



## 3 Best Relational Models and Training Method For Leadership Development

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## Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to outline the essential qualities and competencies to be effective leaders at the beginning of the twenty-first century and to develop an appropriate equipping model to facilitate their development and motivation to life-long learning. Every organization desires great leadership. Every leader desires to be effective because it is a desirable state and because it's essential to achieving organizational goals. Considerable energy and resources have been exhausted on training leaders with mixed results. The purpose of this paper was accomplished through research that revealed four leadership qualities and competencies to be studied and which were then taught to a group of leaders in a seminar format.

## Market Drivers

Executing on an organization's strategic plan is one of the many responsibilities confronting leaders. In the process of accomplishing the strategy, several drivers for leadership development become apparent. By identifying these drivers, organizational leadership can take intentional steps to prevent strategic failure. Common drivers exist that highlight the need to address the current leadership capacity.

To effectively fulfill the strategic plan, leadership should take the stance of life-long learning. This driver is essential for leaders to stay ahead of their competition while remaining fresh and current with information that doubles every two or three years (Tracy, 2012). As organizations target their share of the market, their competition sometimes targets them. To avert this threat the development of the organization's leadership capacity can maximize future potential while addressing present challenges. These organizations often strategically position themselves above their competition.

Another result of the leader's life-long learning stance is the advantage of shaping organizational culture. This result often increases staff morale, increasing performance motivated by a positive and rewarding culture. Leaders have the responsibility of shaping organizational culture which is directly proportional to organizational production, performance and profitability. The reduction of operational costs is a direct result of increased morale. As morale increases staff tend to exhibit a greater degree of ownership of their work, increasing their passion to perform. These increases tend to reduce staff related cost centres, such as absenteeism, lateness, work slowdown and production mistakes.

These drivers are not exhaustive but are common ones that motivate organizations to invest in their leadership team. Moving from the drivers of leadership development we now identify the central problem that can be resolved through this new approach to leadership development.




## Problem

Leadership has had the responsibility of forming and casting an inspirational vision that engages and motivates staff to accomplish exceptional results. Yet, there exists a gap between leaderships' ideals and the outcomes achieved by staff members.

Methods used to reduce this gap have focused upon models of leadership that have highlighted several inadequate elements of the leadership role. A new approach is needed to address these deficiencies and thus reduce the gap.

## Historical Approach to Leadership

To understand the development of leadership through history, one must appreciate the growth of leadership theories. There is more interest and study on the topic of leadership today than in any previous time in history (Northouse 2007, 349; Banks and Ledbetter 2004, 15-16). Over the past century eight leadership theories have emerged attempting to deal with the complexity of leadership (Northouse 2007, 15-19; Bank and Ledbetter 2004, 20-29). However, from the 1940's until 1975, three research schools have dominated the leadership research agenda: trait theories, behavioural theories, and situational or contingent theories. In more recent times, power and influence theories, group relations, and constructionists' theories have emerged as the dominant forces (Goethals, Sorenson & Burns 2004, 868). Early leadership theories focused on the qualities or traits that set leaders apart from followers. These theories proved to be valuable in that they allow us to identify leadership qualities and traits that assist individuals in the act of leading. However, the downfall of these theories arose in their understanding that leadership was based on innate traits that individuals were either born with or not. A second downfall of these theories was that researchers could not come to an agreement on which traits were essential (Stogdill 1974, 38; Bass 2008, 49-50; Northouse 2007, 23-26). Leadership theories of the 1950s and 60s focused on leadership activity, especially in the leader's behaviour and style. In shifting the research to the leader's behaviour and style, this approach expanded leadership studies to include the leader's actions towards others in different contexts (Northouse 2007, 69). The benefit of this research was to identify which leadership style was needed in a particular situation. However, the inadequacies of these theories were evidenced in the fact that leadership was more than simple behaviour. There was more going on behind the behaviour that needed to be uncovered. Researchers of the 1970s and 80s looked at other variables such as situational factors and skill level. Thus, researchers sought to determine which type of leadership style was most effective contingent upon the situation. Despite the broad use of situational leadership, the weaknesses of this style of leadership were extensive (Northouse 2007, 99-100). Without finding any adequate models for leadership studies, the last two decades have produced more complex theories regarding the operation and development of leadership (Bank and Ledbetter 2004, 52).



Further development in leadership theories seems to have moved into more relational approaches to understanding key components of the leadership role. As English explains that:

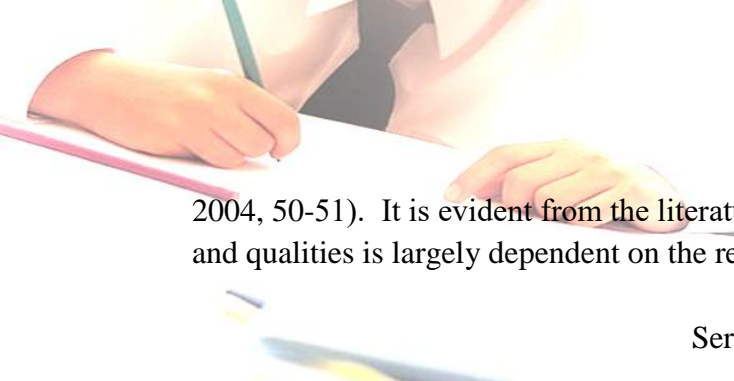
"More recent theories attempt to describe leadership effectiveness in terms of exchanges between leaders and followers. Researchers continue to offer models, approaches, and perspectives that build on previous studies and advocate for additional inquiry. Recent theories examine leadership and organizational change and the importance of vision shared by leaders and followers." (English, 2006, 586).

The relationship between leaders and their followers was the central issue in relational leadership theories (Avolio 1999, 2). As leaders and followers developed their relationships it was essential for leaders to sharpen their understanding of followers, respect them, and play to the values of the follower (Avolio 1999, 13-14; Bass and Bass 2008, 167-170). When the leader and follower related at this core level, a compact of understanding developed whereby the leader clearly defined expectations and agreed-on levels of performance. Within this transactional working relationship followers were more likely to achieve the target goals. These positive relationships accomplished follower satisfaction and increased performance (Avolio 1999, 13-14). The literature indicates that relational theories of leadership have more to offer than previous theories of leadership (Avolio 2007, 25-33; Goethal, Sorenson, Burns 2004, 828-832).

