

Foundational & Emerging Models of Leadership Development:
A Review of the Literature and a Taxonomy of Leadership Development
Programs

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Introduction

Created in response to the Statewide Capacity Collaborative's (SCC) call for a taxonomy of leadership development, this document aims to help categorize the current literature on leadership development.

As stated in the SCC proposal, this document will assist with the development of a taxonomy of types of leadership programs in Washington State. The overall Leadership Development Taxonomy will help service providers and funders better understand the full spectrum of leadership development resources and assist us in determining any gaps, particularly for historically marginalized communities.

A simplified version of the taxonomy will be used for the online catalog of leadership development programs and offerings. The intent is to develop categories and filters that help people meaningfully distinguish between leadership development opportunities. Ultimately, the final version of the taxonomy will be used to create a free resource that displays leadership development opportunities—with a focus on highlighting opportunities for communities of color, rural communities, nontraditional leaders, and underrepresented communities.

Clarification of Terms: Leadership and Leadership Development

For the purposes of this study, we approach leadership as a collective process of people working together towards common goals (Dugan, 2017). Following the Washington State Leadership Scan (2015), we recognize that leadership can be defined very differently depending upon cultural lens, situation, or context. We underscore that leadership is a process that does not require formal, positional authority or title, and that leadership can exist anywhere within a community or within any position in an organization. We also distinguish between management and leadership, two concepts that are often conflated. Access to management knowledge and skills in areas such as fundraising, strategic planning, financial management, and board management is needed, particularly among communities of color and in Eastern Washington. In this study, we acknowledge the importance of management education and simultaneously maintain a focus on leadership development.

We define leadership development as building an individual or group's capacity to engage others in effective leadership roles and processes (McCauley and Douglas, 1998, p. 161). Leadership development also involves developing social capital by building networked relationships that enhance cooperation and resource exchange in creating organizational or collective value (Day, 2000, p. 586). Leadership development efforts commonly address the following domains:

- (1) **Capacity**, or an individual or group's knowledge, skills, and abilities related to the leader role or the group's leadership process;
- (2) **Enactment**, or the practice or behaviors of an individual or group as they engage in leader roles or processes;
- (3) **Motivation**, or the individual decision to attend leadership training, the intensity of effort and persistence as a leader;
- (4) **Efficacy**, or an individual or group's internal beliefs regarding their likelihood for success with a particular task.

Finally, we make a distinction between leadership training and leadership development, which is less focused on short term tactics, and more focused on longer term transformation. As Myatt (2012) explains

- Training focuses on the present – Development focuses on the future.
- Training focuses on technique/content/curriculum—Development focuses on people.
- Training adheres to standards—Development focuses on maximizing potential.
- Training is transactional—Development is transformational.
- Training focuses on maintenance—Development focuses on growth.

Methodology

This taxonomy is based on a review of the current literature on leadership development in the United States. This review was conducted by Crystal Oswald, a graduate student of Nonprofit Leadership student at Seattle University, in consultation with two faculty, Noreen Elbert and Maureen Emerson Feit. The literature review included academic peer-reviewed journals, philanthropic and practitioner reports, and key leadership texts. As we selected leadership development approaches to highlight, we sought approaches that have been widely used and discussed in the academy and in practice. As others have noted, the theory and study of leadership development has clear limitations (Dugan, 2017). Formal leadership theory has tended to downplay questions about power and inequality, and has addressed diversity of leaders and followers in terms of culture, gender, race and ethnicity, or sexual orientation “infrequently” (Eagly & Chin, 2010, p. 216). Thus, we intentionally included historically marginalized and emerging leadership development approaches in this review, even as we stress the need to identify and cultivate approaches not reflected in this review.

Taxonomy DRAFT

Explanation: The proposed taxonomy is based on the findings on leadership development detailed in this paper. We recognize that some of the categories may not be reflected in the online tool. We suggest that any categories or keywords that are not included in the online tool could be used to develop a screen, or a set of questions for users to ask when they begin to select leadership development opportunities,

1. Skill Development

- a. Interpersonal Communication
 - i. Public speaking
 - ii. Conflict resolution
- b. Diversity/Equity/Inclusion
 - i. Cultural competence
 - ii. Diversity/inclusion
 - iii. Structural injustice
 - iv. Anti-oppression/anti-racist
 - v. Implicit bias
 - vi. Power and privilege
 - vii. Equity
 - viii. Prejudice Reduction
 - ix. Intersectionality: Race, racism, gender, sexism, disability, ableism, and nationality
- c. Leading groups
 - i. Team work
 - ii. Facilitation
 - iii. Collaboration
 - iv. Decision Making

- v. Emotional Intelligence

2. Personal Development

- a. Mentoring
- b. Coaching
 - i. Individual
 - ii. Peer
 - iii. Team
- c. Guided Self-Assessment
- d. Personal Sustainability/Self-Care
- e. Goal setting

3. Networking

- a. Professional association
- b. Membership organization
- c. Online Community
- d. Event (i.e. regular Happy hour)
- e. Peer-to-peer support
- f. Informal networking

