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Management Development; Defining the theoretical backbone of an integrated global model

Abstract

This article provides the results of the analysis of the relevant theories on Management Development (MD) and serves as the theoretical basis for an empirical research in this area. The aim of this paper is the identification and critical analysis of different approaches and opinions of other authors, my attempt to define typologies and a proposal of a concise model which can serve as a tool to audit existing models, or support the development of the build-up of Management Development models for international organizations. Therefore the central research question underlying this research is, what the common model is, for developing high potentials in international organizations? This answer to that question leads the way to the goal of the research, which is to define an overarching MD model for high potentials based on combined theory, implicit knowledge and practical solutions, which can prove useful for companies to serve as a basis to build or evaluate their MD model.

Kewords: *management development, management, leadership*

Phase 1: Defining leadership and management as the central construct in MD models

Management Development (MD) is the process through which managers learn and improve their skills to benefit themselves as well as their employing organizations [Cannell, 2008]. This process supports the career of the individual, which [Hall, 1986] is a sequence of related work experiences and activities, directed at personal and organizational goals, through which a person passes during his / her lifetime and which are partly under the individual´s control and partly under that of others. MD programs usually refer to the long-term off-the-job and on-the-job educational process; management training refers to shorter courses [Bass, 2007, page 1109]. The Management Development process (MD) is focused at developing specific capabilities or competencies that a company expects it needs for the future. These capabilities or competencies are part of the´ strategic architecture´ of the company. A strategy describes how an organization can create sustained value for its shareholders, customers and communities [Kaplan & Norton, 2004] and the strategic architecture is ´the essential link between (...) short term and long term. It shows the organization what competencies it must begin building right now, (....) what new development priorities it should be pursuing right now to intercept the future needs´. [Hamel & Prahalad, 1994]. In short, MD focuses on developing the competencies as expected the company needs in the future, which are partially technical knowledge, skills and attitudes. In order to manage the effective utilization of resources, the means utilized have to be reviewed and those methods chosen that contribute best to the development of such competencies.

Management and Leadership

Though the word Management Development has the word ´management´ encompassed in it, it entails both the development of leadership as well as of management capabilities as both represent strategic competencies needed for the future [Hamel & Prahalad, 1994]. Management and leadership however represent two different paradigms, two different sets of assumptions shared by members of a scientific community [Kuhn, 1962, 1979]. Management is part of the economic- whereas leadership is part of the behavioral sciences paradigm. [e.g. Kouzes and Posner,2007, Riggs 1982; Hickman, 1990; Kotter, 1988]. But are the two paradigms indeed incommensurable [Kuhn, 1962], or can a bridge be created that allows the two paradigms to be brought together?

Leadership and management cannot be seen separately of one another, which do not mean it is the same thing. ´ It´s obvious that a person can be a leader without being a manager and a person can be a manager without leading. Indeed some managers do not even have subordinates [Yukl, 1994, page 4]. It has more to do with the way one fills the role of a manager and leader in an organization then to create the two as different roles. [Den Hartog, c.s., 1997]. ´The biggest difference between managers and leaders is the way they motivate the people who work or follow them´ Straker [2008] . The two paradigms indeed have different ´birth grounds´, which have also led to two different ways to research and develop the theories, namely inductive for the economic-based theory versus deductive for the social science based theory [Popper, 1935, De Vries, 1985]. Their history however shows a clear joint influencing of each other's development. Their roots stem from the early industrial revolution that created the need for new theories on leadership and management.

The development of leadership research has taken place when there was a societal drive to better understand the concept of steering people. The need to understand and study leadership as a phenomenon became greater when the amount of people, hence the impact on society of the leaders becomes greater. In this concept pre-methodical leadership is leadership performed in the era before methodical leadership research was documented. Though proof of the presence of true leadership is apparent, no research or analysed data of leadership practices in that era is available. Examples of pre-methodical leadership are for instance the movements of Julius Caesar's troops throughout Europe, with hardly any means of communication, nevertheless succeeding in conquering vast amounts of continent, the building of the Chinese wall, mankind's largest hand-build structure, and finally the building of the pyramids of Cheops, in which 25.000 people worked in 3-shifts in a matrix organisation [Verner, 2001] .

The first mentioning of the concept of a ´leader´, relating to the more modern concepts is found since 1300 according to Oxford English Dictionary [1933]. The word ´leadership´ was not even found until the first half of the 19^{th} century, where it related to political influence and control of the British Parliament. ´In earlier times, words meaning ´head of state´, military commander, princeps, proconsul or king were common in most societies. These words differentiated the ruler from other members of society´ [Bass, 2007, pag 14]. In these days therefore the word ´headship´ instead of leadership, ergo the position defining the leader, was much more used. Machiavelli, describes in 1513 thoughts on statesmanship as well as on leadership [Machiavelli, 1513, in Kellerman 1987]. His views on statesmanship relates to this concept of ´headship´. In those days the positional power was the common source of power, there was no separation between the hierarchical versus the non hierarchical leader [Goffey & Jones, 2006]. Holloman [1986] states that management is more linked to Bass´ concept of headship, hence leading based on position power and whereas leadership is accorded by the people who are led. A ´modern´ leader in these concepts was a leader who would use personal power as well as positional power [Den Hartog et al, 1997].

In order for good theory to develop, a need has to grow in society [Christiansen & Raynor,2003; Christiansen, Anthony & Erik, 2004]. This also applies to leadership theory. As the interest in leadership grew, researchers have asserted some major theories for understanding leadership phenomena in the scope of organization [Kent & Chellardurai, 2001]. The development, from the first theories, such as the traits theories, the behaviour/contingency models, LMX and path-goal theory, has moved towards the value based theories as most advanced at this moment.

Modern, value based theories on leadership

Value based theories are the ´latest´ developments in leadership theory, also referred to as ´modern´ [Bass, 2007] or ´new´ leadership theories [Brymann, 1992; Antonakis and House, 2002]. This ´new´ is relative as the basis of these theories lies in 1976 where Burns started with its initial theory on charismatic leadership, which was in turn partially based on the concept of Charisma as defined by Weber [1947]. Burns combined the charismatic concept with the characteristics (or potentially better stated, Traits) of modern leaders, based on his biographies on presidents and comparable great leaders. This is also why these theories are categorised as ´mixed´ theories, versus the first ´static´ theories that had static traits as predictors of leadership and ´dynamic´ theories that assumed that only the interaction between leaders and their followers defined the outcome [van Dongen, 2001].

The theory moved from the sheer concept of charisma, as this was perceived as an unattainable static concept, in which nothing can be developed [Bass & Riggio, 2006, page 3]. Therefore charisma was redefined into a sub-dimension of transformational leadership [Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993]. In that definition transactional leadership now involves behavioural motives that are based upon contractual, negotiated exchanges between a leader and a follower, exchanging one thing for another; jobs for votes´[Burns, 1978 in van Dongen, 1997, page 217, Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1989] whereas transformational leadership involves motivation that derives from the followers' values being transformed (by the leader) to become more congruent with those of the leader [Bass, 1985, 1998, 1999; House, 1996; House & Podsakoff, 1994; Podsakoff et.al., 1990].

Charismatic and transformational leadership theories have turned out to be the most frequently researched theories over the last fifteen years [Bass & Riggio, 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Nuijten, 2010]. Early research already demonstrated that transformational leadership was a particular powerful source in military settings [Bass, 1985, Boyd, 1988, Yammarino & Bass, 1990], however more recent research has demonstrated that transformational leadership behaviors have been shown to positively impact a wide range of individual and organizational outcomes ([Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Hardy, et. al , 2010] in a variety of contexts including military [Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, Bass, & Shamir, 2002], sport [Charbonneau et.al., 2001], business [Barling et.al., 1996; Jung et.al.,2003; Podsakoff et.al.,1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993], the public sector [Rafferty & Griffin, 2004], and education [Koh et.al., 1995]. With the strong emphasis on motivation and information-sharing as basis for continued success of modern organizations, leadership has recently been suggested as a key factor for engaging employees [Luthans, 2002] and for creating innovative organizations [Garcia-Moraless et.al., 2008]

