual will differentiate herself from others via interpersonal comparison (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and is cognizant of the individual identities of herself and her followers (Lord & Hall, 2005). Interpersonal Leadership Development occurs at the social self-definition level, which has two sub-categories of self-definition: interpersonal and collective. At the Interpersonal Self-Definition level, an individual defines her self-concept in terms of roles that specify her relation to others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and becomes more cognizant of differences among others
(Lord & Hall, 2005). Finally, at the *Collective Self-Definition* level, an individual identifies with a particular group or organization as a basis for self-understanding and self-definition (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and assimilates her own underlying values and identities with different followers or situations (Lord & Hall, 2005). As such, it is possible for an individual to develop both a leader identity (at the personal identity level) as well as a leadership identity (at the social identity level) (Day, 2001; Day & Harrison, 2007).

An individual looking to develop as a leader first strives to differentiate himself as a leader. This individual will likely have a rather generic view of leadership and will approach most situations in the same way (Day & Harrison, 2007). Further, this individual may conceive of leadership primarily in terms of traits/other individual attributes or in terms of role-based authority (Day & Harrison, 2007). According to Day and Harrison (2007), as the leader develops, his or her responses become less general and more context-dependent. This shift also includes a focus away from the self to include the perspectives of others, as the leader’s cognitive understanding of leadership grows to include other individuals and groups. A leader with a relational identity understands leader-member exchanges and may conceive of leadership in terms of negotiating influence with others (Day & Harrison, 2007). Finally, a leader with a collective identity supports a shared identity and may understand leadership as a shared property of a social system that includes interdependencies of individuals, teams, and organizations (Day & Harrison, 2007). Additionally, the definition of leadership at each level changes, from role-based authority at the first level, to an influence process between individuals at the second level, to a shared property of a social system that includes interdependencies of individuals, teams, and organizations at the third level (Day & Harrison, 2007).
This model should be viewed as a progression in which an individual begins with leader development at the individual level of self-definition and then moves on to leadership development at the interpersonal and then collective levels of self-definition. It is from this understanding that the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model was created.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Self-Definition (Lord et al., 1999; Lord &amp; Brown, 2001; &amp; van Knippenberg &amp; van Knippenberg, 2003; van Velsor &amp; Guthrie, 2003; Lord &amp; Brown, 2005, Day &amp; Harrison, 2007)</th>
<th>Definition of the Levels of Self-Definition (Brewer &amp; Gardner, 1996; Lord &amp; Hall, 2005)</th>
<th>Relating the Levels of Self-Definition to Levels of Leader and Leadership Development (Lord &amp; Hall, 2005)</th>
<th>Definition of Leadership at the three levels (Day &amp; Harrison, 2007)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal Identity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Individual Identity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Individual Leader Development</strong></td>
<td><strong>Generic; Role-based authority</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal Identity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Interpersonal Leadership Development</strong></td>
<td><strong>Leaders at this level begin to become more cognizant of differences among others</strong></td>
<td><strong>Influence process between individuals</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collective Identity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Collective Leadership Development</strong></td>
<td><strong>Leaders at this level assimilate their own underlying values and identities with different followers or situations</strong></td>
<td><strong>A shared property of a social system that includes interdependencies of individuals, teams, and organizations</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A simplified, but useful, aid for understanding how the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model progresses is Hogan and Kaiser’s (n.d.) model which links leader personality to organizational performance. The progression of this model works as follows: one’s personality predicts one’s leadership style (which relates to the individual identity level); one’s leadership style affects the attitudes of employees and how well the team functions (which relates to the interpersonal identity level); and employees’ attitudes
and team functioning predict the overall performance of the organization (which relates to the collective identity level) (Hogan & Kaiser, n.d.).

![Figure 2: Hogan & Kaiser’s (n.d.) model depicting how leader personality affects organizational performance](image)

An issue that exists in leadership development is that an understanding of who one is and how one functions best as a leader is based upon having actual leadership experiences. Without a real leadership experience, it may be difficult for an individual to conceive of himself as a leader (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2002). Similar to Aristotle’s model of virtue in which an individual becomes just through performing just acts and becomes brave through performing acts of bravery, an individual becomes a leader through performing deliberate acts of leadership (Allio, 2005). Agreeing with this, Day (2001) states that leadership is developed through the practice of leadership, Barker (1997) notes that it is not the leader that makes leadership happen—it is the act of leadership that makes the leader happen, and Allio (2005) believes that leaders-to-be must pass through a crucible that provides a transforming experience with regard to leadership.

In sum, research seems to suggest that leader and leadership development can take an individual up to a certain place, but after that, the individual must become mired in the process of leadership to synthesize what has been learned about the practice of leadership with the current situation they find themselves in (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2002). As the world is changing quickly, the capacities needed from leaders must also change—and this means that leaders must be able to continuously and actively learn from their experiences (Van Velsor & Guthrie, 1998) as one’s identity develops as experiences are integrated with
self-conceptualizations (Day & Harrison, 2007). Fundamental to leadership development is taking time to step back and reflect on experiences, as one’s full potential as a leader will not be reached if time is not made for personal reflection (Avolio, 2005). According to Van Velsor and Guthrie (1998), the ability to learn from experience requires that an individual:

1. Recognize when new behaviors, skills, or attitudes are called for,
2. Engage in new development experiences to learn and apply these new skills and approaches, and
3. Develop and utilize a variety of learning tactics to acquire new skills, approaches, and attitudes.

These findings, when paired with the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, show how an individual progresses through the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model as experience, practice, and reflection accumulate. It is also important to note that an individual’s leader and leadership development unfolds over time based on his or her developmental readiness (Avolio, 2005); and with experience, practice, and reflection, a leader can develop a more complex and inclusive conception of leadership (Day & Harrison, 2007).
At the individual level, one differentiates themself from others via interpersonal comparisons in terms of traits (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Leaders at this level are likely to be more cognizant of individual identities in themselves and their followers (Lord & Hall, 2005).

At the interpersonal level, one defines their self-concept in terms of roles that specify their relation to others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Leaders at this level begin to become more cognizant of differences among others (Lord & Hall, 2005).

At the collective level, one identifies with a particular group or organization as a basis for self-understanding and self-definition (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Leaders at this level assimilate their own underlying values and identities with different followers or situations (Lord & Hall, 2005).

Figure 3: The Progression of Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model

The Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model can be understood to progress as such:

1. A leader must first know who they are and how their individual-level identities inform what their natural ways so of thinking, being, and doing are on a personal level.

2. From there, a leader must come to understand how their individual-level identities impact how they work with and interact with others. The interpersonal identity informs how a leader understands and relates to individuals different from themself.

3. Built upon the understanding and connection of individual and interpersonal identities, a leader can then develop a collective identity. The formation of collective identity allows the leader to understand how they can best work as a part of a group and also lead others in that group.
4. Through Van Velsor & Guthrie’s (1998) experiential learning assertions (recognition that new behaviors/skills/attitudes are called for, engagement in new development experiences, and development and utilization of tactics/skills/approaches/attitudes), individuals can revisit and work through the three levels of the model at different times in light of new paradigms built at other levels.

Leader development without leadership development (and vice versa) is incomplete and leaves individuals, teams and organizations vulnerable to threats from complex and adaptive leadership challenges (Day & Harrison, 2007). However, a leader who has developed and integrated individual, relational, and collective leader and leadership identities can draw upon any of these identities depending on the leadership demands and may have a strong advantage when trying to figure out how to handle complex situations (Day & Harrison, 2007).

Philosophical Underpinnings of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model

It is critical to note here that the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is in opposition to social psychology’s claims that: (1) leaders must possess ideal or prototypical qualities, traits, and or characteristics (Lord et al., 1984; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994); (2) that leadership is merely a process of influence through control of incentives and sanctions (Tyler, 2003); (3) that leadership is understood in terms of how certain individuals have disproportionate power and influence to set agenda, define group identity, and mobilize individuals to achieve group goals (Hogg, 2001); and (4) that personal and interpersonal aspects of leadership are less important than leader prototypicality (Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003). The Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is instead based upon three basic foundations:
1. Lord et al.’s (1999) propositions relating leadership to the various self-concepts,
2. Bush’s (2001) accentuation of positive affects and the appreciative mindset, and
3. Hashem’s (1997) assertion that every individual can be seen as capable of developing a leader and leadership identity and thus practicing effective leadership.

**Relating Leadership to the Three Levels of Self-Concept**

Lord et al. (1999) emphasize the following propositions, which are integral to relating leadership to the various self-concepts and are also of importance in understanding the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model:

- Self-views (how individuals perceive of themselves) and possible selves (identities that an individual is currently exploring) will have different dynamics at different levels. At the individual level, social comparisons and differentiation from others will be the main focus; at the interpersonal level, influence and reflective self-appraisals will be the main focus; and at the collective level, assimilation into group prototype will be the main focus.

- Leaders will ultimately be more successful if they are able to create or alter their self-schemas than if they activate only existing self-schemas.

- Leaders who emphasize positive affects will develop followers who embody positive orientations and who are more open to greater challenges and greater levels of commitment.

- Leadership activities must be matched to the predominant level of self-identity being worked on to have the desired impact.

- No one level should be overly emphasized as this may negatively impact development in the other identity levels.
Through paying attention to the different dynamics within and among the three levels of identity (being able to alter and create new self-schemas, emphasizing positive effects, and matching leadership activities to the specific leader identity that is being worked on), individuals will find the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model especially valuable.

The Appreciative Mindset

As stated in Lord et al.’s (1999) third proposition, leaders who emphasize positive affects (in themselves and the work that they do) will develop followers who embody positive orientations and are more open to greater challenges and greater levels of commitment. Of central importance to the accentuation of positive affects is an appreciative mindset, which is, according to Bush (2001), a focus on what works well and basing improvement upon amplification of the positives. The appreciative mindset understands that there are no simple solutions to problems because we individually create our own experience and reality and that people co-create the social systems they live in based on a collective mindset (Bush, 2001). Simply stated, if one is biased towards seeing the negative or the downside, that is what they will see—conversely, if someone is biased towards seeing the bright-side or the possibilities that exist, that is what they will see (Bush, 2001). The ancient Chinese proverb of ‘whatever we pay attention to grows’ is very applicable here.

According to Clifton, Anderson, and Schreiner (2006), each individual has a view of themself, known as the self-concept, which has developed since early in life and helps the individual to answer the question, “Who am I?” When one’s self concept is mostly negative, he or she tends to see others negatively and view the world pessimistically. On the other hand, when one’s self-concept is mostly positive, he or she tends to enjoy more positive
relationships and is more optimistic about the future (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). According to Bush (2001), an appreciative mindset can be developed within and utilized by anyone, regardless of authority level; and through operating with an appreciative mindset and a positive self-concept, individuals can create more constructive, positive, and healthy leadership identities.