4. Knowledge Development/Core Nonprofit Leadership Competencies

- a. Advocacy, Public Policy and Social Change
- b. Collaboration and Collective Action
- c. Cultural Competence; Diversity, Equity and Inclusion
- d. Fundraising and Resource Development
- e. Information Technology, Social Media and Data Management
- f. Leading and Managing Organizations
- g. Legal and Ethical Decision Making
- h. Nonprofit Communications, Marketing and Public Relations
- i. Nonprofit Finance & Financial Management
- j. Nonprofit Governance
- k. Nonprofit Volunteer and Human Resource Management
- l. Program Development, Assessment and Evaluation
- m. Scope and Significance of the Nonprofit Sector, Civil Society, Voluntary Action and Philanthropy
- n. Social Entrepreneurship
- o. Strategic Thinking and Strategic Planning

5. Teaching & Learning Approach (Filter/Screen/Educational element of tool?)

- a. Experiential learning
 - i. Action learning
 - ii. Applied learning
 - iii. Simulation
 - iv. Team work
 - v. Group work

- b. Culturally-specific
 - i. Shared identity
 - ii. Caucusing
- c. Learning in Community/Network
 - i. Collaboration
 - ii. Trust and trust building
 - iii. Shared decision-making
 - iv. Co-constructing
 - v. Community
 - vi. Cohort model
 - vii. Collective Leadership

6. Leadership Approaches (Filter/Screen/Educational element of tool)

- a. Authentic Leadership
- b. Adaptive Leadership
- c. Strategic Leadership
- d. Ethical Leadership
- e. Collective Leadership
- f. Result-Based Leadership
- g. Community Organizing Leadership; Justice-Based Leadership
- h. Situational Leadership
- i. Servant Leadership

7. Format for Delivery- Filter/Icon

- a. Training
- b. Workshop
- c. Conference
- d. Webinar
- e. Lecture
- f. One-on-one
- g. Self-directed learning
- h. Professional Certification (food handlers, drug/alcohol treatment, etc.)
- i. Undergraduate program
- j. Graduate program
- k. Certificate Programs
- l. Internship
- m. Volunteer

8. Learner

- a. Adult
- b. Youth

Discussion

Discussions about leadership development generally fall into three categories: techniques used to develop leaders, theories that underpin leadership development offerings, and competencies that leadership development opportunities aim to build. Leadership development techniques are typically selected by providers based on which capacities they seek to develop in emerging leaders. The capacities that they emphasize often depend on which leadership theory they support and how they define the term leadership itself. This taxonomy highlights traditional approaches to leadership development as well as approaches that may be of interest for the Statewide Capacity Collaborative as it develops a tool that meets the needs of communities of color, rural communities, nontraditional leaders, and underrepresented communities.

I. Leadership Development Techniques

The most commonly employed leadership development techniques are outlined below. Many leadership development programs and opportunities employ multiple techniques. The techniques that are selected for leadership development can provide insights into underlying assumptions about the leadership theory that a program espouses or the competencies they are seeking to cultivate in leaders. Programs that focus on skill building trainings, for example, likely support a view of leadership in which an individual leader's technical skills are critically important and need to be refined.

a. Skill Development

One of the foundational approaches, skill building, has long been viewed as essential to leadership development. The pedagogical assumption behind skill development is that an expert instructor can transmit knowledge to audience members thereby increasing their leadership capacity (Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016). Many leadership development opportunities combine a skill building approach with other methodologies (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2013; Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015; Shepherd, 2014; Bridgespan Group, 2012; Petrie, 2014). The skills that are targeted often directly correspond to leader capacities such as communication skills, leading small groups, time management skills, and analytic abilities (Rosch, Boyd, & Duran, 2014; Russell & Putnam-Walkerly, 2013).

The SCC Leadership Scan in Washington State found that while providers of leadership development stress planned instruction, it is “ranked as the least preferred learning technique and least effective by consumers” (CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015, p. 6). Leadership development programs in urban environments seem to place less emphasis on the importance of skill development and instead stress the need for other approaches to leadership development. In regions where fewer leadership development opportunities exist, however, there appears to be an increased emphasis on the need for skill development (Williams & Lindsey, 2011).

Keywords: skill, hard skill, soft skill, teaching, lecture, training, instruction, workshop, conference, competency, technical, horizontal development, capacity, communication, management, analysis.

b. Experiential Learning

The concept of experiential learning covers several activities, all of which aim to help participants learn through doing. Experiential learning can occur in a variety of arenas: on-the-job learning, stretch assignments, learning through mistakes, internships, apprenticeships, volunteering, team exercises, or group activities. (Petrie, 2014; Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016; Bridgespan Group, 2012; Williams & Lindsey, 2011; Thomas and Thomas, 2015; CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015; Russell & Putnam-Walkerly, 2013)

When asked about their own perception of leadership development opportunities, Washington State leaders in SCC's survey ranked experiential learning as the second most effective development tool (after developmental relationships) (CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015). Williams and Lindsey's (2011) work with rural Pennsylvania leaders similarly revealed that "most respondents felt that the only way to develop leadership skills was to get involved with organizations that need leaders" (p. 10). Russell and Putnam-Walkerly (2013) reason that one of the issues with career development is that many young professionals neglect to consider their "end game" and fail to attempt to replicate the experiences that leaders with similar career trajectories have had (p. 2).