Critiques on value based theories

A point of critique on the value based leadership theories is that they do not make a distinction between positive and negative values as the basis for the leadership behaviour. ´ It disregards the need for leader morale character and ethical conduct´ [Price, 2003]. Although charisma itself is considered 'value neutral,' [Barling, c.s. 2007] it is the ability of transformational leaders to use their influence for either altruistic or self-serving purposes that has brought the need for an ethical component in such leadership models into focus [e.g., Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Howell & Avolio, 1992; Conger and Kanungo, 1998]. Based on these critiques, the theory was refined and the concept of ´pseudocharismatic´ leaders was introduced to emphasise leaders using their power to influence in an unethical manner[Bass & Stiedlmeier, 1999; House & Howell, 1992]. Den Hartog [1997] in response split her theory up in positive and negative inspirational leaders and Van Dongen, developed the concept of ´excellent leadership´ [2001] as positive inspirational, disqualifying negative inspirational leaders as exemplary models of a leadership theory. The theory of ´servant leadership´ on the other hand positions itself as an alternative in the present demand for a more ethical, people centred and effective leadership style [Clegg et. al., 2007]. In particular because it introduces an integrated moral component to transformational leadership [Graham, 1991], and puts explicit emphasis on the needs of followers [Patterson, 2003]. Furthermore, ´in servant-leadership the ideal of service is embedded in the leader-follower relationship´ [Nuijten, 2010, page 74]. Greenleaf [1977, 1991, 1998, 2002] emphasised the leader as the person serving the group and individuals and thereby using their power of influence. This change of focus is the element that distinguishes servant leadership theories from ´regular´ value based leadership theories [Graham, 1991,1995]. Empirical research has shown that servant leaders positively influenced the feeling of autonomy, relatedness and competence of the followers [Nuijten,2010, page 169].

Defining ´Leadership´

Based on the history of the theories one thinks it can´t be too difficult to find a common definition. Unfortunately ´There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept´ [Stogdill, 1948, pag. 259]. And here lies a part of the ambiguity of leadership research which stems from this lack of clarity and the many definitions of the construct itself [Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Bedeian & Hunt, 2006]. One of the reasons for this is that ´leadership´ is a word out of common vocabulary which has been incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a science discipline without being precisely defined [Janda, 1960]. As a consequence there are many different versions of definitions of leadership around. ´Often a two day meeting on leadership has started with a day of argumentation on definition´ [Bass, 2007, page 15]. Rost [1993] found for instance 221 definitions of leadership in 587 publications he examined. Leadership has been used to describe everything from the effects of first-level supervisors on subordinates' attitudes to the effects of CEOs on organizational performance [e.g. Eden & Shani, 1982; Hofmann & Jones, 2005; Thomas, 1988]. Therefore a focussed approach has to be taken to come to a definition.

Leadership is an activity in a social setting, both singular as well as group- and organisational setting. An organisation is in turn a formalised group setting ´which has been established for the pursuit of relative specific objectives on a more or less continuous basis´ [Scott, 1964, p. 488] with boundaries of the in-group, versus peripheral group [Hogg, 2001]. Organisations have a purpose which is easier to assess then the purpose of a group. An organisation will (should) have set itself targets, have a vision of the future and of their position in that future. Also the members of the organisation are defined by the physical contracts that bind employees to the organisation, versus the psychological contracts that bind them to groups.

This research focuses on formal leadership in an organisation environment, as this is the type of setting where MD programs are designed to work within. As we assumed a leader is a person in a formal leadership role, this bypasses the concept of informal leadership. Though it is true that most leadership relations under research have group settings in their basis this is not a ´ conditio sine qua non´[Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Rauch & Behling, 1984; Hogan et.al. 1994; Judge et.al 2002; O´Reilly et. al., 2010]. Also leaders indeed pursue goals, however these do not need to be shared goals as Hemphil & Koons [1957, p. 7] has stated. This allows leaders to pursue own, other than accepted goals, which is also my comment towards defining the purpose of leadership to a higher more noble motivation [Jacobs & Jacques, 1990, Bartram, 2004, Hoskins, 1988, Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990 Podolny et.al., 2005]. This vision is a mix of what we think leadership ´<u>should</u>´ be, versus a <u>value neutral</u> definition of the field of study. Choosing the definition with an ethical element included [Hoskins, 1988; Jacobs & Jacques, 1990] would make unethical leadership no leadership at all. Unfortunately history has shown that unethical leadership can be very effective [Van Dongen, 2001, page 82-85]. Also Drucker's definition „The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers." [Drucker 1998: XI] is, though beautiful in its simplicity, does not explain what leadership has as its purpose.

In summary leadership encompasses Interaction between a leader and a led, in order to persuade the latter to pursue the goals of the leader, or in a more rounded sentence

Leadership is to exert a conscious influence on the conduct of others (...) in order to achieve the desired objective (..) [van Dongen, 1997, page 116] or if desired even shorter: It is the art of making the followers act as the leaders wants them to [Van Dongen, 2001, page 1].

Defining ´Management´

The formal organization is also the environment in which management activities appear. The areas of activity defined for management are typically steering the process of planning, organizing and controlling of resources [Fayol, 1916, Davis, R. 1942, Urwick, 1952, Unaeze, 2003] When we see managing resources as the central task of management, then managing the Human Resources (the employees) could be seen as such a task, but only if one would define managing at the entirely rational process [Davis, K. 1951]. In its origin this rationality was indeed emphasized as also modern management was solely committed to rationally solve the problem of inefficiency [Hamel & Green, 2007, page 12] and did so by organizing and structuring along the lines of rationality and treating all resources involved as such. However the human resources of an organization as well as the singular behavior of humans is only ´partially rational´ [March & Simon, 1958]. Hence ´management´ as described above would not interact on equal terms with the ´irrational´ or better not purely rational behavior of humans. Leadership would in that viewpoint fit better with an organic view of an organization, where management relates to a mechanistic view´ [Terry, 1995].

Management creates a performance enhancing environment through which they influence the individuals behaviour. However it is also stated that the creation of a performance enhancing structure around ´clever´ (e.g high competence, low need for leadership) people, which is an activity that, as per above, should be management, is defined as a trait for good leadership [Goffey & Jones, 2009]. This grew the question how independent management and leadership actually are. ´The biggest difference between managers and leaders is the way they motivate the people who work or follow them´ [Straker, 2008]. ´Leadership focuses on human interaction, influencing others. Management is more concerned with procedures and results, the process of getting the things done´ [Doctrine Committee Royal Dutch Army, 1996].

The central connection between leadership and management is both influence people to change their behaviour to achieve certain goals. The rational behind this drive to change can be an optimisation-need, a rationalisation or other. Both concepts make use of power, be it from different sources.

Goffey & Jones [2006, page 13] see a clear differentiation between non-hierarchical versus hierarchical leadership. A hierarchical position gives the incumbent *positional power* [Yukl, 1994]. This power can be used to influence people to change situations, irrespective of the ability of the leader. Positional power is build on three sources of power, legitimate, coercive and reward power [Hinkin & Shriersheim, 1989, table I], the latter of which is amongst others the core of ´Management by Objectives´ as well as at the core of most performance management systems. This power, derived from the hierarchy, is in contrary to the sources of personal power [Yukl, 1994]. Personal power has two elements, the *expert power and the referent power*, where the leader makes the incumbent feel valued through the leaders behaviour. Personal power is also defined as authority. [Yukl, 1994, Den Hartog et.al. 1997, van Dongen, 2001].

A combined construct on leadership and management

In this line of thought ´leadership indicates the direct steering of people´s behaviour, whereas management is more like the institutionalising of leadership. Management creates structures and processes to steer behaviours [van Dongen, 1997a]. These structures reward correct behaviour and discourage ´wrong´ behaviour. This is [Bartram 2004; Bartram & Glennon, 2006], summarised in the view of making management equal to transactional leadership compared to more modern leadership views. In that way one should define management behaviour as a way to create a positive outcome as an exchange for changed behaviour of the employee, as a transaction of activities. [e.g. Straker,2008, Bartram & Glennon, 2009]. This would indicate that management is an extension of the behavioural repertoire modern leaders have, from transformational to transactional leadership.

Bartram & Glennon [2009] developed this model further and connected it with the Universal Capability Framework (UCF) of SHL [Bartram, 2006], to connect the leadershipstyles with the competency framework, which in turn can be psychometrically tested. Senge [1992] underlines this view with his concept of the responsibility of a strategic leader, where he states they have three main tasks. First, they must build a foundation of purpose and core values for the organization. Second, strategic leaders should develop the policies, strategies, and structures that transform the guiding ideas into business Initiatives. Third, they must create effective learning processes through which the policies, strategies, and structures can be continuously improved [Jackson, 2000]. So one sees that also in this definition of tasks of strategic leaders Senge [1992] uses both management as well as leadership elements as part of the task spectrum of a leader, which inks-in with the dyatic-model of Bertram and Glennon [2009]. For now this model of the connection between leadership and management is adopted in this study

Question: how do the organisations define leadership and management?

