LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

**A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW
OF THE LITERATURE**

**A REPORT FOR THE
NHS LEADERSHIP CENTRE**

By

JEAN HARTLEY and BARRIE HINKSMAN

**Warwick Institute of Governance and Public Management
Warwick Business School
University of Warwick
Coventry CV4 7AL**

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Professor Jean Hartley
Tel: 024 7652 2311
Fax: 024 7652 4410
Email: Jean.Hartley@wbs.ac.uk

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Warwick Institute of Governance and Public Management, Warwick Business School

BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

Aims of the research

The NHS Leadership Centre commissioned Warwick Institute of Governance and Public Management to produce a systematic literature review of leadership development to support the Leadership Centre's thinking on designing and evaluating leadership development activities for the NHS.

This review has aimed to produce:

1. a summary of the research produced from across the NHS, public and private sectors identifying key themes, findings and areas of debate

2. a summary of the key learning methodologies associated with leadership development and the research to support their use

3. a summary of the key leadership models underpinning leadership development activities and the research to support their use

4. an outline of different approaches to leadership development across the public and private sectors

5. a summary of different evaluation methodologies and models

6. outlines of the key literature associated with each topic area (author, title, date of publication, summary of key themes and findings, robustness of research, how to access)

The Warwick approach to the systematic review

Systematic reviews were developed in the medical sciences as part of the search for a better evidence-base for policy making (e.g. Health Technology Assessment, 2002) They aim to evaluate the main body of research within a particular field, often over a defined period. They are seen to be more rigorous than literature reviews, which in the social sciences are often based on narrative and subjective judgements.

It is harder to apply the existing medicine-based systematic review methodology outside the "hard sciences" but a number of social scientists have grappled with the challenges and are using a modified form of systematic review in the social sciences, management research and in social policy areas (e.g. Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart, 2002; Boaz, Hayden and Bernard, 1999).

Systematic review has been described as "replicable, scientific and transparent" (Tranfield et al, 2002). Meta-analysis is a subset of systematic review, which can be conducted where there is substantial quantitative evidence, but in the fields here has not been feasible. For the topic of leadership development we have suggested that the review covers both quantitative and qualitative evidence. Therefore, narrative review and qualitative systematic review are important in this review.

The elements of the review therefore consist of:

1. Scoping the framework of the systematic review (i.e. what will be covered under "leadership development").

2. Defining the area to be covered (e.g. time period and types of document).

3. Defining the principal periodicals, journals and publications to be covered.

4. Significant conference papers, where available in written form.

5. Defining the quality of the evidence to be included in the review. Some writers suggest that there must be sufficient information to make the study replicable and also sufficiently robust.

6. The primary focus is on empirical studies but we have included significant theoretical/conceptual studies.

7. Setting out data extraction sheets for the systematic recording of information.

Scoping the review

The field of leadership development has generated a large and growing body of literature. The initial stage of this study was to define and limit its scope by establishing clear parameters. We scoped the review to cover all types of organizations providing leadership development, whether in the public or private sectors. We also defined the focus to address leadership development rather than the wider field of leadership (though we recognise that leadership development is related to the type of leadership model which underlies it). We concentrated on those studies which gave empirical results that could be evaluated (rather than broader conceptual or exhortatory papers about leadership development). We analysed only papers written in English.

The focus on those studies of leadership development which have been evaluated (including the collection of consistent empirical data) means that the scope of the study can be defined conceptually through the following Venn diagram, with the systematic review focused on the area of overlap:
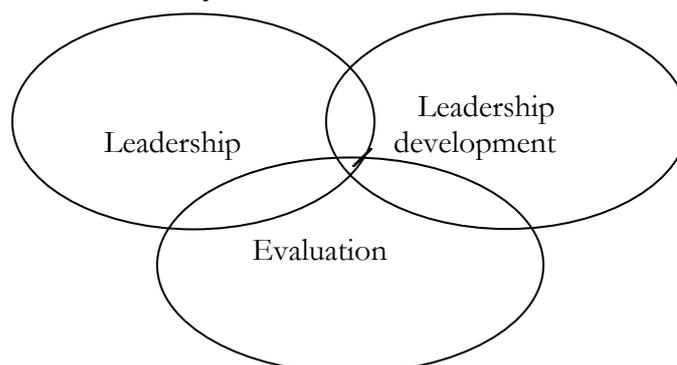
We will not, therefore, examine leadership studies, nor leadership development studies on their own, but focus primarily on those studies of leadership development which have been evaluated (in terms of their outcomes for both individuals and organisations, and in terms both of learning and of performance).

Material that was merely descriptive was excluded. Narrative accounts were included only where they contained significant evaluation or theoretical reflection. This selective process does not deny the value of a reported event for its participants, but it acknowledges the limited usefulness of such a description for people offering training resources on the basis of evidence of efficacy. What the researchers were looking for was a conceptual and intellectual rigour and self-critical awareness by the writers doing the practical work or developing their techniques.

Most of the available material on leadership development dates from the past eight to ten years. We have focused particularly on the period 1997-2003, because leadership development ideas and practices change rapidly and this is the period in which leadership concepts (e.g. "transformational leadership") and related leadership development terminology has become more dominant in the literature. (While Burns (1978) coined the term transformational leadership, it is more recently that this has affected leadership development).

Data sources

The six main databases consulted were:

- ABI/Inform Global (ProQuest), specialising in management and organisational journals
- ASSIA, specialising in social sciences
- HMIC, specialising in health and social care literature
- SSCI (Social Sciences Citation Index) - social sciences

- PsychInfo, with a focus on psychological information

- MedLine, which focuses on medicine and health, but also issues arising in medical practice, e.g. leadership development

Most material came from these sources. These databases included peer-reviewed journals from many countries, as well as a great deal of grey literature. This latter included conference proceedings, house journals, book reviews, interviews, editorials and transcripts of interviews. Each database was searched with a view to finding any reference to leadership development. The number of pieces found varied starkly from one source to another. In some instances, even with the restriction on date of publication referred to above, the number of items identified exceeded a thousand. In one instance, only fifteen items were found, although widening the search criteria (which might be assumed to vary slightly from one database to another) produced many more responses. Thus "leadership" on its own or "management" produced an unmanageably large but, in the present context, no more informative response. Moreover, extending the search term from "leadership development" to "leadership AND development" did not produce any more useful information on leadership development.

We also undertook hand searching of some publications. These most commonly took the form of following up references in papers that were candidates for inclusion, and it also included some publications not available electronically. The most notable example of this was the search through *The Health Service Journal*. Though costly in terms of time, this method has the advantage that other items in a target issue might have some bearing on the search especially where the journal has produced a special issue on a particular topic. (The same may be said of online searches: the search for full texts of e-journals allows the researcher to read papers in a target issue that may have a bearing on the focus of the search).

We also contacted some researchers working in the field of leadership development to obtain unpublished and working papers. Finally, we used

the University of Warwick Online Catalogue to identify a small number of books for hand-searching. As with books reviewed in journals available electronically, it became evident that the focal ideas found in these publications were available in papers published at around the same time or they were discussed at length and from many perspectives in the years following publication. The most common example of this phenomenon is the work of Bass and others on Transformational Leadership (Avolio, 1999; Avolio and Bass, 1990; Bass, 1985 are some citations). The ideas cease to be the exclusive intellectual property of the original authors and become instead the site of debate among theoreticians and practitioners of leadership development.

Study selection

In the face of very large quantities of material (over 3500 items were found by the methods outlined above), it was both possible and necessary to limit the criteria for inclusion in the review (e.g. in the data extraction sheets). Abstracts were read in full, but only those warranting further reading were followed up. In practice, we read many where the abstract was not altogether promising, so we read in full over 2/3 of all the items found. We focused on studies that had theoretical significance for leadership development or were of practical or technical importance. However, speculative theory would not be sufficient for inclusion; coherently argued theory with evidence of critical awareness of other arguments would be included. We excluded papers which focused solely on participants' immediate satisfaction with training as too numerous and too limited conceptually for inclusion.

If, as sometimes happened, the statistical evidence was based upon a small sample of self-reporting participants in an event which was both run and evaluated by the same trainer, we were immediately alerted to the weakness of the design. To be judged robust in those terms, the article would need to contain not only an account of an event, but also the thinking that went into its design and some critical reflection on what had been done.

A further means of ensuring consistency was to employ two researchers working on the material without prior consultation; that was built into the research design.

The papers we examined were mainly from the USA, Canada, Australasia and the UK. We read a total of 2000 papers (approximately) in full text and a further 1500 (approximately) in abstract as a means of determining whether or not to order the full text. We take the view that this procedure is sufficiently robust, given the average size of abstracts available, to gauge the likely interest, for review purposes, of a publication. Of the papers selected, 82% (14) come from the field of personnel and human resource management and 18 % (3) come specifically from the field of healthcare. These figures do not reflect at all the proportions of available material where the healthcare field represents the single largest contributor. Within that large number of papers, the majority concerned the nursing sector.

Some material studied was either deemed theoretically and / or practically weak, or, more commonly, it fell into categories that are irrelevant to the study. These categories include what we called "exhortation" (for example, calls to organisations to take seriously leadership development), or inspirational pieces (such as interviews with well-known writers or practitioners in the field), or pieces by trainers or consultants that appear designed to capture the interest - or even custom - of readers.

LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

What is leadership?

While the focus of this review is on leadership development and not on leadership per se, it is evident from the literature that the approach to development is influenced by the model (explicit or implicit) of leadership which underlies the development work. Therefore, we examine here some key approaches to understanding leadership, in terms of how this shapes leadership development.

Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) note that the concept of leadership was nebulous and ill-defined in the 30 organizations they studied and that this is problematic for leadership development for a number of reasons. Unless there is a clear and agreed approach to the concept of leadership and an agreed framework, then leadership development practices may be inappropriate for the kind of leaders which the organization is aiming for (e.g. developing transactional leaders when the organization needs transformational leaders) or old and out-dated practices may be relabelled as "leadership" to suit the current organizational rhetoric. In particular, if there is a not a distinction made between management and leadership, then some leadership development may actually be traditional management development (see also Rost, 1998).

Day (2001) argues that there is a need to clarify the difference between managers and leaders for the purposes of leadership development. He argues:

"Leadership development is defined as expanding the collective capacity of the organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes…Leadership roles refer to those that come with and without formal authority, whereas management development focuses on performance in formal managerial roles. Leadership processes are those that generally enable groups of people to work together in meaningful ways,

whereas management processes are considered to be position- and organization-specific." (p.582)

He notes an overlap between leadership development and management development, but suggests that management development tends to focus on enhancing task performance in management roles, whereas leadership development involves building the capacity of individuals to help staff learn new ways of doing things that could not have been predicted.