For internal leadership development, the value of "stretch assignments" has been highlighted extensively in leadership development literature (Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015; Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016; Bridgespan Group, 2012). Stretch assignments—assignments that require an individual to move beyond their comfort zone to develop new competencies—can be incredible growth opportunities when they are accompanied with sufficient support and are consciously planned and reflected upon. Nonprofits may not be implementing stretch opportunities, which can limit their efficacy (Bridgespan Group, 2012).

For external leadership development opportunities, there is evidence of the effectiveness of leadership development training as a "living laboratory" (Rowland, 2016), a training that gives participants a chance to experience or work through leadership challenges as a simulation or unstructured large group dialogue.

Keywords: experiential, on-the-job, stretch assignment, mistake, internship, apprenticeship, volunteering, team exercise, group activity, peer-to-peer, co-constructed learning experience.

c. One-on-One Support/Personalized Relationships

There are several leadership development approaches that emphasize the importance of personal relationships and individualized support. Most often these relationships are described as mentoring or coaching and are "developmental relationship[s] designed to facilitate both personal and professional growth of those who will or have leadership responsibilities" (Traynor, 2000, p. 1).

Mentors can have a powerful impact on leadership development. Early in one's tenure with an organization, having an internal mentor can be advantageous. As a leader progresses in their career, having a strong external mentor can provide a different perspective, as well as personal and professional support. Perschel (2014).

For the purposes of distinguishing between leadership development techniques, this taxonomy recognizes several notable differences between coaching and counseling. Depending on the author's understanding of the term, "mentoring" can include both coaching or counseling. While it is often cited as a critical element of leadership development, most scholars neglect to define what they mean by the term "mentor" (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2013; Landles-Cobb & Kramer & Milway, 2015; Shepherd, 2014; Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016; Russell & Putnam-Walkerly, 2013; CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015; Williams & Lindsey, 2011; BridgeSpan Group, 2012). Although mentoring can be a highly beneficial form of leadership development, it can also present unique challenges such as the possibility of creating a perception of favoritism, cronyism, or exploitation of a mentee (Thomas and Thomas, 2015).

As a strategy, coaching focuses on improving an individual's ability or performance. Literature on supportive communication argues that "in coaching, managers pass along advice and information, or they set standards to help others improve their work skills" (Whetten & Cameron, 2010, p. 248). One way to conceptualize coaching is from the classic concept of sports coaching in which an expert athlete develops the physical skills of a player. Coaching occurs when an individual's performance is observed and advice for improvement is offered based on the coaches' experience and expertise. Coaching can occur informally from a mentor or role model, or formally through assignment of a coach. Professional coaching will often address untapped potential and factors required for success through problem solving, action plans and distinct goals (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Chung, & Coleman, 2003).

Keywords: mentor, coach, advisor, role model, personal, relationship, individualized, advice, developmental relationship, supportive communication, problem solving, action planning, goal setting, attitude change, behavior change, self-discovery, self-assessment, identity exploration.

d. Self-Awareness/Reflection

Leadership development is a very personal process and insights that cannot be gained through observation or instruction often require self-reflection. Many scholars recognize that leadership development is most powerful when it is sought out by the individual, and personally directed and earned (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2013; Petrie, 2014). Reflection provides a critical opportunity to process learning and make meaning of experiences (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; Raffo, 2012). Self-awareness and reflection can be encouraged through self-assessment and individual learning plans, as well as retreats, prayer, meditation, mindfulness practice, journaling and deliberate solitude. Shamir and Eilam (2005) argue that authentic leadership development is best accomplished by articulating one's life story and exploring one's "identity, values, goals, and behaviors" (p. 399). They add that "that many leaders...report that much of their self-development occurred during periods of forced time-outs." (Shamir and Eilam, 2005, p. 410). Batiwala and Friedman (2014) emphasize that self-awareness techniques such as physical bodywork can help individuals to connect with their "emotions and the limbic brain" (p. 97).

Keywords: personal, reflection, self-awareness, individual, make meaning, process, retreat, prayer, meditation, mindfulness, solitude, journaling, learning plan, self-assessment, life story, identity, values, goals, bodywork, emotions, limbic brain.

e. Network Leadership

Network approaches to leadership development recognize the value of interpersonal connections between multiple individuals. Network building is often included as one aspect of formal leadership development programs. Networks may be formal (e.g. networking events, listservs, organizations) or informal (e.g. friend groups, happy hours). Networks can be created for individuals that share an experience or that have a common affinity or identity (Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016; W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2007). The benefits of networks include that they can provide opportunities for peer-to-peer support, help to identify allies, offer new perspectives, provide opportunities to share failures and successes, and create "door-opening relationships" that may lead to advancement (Russell & Putnam-Walkerly, 2013, p. 2; W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2007; Williams & Lindsey, 2011). Williams and Lindsey's (2011) work highlighted that for rural leaders in Pennsylvania, regional leadership networks were particularly beneficial in allowing leaders from geographically diverse areas to learn from one another. The Washington State Leadership scan also indicated that leaders of color found informal peer

networking to be very beneficial for relationship building and support (CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015).