Phase 2; Defining a concept on development

There is a vast amount of research accumulated on the modern theories of the transformational-transactional dyad. [e.g. Aviolo & Yammarino, 1990; Burns, 1978; Bass 1985a, 1985b 1990b, 1997, 1999; Bass, & Avolio 1994; Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987; Bass, Aviolo, Jung & Berson, 2003; Bryman, 1992;

Bryman, 1993; Conger, 1999; Conger & Kanungo 1987, 1990; Den Hartog c.s., 1997; van Dongen, 2001; Pilal et.al., 1999; Podsakoff et.al., 1996, 1990; Yukl. 2006]. The attention has now begun to move from the discussions on the theory and their measuring tools, towards the content and design of leadership development programmes [Avolio & Bass, 1995; Avolio & Gibbons, 1988; Barling et.al., 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1990; McCauley & Hughes-James, 1994]. Leadership development is the least explored topic within the field of leadership research and theory [Avolio, 2007; Day et al., 2008] even although it seems to be very much in the focal point of interest. According to a 2006 SHRM survey of Human Resource (HR) leaders, the number one problem for HR directors is identifying and developing the leadership talent needed for growth and expansion of their respective organizations [Fegley, 2006]. In a similar study conducted in 2007, 44% of the organizational leaders surveyed, reported that increasing the effectiveness of training as being their first or second priority ["Industry Report," 2007]. Avolio & Luthans [2006] reported in a review of the leadership intervention literature from the last hundred years only around 100 articles on studies examining the impact of leadership interventions on leadership development. Leadership intervention is considered developmental when a developmental experience is generated through the use of " some form of training, introspection, receiving feedback and exercises to increase the effectiveness of how one leads an individual or group" [Avolio et.al. 2010, page 635]. This being said, it means that the concept underlying an MD model needs to be build by combining elements of existing theories, as no integrated theory seems available.

Although leadership is viewed as a source of power and competitive advantage in many organizations [van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003], there are no general models for the development of leadership skills [Day, 2000; Day & Halpin, 2004; Yukl, 2002]. [Lord & Hall, 2005] One reason is that historical and recent treatments of leadership had taken a trait perspective which are relatively stable, hence no real need for leadership development arose. [Judge & Bono, 2000; Lord et.al., 1986]. Another reason is that leadership skills have been thought of in terms of superficial behavioural styles, suggesting that leadership training could be of short duration. [Lord & Hall, 2005] Indeed a 2010 research showed that in the last 100 years the average time of leadership development was between 1-7 days [Avolio et.al. 2009]. More recently the idea has come in vogue that leadership typically involves a more complex mix of behavioural, cognitive, and social skills that may develop at different rates and require different learning experiences [Day & Halpin, 2004; Mumford et al., 2000; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001].

What is developed during leadership development?

´Management´ has now been defined as a form of leadership and development as ´a progression from a simpler or lower to a more advanced, mature, or complex form or stage´[American Heritage Dictionary 2009]. MD focuses on leader development [Lord & Hall, 2005], which focuses on the development of individual actors, whereas leadership development is a concept, not specifically focussing on the individual progress. MD programs provide the opportunity for individuals to develop and enlarged the leader´s portfolio of leadership styles. The leader should be developed to the level that they can fluidly choose from of a number of styles that move from transactional leadership (if included with managerial skills, the "management style") up to transformational leadership. The central concept which allows them to become style-fluid, is the authentic leadership concept [Luthans & Avolio, 2003].

There are behavioral (leadership) elements in the management development process, but also knowledge and skills development. A novice leader in the organization has basic knowledge of the functioning of an organization and typically more deep knowledge of the respective functional area of expertise. Ensuring that the leader is kept up-to-date, or at least has the opportunity to keep them self up to date, is part of the MD process. The nuance is small but emphasizes the view that there is strong self-development accountability with the leaders themselves. This will be defined further.

A major debate in MD programs lies on the approach used to transfer the knowledge to the leaders, which differ between the pedagogical or the androgogical approach [Booth & Segon, 2009]. Pedagogical learning involves teacher-directed practices and teacher control of processes. Androgogic learning involves adult learner decision making about what, how, where, when and why of learning [Knowles, 1990; Knowles et.al.,2005]. The 1990's theory of transformative learning has gained support for the androgogical practices in learning [Gunnlaugson. 2007]. Transformative learning involves participants becoming more reflective and critical in their practices, being more open to the perspectives of others and also being less defensive and more accepting of new perspectives, concepts and practices [Mezirow, 1997]. Under transformative learning the leaders frame of reference is challenged in order to consider new ways of acting and being [Mezirow, 2003, 2005]. The education and development of adult leaders require the combined effort of the individual and the organization [Bass, 2007, page 1063]. As the development of leaders is to a large extent the responsibility of the leader to pursuit. "Responsibility for career development must lie with the individual, not the organization" [Brousseau et.al., 1996, page 52]. The development of adult leaders is largely a matter of self development, albeit supported by opportunities provided by the organization. Therefore the andragogical approach seems to fit best.

Question: Does the organization support the self development responsibility of the individual (andragogical) or place emphasis on a predetermined leadership development track, where the ingredients are defined for the leader, without their input?

Development of authenticity in leaders

According to Cashman [1988] leadership is an expression of who we are. Thus, to grow as leaders, we need to grow as persons. Therefore in order to be an authentic leader, the actions of us as a leader should reflect closely who we are as a person. Authenticity can be defined as both owning one's personal experiences as well as acting in accordance with one's true self [Harter, 2002]. The concept of ´Self´ reflects the personality we possess whereas self-image is the person we think we are. The current concept of authenticity emerged within the last 80 years [Erickson, 1995a] and is contrived from the positive psychology literature [Cameron et.al., 2003, Seligman, 2002, Snyder & Lopez, 2002] and the insights from earlier managerial competency models of Boyatzis [1982] [see Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000; Whetton & Cameron,2002]. When authenticity is used the desired followers outcomes are heightened levels of trust [Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jones & George, 1998], engagement, which is defined as "involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" [Harter et.al., 2003, page 269] and wellbeing [Kahneman et.al.,1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000].

The development model underneath the authentic leadership model indicates that the development of the individuals focus moves from intra-personal through interpersonal, then leadership capabilities and finally business skills (see for instance the ´onion´ model of Van Dongen, 2001, page 3 and the Hogan and Warrenfeltz Domain Model [source; Kaiser & Kaplan, 2006]. This concept of changing focus is supported by both the emotional intelligence leadership model of Goleman et. al., [2001, 2002] and the managerial competence models [e.g. Boyatzis , 1982, Pedlar et. al.,2001, in: Booth & Segon, 2009; Whetton & Cameron, 2002].

Key factors contributing to the development of authentic leadership is to support the creation of a balanced self-awareness and personal insights of the leader [Gardner et. al 2005]. Key in this development is to create a greater awareness of the personal values of the leader. Values related to authentic leadership are conceptions of the desirable that guides the behavior [Schwartz, 1999]. As such they provide a basis for decisions to choose actions that are aligned with the need of other individuals, the organization or the community at large [Lord & Brown, 2001; Goleman et.al., 2001, 2002; Boyatzis, 1982; Pedlar et.al.,2001; Whetton and Cameron [2002].

Company values are also an important aspect of culture, and are transmitted by many formal and informal means. Not only do leaders often play an active part in ensuring that the values of organizations are adhered to, for self evaluation of the leader, conformity to the appropriate failures is often important. The latter also as authentic leaders are role models with respect to "living the values". Also Lord & Brown [2001] maintain that the values that leaders show in their behavior prime the development of specific identities in their followers, in other words good behavior sparks off other good behaviors.

Elements of authenticity; values of the leader

When speaking of authenticity, it means that when one is true to one self, one acts in accordance with one´s core values [Erickson, 1995A, 1995B]. In order to do so, the leader first has to be aware of one's values [Bennis, 2003; George, 2003]. Leaders achieve higher levels of personal growth when they set goals that align with their true values, needs and interests. However in order to do so *and* be successful in a company-environment the leaders´ goals need to be aligned with the company's goals, therefore their underlying "true" values need to be aligned with the company's values.

This is a key argument to use values-based assessment method to select future high potentials for an organization [Van Dongen et. al., 2004, 2005] but also why leaders, who are successful in one organizational setting, where their values match the company´s, are successful, whereas when they moved to a new company they are not. In this situation their technical capabilities have not changed, but the comparison of the company values versus their own values did. [See Lucier et.al., 2007] methods to assess values are for instance psychometrics that provide information on the underlying values of the individual.