In consideration of the above mentioned findings, leadership needs to focus on the relational development between the leader and follower. To this end themes such as trust, vulnerability, truth, sacrifice and destiny play significant roles in the formation of the leader (Thrall, McNicol and McElrath 1999, 61-148). These themes can be emphasized by utilizing three models of leadership: servant, transformational and missional. These three models of leadership give a framework to enrich the relational element of the leader and follower. This can be accomplished as the leader focuses on the development of the follower in the process of striving towards mutual values of the highest quality (Greenleaf 1977, 13-14; Burns 1978, 19; Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 145-146).

#### Servant, Transformational and Missional Research

In the historical development of leadership theories in recent years there was a strong movement towards researching the leader-follower relationship. Stogdill saw the future direction of leadership research moving from the study of the leader's personality and behaviour, to the issues of change and power, eventually arriving at the relationship of the leader to his or her followers, particularly for group performance (Stogdill 1974, 421-428). Bass believed future leaders will focus on each individual follower rather than the group as a whole (Bass and Bass 2008, 197-198). Leadership has always been about people. The new findings were more about relationships than about the traits of the leader (Bass and Bass 2008, 60-61; Banks and Ledbetter



2004, 50-51). It is evident from the literature that the development of the leader's competencies and qualities is largely dependent on the relationship between the leader and his or her followers.

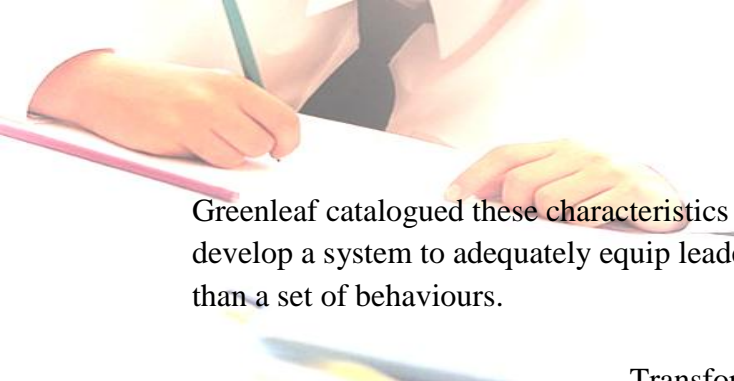
### Servant Leadership

Robert Greenleaf defined leadership as an individual's ability to serve (Greenleaf 1977, 13). He discovered that service was the key quality that elevated people to the position of leader. He also understood leadership not to be grasping for power; rather, it is the place where power is bestowed. This conferring was based upon an individual's servant nature or attitude. The responsibility of the servant leader was to assist the follower to strive for and reach his or her highest moral goal. He suggested new leaders should emerge from the role of followers who act as servants. This servant mentality was based on personal value systems, relevant to the group. It was thus discovered that the function of the leader was to assist followers in increasing their character and performance to meet their highest values, thereby facilitating an environment for followers to become leaders (Greenleaf 1977, 13-14; Avolio 1999, 4).

Greenleaf's measuring stick for servant leader success was a series of questions that he referred to as the "best test." Greenleaf acknowledges this "best test" was difficult to administer, but he also advocated its use for the development of the follower. The "best test" asked questions such as: Do those being served grow as persons? Do they, *while being served*, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived? This "best test" revealed Greenleaf's heart for the positive development of both individuals and society as a whole. It spoke to the moral and ethical value systems people possess, and focused upon improving the person and enabling him or her to reach their highest moral standard (Greenleaf 1977, 13-14; Burns 1979, 19).

Servant leadership is best described by a set of nine qualities that are marked as essential. They consist of the following list:

- Listening and Understanding
- Withdrawal – to find one's optimum wholeness and health
- Acceptance and Empathy
- Know the Unknowable – Beyond Conscious Rationality
- Foresight – the central ethic of leadership
- Awareness and Perception
- Persuasion
- One action at a time – the way some great things get done
- Conceptualizing – the prime leadership talent (Greenleaf 1977, 16-34)



Greenleaf catalogued these characteristics and provided a basis for collating research data to develop a system to adequately equip leaders with tools established in general categories rather than a set of behaviours.


### Transformational Leadership

Further leadership development relevant to current leadership is the area of transformational leadership. It is through transformational leadership that people are changed and transformed. (Northouse 2007, 172). In 1973 the term *transformational leader* was first coined by J.V. Downton; however, the seminal work of James MacGregor Burns, *Leadership*, launched it as an important approach to leadership (Northouse 2007, 172). Transformational leaders were defined by Burns as:

...recognizing and exploiting an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeking to satisfy higher needs, and engage the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (Burns, 1978, 4).

Transformational leadership focuses upon promoting the organization's mission and facilitating the worker's output capacity to bring a higher level of follower commitment in order to achieve organizational objectives (Barbuto 2005, 26-40; Leithwood & Jantzi 2000, 112; Spreitzer, Perttula & Xin 2005, 205-227).

Common themes personified by transformational leaders are: trust, admiration, loyalty and respect amongst their followers (Barbuto 2005, 28). Transformational leaders strive to raise the level of needs that people function from, attempting to move them from low levels, focussed on survival, to higher levels (Kelly 2003, 1; Yukl 1989, 324). Transformational leadership also focuses upon changing the values and beliefs of both the leader and their followers through the process of self-reflection. Thus, leaders and followers raise one another's achievements, morality and motivations to levels that might otherwise have been impossible (Barnett 2003, 3-4; Crawford, Gould & Scott 2003, 59-60; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory 2004). Transformational leadership is generally understood by acceptance of the four main attributes set out by the italicized print in the left-hand column of Table 1 (Stone, Russell & Patterson 2004, 349-361). In 1985 Bernard Bass carried out research that isolated the four factors exhibited by transformational leaders. Their additive effect is summarized in Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** The Additive Effect of Transformational Leadership.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Idealized influence (attributes and behaviours)} \\ & + \\ & \text{Individualized consideration} \\ & + \\ & \text{Inspirational motivation} \\ & + \\ & \text{Intellectual stimulation} \\ & = \\ & \textit{Performance Beyond Expectations} \end{aligned}$$

(Adapted from Hall, Johnson, Wysocki and Kepner 2002, 2)