Keywords: network, connections, network building, events, listservs, membership organizations, happy hour, peer-to-peer support, cohort model, informal networking, formal networking.

f. Culturally Specific

Within the broader field of leadership development, there is a need to go beyond surface-level discussions of cultural competence and instead allow individuals with shared identities to learn and grow together. Too many leadership development programs tout the importance of diversity without explicitly acknowledging inequities, discrimination, and oppression which may have led to candidate selection or exclusion (Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016). Most of the methods of leadership development outlined above fail to recognize the larger context within which leadership exists. As explained by the Leadership Learning Community (2010),

“The focus on individuals in leadership thinking does not address differences in social contexts that are created by systems of structural advantage and disadvantage and that shape social and racial identity. These collective identities create a shared experience from which collective grievances and aspirations emerge to motivate collective action. The focus on individuals misses the influence of social identity as a context of collective leadership and action. A leader’s power is often connected to the group that the leader is part of. Many leaders of color represent a constituency that has limited power because of structural racism or may be supported by groups from different backgrounds that do not share a racial justice perspective.” (p. 5)

Leadership development efforts need to address the effects of systemic oppression and the value of identity-based leadership development (Miller & Vaccaro, 2016). It is critical for programs to recognize that individuals who have experienced oppression and discrimination are experts in their own experience and are the most qualified individuals to propose solutions (NoVO Foundation, n.d.).

Culturally specific leadership development, led by an individual who shares an identity with the participants, offers participants the opportunity to explore their social identity as an element of leadership, challenge exclusionary messages about leadership, and build community. Sugiyama, Cavanagh and van Esch (2016) highlight how in Women’s Leadership Development Programs, participants can practice the “feminist pedagogy of shifting between fitting the norm and disrupting the norm, [and learn that] leadership identity is constructed through gaining a sense of self that is acutely aware of how one is perceived by others and how to relate to fit and relate to disrupt in order to change prevailing assumptions of leadership.” (p. 258). Identity-based leadership can be based on many identities including one’s gender, sexuality, nationality, race, ethnicity, disability status, or intersecting identities. Miller & Vaccaro (2016) write about the intersectionality of identities for queer student leaders of color and describe how, after assuming leadership positions within a Queer Student Group, the leaders they interviewed stated that there would be value in creating a queer people of Color organization where “they could be authentic and engage with supportive peers of Color who understood their identity and leadership struggles” (p. 46).

Keywords: identity, shared identity, collective identity, inequity, discrimination, oppression, structural injustice, racism, power, social justice, racial justice, shared experience, social context, intersectionality, gender, sexuality, nationality, race, ethnicity, disability status, intersecting identities.

g. Collective Leadership Development

Collective leadership development techniques place the focus of development on a group rather than the individual, emphasizing the mobilization of people and resources across difference to improve communities. Unlike traditional leadership development methods which focus on developing an individual leader, collective leadership development recognizes that in many critical situations, groups of individuals lead together (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2013; Petrie, 2014; W.K Kellogg Foundation, 2007; Leadership Learning Community, 2010). By centering a belief in and commitment to social advocacy and social justice, the impact of collective leadership development can be transformative” (Kellogg Foundation, 2007).

Many foundations have acknowledged that their previous leadership development programs failed to recognize that groups, rather than individuals, are the leaders of change in many situations. The Annie E Casey Foundation, the Center for Creative Leadership, the Ford Institute Leadership Program, and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation are all investing in collective leadership development. Petrie (2014) suggests that the question of leadership development is shifting from “Who are the leaders?” to “What conditions do we need for leadership to flourish in the network?” “How do we spread leadership capacity throughout the organization and democratize leadership?” (p. 5) The Center for Ethical Leadership has developed a framework for facilitating collective leadership that includes building trust, co-constructing purpose and strategic plan, acting together, and making work a way of life (W.K Kellogg Foundation, 2007). Even within collective leadership development, there is individual work to be done. Batiwala and Friedman (2014) note that self-awareness and recognition of oppressive structures and injustices are critical components of collective leadership development.

Keywords: collective leadership, social justice, group, leading together, decision making, consensus, collaborative, collective, trust, trust building, safe space, co-constructing purpose, acting together, community

h. Results-Based Leadership

Leadership development is often difficult to measure and quantify, but results-based leadership development approaches place assessment, accountability, and feedback at the center of the leadership journey. The Annie E Casey Foundation (2013) approaches their leadership development programs from this perspective and their Leadership in Action program is based on creating learning plans with clearly articulated goals and performance measures. Several other programs include 360-degree feedback as part of their leadership development initiatives (Petrie, 2014; Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016). Even if results-based leadership does not set the overall direction for a leadership development program, most programs do recognize the importance of accountability and follow-through when it comes to measuring results and meeting goals (Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). The Leadership Learning Community (2010) notes that if leadership development opportunities are aiming to contribute to racial justice, they also need to monitor the race and ethnicity of program participants and communities involved in their programs so they can recognize changes over time. The Bridgespan Group (2012) survey revealed that nonprofits are concerned about senior leaders’ lack of accountability of for their own leadership development. They found that “only 19 percent of leaders

surveyed agreed that ‘we regularly collect data to evaluate our progress and to understand what leadership development practices and supports are most effective’” (Bridgespan Group, 2012, p. 2). This finding indicates a need for increased accountability and attention to results in leadership development efforts.