A risk by matching leaders´ values too close with the company values can be when the latter have a strong country-specific culture and values. In order to create leaders who are fit for international organizations and their environment. Training leaders to adopt and communicate such a specific value pattern may not be appropriate when leaders manage organizations that operate in many cultures.

Question: Are the values of the leaders assessed to see how well they match the organizations?

Question: Does the company have values that are skewed to a certain cultural heritage such as the country of the parent company´s nascence.

Pre-emptive and post-emptive matching of values

Next to a selection on values (pre-emptive) one can also use (post emptive) value comparison through for instance a 360 degree questionnaire which can give insight on how the leader is perceived by others, e.g. how (s)he is ´living the values. Many organizations are using such instruments to help their leaders become more authentic by closing the gap between their self image and their actual self. These instruments are designed to collect information from different sources (or prospectus) about a target managers performance. The principal strengths of a 360° feedback instrument is their use of multiple perspectives. In most cases the different sources of information (the raters) are the supervisors, peers, and the direct reports of the target manager, although some instruments also allow managers to use internal and or external customers as raters [VanVelson et.al., 1997, page 12]

What the supervisor, peers, and supporters really think of the leader ´may sting, but facing the facts can also make you a better manager´. [O´Reilly, 1994, page 93] ´The process forces managers to examine the perspectives of the people's hold of them. ´[Chappelow, 2004, page 63] A number of studies indicate that multi-rater feedback have a positive impact on individuals [Atwater et.al., 1995; Avery, 2001; Bernardin et.al., 1995; Hazuchi et.al., 1993; Hegarty, 1974; Johnson & Ferstl, 1999; Reilly et.al., 1996; Smither et al, 1995; Walker & Smither, 1999]. Empirical research of the impact over 360° feedback has focused on two types of evidence, the first being the degree to which self ratings become more congruent with ratings from others and the second one being the degree to which behaviors are changed in useful ways. [Chappelow, 2004].

Question: are 360 degree tools (or comparable) used in the organization to provide the leader with external feedback on their self.

Question: is the 360 tool used with internal assessors only or both with internal and external assessors.

For authentic leaders, the role of a leader becomes part of their self-concept, leader identification [e.g. Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Lord at al,, 1999; Gardner & Avolio, 1998]. Authentic leaders display by definition high levels of moral integrity [Luthans & Avolio, 2003], which resolves the issue of value-based leadership, being potentially based on negative values. Also, when a leader is authentic, trustworthiness is a core element of their personal identity. This fosters positive relationship with their followers [Gardner at al, 2005]. The leaders´ action must match their words. While followers´ trust is based on the implicit assumption that a leader is honest and non-exploitative, credibility is established when the leader´s claims are subsequently confirmed [Gartner & Avolio, 1998]. Authentic leaders in this way are role models as they express group values and aspirations. Such prototypical members are viewed as socially attractive and hence influential for other members. This process of attributing qualities to the authentic leader will predispose group-members to assign leadership qualities and in some cases charisma to members whose words and deeds reveal a genuine commitment to core values. [Hains et.al.,1997; Hogg et.al.,1998].

Staged development of authentic leaders

The development of authentic leadership has as starting-point the accumulated life experiences of the leaders [Avolio, 2003, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003]. On this basis new experiences are incorporated and continuously shape the ´self´. In this way targeted experiences can serve to stimulate positive growth and development [Avolio, 2005, Luthans & Avolio, 2003]. These specific learning experiences in life are called ´trigger events´, and serve to provide feedback to the leader on their authentic self and increase knowledge of their self [Hoyle et.al. 1999]. Although trigger events have traditionally been viewed as involving crises and negative events it is now also believed that positive events can likewise trigger leadership development, Examples of trigger events are for instance, a challenging new opportunity, a voluntary decision to change career, or an experience into a radically different culture, such as through an expatriate assignment. [Gardner et. al, 2005; Avolio, 2003, 2005]

Question: does the organization use targeted experiences to create trigger events for the leaders?
Question; how does the organization match the targeted experiences with the development needs of the leader?

According to Quinn [1988] and Dreyfuss & Dreyfuss [1986], managers and leaders develop themselves in five stages from novice to expert. They considered the intermediate stages in between the main stages of development as independent stages. In this study this model is condensed into three stages, which matches the research on the qualitative changes in both process and knowledge as the leaders develop [Anderson, 1987; Ericsson & Charness, 1994; Glaser & Chi, 1988; Patel & Groen, 1991; VanLehn, 1989].

Stage 1 development activities in the ´Novice-Phase´

The novice learns of facts and rules to be obeyed, so in this phase, primarily a knowledge base needs to be established. For novices, self-directed leadership development involves developing particular "surface structures" [Lord & Hall, 2005], which show visible leadership behaviour, which result in perceived leadership by others. Leadership training at novice level therefore has a central behavioural component to teach leaders to exhibit more visibly effective behavioural styles [e.g., Dvir, et.al. 2002]. Such behavioural skills may be relatively quickly acquired, so that such novice skill training programs often are of only a few days duration.

In practice the novice leader initially mimics the leadership they see and, based on the theories offered to them and practices viewed, they device their own implicit leadership theories. These implicit theories are thought to be acquired by implicit learning processes [Lord et.al., 2001] as well as by self-monitoring processes. Self-monitoring refers to the tendency to monitor and change the public appearance of the self which is shown in social settings and in interpersonal relationships. [Day et al., 2002].

In order for a novice to develop to the ´intermediate´level, the novice needs to adopt the knowledge and skills and apply these ideally in multiple individual situations. Therefore the novice leadership development needs room for "safe" experimenting in different environments as they will now attempt to behave in a manner consistent with their own implicit leadership theories, when given leadership opportunities [Lord et.al.,1984; Engle & Lord, 1997] and monitor the outcome to test the theory. This self reflection is essential to development. [Ellis et.al., 2006].

Knowledge is not just ´created´ but generated and accessed in response to the stimuli (a cue) which is generated by the requirements of a current task [Newell, 1990]. This is why there should be a close connection between the situation in which knowledge is gathered and the occurrence of the same cue in a work-situation. However, according to Booth & Segon [2009], there seems to be a distinct disconnect between theory and practice in business educations, both in terms of theory relating to and new practice discoveries assisting the development of new theory [Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Hoffman, 2004; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2005]. This disconnect makes it harder for the novice leader to create congruent implicit theories with matching cues, hence makes it harder to actually use the knowledge provided for the own development. The translation of the implicit theories into future targeted behaviours involves "trial and error", therefore leadership development interventions need to relate more strongly to the context of business than they do in many cases. In that way the experimenting takes place in an environment with cues related to the future environment of their new behaviour [Ready and Conger, 2003]. The concept to combine management practice experiences within a ´school´ learning environment is called action learning [Tushman et.al, 2007] and provides sound platforms to enhance both individual and company based outcomes. Action learning teams are being used more and more in leadership developmental initiatives [Dotlich & Noel, 1998, Marscik and O´Neill, 1999, Vicere and

Fulmer, 1998]. Typically under the sponsorship of a senior executive teams of five to eight managers are working on a novice topic in the organisation.

Question: does the organisation use action learning initiatives, such as action learning teams; five to eight managers working on a novice topic in the organisation under sponsorship of a senior executive team member?

Question: how is new theory on leadership and business transferred to leaders in the MD process?

Development of such leadership skills follows a power law with respect to practice. [Newell & Rosenbloom, 1981], the initial development is steep, which plateaus after a certain time. This is particularly true with skills that are closely tied to perceptual processes. These are the processes related to developing the self-identity [Platow et.al, 2003]. In short practice makes perfect, albeit that the practice needs to be followed by reflection of the own activities. This evolves more in the next phase.

Stage 2: Development activities in the ´Intermediate-stage´

After combining the implicit theory with ample experiments which serve as experiences and trigger events, the novice leader can develop towards the second stage and starts to pay attention to understanding the basic norms and values underlying the leadership situations. Values are trans-situational and normative standards for behaviour and evaluation [Schwartz, 1992]. By now the intermediate leader recognises their own competence as a leader, the complexity of the task and a larger set of cues, which they can relate to situations. In this stage, calculated risks are starting to be taken, as the pure reliance on rules begins to disappear. The rules are replaced by an understanding of the values behind the rules and rational analysis of situations is replaced by an unconscious, fluid and effortless flow. [Gardner et.al., 2005]

With experience, intermediate-level leaders have developed skills which are ´knowledge-rich´ rather

than ´knowledge-lean´ in the previous phase. They means that the leaders recognise appropriate responses in familiar environments faster and more effectively. The familiar situations are recognised based on the previously described ´cues´ [VanLehn, 1989]. Leaders with intermediate-level skills would not only have more refined behavioural skills that are easier to use, they would also be better at matching these skills to situational demands [Kozlowski et.al., 1999].