*Every Individual as a Leader*

As just stated, the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is based upon Hashem’s (1997) assertion that any individual can develop leader and leadership identities and thus engage in the effective practice of leadership. Day (2001) argues, however, that too many aspiring leaders ask the question ‘How can I be an effective leader?’ when they should, in fact, be asking, ‘How can I participate productively in the leadership process?’ This means that an individual must understand that sometimes her natural strengths and tendencies lend her well to a leadership role and sometimes they lend her to another role (based on what the team or group needs and the activities the group chooses to undertake). Theoretically then, based on the leader, the followers, the various situational elements, and the dynamics that lie within and between these factors, an individual may find themself practicing various forms of leadership, contributorship, or followership. From this change of perspective, Day (2001) believes that any individual can be considered a leader, but that she must find the right situation to effectively practice leadership in.

According to Ronald Heifetz, one of today’s preeminent scholars of leadership, “The great challenges of our time such as the globalization of markets, hunger, the proliferation of armaments, terrorism, and international health crises are larger and more daunting than anyone…has the capacity to effectively address. This suggests that everyone…could be
usefully engaged in learning more about the practice of leadership” (Parks, 2005, p. 65). From this perspective, everyone can be seen as a leader and it cannot be the responsibility of the few (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003). Additionally, according to Parks (2005), the practice of leadership can happen from wherever one sits, which is an invitation to reclaim the inspired capacity within every human being. It is based upon these declarations that Hashem (1997) states that everyone should learn about who they are as a leader so as to allow leadership to flow in all directions. Additionally, through an understanding of one’s strengths, natural abilities, and tendencies, any individual has the capacity to assume various leadership roles in various contexts and situations (Hashem, 1997). Through understanding and working through the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model, an individual can begin to envision himself as a leader.
MOVING FORWARD

According to Parks (2005), if we wish to truly understand the practice of leadership, we must both investigate the ‘instruments of leadership’ and learn how to ‘play’ them. However, the classic cognitive literature states that depersonalized cognitive endeavors are the way in which expertise is developed (Lord & Hall, 2005). While this is perhaps true for the sciences, Lord and Hall (2005) state that due to the sustained interest and practice it requires to develop leadership ability, the conception of leadership must become a part of one’s self-identity. As such, the rest of the paper is dedicated to exploring why individuals should, and how individuals can, develop leader and leadership identities at the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels.

More often than not, leadership programs generally give aspiring leaders a cognitive experience, teaching them about leadership, historical perspectives on leadership theory, leadership models and theories, and various leadership virtues, without ever teaching students how to lead (Allio, 2005). Taking a course on wise men, according to Allio (2005), is unlikely to make one wiser, and the same is true for leadership. It is imperative that a leadership education program involve more than just stories of great leaders and leadership theories—there must also be imbedded ways for individuals to discover who they are as leaders. Thus, at each of the three levels of identity there is a section explaining the rationale for development at that level as well as a section explaining various methods for development at that level. Following the academic rationale of each identity level with
appropriate developmental applications and methods takes this model out of the literature and also puts it into real life, contributing to the effective practice of leadership by individuals at different levels of leader and leadership development.

The term method is used here to denote procedures and techniques that can be used to help individuals in understanding and engaging with their identities at the three levels. At the personal and interpersonal levels, the methods include the theory and practice of emotional intelligence as well as assessments of multiple intelligences, learning styles, personality, and innate talents. The methods used at the collective identity level take the dimensions of emotional intelligence and the results of these assessments and apply them to the actual practice of leadership. The various identity development methods at each level are not meant to be exhaustive, but are rather meant to give the reader and practitioner an idea of the kinds of activities, experiences, and concepts that are necessary to developing leader and leadership identities at the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels, respectively.

Like other complex phenomena, once leadership is broken down into its parts, it can be understood in terms of how the various pieces fit together into the whole. According to Avolio (2005), while some essential components of effective leadership have been identified, they have not yet been developed into a comprehensive framework for development. This is what the application side of the Leader and leadership Identity Development Model aims to do. As such, the developmental activities at each level can be taken by an instructor and integrated into a leadership development program, course, or series of training sessions. Additionally, the Leader and Leadership Identity Model can be taught at different levels to different groups of people, depending on where they fall developmentally.
LEADER DEVELOPMENT AT THE PERSONAL LEVEL

Rationale for Leader Development at the Personal Identity Level

Day (2001) states that leader development should take the form of individual-based differentiation in terms of helping individuals enhance their own self-understanding and independent identities. Leader development, again, is the differentiation and integration of leadership and personal experiences and the individual’s sense of self and occurs when a leader’s sub-identity becomes differentiated, more complex, and integrated into an individual’s global identity (Day & Harrison, 2007). Self-knowledge, according to Lord and Hall (2005), has been found to be an important function of leader development. Adding to this, Lord and Brown (2001) state that the duration and scope of a particular leader’s influence will be greater if the leader’s actions are initially focused on the development of self-identities. Thus, developing a more inclusive conceptualization of oneself and of one’s personal identity is an important pathway to developing broader leadership capacity (Day & Harrison, 2007).

Categorizing oneself in accordance with a personal identity means both seeing oneself as distinct from others and guiding oneself by personal, rather than group, goals (Stets & Burke, 2003). However, Palmer (1994) states that humans have an extensive and harmful legacy of believing in the power of the external world more than they believe in the power of the internal world. This internal world is well-captured by Rosen et al.’s (2000) conception of personal literacy which has foundations of self-awareness (understanding
oneself), self-development (renewing oneself), and self-esteem (valuing oneself). A personally literate leader knows where he excels, knows what his blind spots and shortcomings are, understands that each individual has his own approach to self-knowledge, sees people as equal but different, has a point of view but remains flexible, and adjusts his perceptions and moral lens, but not his principle (Rosen et al., 2000).

Interestingly, however, Rath & Conchie (2008) state that many leaders are blind to their own personality and ways of thinking, being, and doing. In a fairly recent speech, Lee Kun-Hee, the chairman of Korea’s Samsung Electronics stated that if we wish to effect change in groups, we must first initiate change within ourselves; and that knowing and questioning oneself and one’s habits, strengths, and shortcomings is the beginning of change (Rosen et al., 2000). Thus, if leaders are not first competent self-leaders, their capacity to lead others effectively will be diminished (Pearce, 2007). In reality, according to Palmer (1994), individuals tend to rise to leadership positions by operating competently and efficiency in the external world, sometimes at the cost of denying their internal world. The reason for this could be that it is far easier to spend one’s time manipulating external environments and situations than it is dealing with one’s own soul (Palmer, 1994).

Palmer (1994) also goes on to state that a leader is a person who has an unusual degree of power to project on other people his shadow or his light and who can create the conditions under which other people must live, move, and have their being—conditions that can be as illuminating as heaven or shadowy as hell. Further, Palmer (1994) states that when leaders do not spend the time examining their own identity, they create institutional settings which deprive others of their identity; and that if one skims on her inner work, her outer work will suffer as well. Thus, a leader must take full responsibility for what’s going on
inside of herself to make sure that the act of leadership do more good than harm (Palmer, 1994). This is a critical understanding because leaders are often the focal point for the development of values and identities within a team or organization and only when leaders activate authentic and reasoned patterns of values and behaviors will the authentic identities of followers also be successfully activated (Palmer, 1994).

The development of individual self-concept and leader identity is critically important in the ongoing and continuous development of a leader (Day & Harrison, 2007). Avolio (2005) adds to this stating that to improve leadership potential, one must come to know himself better and to develop leadership capacity, one must first work on developing himself. It is important to note as well that the development of self-awareness and personal identity is not a destination point but is a process through which an individual gradually comes to understand her talents, strengths, values, and desires (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). After all, according to Hogan and Kaiser (n.d.), who we are is how we lead—and an individual cannot grasp who they are as a leader until they first know who they are as a person.

Methods for Leader Development at the Personal Identity Level

Many formal leadership development experiences are centered on the enhancement of self-awareness, focusing on enhancing an individual’s ability to form and then use a more accurate or thorough view of themself (Van Velsor & Guthrie, 1998). Thus, what passes most often as leadership development in research and practice can more accurately be labeled as leader development (Day & Harrison, 2007). There are a number of ways in which an individual can work to develop and understand their personal identities. Through an understanding of the dimensions of emotional intelligence as well as various typologies (such as multiple intelligences, learning style, personality, and strengths) an individual can come to
a greater understanding of who they are and of what their natural preferences are. Methods for helping individuals to understand themselves and their leader style through these typologies and assessments are detailed below. Underpinning these methods of self understanding and self-assessment are the philosophical foundations of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model (discussed above).

As a starting point, Avolio (2005) poses the following questions, which allow an individual to look at leader development at the personal identity level. Some key points of impact for leader development on the individual include:

- What does he/she believe?
- How does he/she think?
- What does he/she know?
- How does he/she behave?
- How confident is he/she?
- How open is he/she?
- How adaptive is he/she?
- How optimistic, hopeful, or resilient is he/she?
- How willing is he/she to change?
- How able is he/she to change?

These questions are meant as a foundation to give individuals who are beginning to develop a personal leader identity a place to begin thinking critically about themselves and their beliefs, behaviors, and developmental goals.

At this point, it is also important to note that individuals are attracted to the topic of leadership for a mix of reasons (Parks, 2005). Some are looking for leadership techniques,
skills, tactics, or a tool kit—they are interested in the instruments of leadership and want to learn how to package the skills they have and learn to guide and convince according to an unknown formula. Some are looking to sort out career challenges and prospects, to determine if they have what it takes to move into a larger arena, to find the correct path to take, or how to address problems in ways that make a significant difference. Finally, some are looking for validation of their competence, of whether they are destined for success as a leader, and affirmation of their identity and their efforts (Parks, 2005). Thus, in this process of self-discovery and understanding, it is important to acknowledge that every individual develops on her own horizon of readiness for her own reasons, and engages with what is rising to the surface of her own awareness (Parks, 2005).

**Emotional Intelligence**

Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively (Goleman, 2000). Dr. Reuven Bar-On, one of the fathers of the emotional intelligence movement, states that emotional intelligence is made up of a series of overlapping yet distinctly different skills and attitudes that are grouped into five general areas, called ‘realms’ (Stein & Book, 2006). The first realm, the Interpersonal Realm, concerns one’s ability to know and manage themself. The second realm, the Interpersonal Realm, also concerns one’s ‘people skills’ but is related to one’s ability to interact with and get along with others. The third realm, the Adaptability Realm, involves one’s ability to be flexible and realistic and to solve a range of problems as they arise. The fourth realm, the Stress Management Realm, concerns one’s ability to tolerate stress and control impulses. And the fifth realm, the General Mood Realm, relates to one’s maintenance of an optimistic attitude and general happiness (Stein & Book, 2006).
The concept of emotional intelligence provides a foundation to each level of leader and leadership identity development, showing individuals at each level how knowledge of various emotional intelligences can aid them in their leader and leadership identities at the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels. Interestingly and importantly, figure 4 reveals that the three largest realms of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and adaptability intelligence, strongly correspond respectively with the three levels of leader and leadership identity development (personal, interpersonal, and collective). As such, each of the three realms will be discussed in the appropriate methods section.

![Figure 4: Stein and Book’s (2006) EQ-I scales and what they assess](image)

The concept of emotional intelligence provides a foundation to each level of leader and leadership identity development, showing individuals at each level how knowledge of various emotional intelligences can aid them in their leader and leadership identities at the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels. Interestingly and importantly, figure 4 reveals that the three largest realms of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and adaptability intelligence, strongly correspond respectively with the three levels of leader and leadership identity development (personal, interpersonal, and collective). As such, each of the three realms will be discussed in the appropriate methods section.