We have focused in this review on leadership development but note the problems of relabelling which may be occurring at the present time, and the danger, alluded to by Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001), that some management development practices may be inappropriate for leadership development. However, they also note the considerable variety in the way in which leadership and hence leadership development is defined in the 30 organizations they studied.

Significant leadership models being used in leadership development currently include the transformational leadership model (e.g. Avolio, 1999; Kelloway and Barling, 2000; Alimo-Metcalfe; 1998; Sivasubranamiam et al, 2002) and the charismatic model (e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Kelloway and Barling show how focusing on different dimensions of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) each provide different implications for the focus of leadership development.

Hartley and Allison (2000) in looking at public sector leadership argue for the distinction between the concept of *leader* and that of *leadership*. Considerable research effort has been applied to researching leaders, but this approach concentrates on the characteristics of the leader (for example, personality, style or behaviours) rather than leadership processes (Avolio, 1999; Bryman, 1992, Grint, no date). When considering leadership, it is therefore valuable to distinguish between the person, the position and the processes.

Research on the person as leader, including personal characteristics of leaders abounds (see Yukl, 1994 for a review) and tends to focus on the skills and abilities, the personality, the styles of engagement (e.g. Fiedler 1967, Graen and Scandura 1987), gender differences (Alimo-Metcalfe 1999) and the behaviours (e.g. Burns 1978) of individual leaders. The role of individuals in shaping events and circumstances at certain times is clear. The disadvantage of such approaches is that they can lionise particular individuals and assume that they have pre-eminent capacity and power, which ignores "followers" and organizational and community constraints, and places too much emphasis on personal development at the expense of leadership development as collective capacity.   In fact, Bryman (1993) argues that effective leadership by individuals is an interaction of the individual with their context.   However, Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) note that a number of organizations are still taking a "strong leader" approach to their leadership development, with this focus on the individual and his/her personality.

A second view of leadership occurs when the focus is on the formal position in an organisation. For example, in the NHS, this might be chief executives, medical directors, nurse managers etc. A chief executive is in a position of authority, which may be a basis for leadership as well as management. The formal position may also be described as a leader by virtue of the formally recognised role. Some commentators (e.g. Rost 1998) say that such formal positions give authority though not necessarily leadership.   Leadership requires more than simply holding a particular office or role. Heifetz (1996) distinguishes between formal and informal leadership and argues that each may tackle leadership issues through different processes – for example, informal leaders may work through influence rather than through authority or direct control.

The implications for leadership development are important. If leadership is defined solely by role, then the focus is on leadership development for those roles (and possibly for those coming in to those roles where they have been

identified).   However, Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) note that there are dangers in seeing leadership development as related solely to particular roles as opposed to leadership "cascaded" through the organization (distributed leadership) or building critical mass across the organization through leadership development.

A third approach is to consider leadership as a set of processes or dynamics occurring among and between individuals, groups and organizations. In this approach, leadership is a set of activities or processes concerned with motivating and influencing people, and shaping and achieving outcomes. Burns (1978) made an important distinction between transformational and transactional leadership, which has been widely used in thinking about both political and managerial leadership.   The approaches are complementary. *Transformational leadership* is characterised by idealised influence (leaders engender trust and respect among their followers by doing the right thing), inspirational motivation (the ability to create and build commitment to goals); intellectual stimulation (challenging current reality and old ways of thinking); and individualised consideration (fair but individual treatment of participants to ensure that everyone has opportunities for developing and learning). Nadler and Tushman (1990) have described these qualities of leadership as being about envisioning, energising and enabling. *Transactional leadership*, on the other hand, is concerned with making actions happen in a substantial way through the use of rewards and systems which support the specified objectives.

Leadership development, using this model, concerns building social capital as well as human capital (Day, 2001), and involves a different set of activities in leadership development programmes.

The idea of leadership as a set of processes concerned with influencing people and achieving goals and outcomes is reflected in the definitions of adaptive leadership by Heifetz (1996) as "mobilising people to tackle tough problems". This is followed up in work by Heifetz and Laurie (1997) and Heifetz and Linsky (2002).

Competency frameworks are seen to be another way in which organizations can articulate their model of leadership and this point will be returned to later in the review.

What is leadership development?

The link between the model of leadership being used and the approach to leadership development is illustrated very well in the work of Day (2001). Again, his work bears quoting for its incisive approach to conceptualising leadership development:

"Leadership has been traditionally conceptualised as an individual-level skill. A good example of this is found in transformational leadership theory which proposes that transformational leaders engage in behaviours related to the dimensions of Charisma, Intellectual Stimulations, and Individualized Consideration....Within this tradition, development is thought to occur primarily through training individual, primarily intrapersonal, skills and abilities. ….These kinds of training approaches, however, ignore, almost 50 years of research showing leadership to be a complex interaction between the designated leader and the social and organizational environment….

In addition to building leaders by training a set of skills or abilities, and assuming that leadership will result, a complementary perspective approaches leadership as a social process that engages everyone in the community…In this way, each person is considered a leader, and leadership is conceptualized as an effect rather than a cause. …Leadership is therefore an emergent property of effective systems design …..Leadership development from this perspective consists of using social (i.e. relational systems) to help build commitments among members of a community of practice (p.583).

While the conceptual distinction between leader development and leadership development is a useful one, in fact Day argues that both types

of development are important, and this is confirmed by other writers too (e.g. Latham and Sejits, 1998). Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001); suggest that leadership development works best where attention is paid to organizational strategy and context, to make sure that leadership development is appropriately designed and implemented.

The distinction, however, is useful to clarify approaches to leadership development, with different methods, programmes and expectations of outcomes. We use Day's distinction in the following table (Table 1). However, while he distinguishes between <u>leader</u> development and <u>leadership</u> development, we are unable to follow through in using his linguistic convention in this systematic review, where both types of development have been called leadership development in the literature. Instead, we will call them the human capital and social capital approaches to leadership development.

(Table 1 overleaf)

Table 1: Human capital and social capital approaches to leadership development

	Development target	
Comparison dimension	*Leader*	*Leadership*
Capital type	Human capital	Social capital

Leadership model	Individual
	    Personal power
	    Knowledge
	    Trustworthiness
		Relational
		    Commitments
		    Mutual respect
		    Trust

Competence base	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal

Skills	Self-awareness
	    Emotional awareness
	    Self-confidence
	    Accurate self-image
	Self-regulation
	    Self-control
	    Trustworthiness
	    Personal responsibility
	    Adaptability
	Self-motivation
	    Initiative
	    Commitment
	    Optimism
		Social awareness
		    Empathy
		    Service orientation
		    Political awareness
		Social skills
		    Building bonds
		    Team orientation
		    Change catalyst
		    Conflict management

Source: Day, 2001

The Office of Public Management (OPM) (2003) argues that leadership capacity has to be built not only in the organization but across organizations in a sector (in this case local government). This is what Scott (2001) would

call an organizational field. OPM have suggested that one option for the future is to take a national institutional approach to building capacity (including leadership capacity).

The different approaches to human capital and social capital argue for different emphases in leadership development.

Types of leadership development

Leadership development can be considered in terms of formal programmes (e.g. training courses, development programmes, educational programmes) and in terms of informal activities which support leadership development (e.g. on-the-job experiences chosen to create "stretch" for the job incumbent, mentoring etc). They can also be thought of as focusing on the individual, the team or group, sets of roles (e.g. medical directors, aspiring chief executives; fast track programmes) or concerned with the whole organization (e.g. organization development).

Conger and Benjamin (1999) (see also Conger and Kanungo, 1988) suggest that there are three types of focus in leadership development:

- Individual skills development
- Socialisation of corporate values and vision
- Promotion of dialogue and implementation of a collective vision

The different methods of leadership development will be explored in later sections.

The extent of leadership development

Our study shows that there is a great deal of interest in leadership development. This is apparent in management and HR journals (e.g. Cohen and Tichy, 1997; Heifetz and Linsky, 2002, Wright et al, 2001), but is also part of government agenda for the public services with the establishment of leadership development centres, publication of White Papers and discussion papers on the importance of leadership to improve public services (e.g. Performance and Innovation Unit, 2001; OPM, 2003).

There is also a considerable debate about leadership development in the private sector (e.g. Pearn, 2002). Rodgers et al (2003) describe the current interest as "the rush to leadership".

However, while there is much talk about the need to improve leadership, leadership capacity and leadership development, we have come across less information about the extent to which leadership development is taking place. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) found that out of 30 organizations across the public and private sectors (but excluding health organizations), 82% have leadership development initiatives, of which nearly two-thirds had started in the previous 2 years, suggesting that this is relatively recent. Drew and Wah (1999) report that 51% of companies in the USA have leadership development programmes.

This is scant information, and also one must be wary of whether there is relabelling (of management development initiatives) occurring here. More factual information would be helpful in assessing the extent of leadership development. This would be helpful in evaluating its degree of success, according to which criteria, and by which methods.

IDENTIFYING LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL FOR DEVELOPMENT

An initial stage of any leadership development programme or set of activities is to identify (and then recruit) individuals or groups for leadership development. There are a number of ways in which this may occur in organizations (e.g. Pearn, 2002; Fletcher, 2001). This is also often closely related to the (implicit) model of leadership – for example, whether the organization is making assumptions about strong (single individual) leadership or distributed leadership. How far down or into the organization there is a search for leadership potential is a key strategic decision of organizations, though not always recognised as such.

Competency frameworks

A number of formal means of assessing leadership potential have emerged and become more widely used over the last decade. These include the use of competency frameworks (e.g. in the local government sector, Hartley, 1998). There are a number of practitioner/exhortatory papers arguing for the importance of competency frameworks and setting out key criteria for utilising them, but without giving either rationale or success rate (e.g. Pernick, 2001).

The identification and development of competencies for a range of types of occupation and role became important during the 1980s. Recent surveys on the use of competencies show that they are a feature of many organisations and are likely to increase in the future (Strebler, Robinson and Heron, 1997; Mathewman, 1995; Sparrow, 1997; Hodgkinson and Sparrow, 2002). It is reported that large organisations (with over 5000 employees) in the service sector are the most likely to employ competencies as the way to identify key skills and approaches and to the development of staff. (Strebler and others, 1997). Competency frameworks are used for a range of purposes, only one of which is the identification of leadership potential.