Keywords: measurement, results, assessment, accountability, feedback, learning plan, goals, methods, 360-degree feedback, follow-through, performance review.

i. Community Organizing/Community Cultural/Grassroots Leadership

While rarely recognized in the traditional leadership development literature, it is important to acknowledge the long history of leadership development among community organizing groups. As Western States Center explains, strong leadership skills are “critical to organizational sustainability and more importantly, needed to catalyze on-going innovation for social justice. People power is what fuels social change” (n.d.). Community organizers work closely with local community members to develop public speaking and advocacy skills, increase confidence, and build relationships, and related leadership programs tend to emphasize power analysis and leverage, campaigns, negotiation, group facilitation and public relationships. (Ganz and Jenkins, 2013). Also related is the long tradition of grassroots leadership development for people working for community change, often beginning from outside the systems of power and possessing few resources. According to Campbell (n.d.), grassroots leaders benefit from leadership development that acknowledges their unique motivations, potential isolation and limited time and resources.

II. Conceptual and theoretical approaches to leadership development

The way in which leadership development is approached typically depends on which leadership theory the provider espouses and their understanding of the term leadership itself. Theories range from the concept of a classic “great man” who is born to lead to the idea that every individual is a leader who leads in their own way (Northouse, 2013). Theories can be categorized into three general approaches: leader-centric theories which place the individual at the core of leadership, relationship-focused theories which emphasize the dynamic that exists between leader and follower (and the situation in which this dynamic occurs), and leadership theories that look beyond individuals to recognize leadership in collectives and groups. Much of the content presented here is summarized from Northouse’s (2013) foundational text on leadership theories: *Leadership—Theory and Practice*.

a. Leader-Centric Theories

Most early leadership theories are leader-centric. Classic “great man” theories of leadership that emerged in the early 1900s focused on the traits that great leaders were born with (Northouse, 2013). From those first attempts to systematically study leadership, additional theories have emerged that, while still focused on an individual leader, emphasize the importance of different elements of leadership including skills, behaviors, charisma, authenticity, and ability to manage uncertainty and change.

Trait Theories

First developed in the early 20th century, trait approaches to leadership suggested that some individuals were “born with special traits that made them great leaders” (Northouse, 2013, p. 40; Gregoire, 2014). Leaders were differentiated from followers by the traits they exhibited. Much debate occurred throughout the 20th century about which traits were most important for leadership and whether these truly captured what it meant to be a leader. Recently, trait theories have seen a resurgence in literature

and there is general acceptance that many traits are important for leadership. The most commonly listed traits are: “intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability” in addition to the personality traits of extraversion, “conscientiousness, openness, low neuroticism, and agreeableness” (Northouse, 2013, p. 30). The concept of emotional intelligence has also gained traction as a trait critical to leadership (Northouse, 2013, p. 30).

Skills Theories

Skills approaches focus on leadership competencies. Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al. (2000) suggest that leadership is dependent on technical, human, and conceptual skills. Building from Katz’ 1955 research, skills theory evolved in the 1990s to articulate “five components of effective leader performance: competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental influences” (Northouse, 2013, p. 71). One benefit to the skills approach is that learned skills are seen as critical to understanding leadership effectiveness so leadership is accessible to anyone who masters specific skills (Northouse, 2013). Skills theories lend themselves to leadership development programs that help build skills of “creative problem solving, conflict resolution, listening, and teamwork,” but, as noted by Northouse (2013), the theory is “weak in predictive value” (p. 72).

Style Theories/Behavior Approaches

Unlike the skill and trait theories of leadership, style theories focus on demonstrated actions and behaviors. Within this understanding of leadership, behaviors are divided into two categories: task and relationship. The style approach is helpful in providing a framework for exploring leaders “concern for results and concern for people” and suggests that the ideal leader will have a high degree of concern for both the work and the people (Northouse, 2013, p. 95; Gregoire, 2014). Scholars developing style theories do not agree on universally preferred leadership characteristics, but the theory proposes a conceptual map for leaders to explore their own task and relationship styles (Northouse, 2013).

Psychodynamic Approaches (Personality-focused)

This approach focuses specifically on personality characteristics and is typically based on personality assessments and the idea that there are specific personality types which lend themselves to leadership. Leaders and followers are encouraged to become aware of their own personality types and strengths and challenges that are associated with that type. Leaders are encouraged to work with followers with knowledge of their own personality type as well as their followers’ personality type (Northouse, 2013).