![Figure 5: Relating the EQ-I Scales and what they Measure to the Levels of Leader and Leadership Development](image)
Background on Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence breakthroughs began to happen in the 1980s, aiming to answer the following questions: ‘Do some individuals possess greater emotional well-being than others?’; “Why are some individuals better able to achieve success in life?”; and “Why do some individuals who are blessed with superior intellectual abilities seem to fail in life, while other individuals with more modest abilities succeed?” (Stein & Book, 2006). Stein and Book (2006) have found through their study of emotional intelligence that good relationships and coping mechanisms are the key to success in every area of human activity, from parenting to management, and that the more emotional and social sense one has, the easier it is for him to go about his life in an efficient and productive way. According to Stein and Book (2006), every role that an individual seeks to fulfill requires the use of all of Emotional Intelligence’s 15 scales (although each of the scale’s relative weight or intensity will vary depending on the role). If an individual cannot convey what he or she knows to others, cannot relate to others, or behaves distastefully, no one will stay around long enough to admire that individual’s skill or creativity (Stein & Book, 2006). Further, no component of emotional intelligence exists in isolation, in fact, all are intertwined and all are valuable (Stein & Book, 2006).

There are a number of notable differences between cognitive intelligence (measured by IQ) and emotional intelligence (measured by EQ). Cognitive intelligence refers to the ability to concentrate and plan, to organize material, to use and understand words, and to assimilate and interpret facts (Stein & Book, 2006). IQ gauges cognitive intelligences in terms of how readily an individual learns new things, retains and recalls objective information, engages in a reasoning process, manipulates numbers, thinks abstractly and
analytically, and solves problems through the application of prior knowledge (Stein & Book, 2006). EQ, on the other hand, gauges how readily an individual reads and landscapes the political and social environment, intuitively grasps what others want and need, identifies what other’s strengths and weaknesses are, remains unruffled by stress, and is engaging/the kind of person other want to be around (Stein & Book, 2006). Further, IQ is pretty much set—peaking around the age of 17, remaining constant through adulthood, and waning during old age (Stein & Book, 2006). EQ, however, is not permanently fixed—the skills defined and measured by the EQ-i can be improved regardless of age and the stronger one’s skills, the greater are one’s chances for success (Stein & Book, 2006). This means that the earlier one develops their emotional intelligence, the greater the edge they will have in adulthood (Stein & Book, 2006).

It is also important to note that EQ is also not personality (which is the unique set of traits that help to form an individual’s characteristic and enduring and dependable ways of thinking, being, and doing) (Stein & Book, 2006). Like IQ, personalities are fixed and remain relatively stable throughout life. On the other hand, emotional intelligence is made up of short-term, tactical, and dynamic skills that can be utilized as the situation warrants and can be improved by means of training, coaching, and experience (Stein & Book, 2006).

Studies have also shown that while IQ only predicts an average of 6% of success at a given job, EQ has been found to be directly responsible for between 27-45% of success at a given job (Stein & Book, 2006). According to Stein and Book (2006), the issues confronting many organizations and teams have nothing to do with accounting, strategic planning, or budget sheets, but instead are the result of faulty communication, of individuals’ inability to understand how they and others function, of a failure to see someone else’s perspective, and
of a failure to grasp the impact of their own actions. This is why an understanding of and engagement with the realms of emotional intelligence is important at each level of leader and leadership identity development.

Assessing Emotional Intelligence: The EQ-i®

EQ-i stands for Emotional Quotient Inventory and it measures a person’s Emotional Quotient (EQ) (Stein & Book, 2006). The EQ-i has been administered to almost 42,000 people in 36 countries, which has built up a large collection of data revealing the incontrovertible link between emotional intelligence and proven success in the personal and professional lives of individuals (Stein & Book, 2006). The EQ-i is composed of 133 questions and is self-reporting, asking the takers of the assessment to answer each question with one of five answers ranging from ‘not true of me’ to ‘true of me.’ Each of the 15 different scales (shown in figure 4) is scored separately as are each of the five realms. A final score is then obtained (much like an IQ test), with scores ranging up or down from 100. The results provide information at three different levels: how one is doing as a whole with regard to their emotional intelligence (compared with the population at large), how one is doing in each of the five realms, and how one is doing in each of the 15 different scales (Stein & Book, 2006). The EQ-i must be administered and interpreted by a trained professional who has an understanding of the nuances and interrelationships between the scores of the 15 different scales (Stein & Book, 2006).

Leader Development and Emotional Intelligence

Both from a follower and leader perspective, leadership is an emotion-laden process and as such, a greater understanding of emotional intelligence has the potential to contribute to the practice of effective leadership (George, 2000). At the individual level on the Leader
and Leadership Identity Development Model, Day (2001) points to three specific examples of the kinds of intrapersonal competence associated with leader development initiatives: self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-motivation. Avolio & Gardner’s (2005) idea of authentic leadership also ties in closely with the development personal identity. They believe an authentic leader holds four main characteristics: he is true to himself, he is motivated by and base his actions on personal values, he leads from his own point of view, and he has positive psychological capital. These four characteristics are central to the development of a personal identity and are also highlighted in the first realm of the Emotional Intelligence Model. As such, individuals working on developing a personal leader identity should focus on developing competency in first realm of emotional intelligence and specifically in emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard, and self-actualization. Figure 6 details what developing emotional intelligence in the first realm entails.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Realms</th>
<th>EQ-I scales</th>
<th>The EI skill assessed by each skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
<td>Ability to be aware of and understand your feelings, behaviors, and their impact on others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>Ability to express and defend you feelings and beliefs in a constructive way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Ability to be self-directed and free of emotional dependency on others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Regard</td>
<td>Ability to respect and accept your strengths and weaknesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Actualization</td>
<td>Ability to set personal goals and realize your potential</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Re-cap of the first realm of Emotional Intelligence (Stein & Book, 2006)

**Typology**

Carl Jung, one of the pioneers of typology, suggested that human behavior is caused by innate differences in mental functioning which may appear in many aspects of life (including how individuals collect and interpret information, how they learn, and the types of activities that are of interest to them (Jung, 1971). According to Evans Forney, & Guido-DiBrito (1998), various typology theories reflect the stylistic differences in how individuals approach and experience their worlds and serve as a framework in which psychosocial and cognitive development takes place. Individual-based assessments based on typology theory,
such as personality inventories, are useful tools for individual identity development (Day & Harrison, 2007).

Typology theories are non-evaluative in that the different types (in any given typology) are discussed as simply being different but not as bad or good in and of themselves (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). The following typology theories (Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences, Kolb’s learning style inventory, the Myers-Briggs type Inventory, and StrengthsQuest) are of importance to the development of a personal leader identity. It is important to note however, that these typologies are not exhaustive and there are most likely additionally typologies that can aid an individual in developing their personal leader identity. While the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is largely utilizes a personality-based framework, other assessments could be added in that help an individual to learn more about their identities through cultural or values-based assessments. The various typologies, when utilized together, will give an individual a better-rounded picture of who they are, what their natural preferences and capacities are, and thus, how they can leverage these attributes to become a more effective self-leader.

*Multiple Intelligences*

In his theory of multiple intelligences, Howard Gardner contends that there are at least seven types of human capacities and abilities, which exist in each individual in varying degrees (Gardner, 1983). What is significant about Gardner’s theory is that individuals differ not only in the degree to which they are endowed with these intelligences, but also in how they use these abilities to perform tasks and solve problems (Weller, 1999). The use of Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences in developmental activities enables individuals to
enhance the ways in which they learn, think creatively, and problem-solve (Weller, 1999).

The seven intelligences that Gardner (1983) defines are:

- **Logical/Mathematical Intelligence**: the ability to detect patterns, reason deductively, and think logically. This intelligence is most often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking and is associated with IQ.

- **Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence**: having a mastery of language. This intelligence includes the ability to effectively manipulate language to express oneself and allows one to use language as a means to remember information.

- **Visual/Spatial Intelligence**: the ability to manipulate and create mental images in order to solve problems. This intelligence is not limited to visual domains as spatial intelligence is also formed in individuals who are visually impaired.

- **Musical Intelligence**: the ability to recognize and compose musical pitches, tones, and rhythms.

- **Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence**: the ability to use one's mental abilities to coordinate bodily movements. This intelligence challenges the popular belief that mental and physical activities are unrelated.

- **Interpersonal Intelligence**: the ability to notice and make distinctions among the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of different individuals.

- **Intrapersonal Intelligence**: the ability to distinguish, identify, and use various personal thoughts and feelings in understanding one's own behavior.

**Assessing Individual Intelligences**

Weller (1999) identifies a relatively straightforward assessment that can be used to determine an individual’s predominant intelligences. The assessment is comprised of 35
questions answered with either a ‘yes’ or a ‘no’ (See Appendix A). After an individual has completed the inventory, his answers can be complied to indicate his most preferred intelligences. Three or more yes answers in a given preference area indicates a strong preference in that intelligence area. It is important to note as well that an individual may also have strong preferences in more than one area (Weller, 1999).

**Leader Development and Multiple Intelligences**

As previously stated, these seven intelligences exist in varying degrees within each individual and are both inherited and culturally derived, with each individual developing an intellectual profile in myriad ways (Weller, 1999). However, Gardner’s (1983) theory states that all of the intelligences are of equal importance and every individual possess each of seven intelligences, but to varying degrees. At the personal level of leader development it is important that individuals understand that each individual holds different sets of developed intelligences and has their own unique set of intellectual strengths and weaknesses (Brualdi, 1996). According to Van Velsor and Guthrie (1998), the two types of personal intelligences (intrapersonal and interpersonal) are most likely to be affected by leader and leadership development experiences (Van Velsor & Guthrie, 1998). Thus, in the development of a personal leader identity, the development of intrapersonal intelligence is of paramount importance as it will allow an individual to distinguish, identify, and use various personal thoughts and feelings in understanding his or her own behavior (Brualdi, 1996).

**Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory**

While Kolb’s theory of experiential learning is best known for its learning style component and instrument, it is much more broad-based than that; in fact, Kolb himself thought of his theory as one of adult development (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).
Kolb (1981) defines learning styles as the habitual way in which an individual responds to learning environments and suggests that, as learning is a central task in life, how one learns may be a major personal determinant of personal development. Kolb (1981) postulates that learning happens in four different modes: concrete experience (the feeling dimension), reflective observation (the watching dimension), abstract conceptualization (the thinking dimension), and active experimentation (the doing dimension).

Individuals with learning strengths in concrete experience (CE) learn successfully through simulations, discussion, and personalized counseling. Individuals with learning strengths in reflective observation (RO) learn successfully through lectures, observation, and tests of their knowledge. Individuals with learning strengths in abstract conceptualization (AC) learn successfully through reading, private study, and well-organized presentation of ideas (such as lectures). And individuals with learning strengths in active experimentation (AE) learn successfully through feedback, small group discussions, and individualized learning activities (such as problem statements) (Blackwell & Cummins, 2007; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998; Kolb, 1981).