The burgeoning literature on competencies has created some ambiguities in the field. Some people use competency to denote a function or task that must be performed; others use it to refer to the skills and personal characteristics that enable somebody to perform a task or function. It is therefore helpful to distinguish between:

- *Competent performance.* Using a task or functional approach, the demands of the job are analysed and from these are derived the performance standards and behaviours that are required to do the job to a satisfactory standard.

- *Personal characteristics or capabilities.* The second approach to competency begins from the notion of personal capabilities. In this sense, competency is close to skill, although it denotes a wider set of behaviours and attitudes. In relation to managerial competencies, Kanungo and Sasi (1992) for example, argue that competencies represent a wider set of abilities and approaches that enable the non-specific, non-routine, discretionary and unstructured parts of a job to be achieved. In some ways we can see this as akin to notions of leadership as opposed to management.

We should note also that at the level of the whole organisation rather than the level of the individual, the term *organisational* competence is used to understand the core competencies of an organisation, which are the unique bundle of skills it possesses which may provide a sustainable competitive advantage (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). This strategic context is clearly valuable in understanding competencies in terms of the skills and capabilities of individuals and for building social capital approaches to leadership development (Day, 2001).

In competencies for leadership development, the focus is primarily on the individual and the behaviours, skills and other qualities they need to perform effectively in leadership roles. There has been less attention paid to a team focus for competencies, whether this is a "team" of Chair and Chief

Executive (the need for leadership development to reflect this pair is noted by Gaughan, 2001 for PCTs in the NHS), a directorate team, or a team providing services in a locality. However, there is a recognition that good practice in the use of competencies means that the strategic context of the organization is taken into account in the competency framework. This may explain the high rate of "in-house" competency frameworks which are developed – but also the question of where to draw the line about tailoring competency frameworks to reflect particular leadership development contexts or roles. This does suggest that competency frameworks need to be reviewed and modified to reflect changing organizational needs and the stage of formation of the organization (Gaughan, 2001).

Ethical judgement and moral leadership is seen increasingly as an element of competency (e.g. Daft, 2002), and some work has been done on organisational morale related to the perception of leaders as people who model what is right (e.g. Barker, 2001). This element is also significant in studies of transformational leadership (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002).

Appraisals

Although appraisal was primarily developed for performance management, it has been used in identifying leadership potential. It is used in association with competency frameworks, through other structured devices or in more unstructured ways (Fletcher, 2001). However, Alimo-Metacalfe and Lawler (2001) note that appraisal schemes do not always closely link the appraisal criteria to leadership or the identification of leadership potential. In their study, nearly half of the organizations placed "some emphasis" on appraisal as an element of leadership development but only a fifth of organizations placed a "strong emphasis" on appraisal. The overall link between appraisal and leadership development is not clear. In addition, it is widely accepted by researchers that the evidence on appraisal is that appraisal ratings are used inconsistently by raters (e.g. Cleveland and Murphy, 1992 among others), and that staff are often demotivated by appraisals (Pearce and Porter, 1986). Most UK organizations express dissatisfaction with their appraisal schemes (Fletcher, 1997). Raters often use their own judgements

to interpret the context in which appraisals are made (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993).

Thus, while there is the potential to use appraisal to identify those needing leadership development and those with potential for future leadership roles, this is still a very unclear and sometimes ambiguous means of identifying staff for leadership development programmes.

360 degree feedback

One element of appraisal is 360 degree feedback, where the ratings of subordinates as well as colleagues, superiors and in some cases clients (sometimes called 450% appraisal) are fed back to the candidate. Some studies suggest that such feedback, where well handled, can be very important both for identifying those who need leadership development programmes, and also for increasing the motivation of those who are being identified for such programmes.

As well as being used to identify leadership development needs, 360 appraisal and feedback can, in itself, provide leadership development. Kelloway and Barling (2001) found that feedback and counselling using the ratings of subordinates increased transformational leadership behaviours without attendance on a programme, i.e. it can have a singular impact. Day (2001) suggests it can be valuable as a development tool for a number of reasons, including ease of implementation (though the CIPD, 2002, has warned of the need to use 360 only in an appropriate organizational culture and climate of performance management), the fact that it is seen as a tool used by top companies (Waldman et al, 1998) and the fact that it can increase self-awareness through understanding the perceptions of others (a key element of human capital according to Day, and included in other frameworks of leadership e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1988. Self-awareness has also been linked to trustworthiness, which itself can be a building block of trust in organizations, which is often cited as a key leadership attribute (of the social processes between leader and follower).

However, some research using meta-analysis (i.e. summarising and synthesising previous quantitative studies) has suggested that about one third of those who receive 360 degree feedback do not change their behaviour, or even that their performance decreases (Kluger and DeNisi, 1996). This may be due to defensiveness, due to self-awareness combined with an unwillingness to change, and/or due to insufficient time and capability to effect the change. Therefore, 360 degree feedback can be a useful leadership development tool, but should not be regarded as universal. Those who are most able to make use of feedback may be more open and more resilient than those who cannot – i.e. they may start with more of the characteristics sought in transformational leaders. Out of an awareness of the current limitations of 360 feedback has come the recent interest in coaching as a leadership development technique (this is discussed in a later section).

Politicking and opportunism

In those contexts with either no formal mechanisms for identifying those destined for leadership development programmes, or with seriously inconsistent uses of needs assessment mechanisms, it has been noted that politics and opportunism can fill the void (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001; Conger, 1990). Politics consists of senior managers nominating staff for leadership development as a reward, as a distraction, as a favour, or for a host of other reasons not related to organizational purpose.

Equally, there are dilemmas about self-selection for leadership development. Those who put themselves forward for leadership development may be staff or managers who are most self-aware and less in need of such programmes (though often able to make a lot of use of courses through their own motivation and reflection on events). Those most in need of leadership development (including senior managers) may not put themselves forward. And there can be tensions where more junior staff return to the organization with new ideas about leadership and about organizational development, but are managed by senior staff in the "old school". An example in one paper was of a person groomed by his

industrial organisation for promotion to increasingly sophisticated and elevated levels of leadership. But this took place in a context in which traditional managers / leaders were not so groomed. The inevitable outcome was disappointment on all sides while the candidate for high office was seen as failing the high expectations of those who had invested in him.

METHODS OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND EVIDENCE TO SUPPORT EFFECTIVENESS

There are a number of approaches to leadership development including:

- 360 degree feedback
- Mentoring
- Coaching
- Networking
- Action learning
- Job challenge
- Secondments
- Succession planning
- Formal programmes
- Fast track cohorts
- Organization development
- Partnership working

We noted earlier that 360 degree feedback can, in itself, be a leadership development tool, as well as a means of identifying leadership potential. We will not repeat earlier comments here, but refer the reader to the earlier section.

Mentoring

This method of leader training has been employed formally for at least two decades , though its informal origins are ancient. It can be seen as a performance support process.   Its use in leadership development is more recently discovered. Where leadership development is truly encouraged (and therefore properly resourced), mentoring can become an organizational norm. However, many view mentoring as the attention given to a chosen few, groomed for the top jobs (human capital approach) rather than as building capacity of the whole organization (social capital approach). Overall, in a survey of over 350 people involved in leadership development, the most successful development methods were reported to be mentoring,

action learning and 360 degree feedback (Giber et al, 1999). This perception of success is based on the opportunity to learn about leadership challenges in strategic contexts (especially where mentoring occurs with senior managers as mentors), and in building cognitive complexity and mental representations of leadership challenges and opportunities. However, the impact of mentoring appears to be differential. It is reported to be more effective overall when it occurs informally than formally. Also, there are gender differences in mentoring impact – for both mentor and mentee (to use the current American language) (Ragins and Cotton, 1999). Day (2001) raises the problem of over-dependence on the mentor, and also draws attention to a lack of detailed empirical research on this topic.

A related phenomenon, though not called mentoring is **the leader-member exchange theory** of Graen (e.g. Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Graen, Liden and Hoel, 1982) This is a theory of leadership which draws attention to the increased performance of the leader and his/her subordinates through building strong inter-personal relationships between leader and "followers", resulting in mutual benefit. Leader-member exchange theory (LMX theory) proposes that with some subordinates (a "cadre") leaders participate in high levels and types of exchange and offer them inducements beyond the formal employment contract e.g. job discretion, detailed news and feedback, and social support. In exchange, the subordinate is expected to work harder, express greater commitment and shoulder more responsibility (see also Griffeth and Hom, 2001). Studies have shown that newcomers who form high LMX with their new superior develop higher job satisfaction, commitment and retention. Graen and colleagues have designed leadership development programmes to teach managers how to engage in high quality social exchanges with their subordinates. Trainees learn how to implement LMX with active listening, ways to exchange mutual expectations and resources. A meta-analytic study has documented that such training can increase subordinate morale and productivity (e.g. Gerstner and Day, 1997). While LMX is not formally a part of mentoring in that it deals directly with managers and subordinates (and does of course, raise the question as to whether the managers are in

fact leaders), it is similar in that it appears to be based on elements of informal (and possibly implicit) exchange between staff at different levels and with different work roles and experience.

Coaching

Coaching can occur for a variety of purposes (remedial management action, career development, work-life balance). It is generally described as executive coaching (e.g. Day, 2001;Smither, London, Flautt and Vargas, 2003; Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997), betraying possibly a tendency to view this as leadership development for senior managers rather than a wider team of leaders. Executive coaching has been expanding over the last decade. Some writers have seen this activity as highly pertinent as a component of leadership development. There is still insufficient empirical research which examines how it occurs, what happens during coaching that supports leadership development, when it is successful, why it is successful in some settings (and possibly not in others), who makes a good coach (and why) and what sort of leader most benefits from coaching. As it is an expensive form of one-to-one engagement, many organizations restrict coaching to a limited number of occasions/interventions. One difficulty is that organizations sometimes adopt coaching for particular executives where there is a clear problem (e.g. interpersonal insensitivity, remedial action) and this can attract a sense of stigma (Day, 2001).

It is hypothesised that coaching may be effective in providing different mental models of events, encouraging reflection, and also building strong and weak ties (networks) in and outside the organization (Day, 2001). Some have argued that building effective networks is a critical competency for a leader (Brass and Krackhardt, 1999) and others have suggested this is particularly the case for those in public sector leadership positions where ties outside the organization are important for service delivery (e.g. Benington, 2001; Hartley, 1998). One study (Olivero et al, 1997) has claimed that executive coaching increased productivity by 88% in a public agency, but it is not clear that this was leadership development rather than managerial training.