In order to create more cues for the intermediate leader, a critical factor in their knowledge development is personal experience in relevant task environments, which broadly means experience with specific tasks, individuals, teams, or cultures [Lord & Hall, 2005]. These experiences need to relate strongly to the work, or even be a part of the development track at work [Mintzberg, 2004a; 2004b]. Also as this phase defines identities for the leader, as well as further forming of the self image, this phase needs to incorporate greater reflection on practice [Gosling & Mintzberg 2004a; 2004b].

Question: does the use of reflective tools change over the development phases of the leader?

Stage 3: Development activities in the ´Expert-stage´

Finally in the expert stage the leader uses a holistic recognition based on a full understanding of the situation. The leader has an intuitive grasp of the situation and can change strategies as cues change.

With increasing hierarchical level in organizations however , the time required for managerial actions to have visible effects, the core elements in the feedback-loop increases [Jaques, 1989]. This mean that often the situation is not recognised anymore when the effect becomes known. In addition, the visions held by leaders may take many years to implement. Consequently, at higher organizational levels, it is much more difficult to learn from feedback because the cycle time is quite long. Thus, as certain information and learning would not be made available through the traditional feedback loops, in this phase it becomes again needed to transfer knowledge. This knowledge transfer relates to aspects of expert level leadership such as business occurrences (both good and bad) as well as deliberate practices by exemplary leaders [Ericsson & Charness, 1994]. This can have elements like business ethics, or even learning from occurrences in other companies that took years to immerge, such as the Enron debacle or behavioural causes of the economic depression etc.

The development process has by now created deep structures, contrary to the previous surface structure, which includes the personal image of the self-identity and the individual's core values. This is as an important source of flexibility in leadership skills, in part because when one knows the ´outer limits´ of one´s own actions, it is easier to act within these boundaries, using different actions, styles or identity concepts within the core value structure [Lord & Brown, 2001]. Also at expert level, the knowledge is now no longer attached to cues, but organised around general principles. This leads them to different understandings than those based on the more superficial knowledge of novices, which tends to be organized around surface features [e.g. Glaser & Chi, 1988; Chi et.al, 1981; Day and Lord, 1992].

Another important aspect of deeper leadership structures is that they likely develop an increased focus on changing others, rather than only themselves.

Thus, while the development of surface leadership skills may involve leader-relevant direct visible changes, expert level leadership may involve knowledge and principles relating to developing behavioural and self-regulatory skills in others. In order to be able to develop leadership knowledge and skills in others, leaders must have clear organised behavioural repertoires as well as self-regulatory skills in addition to strong social and emotional skills [Lord & Hall, 2005].

Question: do leaders at expert level receive knowledge transfer at their level, related to their business, which shows the long term effect of decisions?

Question: are leaders at expert level encouraged to act as coach/mentor for junior talents?

Development activities supporting self knowledge and reflection

Knowing oneself involves more than simple awareness of one's thoughts, values and motives. As the literature on emotional intelligence suggests [Goleman, 1995, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey et.al., 2002] self-knowledge also encompasses awareness of one's emotions as well as understanding the causes and effect of such emotions on cognitive processes of decision-making and how they change over time [George, 2005; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey et.al, 2002]. In particular transformational leaders are deemed to possess higher levels of emotional intelligence and thereby the ability to display individualized considerations, which is one of the cornerstones of transformational leadership. [Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000].

The concept of reflection and self-awareness has been a key feature of both the emotional intelligence movement in leadership and management [Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Goleman et.al., 2001; 2002; Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Salovey & Mayer, 1990] as well as the broader level debate on executive development in terms of intra-personal capability [Drucker, 2005; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2004a; 2004b; Kaplan, 2002; Torbert & Fisher, 1992].

Indeed authentic leaders experience heightened levels of self-awareness, and that increasing self-awareness is a core element of the authentic leadership development process Kernis [2003]. Marcus & Wurf's [1987] notion of the working self-concept includes self-views. Self-views involve an individual's perceptions of his or her standing on the attributes made salient by a given context [Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999] Brown and associates [Lord & Brown, 2001, 2004; Lord et al., 1999] focus on two specific types of self-views: current goals and possible selves.

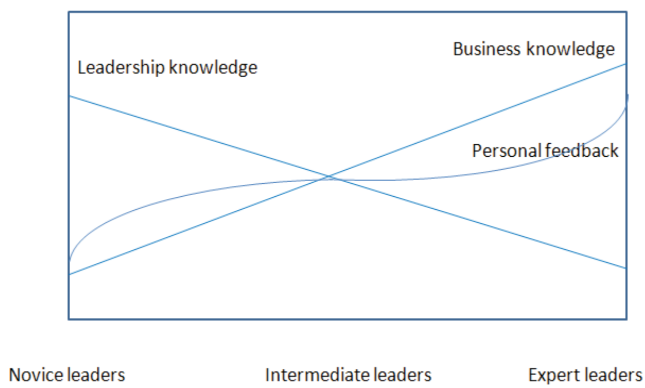
Question: are the candidates tested on their intellectual abilities, both IQ and EQ levels?

Quantity and quality of knowledge transfer through the development phases

In this article, a condensed overview has been given on the literature on both leadership and management, and a combined model for the two elements of leadership has been posited, as well as a suggested method for developing leaders, based on the staged development of authentic leaders.

Of these elements on the one hand the needed behavioral changes for an individual leader to develop from a novice to expert level leader has been described. On the other hand, the moments to add knowledge to the development of the individual have also been described. The knowledge described mostly related to knowledge on leadership, but equally defined knowledge on organizations and business in general. In the below depict figure you see how the three sources of knowledge vary depending on the phases of development of the leader.

Figure 1: a graphic overview of different sorts of knowledge transfer in the different phases.



In figure 1 you see that in the start of the career of the leader external leadership knowledge as a first priority. With "external leadership knowledge" is referred to examples of leadership behaviors from ' third parties', so theories on leadership, examples of great leaders etc. During the period of development from novice and expert, such generalized theoretical leadership needs decreases, whereas individualized leadership feedback-need increases. This lack of actual leadership experiences as part of the education is the reason why in the initial phase of the development of leaders there is still a large need for theoretical knowledge on leadership, as well as the possibility to practice newly acquired leadership skills and implicit theories. The reason for this is that only very few primary educations (for the sake of argument, this is seen as a university level education) actually prepare people for leadership positions, instead of turning them in ´starting level academics´. The academies that do are typically restricted to Armed Forces academies, police academies and sometimes firefighting academies. University-based educations, and equally so MBA´s prepare their students on the theoretical level of managing organizations from the managerial (transactional) perspective, which has been a decade old complain on the mismatch of academic education vs. the need for business leaders in practice. As summarized by Booth & Segon [2009], the past practices in management education need to be reviewed with a view to improved capabilities in graduating students [Cornuel, 2005; Gosling & Mintzberg, 2004a; Grey, 2004; Grey & French, 1996; Hawawini, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; 2003]. The debate has lead to challenges to traditional curriculum design and teaching practices [Conger & Xin, 2000; Thomas, 2007, Wankel & De Fillippi, 2002]. It has also prompted vigorous discussion in the literature on the issue of continued relevance of the Master of Business Administration (MBA) as a pre-eminent program in executive development [Barnett, 2005; Clegg & Ross- Smith, 2003; Miles, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004a; Tyson, 2005]. Though these debates are important, for our purpose they merely underline the existence of the leadership-and business knowledge buildup as per figure 1. As the leader develops the need for external leadership direction finally dissipates.

During the development, the need for business knowledge follows a reciprocal course than the need for leadership knowledge. A novice leader comes with a wealth of theoretical (management) knowledge from their academic education, with very little practical insights into applicability of the theoretical models. As the leader gains experience over time, he creates for himself a new cadre in which management theories can be fitted. When the employee moves up in the organization [Jaques, 1989], the cycle time of the feedback which can be derived from the consequences of the own actions increases, therefore the employee needs to learn business lessons from external examples. An illustration of these changing can be found in the setup of the modern management development programs offered by some major European business schools (London business school, INSEAD, IMD). Also here you will see throughout the individual courses, going from junior to more senior level courses, that the contents on business in the initial courses are very detailed and skill level focused whereas the senior level courses are more generic, learning from practical examples and case studies. On the leader development, one finds the opposite. Junior level executive education courses typically have no or hardly any leadership elements. In for instance the General Management courses (intermediate level), you will find with all business schools, almost

25% of the entire executive program focused around leadership, feedback, coaching or similar activities, which serves as a common thread throughout their educations. [Source: catalogue 2011 of LDP; London Business School, the AMP; INSEAD and the AEDP; IMD)There are Junior-level leadership training courses on the market, but these typically do not take place within a business environment, but more within training organizations who then provide the leader with a safe environment to experiment with new leadership behaviors.