However, due to the fact that concrete experience (CE) and abstract conceptualization (AC) are polar opposites (in terms of how information is taken in by an individual), as are reflective observation (RO) and active experimentation (AE) (in terms of how an individual makes information meaningful), learners must choose which learning ability they will use each time a learning situation is encountered (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Based in individual preferences for either concrete experience or abstract conceptualization and for either reflective observation or active experimentation, four different learning styles emerge (Kolb, 1981).
The first type of learner is the Converger (with preferences for AC and AE), who is inclined to be a good problem-solver and decision-maker and is effective at applying ideas to practical situations. The second type of learner is the Diverger (with preferences for CE and RO—the opposite of the Converger), who tends to be imaginative and able to view situations from different perspectives to come up with novel alternatives and implications. The third type of learner is the Assimilator (with preferences for AC and RO), who excels at inductive reasoning, displays the ability to integrate disparate ideas into new theories, and create theoretical models. Finally, the fourth type of learner is the Accommodator (with preferences for CE and AE—the opposite of the Assimilator), who has the ability to implement plans, complete tasks, be open to new experiences, take risks, adapt to changing circumstances, and engage in intuitive problem-solving (Kolb, 1981; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

Individuals should strive to develop the abilities represented in each of these four modes rather than focusing on just their preferred style (Kolb, 1981; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). For example, individuals can engage in concrete experiences (CE) by involving themselves fully and without bias in learning experiences, reflective observation (RO) by observing and reflecting on their learning experiences from multiple perspectives, abstract conceptualization (AC) by formulating concepts that integrate the observations they have made into theories, and active experimentation (AE) by putting these theories to use in decision-making and problem-solving (Kolb, 1981; Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

Assessing Learning Styles: the LSI

The Kolb Learning Style Inventory (LSI) measures how people perceive information by placing them somewhere on a continuum between the extremes of concrete experience and abstract conceptualization. Likewise, it measures how people process information by
placing them on a continuum between the two extremes of active experimentation and reflective observation (Sharp, 1997). The LSI contains twelve questions related to learning and for each question, respondents are asked to rank the four possible responses from “most like you” to “least like you”, with each of the four responses corresponding to one of the four learning components (CE, RO, AC, and AE) (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). The LSI is self-scored; scores for each of the learning components are determined by adding the numerical ratings produced in each of the four columns (which, again, each correspond to the learning components) (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

**Leader Development and Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory**

At the individual level of leader development, understanding the various learning styles can help individuals to grasp how learning styles determine how an individual prefers to receive information; that individuals tend to send information in the way they wish to receive it; that learning styles affect group interaction and individual leadership styles; and that differences in learning styles may cause misunderstanding and conflict (Sharp, 1997). Further, when working on leader development with regard to learning styles, it is important that individuals recognize and capitalize on the strengths of their preferred learning styles and develop a healthy respect and honor for other styles, as all styles are equal (Sharp, 1997).

**Myers-Briggs Type Indicator**

The Myer’s-Briggs adaptation of Jung’s theory of personality types identifies differences in the ways in which individuals prefer to internalize and process information, perceive their environments, make judgments, reach conclusions about the information they take in, and how individuals utilize their perceptions and judgment to govern their behavior (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Further, the usefulness of the MBTI lies in helping
individuals to understanding their innate preferred behavioral styles (Brown & Reilly, 2009) as it identifies eight preferences arranged along four bipolar dimensions: Extraversion (E) - Introversion (I), Sensing (S) - Intuition (N), Thinking (T) - Feeling (F), and Judging (J) - Perceiving (P) (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). The MBTI’s four scales are each comprised of two opposite preferences defining the extremities of each scale: Extraversion-Introversion (the way an individual prefers to focus their attention and gets energy), Sensing-Intuition (the way an individual prefers to take in information), Thinking-Feeling (the way an individual prefers to make decisions), and Judging-Perceiving (the way an individual orients themselves to the external world) (Culp & Smith, 2005). Culp and Smith (2005) describe the eight preferences as such:

- Individuals with a preference for **Extraversion** are energized by interacting with others, are usually perceived as easily approachable and gregarious, and prefer to generate ideas with others rather than by themselves (and may become drained if they spend too much time in reflective thinking). Extraverts may become frustrated if they aren’t given the opportunity to express their thoughts.

- Individuals with a preference for **Introversion** are energized when they have quiet time to think ideas through before verbalizing them, as they process thoughts internally. Introverts usually find meetings or parties to be an energy drain, may be perceived as good listeners but also as distant and hard to get to know, and have a tendency to reach a conclusion before discussing their thought process.

- Individuals with a preference for **Sensing** prefer to take in the details of information that are real and tangible, tend to be very observant about the specific details of what is going on around them, and prefer specific answers to specific questions. Sensing...
types are more comfortable working with facts and figures than with theories, prefer clear project task descriptions rather than getting an overall plan with the details to follow, and would rather be doing something than thinking about it.

- Individuals with a preference for Intuition prefer to take in information by looking at the big picture and look for patterns and new possibilities. Intuitive types prefer to think about several things at once, like to figure out how things work, and tend to speak in generalities (and may get irritated when pushed to be more specific).

- Individuals with a preference for Thinking consider the logical consequences of a decision, objectively examine the pros and cons of a situation, and are energized by examining an issue to find what needs to be done so it can be resolved. Thinking types prefer to find a standard or principle that applies to all similar situations, tend to settle disputes based on what they believe is fair and truthful (rather than on what will make people happy), and are impressed with logical and scientific arguments.

- Individuals with a preference for Feeling consider what is important to them and to the other individuals involved and believe a good decision is one that takes the impacts on others into account. Feeling types are energized by supporting others, prefer harmony over clarity, do not like conflict, and will extend themselves to meet others’ needs, even at the expense of their own comfort.

- Individuals with a preference for Judging like to live in a planned, structured and orderly way and have a place for everything and are not happy until everything is in its place. Judging types want to make decisions, reach closure, and move on, don’t like surprises, and tend to have a schedule and plan for their project work (and may get flustered if things do not go as planned).
• Individuals with a preference for *Perceiving* like to live in a flexible and spontaneous way, feel confined by detailed plans and schedules, and like to explore new ways of doing things. Perceiving types prefer to stay open to information and last-minute options, enjoy the process more than closure, and believe time commitments to be approximate and not absolute.

Based on an individual’s preferences in each of the four dimensions, he or she can then be classified by one of sixteen different types. Jung believed that each individual is born naturally preferring one side of each dimension over the other but is capable of using each of the preferences to find greater effectiveness (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Interestingly, studies have shown that personality type is related to learning style, with *Extroverts* learning best through discussion and group activity, *Introverts* learning best through reading, working alone, and internally processing information, *Thinking* types valuing organization, objective material, and depth/accuracy of content, and *Feeling* types valuing learning through relationships/having a personal connection to the content (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

*Assessing Personality: the Myers-Briggs Test Instrument*

The Myers-Briggs Test Instrument is the most extensively used instrument in the assessment of personality type (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998), which involves a self-assessment of an individual’s behavioral preferences in regard to interacting with others, taking in information, and making decisions (Culp & Smith, 2005). The instrument itself is comprised of 126, forced-choice questions between two alternatives and each question on the test instrument is related to one of the four preference scales (noted above). The test
instrument is scored by tallying the number of times each of the eight preferences is selected, giving the individual taking it his four letter type (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

**Leader Development and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator**

The MBTI has also been one of the most widely used tools to assess leader and leadership effectiveness with regard to behavioral preferences (Culp & Smith, 2005) and can provide an individual with increased self-awareness of his or her behavior and decision-making style (Michael, 2003), which is a critical component in developing a personal leader identity. Additionally, according to Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito (1998), the intent of personality typologies is to create a framework to help individuals in appreciating individuality, another important component in developing a personal leader identity. However, Michael (2003) warns that individuals must also understand that their MBTI ‘type’ provides a limited view of their behavior. While the MBTI gives an overall picture of one’s personality and temperament, it does not predict an individual’s responses in light of various situational elements and contexts (Michael, 2003)

**StrengthsFinder**

The main premise behind the strengths-based philosophy is that individuals who capitalize on their best qualities are more likely to find greater success than if they invest effort into overcoming personal weaknesses and shortcomings (Rath, 2007). These best qualities are known as talents, which, according to Rath (2007), are among the most real and authentic aspects of one’s personhood and are a major part of what makes someone a unique individual. Talents are naturally recurring patterns of thought, feeling, or behavior that can be productively applied, whereas strengths are viewed as maximized talents that are refined by combining acquired relevant skills and learned/experienced knowledge (Rath, 2007). Talents
work in various combinations each time an individual does something very well (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006).

There is also a connection between one’s talents and their achievements. Talents are believed to be innate and empower individuals to move to higher levels of excellence and fulfill their potential (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). When an individual recognizes and understands her innate talents, she can begin to discover, develop, and apply who she really is (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). This continues as the individual builds on her talents with knowledge and skills to develop strengths. As one does this, her self-identity and personal values should become clearer, making her more confident, optimistic, and focused, with achievement naturally following (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). According to Clifton, Anderson, and Schreiner (2006), as an individual achieves through his greatest talents, he will likely aspire to higher goals and will also gain a great sense of personal satisfaction that results from knowing that he is becoming more and more of who he has the potential to be.