It may be that coaching will turn out to have very different trajectories and benefits for the public sector compared with the private sector.   For example, whereas in the private sector coaching is put forward to improve individual leadership skills, there are opportunities in the public sector to engage in critical mass developments, either across an organization or across a sector. It will be interesting to examine the empirical evidence on coaching for new chief executives in the NHS as an element of leadership development.

Networking

A number of commentators have suggested that networking can play an important role in leadership development. In part, this is because peer networks are known to be sustainable over a longer period than either mentoring or coaching. Some informal networks in the public sector may extend over decades.

Networking may occur within the organization, across the sector, or beyond it. Some organizations e.g. Motorola, World Bank, federal departments of government in the USA, have deliberately established internal networks as "communities of practice" (c.f. Lave and Wenger, 1991; Orr, 1990), where managers are given time and in some cases resources to meet and share ideas on a regular basis.

Networking can also occur and be supported across a sector. In part this may occur through professional contacts, though the organization has less influence over the types of information, culture and standards which are transmitted through such networks. Other networks across a sector may focus on particular activities and functions. For example, under the present central government drive for "modernisation" and "improvement" of public services, a number of networks have been promoted or have grown up organically.   A number of local authorities have developed links and networks around Best Value (Martin et al, 2000), and the Better Value Development Programme was reported to be beneficial for providing

participants with a broader strategic outlook and sense of focus in relation to Best Value (Hartley and Allison, 2002). The Warwick University Local Authorities Consortium participants, consisting of senior political leaders and managers in local government, have reported, in an external quantitative and qualitative evaluation, that engagement in the Consortium was beneficial to their own and their organization's development, particularly in relation to strategy (Benington and Hartley, 2001). While the context of this study was not one of leadership development per se, the strategic nature of these networks points clearly to their potential in leadership development. A further example of networking and its part in leadership development occurs in relation to the Beacon Council Scheme and the transfer of good practice between leading local authorities and those which are medium or lagging in organizational capacity and performance. Here senior strategic managers see the Beacons as providing opportunities for leadership development in relation to policy and for other corporate staff, in the context of a wider and more strategic view of innovation and improvement (Rashman and Hartley, 2002).

The Better Government for Older People initiative by central government, but involving local government, health and police services, is an example of an inter-organizational network, which was seen as providing opportunities for leadership development for individual managers and for their organizations to take on a leadership role in innovations in services for older people (Hayden and Boaz, 2000).

The reasons why networking can be significant in leadership development is articulated in a small number of papers. It can be valuable for sharing tacit as well as explicit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is the kind of embodied knowledge which is hard to articulate, but which can sometimes be transmitted between people through the sharing of stories, anecdotes and the use of metaphors to grasp at ideas otherwise hard to define and articulate, and yet important to the way the organisation functions (see Nonaka, 1994, Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995 and von Krogh et al, 2000). In addition, networking provides a wider range of contacts, both inside and

outside the organization, enabling the leader to have a greater range of information, perspectives and views (Day, 2001). A network also provides challenge to currently held assumptions and views – the diversity of networks appears to be significant for their success (Benington and Hartley, 2001, Geddes and Benington, 2001; Benington, 2001).

However, networking is not something which can be left to chance. Some people appear to be better able to take advantage of the leadership development opportunities of networks, while others treat networks as little more than "gossiping, but with expenses". In order to take advantage of networks, research appears to suggest that there is a need for diversity of backgrounds and outlooks, sufficient space to engage in exploration (Nonaka, 1994) and in some cases facilitation to ensure the right climate develops in the initial period. Those who are most proactive in using networks are probably those who are most able to take advantage of a range of leadership development opportunities, while those most in need of leadership development may not be so confident or so focused in using networks. Ragins and Cotton (1999) suggest that where formal networks are established by organizations, they should mimic some of the features of informal networks.

Evaluating the impact of networks is particularly taxing because the impacts tend to be both diffuse, indirect, and take place over an extended period of time (Benington and Hartley, 2001). Nevertheless participants are able to rate the extent to which they find a network helpful for their organization aims and personal development purposes. They are generally able to state what they perceive are the benefits to them personally, although more circumspect about attributing organizational outcomes to networking.

Action learning

Action learning was a concept pioneered by Reg Revans (1980) and is being increasingly used in leadership development (e.g. Dotlich and Noel, 1998). It hinges on the proposition that the learning of explicit knowledge in a classroom or training situation is sometimes of limited value, as the

transfer of training to the work situation can be limited (due to the limits of memory, difficulties of changing attitudes and behaviour through logic and rationality etc). The focus in action learning is on problem-solving of real issues, with reflection on what has happened and why. A number of authors have written about the most effective conditions for leadership development (e.g. Smith, 2001; Newman and Fitzgerald, 2001), including the importance of selecting the most appropriate peers for the action learning set, and also ensuring that the action learning group addresses the most appropriate organizational issues. Action learning can also encourage collaborative exploration of issues prior to decision-making and action, with potentially beneficial implications for joint working within and across organizations.

Job challenge

The non-academic literature of leadership biography suggests that leadership development on the job, and/or through difficult and testing work challenges is an important element of development from a practitioner point of view. The academic literature has long recognised that much learning and development takes place away from the classroom and on the job (e.g. Easterby-Smith, 1994; Burgoyne and James, 2002; Kempster, 2002; Mumford, 1980). Job assignments may help to build individual skills and capabilities (e.g. problem analysis, a wider strategic overview of the organization) and may also contribute to team-building skills and influence skills. Job assignments may also contribute to the social capital of the organization through extending networks (see earlier section). Most of the writing on job challenges focuses more on management development than on leadership development, though it is possible that similar processes apply.

There are some concerns about leadership development through job assignments. Day (2001) notes that learning may not occur, however potent the assignment, if the person does not have the latitude to experiment with different leadership approaches as part of the developmental role. He argues that intentionality of the experience is important – *how* is the job assignment seen to be providing the potential to

contribute to leadership development? In addition, the organizational climate needs to be able to support learning not just performance. Where an organization is harsh in its approach to failure, then the experience may lead to skills in defensiveness not learning from failure. To be valuable, the job experience must enable the person to be able to engage in self-reflection (Moxley, 1998). This underlines a point made by other writers (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001) of the importance of linking leadership development to organizational strategy and to the human resource strategy. Leadership development need to be seen in whole systems terms, not as isolated events. In addition, the need to match the individual to the job challenge is important (Day, 2001), and to ensure that individuals are learning appropriate lessons and attributions from their experiences (Rousseau and Tijoriwala, 1999).

However, there is insufficient research on the developmental components of jobs, and how learning is related to job experience, including the "stretch" which can occur in some jobs. One useful study was that of McCauley, Ruderman, Olott and Morrow, 1994) which used a Developmental Challenge Profile (DCP) to assess job characteristics related to leadership. There are three general categories in the DCP: job transitions (e.g. unfamiliar responsibilities, and having to prove yourself); task-related characteristics (e.g. creating change, working through influence rather than hierarchy); and obstacles (difficult targets to achieve, working with an unsupportive top management team). The paper reports findings from 700 managers, showing that greater challenge did lead to greater on-the-job learning (though the focus was management development not leadership development per se).

Secondments

Secondments are a type of job assignment or challenge that occurs with some regularity in the public sector, within and between organizations or more often, between sectors or parts of the sector (e.g. local government to central government, voluntary sector or private sector to central government).

We did not come across any literature which addressed this theme in relation to leadership development, but there is potentially scope for evaluation research on this topic.

Succession planning

A small number of papers we examined focused entirely on the issues surrounding succession – but tended to focus on the top job. A few of these argued that leadership development in which the chief executive is not actively identifying and training his / her successor is deficient (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001). Succession planning can contribute to a whole systems approach to leadership development where it includes identifying not just the person for the top job but also a more distributed view of leadership. Pernick (2001) included succession planning in their key points for leadership development (e.g. Pernick, 2001). What happens when key people move on? How does / should the organisation respond?

Formal programmes

Formal programmes of management development or leadership development have been the bedrock of business schools in Europe and the USA (among other places) and there are also organization-based development programmes undertaken by an organization or by a sector. Some professional groups also undertake leadership courses (e.g. the CIPFA programme on Leaders in Finance, which aimed to develop broader organizational and strategic leadership skills among senior finance professionals.)

The range of programmes is immense – from postgraduate education lasting several years to courses of a few days (though Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler found in their survey of 30 organizations that only 20% send staff on leadership development courses of more than 2 weeks, which suggests quite a short-term and limited view of leadership development). The focus may also vary from human capital to social capital. It is therefore difficult to

summarise the research and the evaluation of leadership development through formal training programmes.

Rodgers, Gold, Frearson and Holden (2003) note that there has been a "rush to leadership" in the public sector - in the UK particularly but also overseas (e.g. Australia). They note that in the public sector, there has been an explosion of programmes and courses for leadership development, including the establishment of new institutions to underpin leadership development. These include the National College for Schools Leadership; the Leadership Academy (for elected members in local government); the NHS Leadership Centre; the Public Service Leadership Scheme; and PRIME: Leadership in the Civil Service. We might also add the Scottish Leadership Foundation, the Centre for Health Leadership Wales; the Public Services Leadership Development Initiative of Wales, the Public Sector MBA provision (in five universities in the UK).