The last line in the figure is the feedback line. The feedback that needs to be offered, not only increases over time, but also changes in sort of feedback needed in the respective phase. The increase in quantity has a plateau phase at intermediate level, and then goes up again. Also the method of providing feedback changes throughout the development phases of the employee. In the initial phases, the feedback comes through in direct confrontation with the consequences of the own actions, both form employees as from those observing the leader in action. In the intermediate level, the feedback starts to become instrument. The instruments brought to the leader, are for instance as 360 degree feedback tools, performance appraisals etc. At expert level the feedback is more in the form of coaching, as the coach can also show the future effect of current behavior trough their own experience, as the leader will probably not be confronted with the effects of their current behavior for some time.

These characteristics of the knowledge developments should therefore also be present in the respective MD programs and should be investigated in the practices on MD in the respective company´s MD programs.

Question: does the source and sort of knowledge offered to the leaders change over time, according to the model?

Phase 3; the organizational prerequisites of an MD model

Next to the MD process, also the organization, in which the MD process is embedded, needs to provide certain conditions, in order to optimize the leadership development process. At first the talent has to be defined and made explicit in such a way that people can be assessed, based on this definition, secondly a company has to measure both the development and the performance, and enable the provide developmental support through the embedding of coaching and mentoring, providing of developmental assignments and the active creation and support of informal networks amongst talents. Finally the ownership of the MD process is discussed.

Defining high Potentials

Management development is usually linked to the high potential employees. In 46% of companies, the MD process focuses on “high potentials” for development and 32% have the management development process open to all employees [Hewitt, 2010, page 14]. This exclusive [Delbridge et.al, 2006] versus inclusive [Bones, cited in Warren, 2006, page 14] approach is a choice to make for each MD process. This thesis is based on the exclusive approach, based on an assessable definition of Talent, contrary to the inclusive approach where the process remains open to all employees. With this choice, it needs to be defined, what is *included* in the model, so, what are ´high potential employees´, as these are the primary focus of management development processes. [Colaco-Osario et.al. [CIPD, 2010] `Developing talents means going beyond platitudes like "people are our most important asset" to investing time and hard resources in making sure the employees are both competent and committed` [Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005, page 75-76]. And not only competent and committed in future, but also compared to the profile of talents, in other words, one needs to secure the MD investments reach the right people. [Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005]

In the model of MD for high potentials, two concepts are used in literature, ´Talent´ and ´High potentials´. `Talent´ is the same concept as ´high potential´, be it based on UK literature, versus High Potentials in the US literature. Depending on where certain quotes in this thesis originate, you will find both words used.

A high potentials refers to a native aptitude for some special kind of work and implies a relatively quick and easy acquisition of a particular skill within a domain (sphere of activity or knowledge) [Encyclopedia Brittanica, 2010]. A high potential is a person with the ability, the aspiration and the engagement to use the talents in a corporate setting. [CLC, 2005, page X]. Therefore MD programs should focus on selection and development of competent and committed employees that have the skills they need for today and tomorrow and are committed to the organization and deploy those skills regularly and predictably. [Ulrich, 2005]

A method to define the High potentials is to think in terms of *what* the potentials have the potential *for*. In the traditional approach the ability to be promoted (vertical Potential) is chosen as means of measure. High potentials are in that perspective generically defined at three levels [van Dongen et.al., 2004; Charan, 2005; van Dongen & Prodan, 2009]. The levels are the **Professionals**; **Potentials or promotables**; and the **High potentials;** people with the potential for rapid, or near term growth, into increasingly higher levels of leadership (2 levels up, or more) [van Dongen & Prodan, 2009]. Other generic names for the three levels are Local talent, Regional- and Global talent, [van Dongen et.al., 2004, Charan, 2005]. When in this study the topic of ´potential´ is used, it will always refer to high potential´, [van Dongen & Prodan, 2009].

According to the 2006 survey of the UK based Chartered Institute of People and Development (CIPD) 51% of all companies under review had reported they had undertaken substantial talent management activities, though only 20% of the respondents had a formal definition of Talent. [CIPD 2006, page 3]. In relating to this research one should not be too optimistic to find pre-eminent and clearly measurable definitions of talent. However when the definition is not clear, the entire process is based on an assumption which, for sake of argument, can equally be entirely wrong.

Question: do companies define talent in their organization and if so, how do they define this?

Question: do companies see different categories of talent, and if so which are these?

Assuming the employee has the skills, the aspiration and engagement to strive for a career in the respective company, this still is not a clear defined talent ´model´. The traditional form of looking at talent is the method which we define talents as these people who aspire to reach the top in the organisation. These are vertical talents, talents that pursue their career to obtain a C level seat, so either the CEO or one level below. The positions one step below the CEO are typically leading Global functions or business units. [Araoz, 2007, Charan, 2005]. Next to such vertical talent there is ´deep talent´, which are employees that have deep specialised knowledge in their field. These positions are most likely found either in the R&D area, or in professional services companies (consultancy), where the talents are specifically nurtured for their expertise, and can have a substantial career as a specialist. PricewatehouseCoopers in 1999, for instance, had the category of ´thought leaders´ to characterise ´deep talents´. In such companies, the Chief Technology, thought leader, or head R&D typically comes from ´within the ranks´, therefore deep talents, can also move into a vertical career on top of their deep functional knowledge, but this is, in contrary to the vertical talent, no requirement to be grouped into this talent category.

Question: do companies recognise different concepts of talent?

Defining indicators of potential

Indicators for potential are factors that, when present, increase the likelihood that the individual will prove themselves as talented employees, according to the chosen definitions. The following elements are such indicators

Cognitive abilities

As the development potential and the ´stretch´ of this potential are the key denominators for talent, it is essential to find what influences this ability. In many researches it has been found that the one key denominator of development-ability is the intelligence factor. The relative importance of EQ versus IQ is still a concept under discussion, but not whether the two elements are important. [e.g. Araoz,2007; Goleman, 1995] Critical quality in leaders may be their sensitivity to the emotions of others. Indeed, the capacity to perceive and respond to the emotions in others, emotional empathy, has recently been shown to be a strong predictor of leadership emergence [Kellett et.al., 2002].

Gathered life experiences

The importance of the life experiences that occur pre-company is discussed [Hall et.al., 2004] in a longitudinal study of leadership at West Point (US Military Academy). They found that cadets who had more social and leadership experience in high school had higher initial leadership performance at West Point, reached their plateau less rapidly, which indicated a greater readiness to master complex leadership skills. In this light, should a company recruit leaders or candidates for the MD program directly from the university / with little or no relevant worked experience, it makes sense to go in an interview into the previous gathered life experiences. In HR the ´over the thumb´ rule of five years back is used. What kind of extracurricular (ideally leadership) activities did the employee undertake prior to joining the company.

Though earlier life experiences are the "rock bottom" on which the self-identity is built, this self, as described is build combining the ´basis´ with new experiences, the so-called' trigger events'. Therefore it seems obvious, that in an inventory of such life experiences should take place in order to decide whether a candidate to enter the management development to the high potentials yes or no. And indeed if we look at leadership education at the basic level, such as takes place at military academies, police academies etc., than the inventory of the life experiences is a substantial cost of the selection interview. For the management development track of high potentials in international organizations, we however assume that people cannot enter this track as of level' zero', but need to have moved some steps in the organization in order to be allowed to enter the MD track for high potentials. As the experiences and the proof of leadership, the actions of the employee in their 'younger' years in the company is a more compelling evidence of leadership potential than the life experiences before starting with the company. Therefore in this research, this element is not enclosed.

Therefore no question is asked relating to previous life experiences before the working life. This encompasses the assumptions that MD processes in principle will not take candidates on board with less than 5 years work experience, either inside or outside of the company, which does need to be questioned.

Question: As of what organisational, or experience level can employees enter the MD process?