According to Rath and Conchie (2008), there are 34 unique human talent themes that have been distilled through decades of research. The 34 talents themes with descriptions are as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achiever</th>
<th>People strong in the Achiever theme have a great deal of stamina and work hard. They take great satisfaction from being busy and productive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activator</td>
<td>People strong in the Activator theme can make things happen by turning thoughts into action. They are often impatient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>People strong in the Adaptability theme prefer to “go with the flow.” They tend to be “now” people who take things as they come and discover the future one day at a time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>People strong in the Analytical theme search for reasons and causes. They have the ability to think about all the factors that might affect a situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arranger</td>
<td>People strong in the Arranger theme can organize, but they also have a flexibility that complements this ability. They like to figure out how all of the pieces and resources can be arranged for maximum productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief</td>
<td>People strong in the Belief theme have certain core values that are unchanging. Out of these values emerges a defined purpose for their life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>People strong in the Command theme have presence. They can take control of a situation and make decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>People strong in the Communication theme generally find it easy to put their thoughts into words. They are good conversationalists and presenters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>People strong in the Competition theme measure their progress against the performance of others. They strive to win first place and revel in contests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connectedness</td>
<td>People strong in the Connectedness theme have faith in the links between all things. They believe there are few coincidences and that almost every event has a reason.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>People strong in the Consistency theme are keenly aware of the need to treat people the same. They try to treat everyone in the world with consistency by setting up clear rules and adhering to them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>People strong in the Context theme enjoy thinking about the past. They understand the present by researching its history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliberative</td>
<td>People strong in the Deliberative theme are best described by the serious care they take in making decisions or choices. They anticipate the obstacles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developer</td>
<td>People strong in the Developer theme recognize and cultivate the potential in others. They spot the signs of each small improvement and derive satisfaction from these improvements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>People strong in the Discipline theme enjoy routine and structure. Their world is best described by the order they create.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>People strong in the Empathy theme can sense the feelings of other people by imagining themselves in others’ lives or others’ situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>People strong in the Focus theme can take a direction, follow through, and make the corrections necessary to stay on track. They prioritize, then act.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Futuristic</td>
<td>People strong in the Futuristic theme are inspired by the future and what could be. They inspire others with their visions of the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmony</td>
<td>People strong in the Harmony theme look for consensus. They don’t enjoy conflict, rather, they seek areas of agreement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideation</td>
<td>People strong in the Ideation theme are fascinated by ideas. They are able to find connections between seemingly disparate phenomena.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Includer</td>
<td>People strong in the Includer theme are accepting of others. They show awareness of those who feel left out, and make an effort to include them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualization</td>
<td>People strong in the Individualization theme are intrigued with the unique qualities of each person. They have a gift for figuring out how people who are different can work together productively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input</td>
<td>People strong in the Input theme have a craving to know more. Often they like to collect and archive all kinds of information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellection</td>
<td>People strong in the Intellection theme are characterized by their intellectual activity. They are introspective and appreciate intellectual discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner</td>
<td>People strong in the Learner theme have a great desire to learn and want to continuously improve. In particular, the process of learning, rather than the outcome, excites them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximizer</td>
<td>People strong in the Maximizer theme focus on strengths as a way to stimulate personal and group excellence. They seek to transform something strong into something superb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positivity</td>
<td>People strong in the Positivity theme have an enthusiasm that is contagious. They are upbeat and can get others excited about what they are going to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relator</td>
<td>People strong in the Relator theme enjoy close relationships with others. They find deep satisfaction in working hard with friends to achieve a goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>People strong in the Responsibility theme take psychological ownership of what they say they will do. They are committed to stable values such as honesty and loyalty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restorative</td>
<td>People strong in the Restorative theme are adept at dealing with problems. They are good at figuring out what is wrong and resolving it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Assurance</td>
<td>People strong in the Self-Assurance theme feel confident in their ability to manage their own lives. They possess an inner compass that gives them confidence that their decisions are right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>People strong in the Significance theme want to be very important in the eyes of others. They are independent and want to be recognized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic</td>
<td>People strong in the Strategic theme create alternative ways to proceed. Faced with any given scenario, they can quickly spot the relevant patterns and issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woo</td>
<td>People strong in the Woo theme love the challenge of meeting new people and winning them over. They derive satisfaction from breaking the ice and making a connection with another person.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: The 34 Human Talent Themes with Descriptions (Gallup Management Journal, 2009)
Assessing Strengths: the Clifton StrengthsFinder

The Clifton StrengthsFinder (an instrument Developed by Gallup, Inc.), is one method through which an individual can identify her positive personal characteristics. The Clifton StrengthsFinder is an internet-based measure consisting of 178 paired comparison items which assess the 34 possible talent themes (Lopez & Louis, 2009). Based on the answers given, respondents are provided with information on their top five dominant talent clusters (called ‘signature themes’) with descriptive statements about the themes and strategies for capitalizing on each (Lopez & Louis, 2009). The purpose of the StrengthsFinder instrument is to identify an individual’s Top Five signature themes which can be productively applied to achieve success (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006).

Leader Development and StrengthsFinder

The results of a number of studies suggest that the earlier individuals become aware of their strengths (and as a result build self-confidence), the more happy, healthy, and wealthy they will become (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Affirming strengths and positive qualities alone, however, is not sufficient in developing a personal leadership identity. According to Lopez and Louis (2009), the knowledge of mere talents and strengths alone is not enough for someone to base an identity around. As such, talents and strengths should not be viewed as static but as dynamic qualities to be developed over time. As an individual comes to understand and appreciate her own natural talents, she will become a more effective leader as she will have an understanding of what makes her especially and uniquely successful.

When the self is understood personally, apart from others, an individual’s definition of themself is derived from one’s understanding of their own unique personality (Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg (2003). Once an individual has an understanding of his
multiple intelligences, his learning style, his personality, and his talents (as well as how they all relate to one another), he can learn to leverage his strengths and natural tendencies in the quest of becoming an authentic, high-performing leader—using his personal capital to be as effective as possible. At its best, the personal self recognizes its own natural talents, making an individual more confident, optimistic, and focused (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). However, at its worst, the personal self is primarily egoistic and is preoccupied with its own identity, self-development, self-awareness, and self-improvement (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg (2003). Thus, it is important that individuals are encouraged and prompted to also work on the other levels of identity development.
THE LINK BETWEEN LEADER DEVELOPMENT AT THE PERSONAL IDENTITY LEVEL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AT THE SOCIAL IDENTITY LEVEL

It is in the space between personal identity development and social identity development that inner life becomes connected with outer action and the process of leader development begins to give way to the process of leadership development within an individual. According to Warren Buffet, “A leader is someone who can get things done through other people.” Day (2001) agrees, stating that the primary emphasis in leadership development should be on building and using interpersonal competence. As such, to effectively get things done through other people, a leader must be able to understand and relate to others. However, before one can hope to understand and relate to others, he must have a firm understanding of who he is, of his innate strengths and weaknesses and of his preferred styles—as well-functioning social and organizational systems cannot be built without proper investment in individual preparation (Day, 2001).

According to Day (2001), leadership development can be thought of as a strategy that integrates self-understanding to social and organizational imperatives. However, as was discussed earlier, effective leadership development must rest on a sound foundation of leader development (Day & Harrison, 2007). As leaders develop, their identities expand in focus from the individual level to include relational and collective identities (Day & Harrison, 2007). It is from an understanding of who one is that an individual can move onward and upward in her leadership development through the development of her social identity. In
essence, as an individual’s leader identity becomes more salient and crystallized, that individual will develop greater leadership effectiveness and will be more motivated to seek out greater opportunities for leadership development, practice leadership skills, take on new leadership challenges, and seek out experiences to enact and develop that aspect of the self (Day & Harrison, 2007).

Leadership always requires some kind of interpersonal relationship as a leader without a social context cannot be leader (Day & Harrison, 2007). According to Avolio (2005), leadership is not just about who one is, but is also about who one is with others; and the most authentic leaders have greater energy to explore and understand others because they understand themselves (Avolio, 2005). What has not been researched or focused on, according to Day and Harrison (2007), are the ways to build upon leader identity and leader development in enhancing interpersonal and collective leadership capacity. It is this concern that the balance of the paper is aiming to address.
LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AT THE SOCIAL IDENTITY LEVEL

Rationale for Leadership Development at the Social Identity Level

According to Hogan and Kaiser (n.d.), leadership is fundamentally about the performance of teams, groups, and organizations and is primarily concerned with persuading people to set aside selfish pursuits in support of communal interest. However, people tend to judge leaders based upon a broad set of criteria, only some of which involves the leader’s competence. In addition to making decisions about the collective through appropriate and reasonable procedures, leaders must also be concerned with how they treat the people they work with (Tyler, 2003). Thus, leadership should be seen as a responsibility to execute and a process which is separate from the term ‘leader’ (Hashem, 1997). The development of leadership capacity takes place in two distinct arenas: interpersonal leadership development and collective leadership development.

When the self is understood relationally, in light of others, an individual’s definition of herself is derived from the roles that specify her relationships with one or more others (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2003). According to Hogan and Kaiser (n.d.), the most important issues in life concern getting along with others and effective leaders are skilled at relationship-building. When the self is understood collectively (and more impersonally), an individual’s self-definition comes from identification with a larger collective and the individual is motivated to strive for collective welfare and group enhancement (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2003; van Knippenberg et al., 2005). From a collective
standpoint, leadership becomes a concept of owing certain things to one’s organization or institution (De Pree, 2003). According to Day and Harrison (2007), the development of interpersonal and collective leadership capacities is critical to sustaining leadership development over time.

However, Lord and Hall (2005) state that no general models for leadership development exist because historical and recent treatments of leadership have taken a trait perspective, attributing specific behaviors or traits to successful leadership and thus assuming that there was a best way to be a leader and practice leadership. Barker (1997) states that it is fairly easy to develop ten steps of this or seven ways of that and to put these steps/ways together coherently, however, the value of these steps/ways often does not find its way into actual practice. Further, even if the abilities, behaviors, and characteristics of successful leaders could be identified, a person would not reasonably be able to assimilate them without changing their own personality or ways of being, thinking, and doing (Barker 1997).

There are numerous ways in which an individual can develop to his full leadership potential based on his unique talents, strengths, and experiences—meaning that there is no such thing as one size fits all leadership development (Avolio, 2005). In fact, when Donald O. Clifton, the Father of Strengths Psychology, was asked was the greatest discovery from three decades of strengths psychology research was, he responded that just as a carpenter and a physician need to know the tools or instruments at their disposal, a leader must also know his or her own strengths, and when to call on them at the appropriate time—this is why no definitive list of leadership characteristics that describe all leaders exists (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Because there is no list of the ultimate strengths to hold, there can be no perfect leader (McCall, 2003). What follows are methods which individuals can utilize to develop their own
personal and unique leadership identity (based on their own unique talents, strengths, and experiences) at the interpersonal and collective levels.

Methods of Leadership Development at the Interpersonal Development Level

According to Day and Harrison (2007), what is missing from most leadership development initiatives is a focus on the interpersonal context. According to Riggio and Lee (2007), decades of leadership research suggest that the people skills are crucial for leadership effectiveness. Thus, in the development of one’s interpersonal leadership identity, emphasis must be placed on the development of social skills (Riggio & Lee, 2007). As a starting point for the development of an interpersonal leadership identity, Avolio (2005) poses the following questions, which allow an individual to gain a deeper understanding of leadership development at the interpersonal level. Some key points of impact for interpersonal leadership development include:

- What do others believe?
- What have others learned?
- What do others think?
- What do others know?
- How do others behave?
- How confident are others?
- How open are others?
- How adaptive are others?
- How optimistic, hopeful, or resilient are others?
- How able are others to lead?
- How willing are others to change?
• How able are others to change?

These questions are meant as a foundation to give individuals who are beginning to develop an interpersonal leadership identity a place to begin thinking critically about themselves in light of the beliefs, behaviors, and developmental goals of others. Day (2001) points to two specific components of interpersonal competence associated with leadership development initiatives: Social awareness (service orientation, developing others, etc.) and social skills (collaboration, cooperation, building bonds, etc.). Methods for developing social awareness and social skills are as follows.