It is beyond the scope of this review to evaluate all the courses, with their different emphases, skills base etc. However, it is useful to introduce the framework developed by Rodgers et al (2003), which aims to provide a typology which will help to locate both leadership development and its evaluation in the public sector. They argue that there are two key dimensions when conceptualising leadership development.   The first dimension is the extent to which leadership is conceptualised as an individual feature or is collective (e.g. distributed leadership, shared leadership). This can be seen as having overlap with Day's (2001) notions of leadership development as human capital or social capital. The second dimension is the extent to which leadership is prescriptive or emergent. By prescriptive is meant that it is possible to define the inputs (e.g. skills, competencies, traits etc) or the outputs (e.g. standards, performance) required for leadership (and therefore leadership development) in particular organizational settings. By contrast, emergent approaches to leadership and leadership development see leadership as a dynamic process, with a set of interactions between leaders, followers, context etc and therefore that

leadership has emergent properties (which cannot be predicted in advance). Rogers et al argue that this leads to four quadrants of leadership development and leadership development evaluation. This is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: A framework of leadership development (Rogers et al, 2003)
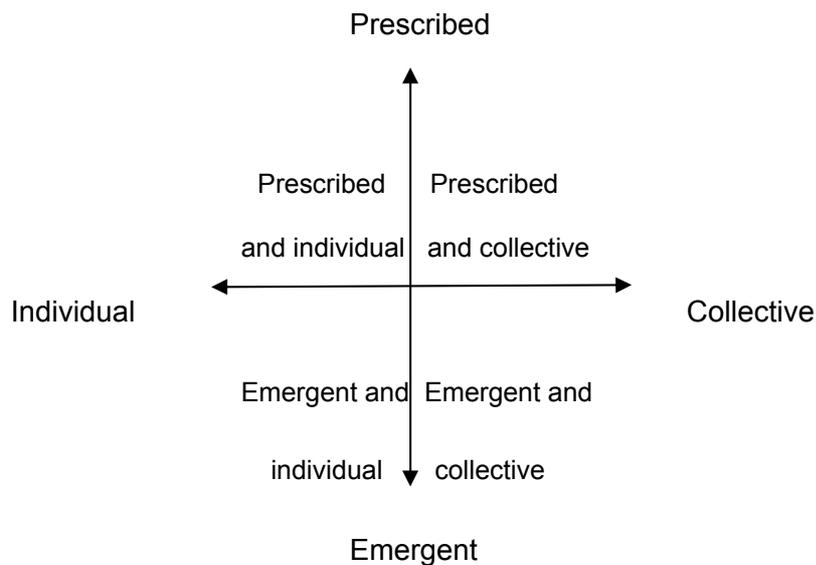
Source: Rogers et al, 2003

They note that many leadership development programmes in the public sector tend to focus on prescribed and individual features (associated with competency frameworks, 360 feedback etc).

Some commentators have noted that a key problem for training courses or formal education programmes is the transfer of key skills and behaviours following the course (the transfer of training problem, e.g. Goldstein, 1993). In part this may be due to difficulties in identifying how to apply concepts back in the home organization, though some (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001) have highlighted the problems of having to work with more senior managers who have not been part of the leadership development programme, and/or working in an organizational culture which is not

conducive to the new approaches.   A further difficulty is getting staff released to go on a training programme, either to get the time to go, or to have duties taken away in order to free up the time to go. As organizations become more team-based and decentralised, then being away from the office can create pressures for colleagues, leading to reluctance to go away even on short courses in leadership development (e.g. Hartley, 2002).

Fast track cohorts

A number of fast-track programmes exist in the public sector, for example, the Graduate Management Trainee Scheme in the NHS; the newly-initiated National Graduate Development Programme for management trainees in local government in England. Others are being discussed (e.g. a possible fast-track scheme for graduates in Welsh public services). Others again exist in the NGO sector (e.g. World Bank, United Nations). A different type of fast-track programme is the formal training which aims to create a springboard into leadership for previously disadvantaged groups (e.g. women, see Carter, 2002) or black and minority ethnic managers.

Fast-track programmes are sometimes established with the express purpose of creating the leaders of tomorrow. For example, the NGDP in local government is designed to engender the chief executives for a decade hence.

Our literature review did not reveal any systematic analysis of fast track programmes as an element of leadership development, or any evaluation of their role in leadership development. This is clearly an area where further evaluation would be most helpful.

Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) note the significance of developing "critical mass" in leadership development. From the earlier sections of this report, we might suggest that critical mass is important both for individual development in terms of supporting behaviour and attitude change, and providing exposure to different perspectives, through both formal and informal training (including stretching job assignments).   From a social

capital point of view, fast-track programmes might be viewed as providing leadership development through networking, with the possible benefits to the individual and the organization. From a systems point of view, anecdotal evidence suggests that fast-track programmes can highlight deficiencies in organizational strategy, and human resources strategies (e.g. development opportunities, career planning) which can be amended as the fast track cohort provides feedback. However, the need for clarity about how fast-track programmes may "work" (for the individuals and for the organization), along with systematic evaluation is a priority, and those organizations which run fast-track programmes have the opportunity to undertake essential evaluation.

Organization development

The increasing recognition of the importance of distributed leadership (e.g. Bennis, 1999; Gronn, 2000; Hartley and Allison, 2000; Harris, 2003; Bennis, Spreitzer and Cummings, 2001) suggests that leadership development may be in part most appropriately effected through organization-wide initiatives, not just programmes for individuals. In addition, the work of Heifetz (1996) and his team (e.g. Heifetz and Linksky, 2002) makes a distinction between technical and adaptive leadership, where the latter is helping groups to identify and work with difficult issues ("giving the work back"). This more facilitative role of leadership, along with the interest in transformational leadership, suggests that if leadership is partly about organizational change, then situations of organizational change and development may help to foster leadership skills and the social capital of leadership.

This has been borne out in practice in some situations, where case study evidence shows that organization development can contribute to leadership development. *"Hartley and Allison (2002) conducted case study research in four local authorities chosen as ones innovating in ways of leading their communities. Key findings included a leadership role for particular individuals in shaping visions of the future, but also frequently the empowerment of others to foster and promote change in the organization. The study concluded that innovation is nurtured rather than mandated."*

(quoted in Rogers et al, 2003). In addition a study of a local authority which had gained a national reputation for its innovation in regard to community leadership saw organization development rather than management development as the key to fostering community leadership (Hartley, 2002). Developing leadership capacity through organizational change and improvement has been found in other studies too (e.g. Harris, 2003; King, 2002; Lambert, 2002).

Borrins (2002) argues that innovation can occur in a number of ways in public services. From a quantitative analysis of innovation awards shows that 51% of innovations come from either middle managers or front-line staff (43% from middle managers alone) in the USA. The figures are higher for developed Commonwealth countries (i.e. UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Singapore) – 82% of which 75% from middle managers. Borins notes:

"The quantitative evidence shows that bottom-up innovations occur more frequently in the public sector than received wisdom would have us believe. The individuals who initiate and drive these innovations are acting as informal leaders. The visibility these individuals gain and the results they achieve lead them to be promoted rapidly to positions of formal leadership. Politicians and senior public servants create organizational climates that will either support or stifle innovations from below" (p. 475).

This is similar to the "middle-top-down" approach to innovation characterised by Japanese manufacturing innovation (e.g. Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995).

These examples suggest that leadership development may occur through organizational development and organizational change as well as through other informal means of developing individuals and groups.

The step beyond this is to consider leadership development in the light of the emerging understanding of the factors which promote and sustain learning in organizations (e.g. Easterby-Smith, Burgoyne and Araujo, 1999;

Easterby-Smith, 1997; Huber, 1991; Fiol and Lyles, 1985; Finger and Burgin, 1999; Rashman and Hartley, 2002). Certainly, in the Beacon Council Scheme, leadership development was reported to be informally occurring among those who had to host Beacon dissemination events, and among the more strategic participants who visited Beacon Councils (Rashman and Hartley, 2002). However, a consideration of organizational learning might necessitate a review in its own right, so here we note the potential linkage but do not analyse it further.

Partnership working

Logically, in examining leadership development in the public sector, we need to pay attention to the leadership development which can potentially occur through partnership working, because of the increased pressures and priorities of "joined up government" and the delivery of services which are seamless from the user point of view.

There is some limited evidence that partnership working is contributing to leadership development (e.g. Geddes and Benington, 2001; Hartley and Allison, 2002; Huxham and Vangen, 2000; Vangen and Huxham, in press) but our review did not reveal substantial evidence, though we suspect this is more to do with the lack of evaluation of partnership working from a leadership development perspective than other factors.

EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Models of leadership and leadership development

This section examines some broad and overarching issues of the evaluation of leadership development. It does not evaluate specific approaches to leadership development, or their strengths and weaknesses, because we have undertaken this in the earlier sections on identifying leadership potential and methods of leadership development.

Evaluation is still quite rudimentary for a number of leadership development approaches, and this is reflected in the review, where we rejected a large number of papers for not having any information about systematic (quantitative or qualitative) evaluation. Leadership and leadership development is still a field of enquiry high on exhortation and low on evaluation. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) found that more than half of their companies (60%) undertook no evaluation of their leadership development initiatives at all. It is also common to read papers which explain process in some detail, but which do not either conceptualise or measure outputs or outcomes. The opportunities to undertake systematic evaluation are therefore considerable, especially in conditions where substantial numbers of staff are undertaking leadership development.

A number of writers have emphasised how evaluation will be affected by the model of leadership which is being used in an organization. For example, Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) show that an uncomfortably large number of organizations are relying on a "great man" implicit theory of leadership and are engaging in leadership development with a set of assumptions consistent with this.

Day (2001) has divided leadership development into two broad categories of human capital and social capital development and shows how these are underpinned by different assumptions about leadership.

Rogers et al (2003) use a quadrant model to show different approaches to leadership development and they argue that this leads to different approaches to evaluation (see earlier section and Figure 1). They argue that these two dimensions mean that a single approach to evaluation is not possible. Where the focus in leadership development is on prescription, then evaluation is able to use a scientific approach, with the clear specification of goals, performance standards, competencies etc. Where the focus is on emergent properties, then evaluation will need to take a more qualitative and more formative approach, as the outcomes cannot be pre-specified. Turning to their second dimension, then whether the focus is on the individual or the social group (team, organizational service unit, whole organization, critical mass of professionals) will affect the research design for evaluation.

A more fine-grained evaluation analysis would examine the actual model of leadership which underpins leadership development. For example, how far is the model being used based on for example, transformational or transactional leadership (e.g. Avolio and Basso, 1999, adaptive leadership (e.g. Heifetz, 1996); or charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). This will have an impact on the features which will need to be examined in the evaluation design and criteria. This is not to suggest that any leadership model is coherently practised by all organization members. The difference between espoused theory and theory-in-use (Argyris and Schon, 1978) alerts us to the inconsistencies between theory and practice in all organizations. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) have warned of the difficulties of relabelling management development as leadership development to fit the fashion of the day. However, clarification of the dominant model will both help to ensure that leadership development approaches are consistent (c.f. Day, 2001) and also that the evaluation approach is focused on appropriate issues, measures and time-scales.

Levels and outcomes of leadership development

There are a number of evaluation models, drawn from management development, which might be implemented (Easterby-Smith, 1994). Our literature review did not reveal new approaches, but rather an acceptance that such broad models can still be helpful in the field of leadership development.

The Kirkpatrick (1960) model is based on four levels of evaluation:

1. Participants' reaction and planned action in relation to a specific development experience

2. Skills learned from training but cannot explicitly evaluate use of development material in action

3. Frequency of application of skills learned as a result of training but doesn't guarantee positive correlation with organizational outcomes

4. Business results achieved by participants (may include output, costs, quality and consumer satisfaction)

Another approach to examining outcomes is to take the following units of analysis.