There is much debate on the uniqueness of both Transformational and Servant leadership amongst scholars. Some suspect the two leadership models are the same, just using different names. However, there is a marked difference between transformational and servant leaders (Patterson, Redmer, and Stone 2003, 2). For example, an empirical research study by Jeanine Parolini et al in 2007 discovered there were five distinguishable differences between servant leadership and transformational leadership. Parolini's five differences focus first, on servant leadership having the potential to be moral over transformational leadership because its focus is on developing people rather than focusing on the organization. The second theme addressed the object of focus for these two leadership theories. Transformational focuses on the organization while servant leadership focuses on the person. Patterson, Redmer and Stone support this claim by pointing out that the transformational leader is concerned with aligning people to the organization's objectives while the servant leader is concerned with the development of the person regardless of organizational objectives (Patterson, Redmer and Stone 2003, 4) Motive and mission is the theme that differentiates the outward view of transformational leadership from the inward look of servant leadership. Finally, the influence distinctive addresses how transformational leadership influences people by calling them to follow, while servant leadership influences people through serving. These five distinctives deal with the individual follower versus the overall organization. Parolini asserts that these five differences be integrated into leadership and organizational development to help differentiate between the need for a transformational or servant leader (Parolini, Patterson & Winston 2009, 18).

### Missional Leadership

The literature and particularly the research done by Parolini suggests something more is needed for leadership in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Parolini, Patterson, & Winston 2009 18; Patterson, Redmer, & Stone 2003, 1-19; Collins 2001, 14-16; Ayers 2006, 3-27). Not only are servant and transformational leadership needed, but the literature has also stressed the need for missional leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The leadership models of the past have proven to be ineffective



in bringing about sustainable change (Juday 2010). To address this need Roxburgh and Romanuk (2006) advocate a leadership style that engages organizational cultural change as essential to the missional model of leadership. It was insufficient to facilitate change in individuals, as advocated by the servant leader and transformational models, without addressing the larger context of organizational culture (Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 61-64). What was required, according to Neil Cole, was a new model of leadership that works collectively with the individual and the organization to address organizational cultural change (Cole 1999, 19-27).

The missional model of leadership facilitates organizational cultural change by addressing five elements that weave through the issues of change (Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 82). These elements (awareness, understanding, evaluation, experimentation, and commitment) function as stages of change that an organization move through. These stages of change do not travel in a consistent and predictable line as in earlier generations, but they are rather inconsistent and unpredictable, not necessarily building upon prior changes (Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 81-83). This model of change requires leadership that cultivates an environment that innovates and releases the missional imagination present (but untapped) among followers (Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 103-108; Juday 2010, 1-3).

### Integration

The literature indicated that leaders in the missional model must focus on developing his or her personal character as well as their relationship to their followers (Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006, 111-115; Creps 2006, 3-17; Cole 2009, 167-204; Clinton 1996, 57-58; Quinn 1988, 3-12; and Thrall, McNicol and McElrath 1999, 43-49). These two elements seem central for the missional leader to effectively form a missional environment and culture conducive to follower development. It is not sufficient to simply have the technical skills to accomplish the job. Today's leaders are required to have adaptive skills that facilitate personal change enabling them to adjust to the changing cultural climate their organizations discover or shape (Heifetz, Grashow and Linsky 2009, 19). By comparing the attributes of these three leadership models the variables emerged. From the summary of the three relational leadership theories a consensus of eight variables were culled.

The following table outlines the literature's summary of the attributes for the three current relational leadership styles:





Table 1 Current Relational Theories of Leadership Compared

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES	SERVANT LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES	MISSIONAL LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES
<i>Idealized (charismatic) influence</i>	Influence	
Vision	<i>Vision</i>	Missional future
Trust	<i>Trust</i>	Trust
Respect	Credibility and competence	Performance excellence
Risk-sharing	Delegation	Member engagement
Integrity	<i>Honesty and integrity</i>	Personal integrity
Modeling	<i>Modeling and visibility</i>	Personal maturity
	<i>Service</i>	
		Self-awareness
		Authenticity
		Establishing an inner compass
		Personal courage
<i>Inspiration motivation</i>		
Commitment to goals	Stewardship	
Communication	Communication	
Enthusiasm		
<i>Intellectual stimulation</i>		
Rationality	Persuasion	
Problem solving	<i>Pioneering</i>	Conflict management
		Imagination
<i>Individualized consideration</i>	<i>Appreciation of others</i>	
Personal attention	Encouragement	
Mentoring	Teaching	
Listening	Listening	
Empowerment	<i>Empowerment</i>	



		Change-oriented leadership
		Coalition building
		Member integration
		Missional culture formation
		Understanding society

The content of this table was modified from the writings of Stone, Russell and Patterson 2004; Parolina, Patterson and Wilson 2008; Grant 2002; Roxburgh and Romanuk 2006. The attributes listed under the missional leadership were added by this writer from the research. Note: Functional attributes in italic print – accompanying attributes in regular print.

From the three relational theories of leadership certain variables (competencies and qualities) were apparent. Notwithstanding differences and different emphases, the literature revealed a consensus around certain variables vital to effective leadership. These variables are:

- Influence
- Vision
- Trust
- Respect or credibility
- Risk-sharing or delegation
- Integrity
- Modeling
- Problem solving/pioneering/conflict management

From these eight variables expressed in the literature, a clarification of essential qualities and competencies was achieved through field research, resulting in five. These five variables are:

- Integrity
- Honesty
- Trustworthiness
- Understanding culture
- People skills

Reappearing in all three theories of leadership were the qualities and competencies of integrity, trust and people skills. It was apparent that the model of transformational leadership used honesty and integrity interchangeably (Parry and Proctor-Thomson 2002, 75-96). Honesty then could be ascribed to two of the three theories. It was also evident from the field research that honesty emerged as an important theme in the minds of the leaders, thus, requiring attention be given in training to the theme of honesty. Cultural understanding and cultural change is a unique feature of missional leadership. However, concern and interest in the field research highlighted the cultural theme as a worthwhile theme for leadership training.



When a side-by-side comparison was done between servant and transformational leadership it was revealed that the two leadership theories have relatively analogous characteristics. Both transformational leadership and servant leadership emphasize the importance of appreciating and valuing people, listening, mentoring or teaching, and empowering followers. In fact, the theories are probably most similar in their emphasis upon individual consideration and appreciation of followers. Missional leadership on the other hand emphasizes the importance of character development of the leader, performance, and organizational change with less of an emphasis on the importance on developing the individual follower.