*Emotional Intelligence and Interpersonal Leadership Development*

While emotional intelligence can lead to enhanced functioning in a variety of aspects of life, it also plays a particularly important role in leadership effectiveness (George, 2000). As such, emotional intelligence has become increasingly popular as a tool for developing effective leadership skills (Palmer, et al., 2001). A number of studies have been done which validate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership development, including Stein and Book’s (2006) testing of the Young Presidents Organization and Dr. Marian Ruderman and colleagues’ study of emotional intelligence and leadership performance in 302 leaders and senior managers at the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina (Stein & Book, 2006). What Ruderman and her colleagues found was that emotional intelligence accounted for approximately 28% of leadership performance (Stein & Book, 2006). According to Stein and Book (2006), high performing CEOs were found in both studies to be more empathetic, better at listening to and reading their employees, and had a better handle on their strengths and weaknesses than did lower-performing CEOs.
According to George (2000), to lead others effectively, leaders must be able to appraise how others feel, be knowledgeable about how to influence these feelings, anticipate how others will react to different circumstances, events, and changes, and effectively manage these reactions (George, 2000). Agreeing with this, Riggio and Lee (2007) state that it is very likely that successful leaders (and successful people in many walks of life) are so effective, in part, because they have taken the time to develop interpersonal emotional competencies. As previously stated, one of the primary emphases in leadership development is on building and using interpersonal competence, which is comprised of social awareness (empathy, service orientation, and developing others) and social skills (collaboration and cooperation, building bonds, and conflict management) (Day, 2001). Social awareness and social skills are central to the development of an interpersonal leadership identity and are also highlighted in the second realm of Stein and Book’s (2006) Emotional Intelligence Model. As such, individuals working on developing an interpersonal personal leadership identity should focus on developing competency in second realm of emotional intelligence. Figure 8 details what developing emotional intelligence in the second realm entails.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Realms</th>
<th>EQ-I scales</th>
<th>The EI skill assessed by each skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Ability to view the world from another person's perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
<td>Ability to be a cooperative, contributing member of your social group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
<td>Ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships with others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8: Re-cap of the second realm of Emotional Intelligence (Stein & Book, 2006)

**Typology and Interpersonal Leadership Development**

As stated earlier, various typology theories reflect the stylistic differences in how individuals approach and experience their worlds and serve as a framework in which psychosocial and cognitive development takes place (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). As such, individual-based assessments based on typology theory, such as personality
inventories, are not only useful in the development of an individual leader identity (as suggested by Day & Harrison, 2007), but can also be useful in the development of an interpersonal leadership identity. Typology theories can also help to explain interpersonal interactions and can provide guidance in working through conflict (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998).

The following typology theories (Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences, Kolb’s learning style inventory, the Myers-Briggs type Inventory, and StrengthsFinder) are of importance to the development of an interpersonal leadership identity. It is important to note again (as we did in the previous section), that these typologies are not exhaustive and there are most likely additionally typologies and tools that can aid an individual in developing leadership capacity. Further, these typologies, when utilized together, can help to explain interpersonal interactions, provide an understanding of what others bring to a particular situation, offer guidance in working through interpersonal conflict, help in the creation of positive environments in which an individual’s strengths are recognized and utilized (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998), and thus help an individual improve their interpersonal leadership capacity.

*Multiple Intelligences and Interpersonal Leadership Development*

As stated in the previous section, Van Velsor and Guthrie (1998) contend that the two types of personal intelligences (intrapersonal and interpersonal) are most likely to be affected by leader and leadership development experiences (Van Velsor & Guthrie, 1998). Thus, in the development of an interpersonal leadership identity, the development of interpersonal intelligence is of paramount importance as it will allow an individual to notice and make distinctions among the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of different
individuals (Brualdi, 1996). A main challenge for leaders is to utilize the existent knowledge of the human mind in order to develop human potential, which means taking into account the diverse ways that individuals learn, assigning tasks or allowing individuals to choose tasks based on their preferred modes of intelligence, and having a respect for individual talents and contributions (Weller, 1999). Thus, through an understanding of the multiple intelligences, an individual can greatly improve their interpersonal leadership capacity.

Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory and Interpersonal Leadership Development

When working on leadership development with regard to learning styles, it is important that individuals come to honor the preferred styles of others (which aids in delivering a message quickly and easily while avoiding unnecessary misunderstanding), learn to send information in a variety of ways, understand how to form teams (by appropriately matching or mixing styles to capitalize on strengths and compensate for weaknesses), and learn to diffuse the pain of conflict and resolve it by seeking a possible difference in learning style (Sharp, 1997). At the interpersonal level of leadership development, understanding the multiple learning styles can help individuals to understand the possible effects in communication and personal interaction, allowing an individual to develop a better sense of audience so they can present information (whether writing or speaking) that appeals to all four learning styles (Sharp, 1997). It is in the complex learning laboratory of the world that one sees the interconnectedness of leadership with social systems as the process of cognitive work and reflection on an individual’s experience provides an integrated approach that expands an individual’s leadership development (Engbers, 2006).
Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Interpersonal Leadership Development

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is one of the most highly regarded systems in the world for understanding different personalities, communication styles, work styles, and why people respond to situations in the way they do (Mulay, 2006). By examining individual preferences and natural behavioral tendencies, one can learn how individuals uniquely perceive and relate to the world (Mulay, 2006). Personality type theory makes an important contribution to one’s understanding of individual differences as it stresses the positive contributions made by all types of individuals and also provides helpful strategies for understanding and working effectively with others (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Understanding these relationships can assist an individual in understanding the underlying reasons for others’ perceptions and in creating an action plan to improve one’s leadership effectiveness. The Myers-Briggs Type Instrument can be a useful tool for understanding how an individual’s behavioral preferences affect others’ perceptions of the individual’s leadership effectiveness (Culp & Smith, 2005). Thus, holding an understanding of why individuals behave the way they do is of central importance to the development of an interpersonal leadership identity (Mulay, 2006).

Individuals can use the MBTI first to better understand themselves and increase their self-awareness (Michael, 2003) (and their personal leader identity) and then use the MBTI to enhance their working relationships with others through understanding how the style preferences of others are similar to and different from their own and find ways to utilize their preferred style to work with others more successfully (in the development of a cohesive interpersonal leadership identity) (Mulay, 2006). According to Michael (2003), executive coaches commonly use the MBTI as a feedback tool to gather critical information about their
clients as one of the initial steps in enhancing their clients’ leadership development. Accordingly, the MBTI can be used as a tool to assess whether problems that an individual is experiencing with others in matters dealing with conflict and collaboration are due to their personality styles (Michael, 2003). The MBTI has a place in leadership development and if used with prudence and not applied in a rigid fashion, the MBTI can be a useful assessment instrument in understanding and, if necessary, initiating changes in people’s behavior (Michael, 2003).

*StrengthsFinder and Interpersonal Leadership Development*

As discussed earlier, when an individual recognizes and understands his own innate, unique combination of talents (through utilizing the Clifton StrengthsFinder), he can begin to discover, develop, and apply who he really is (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). Once this happens, the individual also begin to recognize that others have their own unique combinations of talents as well (Clifton, Anderson, & Schreiner, 2006). According to Lopez and Louis (1999), as an individual comes to learn about the strengths of others and observes others leveraging their strengths, the individual can learn to leverage the strengths of others in the management of his own personal weaknesses. Through this process of understanding and utilizing the strengths of others in conjunction with his own strengths, an individual can increase his interpersonal leadership development.

Once an individual has an understanding of the multiple intelligences, learning style, personality, and talents, of others (and how they all relate to one another), she can learn to leverage the strengths and natural tendencies of others in the development of her interpersonal leadership identity—using not only her own personal capital, but also her
newly found social capital—in the quest of developing her own interpersonal leadership capacity.

Methods of Leadership Development at the Collective Development Level

As a starting point for the development of a collective leadership identity, Avolio (2005) poses the following questions, which allow an individual to gain a deeper understanding of leadership development at the collective level. Some key points of impact for collective leadership development include:

- What is the degree of engagement in the team/organization?
- What is the degree of alignment in the team/organization?
- What is the degree of coherence in the team/organization?
- What is the degree of cooperation in the team/organization?
- What is the degree of collective energy in the team/organization?

These questions are meant as a foundation to give individuals who are beginning to develop a collective leadership identity a place to begin thinking critically about themselves in light of the beliefs, behaviors, and developmental goals of a multiplicity of others. The challenge of collective leadership, according to George (2000), is that leaders are often faced with a large amount of information characterized by uncertainty and ambiguity; and out of this information, they need to chart a course for their teams or organizations. In addition to this, leaders engaged in collective leadership must also be able to engage others in confronting the challenge with them, adjusting their values, shifting their perspectives, and learning and practicing new habits (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003). At the collective level, leadership can be seen as a performing art with a range of roles that must be filled and enacted in different situations. To effectively develop a collective leadership identity,
individuals must be prepared to navigate a range of behaviors in response to situational demands and navigate transitions between leadership and followership (Pearce, 2007). This can be accomplished through utilizing the third realm of emotional intelligence as well as the practices of strengths-based leadership and adaptive leadership.

**Emotional Intelligence and Collective Leadership Development**

According to George (2000), leaders who have a high level of emotional intelligence are more knowledgeable of and adept at managing their emotions in successfully overcoming problems, meeting challenges, and seizing opportunities. After having developed high-quality interpersonal relationships with their followers, leaders who are high on emotional intelligence may instill in their organizations a sense of enthusiasm, excitement, and optimism as well as an atmosphere of cooperation and trust (George, 2000). Thus, individuals who can accurately assess how others feel and respond to (and sometimes alter) these feelings in productive ways are much more likely to be able to effectively overcome resistance to change and transform an organization in significant ways (George, 2000). George (2000) states that effective leadership (at the collective level) includes the following essential elements:

- Development of a collective sense of goals/objectives and how to go about achieving them;
- Instilling in others knowledge and appreciation of the importance of work activities and behaviors;
- Generating and maintaining excitement, enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust in an organization;
- Encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; and
• Establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

Emotional intelligence may help leaders in the development of a collective set of goals and objectives and how to go about achieving them, contributing to their leadership effectiveness and development (George, 2000). Through problem-solving, reality-testing, and flexibility, leaders may use their emotions to enhance their information processing of the challenges, threats, issues, and opportunities facing their organizations. Figure 9 details what developing emotional intelligence in the third realm entails.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Realms</th>
<th>EQ-I scales</th>
<th>The EI skill assessed by each skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
<td>Ability to solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reality-Testing</td>
<td>Ability to view things the way they are rather than the way you want or fear them to be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Ability to adapt and adjust your thinking, behaving, and feelings to new information</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9: Re-cap of the third realm of Emotional Intelligence (Stein & Book, 2006)

Strengths-Based Leadership and Collective Leadership Development

Typology theories can also be used in the analysis of group interactions (Evans, Forney, & Guido-DiBrito, 1998). Thus, in addition to helping individuals find their own unique talent themes, StrengthsFinder can also be utilized to help team members in maximizing their contribution to a group’s collective goals (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Strengths-Based Leadership is a continuation of the StrengthsFinder typology and its cornerstone is the belief that the path to great leadership starts with a deep understanding of the strengths that an individual brings to the table—for it is nearly impossible for an individual to lead effectively without an awareness of her own strengths (Rath & Conchie, 2008). It is also important to note that each individual leads differently, based on her own talents and limitations (Rath & Conchie, 2008). For example, while Winston Churchill’s commanding leadership style succeeded in mobilizing war-ravaged Britain, it is unlikely that he would have been as successful had he tried to emulate Gandhi’s calm and quiet leadership.
style, which helped India to gain its independence (Rath & Conchie, 2008). According to Rath and Conchie (2008), both of these leaders knew their strengths and utilized them wisely in the furthering of collective goals.