- Satisfaction and self-rated performance
- Performance as rated by colleagues and subordinates
- Work performance (including rating by superiors)
- Organizational performance (performance measures and indicators)
- Patient outcomes

Many programmes are able to take measures of satisfaction with the programme or experience, and even self-rated performance. However, it is rarer to get to even the second unit of analysis (e.g. Kelloway and Barling, 2000) though 360 feedback is increasing this degree of evaluation (though it can be unreliable – see Fletcher, 1997). A number of commentators note that the longer the presumed causal chain between leadership development experience and outcomes, the harder it is to attribute outcomes to the

development experience.   This means that evaluating organizational outcomes and patient outcomes can be difficult to achieve robustly.

Measurement issues

Evaluation of leadership development has both subjective and an objective elements.   The objective elements may come from organizational performance measures (though these are themselves influenced by human factors such as performance pressure and expectations).   The subjective elements come from the perceptions and mental models which individuals and groups hold about leadership and leadership development.   Alpha, gamma and beta changes show some challenges in the evaluation of change through leadership development.

Alpha, beta and gamma changes reflect the fact that the "application of pre- and post-change measures might seem a valuable approach to evaluation, [but] this is complicated by the fact that the change process itself may cause alterations to fundamental perceptions such that conventional scale measures are not easily applicable" (Hartley, 1996).   Therefore there is a need to think about three types of change:

- Alpha change: change in the measured domain which stays constant in its scale (e.g. "as a leader I now have more interpersonal skills than I had previously")
- Beta change: change in the domain, based on the scale being recalibrated by the respondent (e.g. "I thought I had good interpersonal skills but as a result of the training programme I have been on, I now realise I am not as good as I thought I was")
- Gamma change: change in the way the respondent views the construct underlying the measure (e.g. "I used to think that interpersonal skills were about being nice to my subordinates but I now see that challenge and support are fundamental to interpersonal skills")

Recognising the role of alpha, beta and gamma change argues for the inclusion of both subjective assessment of leadership development (self-

rating, rating by subordinates or others) and also objective assessment through performance indicators and organizational outcomes. Either may be limited on their own.

Tourish and Pinnington (2002) refer to the illusions in leadership which can make evaluation a challenge. They note that there is substantial research evidence which suggests that people have a tendency to exaggerate the contribution that designated leaders make to organizational success (e.g. Meindl, 1995; Pfeffer and Cialdini, 1998). Gemill and Oakley (1992) have noted that *"as despair and helplessness deepen, the search and wish for a Messiah (leader) or magical rescue (leadership) also begin to accelerate." p.115.* This is also reinforced from the work of Bion and colleagues at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations (e.g. Bion, 1961). De Vries , Roe R, and Thaillieu(1999) surveyed 958 employees and found that subordinates with charismatic leaders had a higher need for leadership than those with non-charismatic leaders, suggesting that a dependency relationship was building. Heifetz (1996) notes that a characteristic of good leadership is that the leader will always at some point fail the expectations of followers (thereby discouraging dependency patterns). This also has implications for evaluation.

The illusion of leadership is not an argument for avoiding evaluation, but again, this suggests the need for qualitative measures of leadership as well as quantitative measures.

Finally, a number of writers emphasise that leadership development is not a single activity, but a set of activities, often taking place over many years. Each leadership development activity may contribute to leadership capacity, either of the individual, the group or the leadership capability of the organization (i.e. distributed leadership). This adds to the complexity of evaluation, as each element (e.g. a single programme) may make only a partial contribution to leadership development and leadership effectiveness.

CONTEXTUAL INFLUENCES ON LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

There is an increasing interest in the role of context in shaping leadership action and therefore that leadership development needs to be able to reflect context (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001; Benington and Hartley, 2003; Daft, 2002). We examine this in relation to a number of dimensions.

Private and public sector differences

In reviewing the literature on leadership development, we have surveyed materials from a range of sources, including public, private and voluntary sectors. While no individual paper we reviewed has focused specifically on the differences between sectors, it is worth bearing in mind some elements of leadership and leadership development which may have an impact on the public sector approach to leadership development:

- The public sector includes the contribution of political leadership to organizational and user outcomes. Political leadership may take a different approach from managers to innovation (Borins, 2002); uncertainty (Hartley, 2000); decision-making (Brunsson, 1985) and knowledge creation and use (Benington and Hartley, 2003). In general, too little account is taken of the political context of leadership and leadership development, though some attempts are now being made to ensure leadership development occurs across political and managerial leaderships.

- This also means that managerial leaders require some policy analysis, political analysis and political leadership skills. This tends to be under-emphasised in the private sector literature, where until recently politics was equated with politicking (e.g. Mintzberg, 1987)

- The public sector may have multiple, ambiguous and contested goals for a number of services, and this makes performance measurement and management inherently difficult (e.g. Lewis and Hartley, 2001). It means that leadership development and its evaluation must take account of

multiple stakeholder perspectives and that tracing a causal path from leadership action to user (e.g. patient) outcomes can be challenging.

- Leadership may be required across organizational boundaries not just inside them. While this may also be true of parts of the private sector, this element of the public sector has become prominent in recent years. We have been unable to find much literature on leadership development across organizational boundaries and in partnership working.

- Worrall and Cooper (1998) have shown that the rate of change in organizations public sector has often generated disproportionate impacts on the public sector, with a far higher collapse of morale, motivation, job security and loyalty. The challenges for public sector leadership are therefore substantial.

- Public sector leadership must work in conditions of high transparency and accountability.

US and UK differences

Some writers have pointed to the differences between leadership models derived from the US context and those developed in the UK. Rodgers et al (2003) note that leadership tends to be a more collective and collaborative venture in Europe than is evidenced in the USA. Gaughan (2001) has found that the individualised consideration element of transformational leadership is less prominent in the UK than in the USA, and that transformational leadership is culturally different in the UK.

If leadership development which is compatible with the organization's culture is deemed to be an important element of success, then it is important that the UK develops its own models and does not simply import US models.

Organizational strategy and HRM strategy

A number of writers on leadership development have emphasised the importance of the leadership development approach matching or at least being consistent with the business strategy/organizational strategy as well

as with the human resource management strategy (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001; Daft, 2002; Rodgers et al, 2003; Grint, no date). It is all too easy (and too frequently found, according to a number of writers) to have a clear and even sophisticated leadership development approach, but which is not based on clear linkages with the organizational strategy, leading to restrictions on access to leadership development opportunities, and the inability to put into practice lessons derived from courses or particular job experiences, and the intrusion of inappropriate power and politics. Some writers note that leadership development is related to the robustness of HRM function (including appraisal, development reviews, and succession planning, all of which can be used to stimulate development activities (e.g. Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler, 2001).

Day (2001) argues that his characterisation of human capital and social capital approaches to leadership development is conceptually necessary but that in practice organizations require both types of leadership development, linked to context and to organizational strategy.

CONCLUSIONS

Implications for NHS and for NHSLC

The reader of this review may have drawn a number of implications from this report, but a number of issues are highlighted below. These are not exhaustive.

- Ensure have the organization has a clear and explicit approach to leadership and leadership development.

- Ensure leadership development is consistent with the model of leadership as far as possible.

- Ensure that evaluation reflects the models of leadership and leadership development being used.

- Be aware that some leadership development is emergent not prescribed, and therefore there needs to be scope for adapting leadership development and its evaluation.

- Ensure trainers not clinging to outmoded views of leadership (repackaging management development as leadership development).

- Reflect on whether leadership development practice is consistent with the organization's culture, with its strategy and with its HRM.

- See leadership development as a set of activities not a single activity, and plan accordingly.

- Leadership development is related to the robustness of HRM function.

- Political leadership and political skills are significant for the public sector.

- Leadership development may occur through the human capital and the social capital routes. Both are important for effective leadership development.

- Organization development and partnership working can be significant means of enhancing leadership development and leadership capacity.

- Critical mass approaches e.g. fast track programmes have been under-researched.

The future of leadership development

We complete this report by noting some issues which are being raised about future leadership challenges, and which therefore represent challenges for leadership development and for its evaluation. We list these rather than discuss them, though the interested reader may wish to return to the original sources.

Grint (no date) in a literature review for the Cabinet Office on public sector leadership notes the following "contemporary challenges"

- From individual leaders to leadership teams
- From individual leaders to leadership institutions
- From cult control to cultural coherence
- From rules to principles
- From naivety to complexity (including using insights from chaos and complexity theories)
- From similarity to diversity
- From private interest to public service
- From inherited trait to deployed will
- From win/lose arguments to win/win negotiations

Also taking a look at the future, Spreitzer and Cummings (2001) start by examining changes in the leadership context (including globalisation, demographic diversity, the information super-highway, the new employment relationship, continuing business consolidation including mergers and acquistions). They then look at "who is the leader of the future" and suggest that we will see more distributed leadership; leaders who act and live with uncertainty rather than plan and control; leaders who fail but learn from their mistakes, leaders who are agile, adapting visions and plans to reflect emerging realities, leaders working in partnership and across boundaries, and building relationships based on trust (as organizations become less hierarchical).

Appendix 1

Data extraction sheets

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET	
DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Author	Alimo-Metcalfe, B
Title	360 degree feedback and leadership development
Source (journal/conference)	Peer reviewed journal
Year/volume/pages	International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 1998, v. 6, pp. 35-44
Institutional affiliation	Nuffield Institute for Health, University of Leeds
RESEARCH QUESTION	
Aim	Not research, but introduction to 360º feedback in context of transformational leadership development.
DESIGN	
Organizational context	Organizations open to leadership development programmes.
Country of study	UK
Study design	Narrative account of work in "past few years" up to 1998.
Participants and sample	N/A
Leadership development approaches	Transformational leadership with focus on organisational understanding of leadership.
THEORY	Brief account given of transformational leadership with focus on public sector and examples from civil and military organizations.
RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative results	360º feedback is an instrument that can be used to transform organizations and empower staff. Used inappropriately it can be intrusive and threatening.
Quantitative results	Over 1000 managers and professionals in NHS and local government now use the instrument developed by the author and her colleagues.
Contested areas	There is more work to be done on the research base, including analyses of data from the Nuffield Institute's own workshops.
THEMES	Transformational leadership. Empowerment. 360 degree feedback and how to do it. Organizational transformation.
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	
Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Alimo-Metcalfe, B and Lawler, J
Title	Leadership development in UK companies at the beginning of the twenty-first century: Lessons for the NHS?
Source (journal/conference)	Journal of Management in Medicine.
Year/volume/pages	2001, v.15, pp387-404
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	To explore how organizations are developing their in-house leadership skills, and assess implications for the NHS. Includes examples of good practice.