Authentic Leadership

A relatively new leadership theory, authentic leadership recognizes the need for leaders that are genuine, self-aware, trustworthy, transparent, and grounded in morals (Northouse, 2013). Shamir and Elam (2005) suggest that authentic leadership can be fostered by developing a life-story, understanding one’s identity, values, and convictions, and pursuing goals and expressions that are consistent with these. Because authentic leadership is rooted in personal experience, it can be refined over time and developed. There is a need for additional research substantiating why positive psychological capacities are a part of authentic leadership as well as how ethics apply to authentic leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Adaptive Leadership

Adaptive leadership theory recognizes that contemporary leaders face complex and interrelated challenges. This reality is reflected in the findings of the SCC Leadership scan: “leaders are dealing with complex adaptive challenges that will require risk-taking, experimentation, and tackling real world issues in real time” (CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015, p. 41). Heifetz (2009) defines adaptive leadership

as the “practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive” (p. 14). Adaptive leadership requires that leaders are courageous, engage in the ongoing process of learning, make difficult decisions, and adopt an experimental mindset. Finally, adaptive leaders encourage those around them to deal with challenges they would prefer to avoid (Heifetz, 2009).

Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership argues that ethical character and ethical decision making skills are key to a leader’s effectiveness. As Bennis and Nanus argue, “managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing” (2003, p. 20). Leaders may face pressures to make decisions that may or may not align with their personal or organizational values. Leaders who know their values, practice aligning their mission and values, and communicate with stakeholder’s the ethical standards they are upholding, are more likely to make ethically sound decisions. This builds trust and fosters a positive perception of the organization and the sector.

Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership can be defined as “the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary” (Hoskisson, Hitt, et. al, 2013, p. 501). Strategic leadership theory recognizes the importance of management skills and positional leadership and fits well within traditional understandings of business management. The intended outcome of good strategic leadership is that a business or organization operates with a competitive advantage creates greater value, and achieves higher performance. Elements of effective strategic leadership include “ensuring that the firm is well-positioned economically, managing key resources, developing and maintaining effective relationships with key stakeholders, determining a strategic direction (which includes establishing values and ethical practices) overseeing the formulation and implementation of specific strategies, and establishing balanced organizational control systems” (Hoskisson, Hitt, et. al, 2013, p. 522).

b. Relationship & Situation Focused Theories

Many theories recognize that leadership depends on the relationship that exists between followers and leaders and the context within which that relationship occurs. Moving beyond the concept that leadership is a result of a single individual, relationship and situation focused theories of leadership recognize that different skills, traits, behaviors, and personalities will be needed depending on the situation and the individuals involved.

Contingency Theory

According to contingency theory, “effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader’s style to the right setting” (Northouse, 2013, p. 123). Fiedler pioneered contingency theory in 1964 and initiated a movement towards theories emphasizing the importance of context to leadership (Gregoire, 2014). Contingency theory uses a scale, the “Least Preferred Coworker” to assess worker motivation and suggests that there is an ideal style of leadership that should be adopted depending on positional leadership, the structure of tasks, and leader-member relations (Northouse, 2013).

Situational Approach

First conceived in 1969 by Hersey and Blanchard and refined by many scholars since, the situational approach theorizes that different situations will require different forms of leadership (McCleskey, 2014). Leadership styles are categorized on two axes: directive behavior and supportive behavior. The four leadership styles are delegating, supporting, coaching, and directing (Northouse, 2013). Depending on

which situation a leader faces, different behaviors are prescribed. According to this theory, effective leaders demonstrate flexibility and the ability to appropriately assess situations and followers' competence and commitment so that they can tailor their style to the situation (Northouse, 2013).

Path-Goal Theory

Path-Goal theory focuses on how leaders motivate followers to meet goals. The theory aims to increase employee satisfaction and performance/productivity through motivation. Employees are assumed to be motivated "if they feel competent, if they think their efforts will be rewarded, and if they find the payoff for their work valuable" and a leader can help to ensure this by selecting the appropriate leadership style. (Northouse, 2013, p. 157). The theory "predicts that directive leadership is effective with ambiguous tasks, that supportive leadership is effective for repetitive tasks, that participative leadership is effective when tasks are unclear and subordinates are autonomous, and that achievement-oriented leadership is effective for challenging tasks" (Northouse, 2013, p. 157).

Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory sees leadership as a process that occurs between leaders and followers. The theory has evolved since it was first introduced in the 1970s to conclude that when leaders and followers have high-quality interactions, organizations benefit. Assessment of whether subordinates are treated equally and communication between leaders and followers are critically important. Initially, the theory focused more on the idea that followers benefit if they belong to "in-groups" with leaders (Northouse, 2013).

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership theory views leadership as a transaction that occurs between individuals. In 1978 Burns wrote about the concept of transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional relationships between leaders and followers occur when both parties seek gratification and to maximize personal and organizational gain (McCleskey, 2014). The full range of leadership model suggests that some interactions are purely transactional where as others will require leaders to engage in transformational leadership as well (McCleskey, 2014).

Transformational & Charismatic Leadership

"Transformational leaders...are those who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity" (Bass & Riggio, 2015, p. 76). Bass and Riggio (2015) distinguish between transformational and transactional leaders. Unlike transactional leaders, who focus on exchanges (of time, money, goods, etc.) in their relationships, transformational leaders are interested in helping others achieve greater impact than they initially thought possible. The most effective transformational leader will utilize all leadership styles within the "Full Range Leadership Model," but relies most often on the four "I's:" Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2015). Both Bass (2003) and Fluker (2015) call on transformational leaders to exhibit courage in addition to displaying charisma, inspiring others to push their limits, calling for creative solutions, and demonstrating individual concern for followers.