### The Emergent Variables Essential to Leadership

There is a clear and consistent connection between values such as integrity and honesty on the effectiveness of leadership (Reave 2005, 655-687). These values and behaviours lived out on a daily basis are essential to leadership success (Reave 2005, 655-687).

#### Integrity

There are two components of integrity that are central to the success of the leadership role. These two components are:

- Integrity is primarily a formal relationship one has with oneself.
- Integrity is connected in an important way with acting morally (Cox, La Caze, and Levine 2008).

For leaders to have success in their roles, these two components of integrity are required (Akin 2009). To focus upon one at the expense of the other presents a distorted image of the leader to the follower. Therefore, in order for the leader to function with integrity both of these components are necessary.

Cox, La Caze and Levine outlined the various perspectives on the concept of integrity and believed it to be a cluster of concepts (Cox, La Caze and Levine 2008). Their best summary of integrity was that they concluded integrity was a virtue; not a single, focused virtue but one that was rich in depth and diversity. In contrast to the philosophical approach of Cox, La Caze and Levine, Ronald R. Fogleman described integrity by character traits (Fogleman 2002, 39). The traits he described were observed from the field of military service. Fogelman understood integrity as: sincerity, consistency, substance, and being a good finisher. Whether integrity is defined from a philosophical perspective or by practical application, it seems integrity is a complex and diverse quality that is essential to leadership.



## Honesty

Along with integrity, Reave and Frankel believed that honesty was also a very important quality for leadership success (Reaves 2005, 665-687; Frankel 2006, 78-85). Honesty is defined as, “free of deceit; truthful and sincere” (Oxford 2011). Frankel affirmed that an honest person is one who is candid about who they are and about their present and future behaviour (Frankel, 2006, 6). Yet, as important as honesty is, there is an erosion of honesty that comes through three distinct steps (Frankel 2006, 28). These three steps of acceptance, justification and, finally eliminating the wrong, is a process common in North American culture (Frankel 2006, 29-30). The literature indicates that honesty is a quality essential for leadership but that honesty can too easily be eroded. It is also necessary for steps to be taken that develop honesty at the leadership level in order to decrease this erosion process (Pace Institute of Karate 2011, 5). Three steps, in the literature, to increase honesty were to:

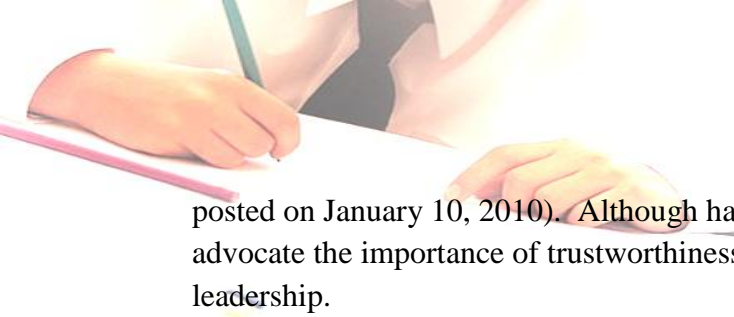
- Decide in advance what you will do.
- Treat people the way you would like to be treated.
- Do what you say you are committed to do (Pace Institute of Karate 2011, 7-8).

This aligns with the servant leader model advocated by Robert Greenleaf. Honesty, therefore, is a quality that is essential to leadership and should be consciously developed in order to not manipulate people, but treat them with dignity.

## Trustworthiness

Closely connected to integrity and honesty is the quality of trustworthiness. In differentiating trustworthiness from honesty, the root of trustworthiness, is “worthy of confidence” (Merriam-Webster 2012). This definition of trustworthiness emphasizes dependability, truthfulness and the characteristic of being without deceit. As seen earlier, honesty is simply the absence of deceit without regard for the other concepts. The literature indicates these three qualities (integrity, honesty and trustworthiness) have a strong relationship to leadership (White 2002). When combining integrity and honesty the natural outcome seems to be trustworthiness. These three qualities are inter-related in the field of leadership.

The development of trustworthiness involves the five characteristics of: integrity, courage, wisdom, motivation and stability (Degraaf 2010). To develop these characteristics, Degraaf believed the leader needs to ask a series of questions relevant to each theme. On the other hand, David Cantone suggested five words to build trust: truth, perseverance, integrity, reputation and, satisfaction (David Cantone, IL CATONE Blog comment posted on January 10, 2010). He referred to these five words as guidelines for the development of a standard of trustworthiness. Rather than asking questions as the Arrow Leadership group suggests, Cantone set out a series of standards to be met by a trustworthy individual (David Cantone, IL CATONE Blog comment



posted on January 10, 2010). Although having used different methods, both approaches advocate the importance of trustworthiness as a character quality essential to the success of leadership.

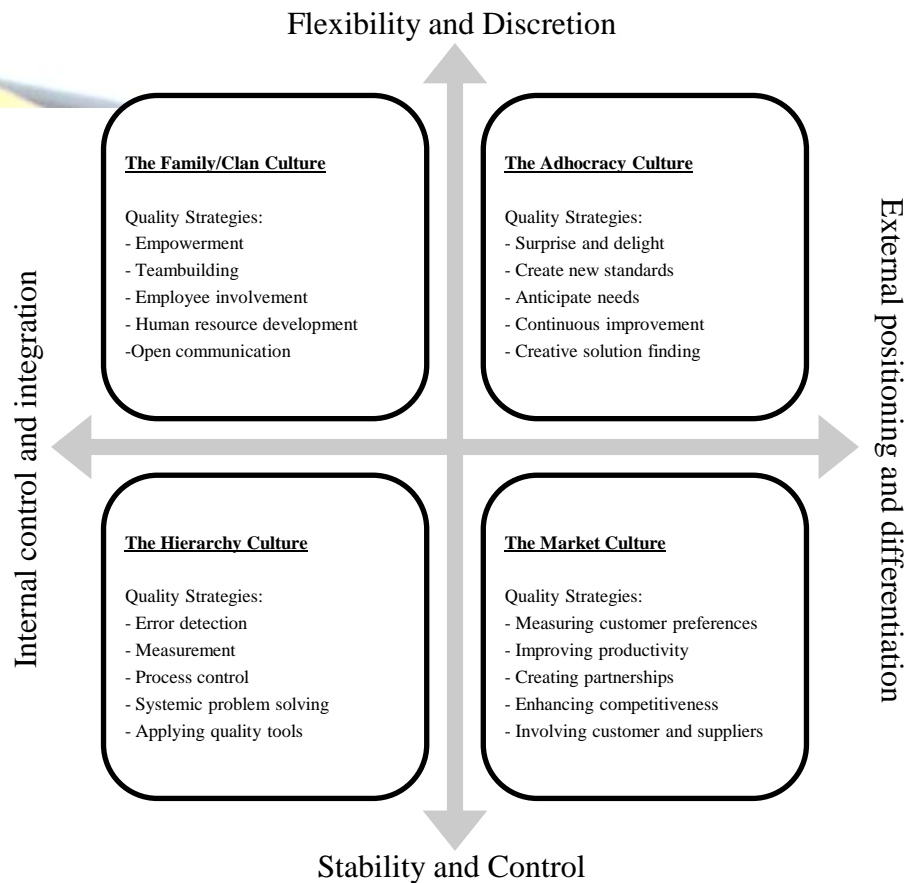
The significance and function of this quality to leadership can take a lesson from the legal profession. There are four basic general guidelines that are transferable:

- Meet commitments and deadlines,
- Live up to the aspirations of your profession,
- Make your word your bond and,
- Protect confidences (Minnesota State Bar Association 2011).

### Understanding Culture

The fourth variable of the five qualities and competencies deemed essential to leadership, from the literature and field research, is “understanding culture.” Gary Wedersphan defined culture as, “...the shared set of assumptions, values, and beliefs of a group of people by which they organize their common life” (MariaAbroad 2010). Culture can be applied to any gathering of people; be it a country, or an organization, or a family. A simpler definition for culture that gets to the point is, “how we do things around here” (Deal and Kennedy 1983, 498-505). Culture should have a significant role in the lives of leaders in the fact that the missional model of leadership, discussed earlier, placed a significant importance on the formation of organizational culture (see Roxburgh and Romanuk above). Cameron and Quinn described four types of organizational culture (Clan/Collaborative, Adhocracy/Creative, Hierarchy/Controlling and, Market/Competing) that express the leader’s role, organizational values and, effectiveness within the organization’s context (Cameron and Quinn 2006, 1-2). These classifications raise questions such as: Which culture could be most effective? Does only one culture emerge or is there a combination of cultures? Is there a culture that is more conducive to leadership? The following chart illustrates how these models function across four variables (internal control and integration/external positioning and differentiation; and flexibility and discretion/stability and control):

Figure 2 Four Types of Organizational Culture




Designed by author from Cameron and Quinn 2006, 1-2

These classifications and types of culture assist in understanding and clarifying the role of organizational culture within a particular context. In the application of these classifications, three primary functions of culture emerge for the organization. These three are:

- The glue that holds everything together,
- Conveys a sense of Identity to members and adherents,
- A compass providing direction (Hawthorn Centre 2011).

Organizations today are in a process of change and to neglect organizational culture could be the greatest contributing factor to an organization's failure (Cameron and Quinn 2006, 1-2). "In other words, failure to change the organization's culture doomed the other kinds of organizational changes that were initiated (Caldwell, 1994; CSC Index, 1994; Gross, Pascale, and Athos, 1993; Kotter and Heskett, 1992)" (Cameron and Quinn 2006, 1-2). Most leaders have a good sense of the organization's culture; however, they tend not to make that sense conscious enough to learn from it and lead from within the culture (McNamara 2000). There are three cultural continuums to be studied when assessing organizational culture: healthy versus



unhealthy culture (Jaspal 2010), strong versus weak culture (articleworld.org 2011) and, culture versus climate (The Kennedy Group 2010).

McNamara pointed out four primary ways a leader can influence the culture of their organization. In summary he says:

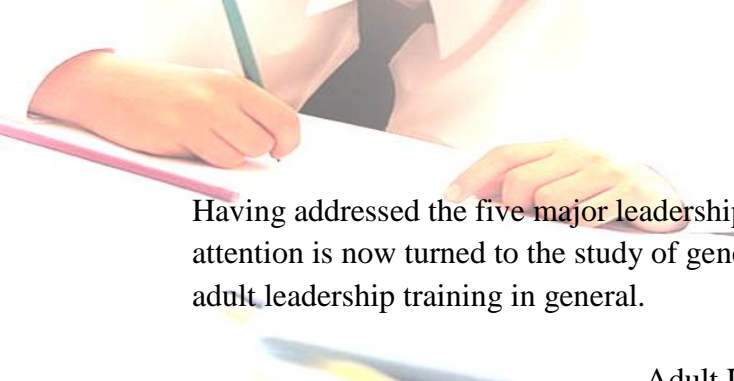
- Emphasize what is important,
- Reward employees whose behaviors reflects what's important,
- Discourage behaviors that don't reflect what's important,
- Model the behaviors that you want to see in the workplace (McNamara 2000).

To properly lead their organization it would be advantageous for leaders to be cognisant of the classifications, functions, types, continuums, and ways of influencing organizational culture to fulfill the organization specific mission.

### Appropriate Leadership and Training

Both Bass and Burns showed that the training and development of leaders is influenced by various components in the life of the leader. Influences such as organizational climate, family of origin, and educational institutions play a role in the formation of the leader (Bass and Bass 2008, 3). These three basic themes have significant influence in leadership development but it is understood that leadership development starts in early childhood and is formed throughout life. The application of the relational models of leadership (servant, transformational, and missional) can best be accomplished directly in the context of a person's ongoing work experience where the leader receives equipping and empowering through activities such as mentoring and coaching (Hernez-Broome and Hughes 2004, 24-32). One of the key themes of transformational leadership, individualized consideration can best be accomplished through mentoring and coaching (Bass, 1990, 26). Likewise, in the areas of servant and missional leadership, mentoring and coaching assist in the development of both potential and active servant leaders (Hunter 2004, 41-46; Cole 2009, 232-252). It appears the two activities of mentoring and coaching are integral to the development of leaders who function in these relational leadership models.

In summary, current literature shows that leaders need to develop their qualities and competencies in alignment with three relational leadership schools of thought. These three schools of thought (servant, transformational and missional) all point to the importance of leader-follower relationships. In differing ways the leader was called to influence the follower to think and act in ways that were conducive to the follower's higher values. The mode of influence would come through the leader's character as they modeled, mentored and coached the follower to engage their common culture.