DESIGN

Organizational context	Private & public sector organisations (none in NHS)
Country of study	UK
Study design	Postal survey of organizations. N=30. Plus interviews with representatives of 6 of them.
Participants and sample	
Leadership development approaches	Information on identifying leadership potential; competencies; 360 feedback; leadership courses; evaluation of leadership development.

THEORY	Transformational leadership and the importance of leadership consistent with context and strategy. Transformational leadership is seen as contextual, process and people oriented, empowering and, in these ways, goal-oriented.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Shortage of leadership skills; leadership ill-defined; development methods tend to be new and relatively untested; little evaluation. However, many organizations recognise leadership development is a high priority. Majority of organizations focus leadership development at levels below those of chief executives, suggesting willingness to cascade skills through the organization. Importance of linking leadership development with human resource management practices (e.g. appraisal, development reviews, succession planning) Useful list of references.
Quantitative results	21% of organizations say leadership development has top priority. 82% have a leadership development initiative, of which 60% started in last 2 years. 92% include leadership in appraisal scheme. 60% say competencies form major part of design 58% of competencies developed in house and 43%

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	mixture of competency framework and in-house. Only 20% send staff on courses of more than 2 weeks. 60% no formal evaluation of leadership development initiatives
Contested areas	Survey shows that much of organizational practice does not meet best practice in leadership development, though many interesting new practices emerging.
THEMES	Identification of leadership potential. Methods of leadership development. Evaluation.
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Avolio, B J; Bass, B M; Jung, D I
Title	Re-examining the components for transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership questionnaire.
Source (journal/ conference)	Peer reviewed journal Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology,
Year/ volume/ pages	1999, v. 72, 4: pp 441-462
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	To examine the factor structure in a much-used survey tool, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Form 5X) to find one / some that offered the best fit for current uses in leadership literature, and to produce a stable and replicable factor structure.

DESIGN

Organizational context	US & other firms and agencies
Country of study	USA
Study design	Testing of alternative conceptual models (within MLQ framework).
Participants and sample	14 studies involving 3786 respondents and replication study with 1706 cases.
Leadership development approaches	Study explores transformational and transactional types of leadership. Authors critique the factoral structures of both types.

THEORY | Transformational leadership using the MLQ.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Quantitative results	The differences referred to above due to unsatisfactory categorisation or factoral structure. After testing a range of alternatives, it was found that the best fit was likely to come from 6 lower-order factors and 3 correlated higher-order factors.
Contested areas	The MLQ is a developing instrument and its factoral structure is being tested.

THEMES	Transformational leadership

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	
Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Author	Brown, L M
Title	Leading leadership development in universities: a personal story
Source (journal/conference)	PR journal Journal of Management Inquiry
Year/volume/pages	2001, v.10, 4:pp312-323
Institutional affiliation	
RESEARCH QUESTION	
Aim	Describes a leadership development programme in higher education.
DESIGN	
Organizational context	Higher education (public)
Country of study	Canada
Study design	Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1997) including 360° feedback; instruments were refined by trainers and approaches developed from initial stance.
Participants and sample	Initial participant group senior staff (N=85); annual groups thereafter + other groups within university.
Leadership development approaches	In the professional development arm of the programme, most work is done in a 4 day "retreat". It involves "deep listening" as well as truthful speaking supporting collaborative leadership & values. Implicit values of dialogical methods and balanced feedback; engagement of stakeholders; leadership is of the heart not just the head.
THEORY	
	Process-driven model of individual and organisational development.
RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative results	Method successfully developed for leadership development in-house. Personal reflections of author on her work on how perceptions of leadership changed. Emphasises importance of integrating "external" task and "internal" PD.
Quantitative results	N/A
Contested areas	Some work dismissed by clients as either too business influenced or too "fluffy".
THEMES	Participant feedback as basis of evaluation
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	
Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Carter, T J
Title	The importance of talk to midcareer women's development: a collaborative inquiry
Source (journal/conference)	PR journal The Journal of Business Communication
Year/volume/pages	2002, v.39, 1: pp55-91
Institutional affiliation	George Washington University and Virginia Commonwealth University

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Developmental role of communication for professional women in mid-career.

DESIGN

Organizational context	N/A
Country of study	USA
Study design	Broad range of data gathered. Interviews were transcribed before analysis alongside written material (e.g. personal journals, emails).
Participants and sample	All subjects participated at key stages in the analysis of data. Anonymous reviewers.
Leadership development approaches	Importance of "developmental" relationships with focus on transformative learning (Mezirow, 1991).

THEORY

	Hypothesis regarding importance of communication among women as means of development, including leadership development: permeability of personal/professional boundaries.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Hypothesis regarding importance of "developmental" relationships confirmed.
Quantitative results	N/A
Contested areas	

THEMES

	Developmental relationships. Importance of communication in leadership development. Differential importance for women's career development.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA
Is the paper to be included?   Yes

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DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Day, D D
Title	Leadership development: a review in context
Source (journal/conference)	Peer reviewed journal
Year/volume/pages	Leadership Quarterly, 2001, v.11.4, pp. 581-613
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	How to distinguish leader development (human capital) from leadership development (social capital) and how to bridge the gap between the two.

DESIGN

Organizational context	All types of organizations
Country of study	USA
Study design	Qualitative review of literature with critical evaluation
Participants and sample	N/A
Leadership development approaches	Variety of formal and informal methods explored.
THEORY	Human and social capital.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Author arrives at useful definitions of leadership development as well as assessing its practice and its research base.
Quantitative results	N/A
Contested areas	The paper highlights lack of solid evidence base in some areas including that of 360º feedback.
THEMES	Leader development. Leadership development. Human capital. Social capital. Links between leader and leadership thinking and practice.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA

Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Fletcher, C
Title	Performance appraisal and management: the developing research agenda
Source (journal/conference)	Peer reviewed journal article Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology
Year/volume/pages	2001, v.74, 4: pp473-487
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Research into appraisal as tool for performance management.

DESIGN

Organizational context	Public
Country of study	UK
Study design	Literature review
Participants and sample	n/a
Leadership development approaches	

THEORY

	Models of appraisal are examined.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Current practices are examined and their strengths and weaknesses assessed.
Quantitative results	N/A
Contested areas	Experience of appraisals is modified by circumstances, personalities, mood and professional relationships.

THEMES

	Paper analyses current practices in the field.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA
Is the paper to be included? | Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Authors	Kelloway E K, and Barling J.
Title	What have we learned about developing transformational leaders.
Source (journal/conference)	Leadership and Organization Development Journal
Year/volume/pages	2000, v. 21, pp355-362
Institutional affiliation	
RESEARCH QUESTION	How can training and development of transformational leaders be undertaken and does it make a difference to organizational outcomes?
Aim	Assess processes of and explanations of training and development undertaken by authors in a number of organizations over previous five years.
DESIGN	
Organizational context	Range of organizations, including a major financial institution.
Country of study	Canada
Study design	Review of author's published studies, often based on experimental design (e.g. treatment 1 workshop, treatment 2 feedback/counselling, treatment 3 both, and control).
Participants and sample	Bank managers, "leader" (not specified) 112 adolescents in one study of transformational styles .
Leadership development approaches	Training intervention. Four 30 minute feedback sessions from subordinates / counselling sessions.
THEORY	Problem with much leadership development is that it proposes large-scale, unsustainable change. Authors argue for advising trainees to invest only in those changes which can be worked into their daily routine. Making small changes and maintaining those changes over time will have a large effect on subordinates. Draws on the 4 elements of transformational leadership to identify small changes. Argues that this is effective through a) improvement in leader's self-efficacy, and b) impact on subordinates' commitment and motivation. Also explores family origins of transformational leadership.
RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative and quantitative results	Training and feedback both enhance transformational leadership. This is shown in subordinates ratings and in financial performance (bank branches) i.e. not just self-report data. Attitudes of subordinates changes in response to

	leaders' enhanced transformational skills. Highly efficacious leaders report that they learned their skills within the family not from training. Suggests need to think about transformational leadership outside the organization (teachers, sports coaches etc).
Contested areas	Even small changes such as those proposed require supportive environment, e.g. senior management.
THEMES	Development through training programmes. Development through feedback. Development through socialisation experiences. Evaluation of leadership development.
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Kim, S
Title	Participative management and job satisfaction: lessons for management
Source	PR journal
(journal/volume/pages)	Public Administration Review
Year/volume/pages	2002, v.62, 2: pp231-241
Institutional affiliation	Cannon Center for Survey Research

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Study of job satisfaction in context of participatory strategic planning.

DESIGN

Organizational context	Public
Country of study	USA
Study design	Survey. Descriptive statistics, correlation coefficients, multiple regression analysis. External review.
Participants and sample	1576 (38.5% of those contacted)
Leadership development approaches	Participative
	Emphasis on participation and empowerment rather than hierarchical structures in public sector organisations.

THEORY

	A number of hypotheses regarding. participative management and job satisfaction were tested.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Empirical support for importance to leaders of participative management: it should be included in leadership development programmes.
Quantitative results	Support for link between participative management and job satisfaction.
Contested areas	Correlation of above is argued negatively, in that lack of participation tends to absenteeism, high turnover & stress. No demographic information sought, though this is know to be significant in job satisfaction; limited definition of terms used, so data are "observational" rather than "objective".

THEMES

	Participative management. Attitudes of participating workers. Job satisfaction.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA

Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Newman, H L; Fitzgerald, S P
Title	Appreciative inquiry with an executive team: moving along the action research
Source	PR journal paper
(journal/conference)	Organization Development Journal
Year/volume/pages	2001, v.19, 3, pp37-44
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

To examine a novel approach to action research.

DESIGN

Organizational context	Public
Country of study	USA
Study design	Action research. Robust feedback by participants to consultants running the process; reflection by consultant on process.
Participants and sample	Executives of 120 person healthcare organisation.
Leadership development approaches	Leadership as a function of the organisation and thus shared.

THEORY

Action research.
Appreciative Inquiry (AI) is a discrete process building in action research.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Narrative of paper illustrates outcomes in one case; abbreviated use of appreciate inquiry justified.
Quantitative results	N/a
Contested areas	Application of appreciate inquiry was curtailed for local reasons; its introduction in an executive retreat not fully negotiated.

THEMES

Action research.
Shared leadership.
Appreciative Enquiry.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	Yes
Is the paper to be included?	