Servant leadership

First developed by Greenleaf in the 1970s, servant leadership argues that true leaders seek to serve others before themselves. To determine if an individual exhibits servant leadership, Greenleaf asks, "do those 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?" (Greenleaf, 1988, p. 6) Servant leaders are concerned with creating meaningful change and working towards social justice (Northouse, 2013). They do not rely on institutional power and control and are aware of their own strengths and shortcomings. Scholars contend that servant leadership is not the preferred leadership style in every situation, but that it is an important concept as it prioritizes altruism and encourages leaders to cede power (Northouse, 2013).

c. Leadership as Beyond an Individual

While not as prolific as leadership models that focus on individuals, relationships, or situations, there is growing interest in leadership theories that conceptualize leadership as process that occurs beyond a defined leader/follower relationship. Leadership that occurs through group decisions or complex multi-individual dynamics requires a different theory than those presented above. In addition to collective leadership mentioned above, there are multiple approaches to highlight here:

Team/Collective/Shared Leadership

Wassenaar and Pearce (2012) define shared leadership as "a dynamic interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (p. 178). While theorists recognize that there may be a need for positional leadership in certain circumstances they argue that other circumstances require team leadership. Certain pre-conditions lend themselves to this leadership approach including: shared group values, organizational culture, perception of empowerment, longevity of relationships, and size of group (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2012). Proponents of shared leadership argue that it predicts team effectiveness, allows individuals to utilize their unique strengths, and can increase individual satisfaction and group confidence (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2012)

Feminist Leadership

Transformational Feminist Leadership, as presented by Batliwala (2014), argues that all development and social justice transformation must be based in an understanding of gender and social equality. This approach emphasizes the importance of organizational mechanisms as a method of ensuring fair power distribution. Feminist leadership recognizes the need for healing and intervention because many individuals are coping with internalized struggles. These struggles are deeply rooted in historical and personal experiences" which often stem from "violent and oppressive structures and injustices" (Batliwala, 2014, p. 10). Feminist leadership involves developing a better awareness of oneself through which one understands relationships with others (Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016). The aim of feminist leadership is to support empowerment and inclusion and to recognize that organizations benefit from diversity and equity (Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016). Northouse (2013) discusses the gender gap that exists in positional leadership and concludes that the prejudice explanation is strongly supported. Although there are differences in some traits commonly displayed by men and women in leadership, those differences do not advantage one gender over the other.

Complexity Leadership

A relatively new leadership theory, complexity theory developed in response to traditional leadership models not fitting contemporary organizational and leadership challenges. Complexity theory describes leadership as "a complex interactive dynamic that promotes the emergence of adaptive outcomes (learning, innovation, adaptability)" (Uhl-Bien, Marion, McKelvey, 2007, p. 298). Based on complexity

science, complexity theory emphasizes three interconnected leadership roles: adaptive leadership, administrative leadership, and enabling leadership. The theory focuses on interconnections and dynamics that exist as a result of complex systems (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2011).

Inclusive Leadership

Inclusive leadership is the practice of leadership that intentionally includes the voices of a wide variety of stakeholders in the community or within the organization. Inclusion, within this context of leadership, means inviting and valuing the contributions of diverse voices. Bourke and Dillon (2016) offer six traits of inclusive leaders: commitment, courage, cognizance of bias, curiosity, cultural intelligence, and collaboration. Competencies developed through leadership development

III. Leadership Competencies

Discussions around leadership development and effective leadership often include a list of desirable leader characteristics or competencies. Discussions of leadership competencies grew out of the idea of “managerial competencies” which developed in the 1970s (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). Despite the popularity of the concept of leadership competencies, scholars do not agree on an exhaustive list of competencies. Each theory and method of leadership development prioritizes different competencies. Depending on the way in which competencies are approached, they may be seen as a minimum baseline or as an aspirational goal (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). It is possible for competencies to be focused on an organization, but more often they describe an individual’s traits, skills, behaviors, and personality. Organizations typically rely on competencies for employee assessment and training, for evaluation, or “as a means of articulating corporate values and objectives” (Bolden & Gosling, 2006, p. 152).