Having addressed the five major leadership themes emerging from the field research our attention is now turned to the study of general leadership training. This section will now address adult leadership training in general.

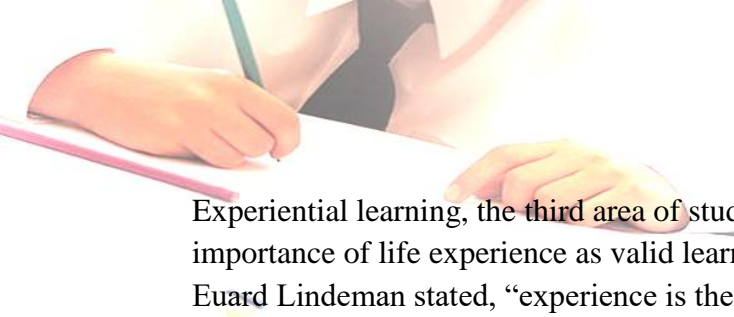
### Adult Leadership Training

As leadership development involves the training of individuals for improvement in their leadership capacity it is important to understand adult learning theories . Key to adult learning is autonomous thinking, which equips individuals to understand the meaning of their experience through critical interpretation of the experience, rather than merely assimilating the explanation of the experience from an authority figure (Mezirow 1997, 5-7). In order to facilitate autonomous thinking there were four areas of research (self-directed learning, critical reflection, experiential learning, learning to learn) in which adult learning was significant to this goal (Brookfield 1995, 1-9).

Self-directed learning assumes that people grow in capacity to be self-directing as an essential component of their maturity. They are driven by internal incentives that focus on task accomplishment and problem solving that makes the learner's experience a rich source of learning (Knowles 1975, 21). Knowles own definition of self-directed learning was, "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help from others, to diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify resources for learning, select and implement learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes" (Knowles 1975, 18). Merriam and Caffarella described the process of self-directed learning by referring to Tough's thirteen steps (Merriam and Caffarella 1991, 45). These thirteen steps represent the key decision-making points when choosing what, where and how to learn. Tough developed these thirteen steps from the foundational work of Knowles, who first proposed a five step process, later developed by Spears and Mockler (Merriam and Caffarella 1991, 47) as they offered the first alternative to Knowles' steps. (see appendix). All of these listings provide basic considerations for any facilitator contemplating a seminar or coaching sessions for leaders.

Self-directed learning is the first of the four areas of research for understanding adult learning. Critical reflection is the second area of study in adult learning essential for autonomous thinking. The process of critical reflection relies on critiquing the presuppositions upon which our beliefs are built. This results in revised assumptions, beliefs, and attitudes that shape how we bring meaning to our experiences (Mezirow 1990, 44). As experiences take on new meaning, perspectives are transformed by which adults come to recognize and re-frame their culturally induced roles and relationships. (Brookfield 1995, 1-9). It seemed essential that if leaders were to be equipped in the aspects of the three models (servant, transformational, and missional) of leadership studied, then attention must be given to equip leaders in critical reflection.





Experiential learning, the third area of study relevant to autonomous thinking, advocates the importance of life experience as valid learning for the adult learner (Brookfield 1995, 1-9). Euard Lindeman stated, “experience is the adult learner's living textbook” and, that adult learning is “a continuing process of evaluating experiences” (Lindeman 1926, 7 and 85). Experiential learning thus involves a, 'direct encounter with the phenomena being studied rather than merely thinking about the encounter, or only considering the possibility of doing something about it.' (Borzak, 1981, 9). This suggested that leaders, as adult learners need to possess the skill of learning by evaluating their experiences, rather than solely acquiring knowledge through textbooks. This activity should be developed as a lifelong learning habit.

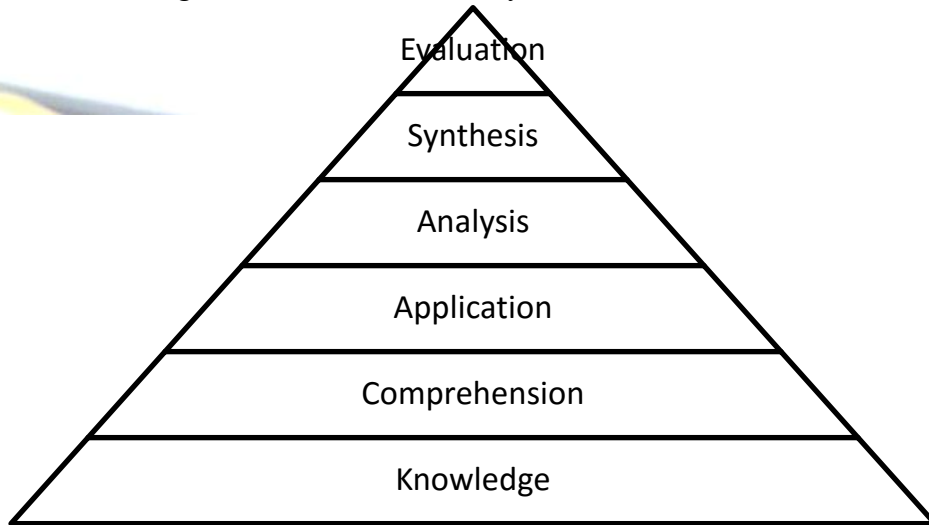
The fourth and final area of current research is how adult learners learn to learn. Of the four core areas of research into adult learning theories, how adult learners learn is in need of more research (Smith 2001). What we do know is that adult learning is a process of mental inquiry that engages the learner through methods such as case studies, Socratic dialogue, and other problem-solving scenarios (Knowles, Holton & Swanson 2005, 35-36). While there have been various contributions to the literature, such as the above, it is the work of David A. Kolb and his associate Roger Fry that provide the central reference point for this discussion. Kolb advanced a four phase learning cycle for adult learning. His four phases are: (1) concrete experience followed by, (2) observation and experience then, (3) forming abstract concepts and finally; (4) testing new situations. These four steps work as a system moving from one phase to the next (Smith 2001). In equipping contemporary leaders it seems essential to assist them with a learning system that would facilitate not only a continuation of learning but also an improvement in and development of their learning abilities.

In conclusion the four areas of adult learning research (self-directed learning, critical reflection, experiential learning, learning to learn) would best benefit leadership when applied in an equipping seminar or coaching situation. These adult learning components suggest more effective learners and leaders will emerge when used in the equipping process.