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Parry, K W; Proctor-Thomson, S B
Title	Perceived integrity of transformational leaders in organisational settings
Source (journal/conference)	Peer reviewed journal Journal of Business Ethics
Year/volume/pages	2002, v.35, 2, pt.2: pp75-96
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Empirical study interrogating moral status of transformational leadership as distinct from Transforming Leadership.

DESIGN

Organizational context	Private
Country of study	
Study design	Questionnaire study leading to broad range of statistical analyses.
Participants and sample	1354 (22% response rate)
Leadership development approaches	Transforming and Transformational Leadership considered alongside empirical data on perceived integrity: other leadership behaviours also considered, e.g. corrective-avoidant, laissez-faire, charismatic. morally appropriate behaviour, both avoiding doing wrong and also doing right: the focus is on how the leader is perceived in these matters.

THEORY

	Discussion of Burns' (1978) Transforming Leadership contrasted with Bass' (1985) Transformational Leadership and their effects on organisational performance

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	The study seeks to demonstrate that perceived integrity of leadership correlates positively with leader and organisational effectiveness
Quantitative results	Statistical analysis of questionnaires
Contested areas	Low correlation of perceived integrity and transformational leadership may be due to a number of other (leadership style) factors that require further study.

THEMES

	No, though respondent feedback was utilised

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA Is the paper to be included? — Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Rodgers H, GoldJ, Frearson M and Holden R
Title	The rush to leadership: Explaining leadership development in the public sector
Source (journal/conference)	Working paper, submitted for publication
Year/volume/pages	
Institutional affiliation	Leeds Business School and Learning and Skills Research Centre

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Does leadership development affect overall performance of an organization and add value?

DESIGN

Organizational context	Public sectors of education, health, local government and public administration
Country of study	UK (and parallels in N. America, Europe, Japan & Australasia)
Study design	Review of academic & professional literature, internet sites and "other media"
Participants and sample	N\a
Leadership development approaches	Review of different models and critical study of current ideas, exposing a lack of consensus among proponents of leadership development

THEORY	The authors develop a four quadrant model of leadership distributed around two intersecting dimensions - an individual / collective dimension and prescribed / emergent leadership behaviours. These quadrants define perspectives on leadership development: prescribed and individual; prescribed and collective; emergent and collective; and emergent and individual. Each extends possibilities for evaluation that should precede programme generation in the field of leadership.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	The elaboration of this theoretical construct provides a framework within which to understand how and why "leadership development" cannot be a unitary undertaking.
Quantitative results	N\a
Contested areas	

THEMES	Individual leadership Corporate and distributed leadership Transforming organizations History of thinking about leadership Public sector governance Prescriptive and emergent leadership development.

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA

Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Authors	Sivasubranamiam, N, Murry, W D, Avolio, B J, Jung, D I
Title	A longditudinal model of the effects of team leadership and group potency on group performance
Source (journal/conference) Year/volume/pages Institutional affiliation	Peer reviewed journal Group & Organization Management, 2002, v.27, 1: pp66-69
RESEARCH QUESTION	
Aim	To examine role of leadership in team-based organisations
DESIGN	
Organizational context	Private
Country of study	USA
Study design	Assignments and surveys. Assignments were marked (though students were not given feedback until after the study).
Participants and sample	154
Leadership development approaches	Various models of group leadership Leadership was studied in relation to group task effectiveness and performance
THEORY	Theories of team leadership in literature review. Study applies existing research on transformational leadership to the group / team rather than the individual; it utilises a number of models, most notably one of team effectiveness offered by Klimoski and Mohammed (1994)
RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative results	Theory of group potency (GP) is modified by study of TL style over time. TL can occur in groups and influences GP beliefs over time; GP affects group performance; group leadership and performance is mediated by potency beliefs ("can do" atttitude). However, GP beliefs do not have a positive impact on TL over time (the "let-down" effect). Some groups begin with TL and continue, whereas others are more transactional and become more so.
Quantitative results	N/A
Contested areas	Sample is made up of undergraduates. Further study would require more balanced and larger samples.
THEMES	Team leadership. Team effectiveness and group potency. Transformational and transactional leadership styles.
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA Paper included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Author	Smith, P A C
Title	Action learning and reflective practice in project environments that are related to leadership development
Source (journal/conference)	PR journal
Year/volume/pages	Management Learning, 2001, v.32 (1), pp. 31-48
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION	Is there a place in tough "bottom-line" contexts for reflective practice?

DESIGN	
Organizational context	Goal-oriented, high-achieving managers in private sector industry and commerce
Country of study	USA
Study design	Account of 15 years' consulting experience using action learning methods and inculcating reflective practice and set (team) working. General accounts offset by a brief case study.
Participants and sample	Not given.
Leadership development approaches	Author accepts that all types of leaders are found in his work. Some participants employ traditional and unreflective approaches to leadership.

THEORY	Reflective practice can be taught and learned and can impact strikingly in areas where such approaches are greeted sceptically. Author relies of work of Vygotsky and Reg Revans.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative results	Author's expectation that many leaders use unexamined techniques and unaware assumptions with varying degrees of success. Learning collaborative and reflective methods can increase performance and humanize the work environment.
Quantitative results	N/a
Contested areas	This account covers 15 years during which organizations have become more complex. Action learning arose in simpler situations. The author's model should be evaluated in an action learning research context.
THEMES	Action learning Competition and collaboration Team / set working Goal oriented achievement Reflective practice

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	
Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Authors	Smither, J W; London, M; Flautt, R; Vargas, Y
Title	Can working with an executive coach improve multisource feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental field study
Source (journal/conference)	PR journal Personnel Psychology
Year/volume/pages	2003, v.56,1: 23
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

	What can be deduced about this recent methodology in current use

DESIGN

Organizational context	Private
Country of study	
Study design	Psychological experiment with one key dependent variable: survey tools & multisource feedback
Participants and sample	1361
Leadership development approaches	n/a

THEORY

	No theory, but falsifiable hypotheses regarding usefulness of coaching

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Managers who work with an executive coach have better ratings in feedback. Some key management qualities are stronger in such instances.
Quantitative results	High %s of participants wanted to work with a coach / the same coach again
Contested areas	Cost / effect ratio requires further study; low volume of research in this area; imprecision of processes such a coaching present inherent and practical problems of measurement

THEMES

	Effects of coaching Areas of imprecision in assessing coaching

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION	
Author	Sosik, J J
Title	Self-other agreement on charismatic leadership: relationships with work attitudes and managerial performance
Source	Peer reviewed j journal
(journal/conference)	Group & Organization Management,
Year/volume/pages	2001, v.26, 4: pp484-511
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION	
	Examines two factors in leadership. One is to test if self-awareness of managers influences their work attitudes and their subordinates; the other tests relationship of charismatic leadership and management performance
DESIGN	
	Data from managers in study, plus data from their subordinates (rating their work attitudes and their charismatic leadership) and their superiors (rating their charisma and their performance)
Organizational context	Private (IT consulting company)
Country of study	USA
Study design	Survey testing existing theoretical model (focusing on importance of self-awareness and self-other rating agreement). Statistical analysis of surveys with focus on analysis of covariance.
Participants and sample	Importance of work attitudes - trust and organisational commitment; feelings towards superiors and subordinates central to leadership
Leadership development approaches	This study examines aspects of charismatic leadership.
THEORY	
	Atwater & Yammarino (1997) self-other rating agreement formed basis of study and its hypotheses
	It is claimed that Atwater & Yammarino's theory (about the importance of self-other rating agreement as opposed to underestimating or overestimating one's self relative to others' estimates) was supported and extended by its examination of relationships between work attitudes, performance and socially desirable responding in the work context.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS	
Qualitative results	See above
Quantitative results	N/a
Contested areas	

THEMES	Self-awareness in managers
	Views of subordinates of their managers
	Links between charismatic leadership and performance as a manager / leader
REVIEWERS' CRITERIA	Yes
Is the paper to be included?	

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Turner N, Barling J, Epitropaki O, Butcher V and Milner C
Title	Transformational leadership and moral reasoning
Source (journal/conference)	Peer reviewed journal
Year/volume/pages	Journal of Applied Psychology, 2002, v.87 (2), pp. 304-311
Institutional affiliation	

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	Is moral and ethical leadership exhibited in transformational and transactional leadership approaches?

DESIGN

Organizational context	University administration, telecommunications technical support and hospital wards
Country of study	UK and Canada
Study design	Multi-rater questionnaire-based study. Testing of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.
Participants and sample	407 raters, middle managers or equivalent
Leadership development approaches	Transformational leadership and moral / ethical leadership. They examined transformational and transactional leadership styles.

THEORY	Authors discuss cognitive moral development as proxy for moral and ethical leadership.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Study demonstrated some correlation between higher scoring moral reasoning and transformational leadership styles, but no such correlation for transactional leadership.
Quantitative results	Statistical analysis suggested only moderate correlations along the lines above.
Contested areas	Moral reasoning as proxy for moral development; the primacy of transformational behaviours compared with the primacy of morally motivated behaviours

THEMES	Moral / ethical behaviour in leadership Moral reasoning and moral behaviour in workplace Transformational and transactional leadership Subordinates' rating of leaders

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA

Is the paper to be included?	Yes

DATA EXTRACTION SHEET

DETAILS OF PUBLICATION

Author	Wright K, Rowitz L and Merkle A
Title	A conceptual model for leadership development
Source (journal/conference)	PR journal
Year/volume/pages	Journal of Public Health Management, 2001, v.7 (4), pp. 60-66
Institutional affiliation	Public Health Practice Office, USA

RESEARCH QUESTION

Aim	What does a meta-view of the (USA) public healthcare domain tells us about the requirements for a model of an all-level leadership development programme?

DESIGN

Organizational context	Public, healthcare
Country of study	USA
Study design	Review of the literature
Participants and sample	N\a
Leadership development approaches	The assumed model is frequently that of transformational leadership but the emergent model for Leadership Development Programmes is open to a range of possible models

THEORY	No single theory. The review is focused on what has been reported or demonstrated to work in context.

RESULTS / CONCLUSIONS

Qualitative results	Authors identify 7 key elements in their concept of a healthcare leadership development programme (LDP): capacity/competence needs; programme targets; the areas served by the LDP; the LDP content; the level of the training offered; the learning approach inherent in the LDP; the implementation methods.
Quantitative results	N\a
Contested areas	The need for a meta-model is balanced by its shortcomings, e.g. potential for local inflexibility; local differences in recruitment methods or takeup by senior executives.

THEMES	National viewpoint for leadership development Seven key elements in the conceptual model Leadership development as transformer of organizations

REVIEWERS' CRITERIA

Is the paper to be included?	Yes

References

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