Engagement with the company

Though talents can be seen as a ´gift´ irrespective if the organizational environment, in case of an MD program, this is of little use. The program is geared toward ´delivery´ of better leaders in the different levels in the organization. Therefore one would not want to invest time and money in developmental activities of individuals that show a low commitment to the company in the first place. In order to nurture this engagement it is key that the organization finds what rewards their workers most, as this creates sustained commitment of the talents [Ulrich, 2005]

Hewitt [2010, page 11] states that more than half of the respondents in their 2010 career survey (55%), reported career development and pay as a reward strategy are equally important to employees in today's challenging economic environment.(n=192). The combination of those two statements therefore emphasize that talents that developed successfully can be rewarded by more development opportunities. Especially, it seems generation X and Y employees tend to be motivated by other factors than solely financial factors. [Hewitt, 2010, page 11].

Question: does the company measure the individual engagement of the talent?

Question: are individual and generational differences taken into account when rewarding the talent in the organisation

Self-development drive

Another factor is the motivation to develop leadership capability **which** is defined as "the desire to develop or improve leadership skills and attributes through effort" [Maurer & Lippstreu, 2005, p. 5]. [Reichard & Johnson, 2011] Not only has it been shown to be related to learning and completion of formal training [Baldwin et.al., 1991], but motivation to develop has also been shown to be a significant, unique predictor of both development activity [Noe &Wilk, 1993] and participation in leader development activities such as leadership training [Maurer & Lippstreu, 2005].

A leader with high motivation to develop expends large amounts of energy on development and persists in the face of failure. Reichard [2006] found that motivation to develop leadership was the best predictor of the quality of leader development self-set goals in terms of challenge and specificity

By first selecting those leaders with a propensity to self-develop [Boyce et al., 2010; Cortina & Zaccaro, 2003; Cortina et al., 2004], the organization is preparing for successful implementation of leader self-development as organizational strategy. Therefore, selection criteria should be based on those stable traits that increase the leader's propensity to become an effective self-developer.

Question: does the company measure the drive to (self) develop of the leaders?

Measuring of performance and development goals

The leader has two levels of goals, the first level are the "normal" goals, which are related to specific performance benchmarks one seeks to accomplish as part of one's everyday behavior [Emmons, 1986]. The other goals, or super-ordinate goals are articulated as an idealized vision to develop their self view towards a possible self [Lord & Brown, 2001, 2004; Lord et al, 1999]. This ´possible self´ is the self that authentic leaders wish to attain. To do so authentic leaders seek to anchor their self views and do so by constantly seeking to understand and verify their authentic self [Swann, Polzer & Ko, 2004], through continuously feedback they can identify any discrepancies between the current self view and their idealized possible self and change their self perception.

Also targeted opportunities to develop leadership skills may require proactive steps by a potential leader (self directed), or by the organisation (external directed) making the leader's own motivation and interest in leadership a critical requirement for leadership development [Chan & Drasgow, 2001]. To sustain interest for the months and years required to develop and practice complex leadership skills, it is also clear that the leadership role needs to become part of one's self-identity. [Hall & Lord, 2005] in order to be able to develop enough engagement for the ´long and winding road´ of the development track.

Question: Do talents have development goals as well as performance goals, and are both goals seen as comparably important?

Question: What happens if a talent underperforms on one of these types of goals?

Question: Is the individuals motivation for (self)development assessed?

Creation of informal networks throughout the organisation

There is a growing insight that individuals do not rely solely on single mentors or their current boss for development. Rather they have a network or constellations of relationships that they rely on for developmental assistance or support. [Higgens, 2000, Higgens & Kram, 2001, Kram, 1985, Mc Cauley and Young, 1993]

Managers report receiving more mentoring when their direct mentor is their direct supervisor then when (s)he is not [Burke & McKeen, 1997, Fagensen-Eland et.al., 1997] Given the changing context of work, long term relationships for development are becoming more unattainable and connections with a wider array of colleagues more probable [Eby, 1997, Higgens and Kram, 2001].

Only reflection can create a balanced self-image. This reflection is also served by informal networking events amongst leaders, as leaders learn by talking about leadership with other leaders in an informal, non-evaluative setting. [Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004] Some organisations have therefore for instance created networks for woman managers , or for particular ethnic or racial groups [Barclay, 1992, Morisson et.al.,1993].

Although the need for leaders to actively network has been long recognized [Kotter, 1982; Luthans, 1988], relatively little attention has been given to the potential of networking as a means of leadership development. With management development, considerable emphasis has been placed on mentor–mentee relationships [Kram, 1985; Kram & Isabella, 1985]. However recent research findings suggest that individuals might be more prone to think in terms of multiple, less intense relationships, which can be conceptualized as a network of sponsors [Higgins & Kram, 2001; Seibert et.al., 2001].

Question: Does the company actively promote informal networks and network meeting amongst leadership peers?

Leader self-development is most effective when the leader is provided strong social support, especially from significant others, peers, and family members. For example, finding and working with a mentor, including peer mentors, can aid in a leader's development [Reichard & Johnson, 2011]. Finally, while social support can be considered in terms of one-on-one relationships, it may be useful to think of social linkages as encompassing a system or network of support that may potentially be helpful to leadership development processes. Leaders must understand their role within social networks in order to strengthen existing relationships and establish new connections between individuals, groups, and other entities [Sidle & Warzyneski, 2003]. In the three phases, but most prominent in stage 2 still strong in stage 3, coaches can serve to help the developing leader to the development track. As these coaches will probably serve as role model [Hoyle et al., 1999] for the developing leaders it is key that their behaviour is also exemplary. Therefore if using internal coaches these should represent talents themselves, if they need to serve as a role model for other talents

Embedding coaching and mentoring

In a 2001 research over 8000 leaders, it was found that leader development relationships that were grounded in feedback and relationship were rated as more [CLC survey, in: McCauley & Douglas, 2004]. Mcshulskis [1996] found that nine out of ten employees who receive mentoring report that it is an effective developmental tool. Receiving support from a mentor is associated with higher performance rating, more recognition, greater compensation, more career opportunities and more promotions [Burke & Mc Keen, 1997, Chao, 1997, Dreher & Ash, 1990, Fagenson, 1989, Orpen, 1995, Scandure, 1992, Turban & Dougherty, 1994, Whitley et.al., 1991]

These cognitive changes are assimilated in the emerging identity as a leader. They involve a shift from normative definitions of leadership, to a contextually dependent definitions of leadership.

Question: do the stimuli offered to the leaders by the organisation or the MD process differ in the different stages of leader development?

Question: are feedback loops (f.i. 360 degree, combined with coaching sessions) used in the leaders´ development, in order to confront the leader of the effect of their actions on others?

Question: does the company actively set up monitoring and coaching relationships, propagate that leaders seek their own, or leave this entirely open?
Question: if internal coaches used are these themselves part of the ´talent´ population?

Providing developmental assignments

In most organisations the ideal candidate for a position is someone who already has the skills to do the job and can hit the ground running, not one for whom the assignment is developmental. [Ohlott, 2004, page 154]. As an example Clark & Lyness [1991] found that Citicorp placed managers in positions for which they are 60-70% ´ready´ so as to promote their learning. In Kodak, not only the business targets of a department are important to achieve for a business unit manager, but also the development needs of the individual managers [Kodak, 2002]

Question: Are line managers made responsible for the achievement of development-goals of their subordinates?

Research into what makes a job developmental, has identified five broad sources of challenge related to learning [McCauley, et.al.,1994,1999]. The extent to which a job is developmental is person-specific , that means, it depends on how similar the new job is to previous jobs. [page 156] A job is likely to be less developmental if there are few new elements in the job [Davies & Easterby-Smith, 1984, McCauley et.al. 1989; Nicholson & West, 1988] or little increase in the amount of discretion the manager has to define the job [Brett, 1984; Nicholson & West, 1988].

The key element in a developmental job assignment is challenge. By tackling unfamiliar tasks and seeing the consequences of their actions, people learn from the challenges in their assignment. The CCl [McCauley & VanVelsor, 2004] sees five indicators of challenge, namely as a first, the job transition, especially when this includes changes in level, function or employer , a vast increase in the scope of the assignment and moving from a line job to a staff job. The second one is the creation of change as these require a leader to perform numerous actions and take decisions in the face of uncertainty. This creates feedback on the self identity. Thirdly there should be high levels of responsibility, as this has greater breath, visibility and complexity; these too expose the individual to pressure and high stakes decisions. Fourth is managing boundaries, which means exposure to situations where they must work across lateral boundaries. Finally there is the dealing with diversity, not only in the domestic workforce, but also in the demands of operating in the Global arena. [Ohlott, page 154]

Question: does the company measure the development potential of jobs, and if so, how do they do this?
Question: Is the developmental potential of a job matched with the developmental need of the employee?