#### Bloom and Kraftwohl’s Taxonomy

To qualify how effectively leadership equipping was accomplished, reference is made to Bloom and Kraftwohl’s taxonomy of learning. Two of the most credible and most well know taxonomies. In 1956 Benjamin Bloom attempted to classify forms and levels of learning within the behavioural paradigm (Atherton 2011). The first of Bloom’s foci was on learning in the cognitive domain where he mapped six progressive levels of learning. He believed each of these levels was a prerequisite to the next (Atherton 2011). The diagram below illustrates the six levels of learning in Bloom’s 1956 model for cognitive learning:

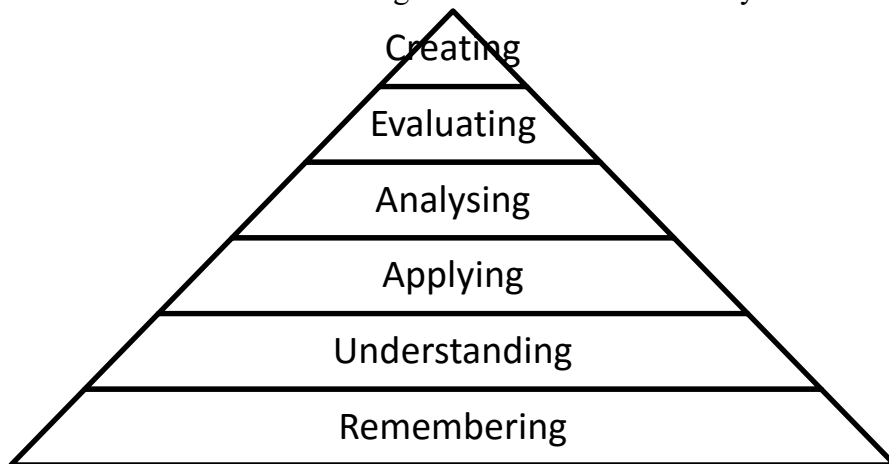
Illustration 1 Bloom's Cognitive Domain Taxonomy



Adapted from Atherton 2011

In 2001 Anderson and Krathwohl conceived some minor but significant revisions to Bloom's original model. The following is Anderson and Krathwohl's revision:

Illustration 2 Anderson and Krathwohl's Cognitive Domain Taxonomy

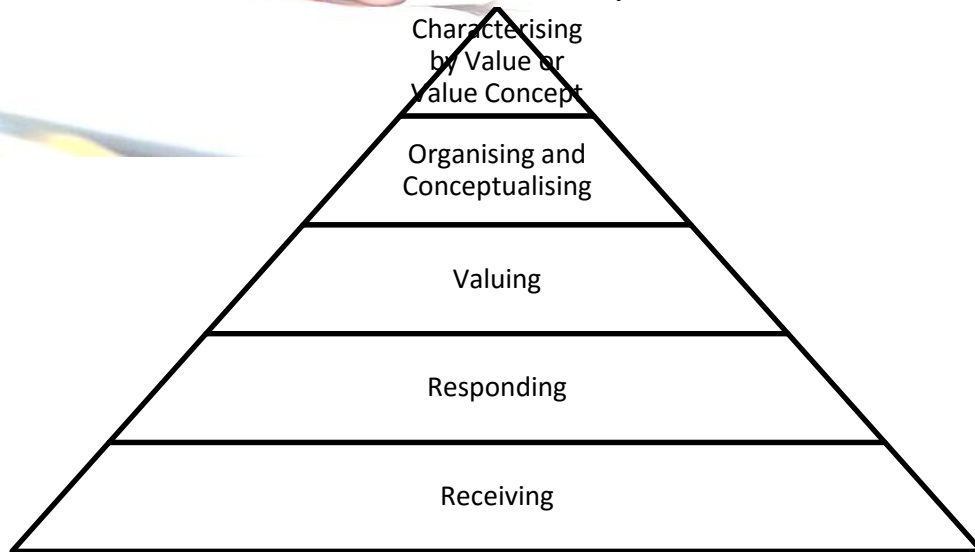


Adapted from Atherton 2011

Two noticeable revisions in Anderson and Krathwohl's taxonomy are: the words were changed from a noun form to a verb form, and the top level changed to "creating" (Atherton 2011).

The cognitive and affective domains were the primary focus of Bloom and Krathwohl. The affective domain focused more on values and ranged from mere awareness to distinguishing values through analysis (Atherton 2011). The following diagram illustrates the five levels of the affective domain:

Illustration 3 Krathwohl's Affective Domain Taxonomy



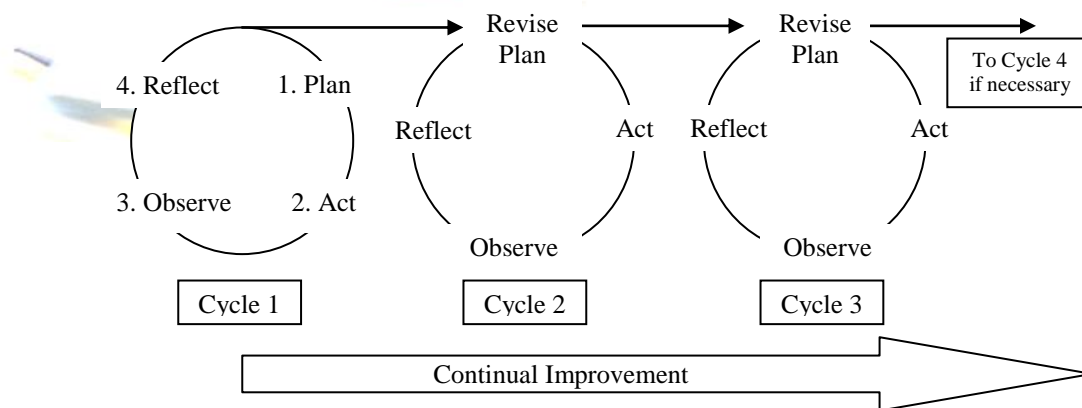
Adapted from Atherton 2011

In summary, it appears that adult learning theories work from four areas of research (self-directed learning, critical reflection, experiential learning and learning how to learn) in order for the learner to become an autonomous, socially responsible thinker (Mezirow 1997, 5-7). Bloom's taxonomy (Atherton 2011) assists in determining the effectiveness and ability of leaders to learn these essential qualities and competencies by addressing levels of learning. The question now, is how do we best develop methods of equipping the leader that incorporates these four areas of study?