Organizations, however, are quick to look to leaders who are excellent communicators, visionary thinkers, and who have the execution and follow-through abilities necessary to succeed, yet of all of the leaders that Gallup has studied, Gallup has yet to find a leader who has world class strength in all of these areas. What Gallup has found however, is that those who strive to be competent in all areas end up becoming the least effective leaders overall (Rath & Conchie, 2008). To answer the question of what the keys are to effective leadership, Gallup gathered 20,000 in-depth interviews with senior leaders, examined over one-million studies of work teams, and reviewed 50 years of Gallup Polls about the world’s most admired leaders (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Gallup made three key findings from this research, which tie back to the development of leader and leadership identities at the three different levels:

1. The most effective leaders are continually investing in their strengths (which relates to the development of a personal leader identity);

2. The most effective leaders understand the needs of their followers (which relates to the development of an interpersonal leadership identity); and

3. The most effective leaders surround themselves with the right people, seeking to maximize their team building on each individual’s strengths (which relates to the development of a collective leadership identity) (Rath & Conchie, 2008).

From Gallup’s review of the interviews, research, polls, and studies to date, Gallup identified four distinct domains of leadership strength: Executing, Influencing, Relationship-
Building, and Strategic Thinking (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Each of these domains consists of the various talent themes which were discussed previously. The idea is that once an individual understands where his talent themes lie, he can look at the following chart to understand what his dominant leadership domain is (based on where their talent themes fall).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Executing</th>
<th>Influencing</th>
<th>Relationship-Building</th>
<th>Strategic Thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achiever</td>
<td>Activator</td>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>Analytical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arranger</td>
<td>Command</td>
<td>Developer</td>
<td>Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Connectedness</td>
<td>Futuristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Ideation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliberative</td>
<td>Maximizer</td>
<td>Harmony</td>
<td>Input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td>Self-Assurance</td>
<td>Includer</td>
<td>Intellection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>Individualization</td>
<td>Learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Woo</td>
<td>Positivity</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restorative</td>
<td></td>
<td>Relator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 10: How the 34 talents themes sort into the four domains of leadership strength (Rath & Conchie, 2008)

According to Figure 10, leaders with strengths in the Executing domain know how to make things happen and have the ability to catch an idea and make it a reality; leaders with strengths in the Influencing domain help their team to reach a broader audience, take charge, speak up, and make their team heard; leaders with strengths in the Relationship-Building domain have the unique ability to create teams that are greater than the sum of their parts and are the glue that holds their team together; and leaders with strengths in the Strategic Thinking domain keep their team focused on what could be and challenge their team to continually stretch their thinking for the future (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Rath and Conchie (2008) state that even if two leaders have the same goals for their team, the way in which the team will meet the goals remains dependent on the leader’s and the team’s unique combination of strengths and talents.

Along with this, Gallup also found that the most effective and cohesive teams possesses a broad grouping of strengths as well as a representation of strengths in each of the four domains of leadership (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Although individuals need not be well-
rounded, the best teams should be (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Thus, collective leadership development systems must be built on a foundation that incorporates the intriguing variety among talented people (McCall, 2003). According to McCall (2003), people are complex tapestries of values, attitudes, beliefs, and abilities and it is misleading to believe that and one group of virtues applies to all successful leaders in all situations. It is how the tapestry is woven (not the individual threads) that determines how it looks; further, it is the room it is hung in and the surrounding décor (and again not the individual threads) that determine whether the colors and patterns of the tapestry are a good fit (McCall, 2003).

*Adaptive Leadership and Collective Leadership Development*

Leadership in the world of today, according to Parks (2005), requires increasing one’s capacity to see and understand the complex and volatile interdependence among collective systems. Through an understanding of the practice of adaptive leadership, individuals can learn a completely new way of understanding leadership and come to perceive the act of leadership (and themselves) in a new way (Parks, 2005). Adaptive leadership theory offers a set of ideals and also sets them in direct dialogue with an individual’s own experiences and thus can be practiced by individuals from a broad range of backgrounds, interests, and concerns in various contexts (Parks, 2005). Those who look to others for leadership as well as those who aspire to be leaders themselves are often vulnerable to the deep-seated belief that leaders are most recognizable when they operate from an unquestioned, clear, and steady purpose while taking decisive, unambiguous action (Parks, 2005). However, it is when individuals understand that it is possible to effectively intervene without being able to entirely control the outcome that they discover a new relationship between themselves and the world (Parks, 2005) and can begin to form their own collective leadership identity.
According to Parks (2005), the theory of adaptive leadership is built on a framework for understanding and practicing leadership that rests in four critical areas:

1. Authority versus Leadership
2. Technical Problems versus Adaptive Challenges
3. Power versus Progress
4. Personality versus Presence

The primary functions of authority include providing orientation and direction for a group, setting group norms, resolving conflict, and providing protection. The primary functions of leadership, however, are to mobilize people, groups, organizations, and societies to address their toughest problems, to assist people in moving beyond their familiar patterns and into the unknown territory of greater complexity, new learning, and new behaviors (Parks, 2005). The distinction between technical problems and adaptive challenges is that while technical problems can be adequately solved with knowledge and procedures already in hand, adaptive challenges require new learning and innovation as well as new patterns of behavior. From this standpoint, leadership is the activity of addressing adaptive challenges, or ‘swamp issues’, which are tangled, complex problems composed of multiple systems requiring changes of heart and mind, the transformation of long-standing habits, and deeply held assumptions and values (Parks, 2005). Swamp issues require that leaders recognize interdependent systems and see the intricate web of connections among seemingly disconnected populations, organizations, actions, and events and through this understanding, individuals come to discover that leadership occurs in a vast, complex, and dynamic world where knowledge is always partial and the outcomes of one’s actions are always uncertain (Parks, 2005).
Once the distinction is made between authority and technical problems on one hand and leadership and adaptive challenges on the other, leadership issues becomes less a matter of personal power (who has it and how it is used) and becomes more of a matter of making progress on difficult issues (Parks, 2005). Additionally, once the focus shifts from authority and technical problems to leadership and adaptive challenges, the charisma and social dominance (or the personality) of the leader becomes much less critical and acts of leadership depend more on the capacities of individuals (which is located in a wide variety of positions) to skillfully intervene in complex systems (Parks, 2005). Finally, the capacity to be present (to comprehend what is happening, to hold steady in the face of action, and to make choices as to how to effectively intervene in the collective) in ways that help the group make progress on adaptive challenges is an important factor in effective collective leadership (Parks, 2005).

As a foundational element of the theory of adaptive leadership (and in developing collective leadership capacity), individuals practicing leadership must be able to imagine themselves on the ‘dance floor’ (as an active participant in a complex scene) and also to imagine themselves on the ‘balcony’ (to see things that could not be discovered on the dance floor alone) (Parks, 2005). There are some things about the dance that one will only understand by actually dancing; while being on the balcony provides new perspective and allows one to see larger issues and patterns of interaction (Parks, 2005). Without an ability to move back and forth from the field of action to the balcony and to reflect on the myriad ways in which a collective’s habits can sabotage adaptive work, the individual leader can unwittingly become a prisoner of the system (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003). This means that solutions to adaptive situations require that all members of an organization take responsibility for the issues that face them and thus reside not only within individual leaders but also in the
collective intelligence of employees throughout the organization (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003). Thus, adaptive challenges can be difficult and stressful for the individuals taking them on as they must take on new roles, forge new relationships, develop new values, behaviors, and approaches to work (Heifetz & Laurie, 2003).

Situations calling for adaptive leadership require an understanding and competence in working in both large and small groups and an understanding of the divergent viewpoints of each (Parks, 2005). Working in a large group allows individuals to discover patterns within the larger picture and how to intervene in a complex, confusing, and multi-systemic field, while working in a small group allows individuals to see a system in which matters are of an interpersonal nature (Parks, 2005). As students become more skilled at deciphering the patterns of the social system in both the small and large groups, they can begin to make interventions in the group systems (Parks, 2005).

The practice of adaptive leadership relates well to the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model. One of the strengths of adaptive leadership is that each individual, according to his or her need and readiness, has the opportunity to discover some of their own blind spots, deficits in their experience, and consequences of acting from their own default settings (Parks, 2005). Thus, learning the practice of adaptive leadership presents various challenges to each individual, which can be worked on at the level of individual leader identity development. Parks (2005) also states that listening closely and deeply to others is the central pathway to the kind of intelligence and compassion that are critical to adaptive leadership. Listening to and understanding others are the basic premises to the development of an interpersonal leadership identity. Through working with large and small groups and learning how to gain presence within them, individuals begin to see how the strength of their
inner resources, their sense of purpose, and knowing themselves deeply contributes to their ability to be present on behalf of the common good of the group (Parks, 2005). This is critical in the development of a collective leadership identity. Additionally, Parks (2005) states that the crucible for the formation of the practice of adaptive leadership is forged through the creation of a range of opportunities for engagement and reflection and if individuals are to move from one way of seeing and behaving to another, there must be a social culture that keeps them focused and working through issues. This, finally, relates back to Van Velsor & Guthrie’s (1998) experiential learning assertions (recognition that new behaviors/skills/attitudes are called for, engagement in new development experiences, and development and utilization of tactics/skills/approaches/attitudes), and is the experiential piece in the model with allows individuals to revisit and work through the three levels of the model at different times in light of new paradigms built at other levels and at higher levels of understanding.
SUMMARY OF IMPLICATIONS

Developing leadership competencies are important no matter the position that an individual finds themselves in a team or organization; however, the competencies that lead to leadership success at lower levels are not necessarily the same as those that will lead to leadership success at higher levels (Day & Harrison, 2007). Thus, to be effective, leaders must be prepared to navigate a range of behaviors in response to situational demands and navigate transitions between leadership and followership (Pearce, 2007). In order to effectively develop future leaders, conventional educational methods and theories must be replaced with more dynamic and adaptive approaches to leadership theory (Parks, 2005). This is fundamentally what the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model aims to do. The central tenet of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is that leaders as well as the effective practice of leadership are both developed through an understanding of and engagement with the three distinct levels of self-definition. Figure 11 details the progression of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model along with the various methods that an individual can utilize to develop his or her own leader and leadership identity at each level.
To reiterate, the model begins as an individual looking to develop as a leader first strives to differentiate himself as a leader. This individual will likely have a rather generic view of leadership and will approach most situations in the same way (Day & Harrison, 2007). Further, at this level, an individual may conceive of leadership primarily in terms of traits or other individual attributes or in terms of role-based authority (Day & Harrison, 2007). At the first level, methods that can be utilized in individual leader development include the first realm of Stein and Book’s (2006) emotional intelligence model, and various typologies aimed at giving the leader a better-rounded understanding of their intelligences, their learning style, their personality, and their strengths.

As the leader develops, his or her responses become less general and more context-dependent. This shift also includes a focus away from the self to include the perspectives of
others, as the leader’s cognitive understanding of leadership grows to include other individuals and groups. A leader with a relational identity understands leader-member exchanges and may conceive of leadership in terms of negotiating influence with others (Day & Harrison, 2007). At the second level, methods that can be utilized in interpersonal leadership development include the second realm of Stein and Book’s (2006) emotional intelligence model, and various typologies aimed at giving the leader an increased understanding of the intelligences, learning styles, personalities, and strengths of other individuals.