MD as part of a professional HR practices

Several studies found that companies with effective HRM practices and programs have better financial performance [e.g. Becker & Huselid, 1998; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Huselid & Schuler, 1997; Richard & Johnson, 2001; Park, Mitsuhashi et.al., 2003]. Through the use of good HR practices it is possible to have a more competent and committed workforce, which in turn provides a source of sustainable competitive advantage [Singh, 2003] and talent. This is however not standard, as despite the evidence that HRM programs can improve financial performance, many fail to achieve the potential benefits [Bassi & Murrer, 2007; Pfeffer, 2005]. One reason is that some top executives still regard human resources as a cost rather than an asset end they view HR functions as a low level staff responsibility that can be outsourced or minimized [Yukl & Mahsud, 2009].

Historically, the HR department managed the functions that no one else wanted or could perform. From recruiting, to orienting new employees, to writing job descriptions, to tracking attendance, to instituting and monitoring policies and benefits, an HR "generalist" was needed to assist senior management in both establishing a structure and holding down administration costs. Changing titles from Personnel Manager to HR Manager to People Manager to Talent Officer doesn't change what organizations need from professionals in these roles [Vona,2010]. In words of Ulrich HR must give direction or give notice.[Ulrich, 1997]

The importance of HR management systems for improving the quality of leadership has not been clearly acknowledged in much of the leadership literature. Most leadership theories focus on the skills and actions of the individual leader without considering the organizational processes by which leaders are selected, trained and developed. The quality of top executives who are promoted from within the organization is highly dependent on programs and practices involving leadership development, performance appraisal, succession planning and executive selection [Yukl & Mahsud, 2009]

In order to provide a professional developmental process it is recommended that this is brought under the responsibility of HR for the process management, and under line management for the support of the process. In order to be (come) successful in this effort also HR must look into their own functional mirror, as there is clearly insufficient. One example is that though in much of recent literature on strategic HR, talented employees are viewed as a source of competitive advantage and a way to improve the bottom line result [Hatch et.al. 2004; Hitt & Ireland, 2002], most HR leaders are spending <u>less than 25%</u> of their time preparing for the workforce of the future and few organizations believe that HR has the skills required to manage a diverse and global workforce [CIPD, 2004].

This does not seem aligned with the importance of the topic, both for the company as well as for the function, to profile itself more strongly. And also on organisational side there is not sole support for having HR in the role of owner of one of the most key value delivering processes in the company; MD. "The belief persists that for top HR roles, organizations need to bring in someone from outside HR to run it. HR leaders are viewed as incapable of bringing innovation to HR or lacking the competencies to drive decisions and organizational change. This is neither best practice, nor commonly practiced. [Vona, 2010] Cappelli c.s. [2010] found that the "typical" HR leader had typically more than 15 years of functional HR experience. Although some organizations may transition leaders from different functional areas [e.g. Finance], it is not the norm. Nor is it the norm that HR persons make a move outside of the function that would be able to give them the additional credibility. In summary the organisation needs from HR “vision, drive, data-driven insight, and excellent execution skills—in short transformational leadership”. [Vona, 2010] It seems that though the owner of the MD process should help talents develop their authentic leadership to allow them to move into transformational styles, this is what is missing in HR itself.

This would also reflect on the MD program. When HR itself is under-represented in the MD population, this could create , with the other talents a potential confirmation of their implicit opinion that HR is indeed not a part of the strategic architecture of the company. Unfortunately, as the current talent sin the MD process are the future leaders in the company, that impression could manifest itself in future again as the opinion of the business leaders.

One way out of this dilemma is that HR talents should indeed move through the same track as the other talents. This also implies that if the ´regular´ talents receive cross functional assignments to increase their management breath, also the HR talents should. As per Vona [2010] this seldom happens. A representative percentage of HR talents in the talent-pool is therefore the first step. The second being that HR leaders, should also absorb cross functional assignments to increase their business breath and enable them to create stronger networks in the company as well as a deeper understanding of the issues their ´clients´ face.

Question: Is the HR representation in the talent pool (%) comparable with the % of HR managers versus the total population of managers (above the level that provide access to the talentpool).
Question: Do the top HR people in your organisation come out of HR or from the business or finance?

Question: Do the talents in the talent pool receive X-functional exposure?

Question: Do the HR talents receive X-functional exposure?

Question: Who owns the Management Development process? Who manages it on a day-to-day manner

Question: Are the people responsible for the MD process, talents themselves?

Should HR miss out on the current window of opportunity, than this is more than a pity; it could become a lost chance as Vona [2010] states that “there has never been a more exciting time to advance the HR profession and brand while seeking the valued seat at the proverbial “C” suite table. The HR profession has evolved from the early relationship between master craftsperson and apprentice to the modern world of workforce optimization, with technology-based learning, benefit and retirement planning, and investment portfolio management. HR has come of age and clearly deserves its executive committee membership. “ But only if they prove worthy.

Finally as HRM programs and practices are unlikely to be effective unless they are consistent with the firms competitive strategy [Yukl & Mahsud, 2009] it is key that when HR is set up professionally the HR programs will have a clear link-in with the strategic processes. Thereby the added value of HR can be proven.

The elements of the MD model

Researchers and practitioners in leader development have increasingly emphasized contextualized development strategies, such as the use of developmental assignments, on-the-job learning, coaching and mentoring relationships, and action learning assignments [Day, 2000; Ohlott, 2004; VanVelsor & McCauley, 2004]. The MD ´experience´ encompasses more than merely the MD elements. It also encompasses organisational conditions to optimise the development, which cannot be simply ´defined´ as an element of the MD process. The MD process does not function in perfect isolation, it is embedded in a strategic concept for the future and has to have a clear and strong owner in the company to drive this important process. Also a number of organisational prerequisites must be met.

Based on the literature review the following elements of MD programs have now been established:

1. The value match between the company and the employee is assessed.
2. The individual candidate is assessed on the presence of the indicators of potential.
3. Both developmental targets as well as performance targets are set and these are followed up in a performance- and development management process which has a clear periodicity between their evaluation moments.
4. Knowledge and skills transfer is adjusted and offered relative to the level of leadership development.
5. Developmental assignments are offered based on the development need of the individual and the company needs.
6. Tools are provided to fill the need for reflection of the talent, such as internal or external coaches, reflection tools etc.

7. Selected challenging assignments relative to the development stage are offered, which provide trigger experiences.
8. Periodically benchmark the assessed talent level is made, underperformers are sorted out.

These elements will be combined into a model, which in turn will be compared with the practice of the management development models in international companies, based on the questions posited in this article. Before this happens however the online panel of HR professionals will give their practical input into the theoretical assumptions made in this study. This enables the study to import tacit knowledge of a senior population.

Conclusion

Based on the theories, and combining these with empirical data can lead to a more coherent overview of the field of MD. One should wonder, how ´new´ such a view actually is.

This also in the light that funds allocated to development are huge. In the US only, in 2000, already 50 Bio US$ was allocate to Management and leadership training in general, and in 2005, 15 Bio US$ was allocated to MD specific. [Training, 2000, 2005] When such numbers are combined with the opinion of SR HR leaders who stated in a 2006 survey that the nr 1 problem of HR is identifying and developing leadership talent for growth and expansion of their respective organizations [Fegley, 2006] one would expect that huge amounts of work had been done in defining concise theories and modeling in the area of MD. However as Avolio & Luthans [2006] already stated, systematic investigations on leadership development and theories on that topic are rare.

This article shows there is a lot of fragmented work done. By combining this with the tacit knowledge of the ´problem owners´, and bridging the fragmented elements, a more concise model is be possible, which is what the research, of which this article is an element strives to contribute to.

But even after that would be done, still larger areas of study lie open that need research urgently. Where this study will define an overall practical and workable model, each element of the model need in turn be subjected to follow-on research that should review improvement possibilities, based on measurable effects of interventions. As the business wants return on investment data of the work of HR, also MD activities and processes should be reviewed in that way. The study of Avolio et. al. [2010] after Return on Development Investment (RODI) is however one of the first in that field, which shows that even though a topic that is a source for concern for almost all major companies and a vast source of cost, has not yet matured to the level where hard figures can be used to prove its worth. That again shows an area where HR, when it wants to continuously propagate this area, should put much effort in, in order to really partner with the business in this area.

With this theoretical analysis and the drawing out of questions to set up or evaluate models, this article should provide a net step in that effort, but by no means has this research area reached the end of the development itself, let alone the end of insights in Management Development.

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