### Action Research

A system of research that compliments adult learning theories is "action research" (Sagar 2005, 91; Zuber-Skerritt 1982, 37). Kurt Lewin, often cited as the originator of action research (McKernan 1991), pointed to the benefits of action research in the learning cycle. These benefits are the continued improvement through each iteration, the involvement of the researcher in the process, and the reflective component of action research. The core components in the process of action research are: planning, taking action and, evaluating the actions (Coghlan & Brannick 2010, ix). Although these are the core components, it is generally agreed that Action Research is a four step process (Sagar 2005, 3-4). The added step is the division of "evaluating the actions" into observation and reflection. These components work in a cyclical process that is both deliberate and conscious involving several iterations (Coghlan & Brannick 2010, 10). The following diagram illustrates this cyclical process:

Illustration 4 Action Research Cycle



Designed by the author from (Coghlan & Brannick 2010).

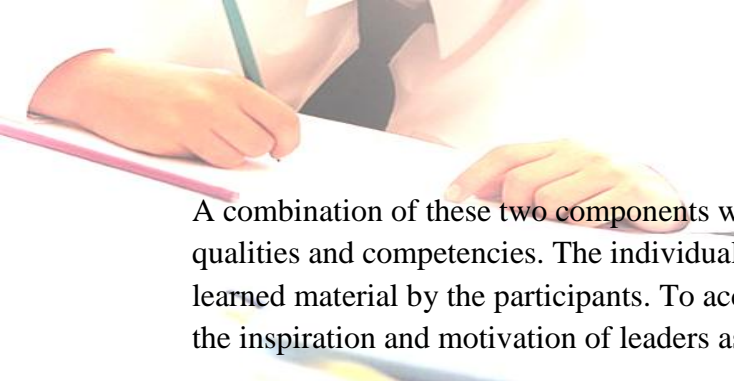
The ‘Teacher-Researcher’ movement of the late 1960’s and early 1970’s was instrumental in involving action research in the educational process (Riding, Fowell, and Levy 1995). This movement involved the teacher in both the educating and researching roles. By following the process of planning a curriculum, teaching it and then evaluating its effectiveness, the teacher could make the necessary adaptations to enhance both the teaching style and content to benefit student’s educational development. This action research process applied by teachers was beneficial to the process of this paper.

### Solution

A generic solution for addressing the leadership issues that result in a gap between set goals and actual achieved outcomes would focus on the eight characteristics (Influence, Vision, Trust, Respect or credibility, Risk-sharing or delegation, Integrity, Modeling, Problem solving/pioneering/conflict management) found in the literature. Most leadership training material would focus on improving the performance of individual leaders across these items to enhance the leader's capacity to influence and inspire his/her followers with the desired goal of reducing the gap.

This approach would benefit the organization by addressing the gap which would increase performance resulting in higher productivity and profitability. As leaders increase their competencies in these eight characteristics there would be a marked improvement in the relationship between leaders and followers. This cultural change would motivate followers to align themselves with the goals and objectives of their organization and thus improve performance.

To accomplish this type of solution one could anticipate regular seminar presentations that present the essential content for leadership development along with individual coaching sessions.



A combination of these two components will result in successful maturation of leadership qualities and competencies. The individual coaching sessions are key to the daily integration of learned material by the participants. To accent this approach keynote addresses also contribute to the inspiration and motivation of leaders as they regularly implement their learning.

With monthly seminars, to lay the curriculum foundation, organizational leaders would be exposed to a common set of learning criteria that would stretch across the whole organization. This would standardize the learning material which could become the launching point for formal mastermind groups or casual growth conversations during lunch or break times. Each leadership participant would be expected to engage in weekly coaching sessions that would clarify and help implement the seminar material in a personal and contextual manner. To assist in motivating the organization's leaders to implement their learning a series of four motivational keynotes would be used throughout the year to stimulate and excite the leadership team to further learn and implement the leadership content.

Organizations working with Dr. Burton and Focus on Leadership would benefit from an approach to leadership development that combines three theories of leadership that focus on the attitudes, values, character qualities and competencies of the individual leader. Along with these there is a focus on the leader-follower relationship that will result in a more positive working environment and culture. Thus, over time both the leader and follower will attain to higher working and relational values taking on the perspective of serving not only each other but also fellow staff and customers. This will, ultimately, manifest an organizational culture and climate positively setting the organization apart from its competitors.

To begin a conversation with Dr. Burton on the content of this whitepaper or to engage his services to assess the needs and opportunities of developing the leadership of your organization please contact us at:

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Appendix  
Key Andragogical Principles

**Tough's thirteen step process for self-directed learning:**

1. Deciding what detailed knowledge and skill to learn.
2. Deciding the specific activities, methods, resources, or equipment for learning.
3. Deciding where to learn.
4. Setting specific deadlines or intermediate targets.
5. Deciding when to begin a learning episode.
6. Deciding the place at which to proceed during a learning episode.
7. Estimating the current level of one's knowledge and skill or one's progress in gaining the desired knowledge and skill.
8. Detecting any factor that has been hindering learning or discovering in efficiency aspect of the current procedures.
9. Obtaining the desired resources or equipment or reaching the desired place or resource.
10. Preparing or adapting a room for learning or arranging certain other physical conditions in preparation for learning.
11. Saving or obtaining the money necessary for the use of certain human or nonhuman resources.
12. Finding time for the learning.
13. Taking steps to increase the motivation for certain learning episode.

(Merriam and Caffarella, 1991, p.45)

**Knowles' five-step model of self-directed learning consists of:**

1. Diagnosing learning needs.
2. Formulating learning goals.
3. Identifying human and material resources for learning.
4. Choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategy.
5. Evaluation of learning outcomes. (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991, 46)

**Spear and Mocker's alternative description of the process to explain how learners organize their own learning efforts as follows:**

1. The triggering event for a learning project stems from a change in life circumstances.
2. The changed circumstance provides an opportunity for learning.
3. The structure, method, resources, and condition for learning are directed by the circumstances.
4. Learning sequences progress as the circumstances created in one episode become the circumstances for the next logical step. (Merriam and Caffarella, 1991, p.47)

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