Finally, a leader with a collective identity supports a shared identity and may understand leadership as a shared property of a social system that includes interdependencies of individuals, teams, and organizations (Day & Harrison, 2007). At the third level, methods that can be utilized in individual leader development include the third realm of Stein and Book’s (2006) emotional intelligence model, as well as Rath and Conchie’s (2008) theory of strengths-based leadership and the Heifetz’s theory of adaptive leadership (Parks, 2005).

As stated previously, the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model can be used as the framework for a leader and leadership development program, course, or series of training sessions and can be taught at different levels to different groups of people. For this to happen effectively, it is imperative that the instructor clearly understand where the individuals fall developmentally and what their leadership experiences and conceptions are coming into the program, course, or training session. If this model is to be used effectively, the instructor must know who they are guiding and what their horizon of readiness is as well as what learners will be experiencing at each level of the model (as was just discussed). The model should always be presented as a progression in which one level is built upon...
consideration to the other levels. However, depending on the where the learners fall (in terms of experiences and/or development level), it is important that the instructor employs appropriate developmental interventions that meet the learners where they are and that provide them with the direction and support that they need.

For example, in a traditional undergraduate course, it would be appropriate for the instructor to focus more on methods at the personal and interpersonal identity levels as traditional college-age students (with a lack of leadership and life experiences) must first develop a firm conception of who they are and how they relate to others before they can apply those understandings to the practice of leadership. On the other hand, in a training session for working professionals, it perhaps would be more appropriate for the instructor to get a gauge of the leadership experiences and developmental readiness of the learners to ascertain where preliminary focus should be given. In any case, instructors should pay close attention to the progression of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model (Figure 3) and to where the learners fall in the model. From there, the methods featured in the model can be used by an instructor to guide individuals into the different levels through the development and utilization of new behaviors, approaches, attitudes or experiences.

Thus, through understanding the various levels of leader and leadership identity development and through employing appropriate developmental interventions at each level, an instructor can aid individuals in understanding who they are as a leader and increase their leadership capacity in relation to others and within collectives. One major challenge for instructors using this model is that they must not focus the how-to-s of leadership, but rather on the how-to-be-s of leadership—on helping learners to develop character, mind-set, values, principles, and courage (Hesselbein, 2003). In doing so, the instructor will show learners that
they while they can only speculate on the tangibles that will define their future leadership challenges, they can embrace the intangibles (or the leadership qualities required), which are expressed in their character and their internal power (Hesselbein, 2003).

For Future Consideration and Further Research

The Leader and Leadership Identity Development model was based upon an understanding of identity as the behavioral or personal characteristics of an individual. The typologies that were selected were aimed at helping an individual to explore and understand their own behavioral and personal characteristics as well as the behavioral and personal characteristics of others. The theories behind learning style, multiple intelligences, behavioral type, and strengths-building will help an individual to garner a more-well-rounded picture of who they are, how they prefer to receive and process information, and what natural qualities help them to be successful. As was previously stated, the typologies that were showcased were not meant to be an exhaustive list, but were rather used to provide the reader with an idea of some useful methods that could be employed by an individual in exploring and understanding their leader and leadership identities. While an understanding of behavioral and personal characteristics is of paramount importance in the development of personal, interpersonal, and collective leader and leadership identities, there are a couple of additional elements that could be of significance in developing these identities as well. Should this model be expanded or improved upon, methods of determining personal values and cultural understanding should be investigated and incorporated.

At the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels, an understanding of the values that one holds may be imperative in helping an individual to further recognize and develop her leader and leadership identities. At the personal level, understanding and defining one’s
values is of importance to understanding who one is as a person. At the interpersonal level, knowing what one’s values are will help them in understanding why others hold the values that they do. Finally, at a collective level, this knowledge of one’s values, as well as the values of others, will aid in an understanding of how collective values are engendered within a group of individuals. There are many different assessments that would be appropriate in helping an individual to clearly define and understand what their values are which could be incorporated into the methods sections at each of the levels.

Additionally, upon further review, theories and methods that make the Leader and Leadership Identity Development more culturally-inclusive should be explored. As was stated previously, the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model is meant to be worked on as a progression, with the individual leader identity being worked on first and then with interpersonal and collective leadership identities being built upon that foundation. While using personal identity as the foundation of the model works for an individualistic culture (as exists in America), it may not work for a collectivist-oriented culture (as exists in many Asian countries). Further research would be necessary to determine if this model could be understood and utilized with multiple initial access points, rather than just at the personal level, making this model more applicable on a global level. Regardless of the culture that this model is utilized in, it is important that cultural understanding and competencies are incorporated as well. An understanding of one’s cultural identities would help an individual to see how their heritage informs who they are at the personal level, would increase an individual’s understanding and appreciation of the cultural identities of others at the interpersonal level, and would aid an individual in honoring and appreciating the cultural identities of a multiplicity of individuals at the collective level. One assessment that may
utilized as a method to increase cultural awareness at the personal, interpersonal, and collective levels is the thunderbird Global Mindset Inventory.

Of final consideration is how an instructor could assess the success of the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model when used as a framework for a leader and leadership development program, course, or series of training sessions. This presents a large challenge as this is a process-oriented model and not a product-oriented model. As stated earlier, leader and leadership development is a proactive and continuous learning process that can span a lifetime, in which knowledge, experience, and sustained action are continually synthesized, attempted, and reinforced, allowing for more advanced learning and growth opportunities (Barker, 1997, Brungardt, 1996, Day, 2001, & Lord & Hall, 2005). As leader and leadership development spans a lifetime and should be viewed as a process of continued improvement, the determination of the successful application of this model really rests in the hands of the individuals who are looking to develop as leaders. According to Avolio (2005), an individual’s leader and leadership development unfolds over time based on his or her developmental readiness (Avolio, 2005).

Based on the variance in individual developmental readiness, the most appropriate gauge that an instructor can use to see whether this model is helping individuals to develop leader and leadership identities is through the self-reflection and self-assessment of the individuals as to their experiences and perceptions. Because leadership is something that can be practiced but never fully mastered, the appraisal of any kind of leader or leadership development will ultimately be a matter of individual perception. As individuals grow and develop, they will define and conceive of leadership in new ways and thus trying to assess one’s development as a leader is like shooting at a moving target. Should further work be
done with this model, an area for improvement would be to develop a method to quantify if this model does indeed further the growth of an individual’s leadership identities. Until that time, individual appraisals of whether they felt they grew through the utilization of this model are the most appropriate way to determine if this model was successfully applied.
CONCLUSION

According to De Pree (2003), to be a leader is to enjoy the privileges of complexity, ambiguity, and diversity—it also means having the opportunity to make a meaningful difference in the lives of those who permit one to lead. Thus, in developing leader and leadership identities, the focus must not on the how-to-s of leadership (on learning specific leadership-related traits and behaviors), but instead should be focused on how-to-be-s of leadership (on developing quality, character, mind-set, values, principles, and courage) (Hesselbein, 2003). This necessitates the creation of a more spacious conception of leadership which embraces the creation of new realities as well as an understanding of other people (Parks, 2005).

As a part of this more spacious conception of leadership, individuals must understand leader and leadership development not as a destination but as a process of becoming (Avolio, 2005) and it is through framing one’s leader and leadership development with the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model that leadership comes to be seen less as a way of behaving and becomes more of a state of mind and way of being. Of central importance to the self and identity approach to leader and leadership development is that an individual’s awareness of the way in which she understands her identity informs her feelings, beliefs, attitudes, goals, and behavior (van Knippenberg et al., 2005). The development of identity is critically important for aspiring leaders because it grounds them in an understanding of who
they are and informs them of their personal strengths and limitations, which, in turn, promotes and accelerates their leader and leadership development (Day and Harrison, 2007).

According to Quinn (1996), the hero’s journey is a story of the transformation of his or her own identity. To venture outside of oneself causes one to think differently and to continue this journey is to reinvent oneself; to expand one’s consciousness, and to view the world differently, but more effectively. This new way of viewing the world differently causes one to see themself differently, understanding how to more effectively impact their environment (Quinn, 1996). Thus, leadership development theory must not only recognize singular experiences in the leadership development process but also must begin to link variables and experiences together for a more complete theory of leadership development (Brungardt, 1996). It is upon this sentiment that the Leader and Leadership Identity Development Model was built, as it is through allowing an individual to explore his various identities in different contexts that he can more greatly contribute to the effective practice of leadership.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

Appendix A: Weller’s (1999) Learning Preferences Inventory to Assess Multiple Intelligences

Directions: Write yes beside each statement below if it describes how you feel about the activity. Write no beside each statement if it does not describe how you feel.

1. I enjoy reading and watching movies and find the activity fun
2. I enjoy writing and find the activity personally challenging
3. I enjoy word games, memorizing trivia, and story/joke telling
4. I enjoy listening to people, talking books, and commentary
5. I enjoy talking to others, explaining things, and making oral arguments
6. I enjoy experimenting, questioning, and figuring out logical puzzles
7. I enjoy mathematics, problem solving, and computer games
8. I enjoy playing chess, or other strategy games
9. I enjoy thinking in abstract terms
10. I enjoy order, structure, and putting things in categories
11. I enjoy reading charts, maps, and diagrams more than reading a text
12. I enjoy doing jigsaw puzzles and mazes
13. I enjoy doodling and drawing out solutions to problems.
14. I enjoy reading material that has many pictures and illustrations.
15. I enjoy visualizing in three dimensions.
16. I enjoy working with my hands at concrete activities
17. I enjoy walking or running and I use these activities to generate ideas or solve problems
18. I enjoy touching things to learn more about them
19. I enjoy using hand gestures and other body movements when explaining things to people
20. I enjoy learning a new skill by doing it rather than reading about it or seeing a slide or video
21. I enjoy listening to music on a regular basis
22. I use music to relax and as a thought-stimulating agent
23. I enjoy playing a musical instrument
24. I enjoy memorizing music and lyrics and can usually repeat a song after hearing it 1 or 2X
25. I enjoy using symbols and symbol systems to learn or communicate
26. I enjoy having people ask me for advice or council
27. I enjoy being with groups of people and having many friendships
28. I enjoy teaching other people
29. I enjoy debates and persuading other people
30. I enjoy taking charge and leading others in tasks to be done
31. I enjoy being alone to reflect or meditate
32. I enjoy learning through counseling sessions or self-help books
33. I enjoy solitude more than parties or group activities
34. I enjoy being a private person and keep most personal information private
35. I enjoy being independent and have knowledge of my personal strengths and weaknesses

The following questions correspond to the following intelligences:
• Questions 1-5: Verbal/linguistic intelligence;
• Questions 6-10: Logical/mathematical intelligence;
• Questions 11-15: Visual/spatial intelligence;
• Questions 16-20: Bodily/kinesthetic intelligence;
• Questions 21-25: Musical intelligence;
• Questions 26-30: Interpersonal intelligence;
• Questions 31-35: Intrapersonal intelligence.