Bolden and Gosling (2006) question the assumption that competencies are a useful concept in leadership development and assessment. They argue that a competency approach offers “an illusory promise to rationalize and simplify the processes of selecting, measuring and developing leaders, yet only reflects a fragment of the complexity that is leadership and tend to neglect the ethical, emotional, relational and collective elements of leadership (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). As an alternative, Buckingham (2001) suggests that organizations should encourage diversity and recognize that different leaders can develop different competencies that will lead them to similar successful outcomes. Petrie (2014), who also recognizes problems with programs that focus on competencies, recommends more of a focus on vertical leadership which promotes adult cognitive development.

a. Knowledge Based Competencies

The Nonprofit Academic Centers Council (2015) presents curricular guidelines for the graduate and undergraduate study of nonprofit leadership and philanthropy. These guidelines represent an academic competency approach to leadership development that includes both technical management skills and relational leadership-specific competencies. The broad curricular guidelines for graduate study are presented below:

1. Comparative Global Perspectives on the Nonprofit Sector, Voluntary Action and Philanthropy
2. Scope and Significance of the Nonprofit Sector, Voluntary Action and Philanthropy
3. History and Theories of the Nonprofit Sector, Voluntary Action and Philanthropy
4. Ethics and Values
5. Nonprofit Governance and Leadership
6. Public Policy, Advocacy and Social Change

7. Nonprofit Law
8. Nonprofit Economics
9. Nonprofit Finance
10. Fundraising and Resource Development
11. Financial Management and Accountability
12. Leadership, Management, Innovation and Entrepreneurship
13. Nonprofit Human Resource Management
14. Nonprofit Marketing and Communications
15. Information Technology, Social Media and Data Management
16. Assessment, Evaluation and Decision-Making Methods

These guidelines emphasize developing an understanding of the operational side of nonprofit organizations. There are two areas that specifically focus on leadership capacities. Within the ethics and values section, the Nonprofit Academic Centers Council (2015) recommends exploring the “values embodied in philanthropy and voluntary action, such as, trust, stewardship, service, voluntarism, civic engagement, shared common good, freedom of association and social justice” (p. 11). Under “Leadership, Management, Innovation and Entrepreneurship” they further recommend studying the “role of nonprofit leaders in generating new ideas and innovative strategies to meet societal needs that includes incubating and implementing new forms of organization” (Nonprofit Academic Centers Council, 2015, p. 15).

The Nonprofit Leadership Alliance also offers nonprofit management and leadership competencies ensure that certified students are meeting equivalent learning outcomes as part of a Certified Nonprofit Professional (CNP) credential. The mission of the Nonprofit Leadership Alliance is to strengthen the social sector with a talented and prepared workforce. The Certified Nonprofit Professional (CNP) credential is available through the Alliance’s network of 40 universities and colleges.

1. Communication, Marketing and Public Relations
2. Cultural Competency and Diversity
3. Financial Resource Development and Management
4. Foundations & Management of the Nonprofit Sector
5. Governance, Leadership and Advocacy
6. Legal and Ethical Decision Making
7. Personal and Professional Development
8. Program Development
9. Volunteer and Human Resource Management
10. Future of the Nonprofit Sector

b. Universal Positive Leader Attributes

To date, the most comprehensive study aiming to identify positive leader attributes that apply across cultures was the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior (GLOBE) research (Muenich & Williams, 2013). The GLOBE research aimed to identify which leader attributes applied in all cultures and which were culturally specific. After studying 62 societies, the GLOBE researchers concluded that there are twenty-two universal positive leader attributes: trustworthy, just, honest, foresight, plans ahead, encouraging, positive, dynamic, motive arouser, confidence builder, motivational, dependable,

intelligent, decisive, effective bargainer, win-win problem solver, administratively skilled, communicative, informed, coordinator, team builder, and excellence oriented (Hoppe, 2007; Muenich & Williams, 2013).

Muenich and Williams (2013) explored whether these leadership attributes are taught to American leadership students as part of the curriculum at Texas A&M University and concluded that “Transformational and Charismatic leadership theories ... are universally endorsed theories, while behavioral leadership, task and relationship competencies, are not considered important for westernized leadership” (p. 45). Based on this finding the authors ask an important question: “should leadership programs focus more on global leadership theories and competencies?” (Muenich & Williams, 2013, p. 45).

c. Group Competencies/Learning Organizations

As highlighted by Bolden and Gosling (2006), several problems exist with leadership development models that are dependent on leadership competencies. There is a need for additional research on leadership competencies when leadership is conceptualized as a group endeavor that operates in a complex environment. Several authors studying collective leadership emphasize the importance of how groups make meaning together and of each group member’s self-awareness (Bolden and Gosling, 2006; Sugiyama, Cavanagh & van Esch, 2016; Batiwala and Friedman, 2014) Leadership development methods that focus on collective leadership development have begun to explore group competencies and the W. K. Kellogg foundation (2007) presents a framework in which every stage of development depends on four elements of collective leadership: knowing the community, building a strong team, developing the individual, and making the change. These elements of collective leadership are required for groups to move from the stage of trust building to co-constructing purpose/strategic plan, to acting together and finally to deepening and sustaining their work as a way of life (W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 2007).

While not explicitly a group competency model, another way to think about effective group leadership is through the concept of learning organizations. Peter Senge pioneered the idea in the 1990’s and suggested that to adapt and thrive in the face of uncertainty, organizations must exhibit certain characteristics (Garvin Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). First, organizations need a supportive learning environment which includes psychological safety, appreciation of differences, openness to new ideas, and time for reflection (Garvin Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). Second, learning organizations develop a concrete learning processes in which experimentation, information collection, analysis, education/training, and information transfer are encouraged (Garvin Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). Finally learning organizations having individual leaders that reinforce and prioritize learning (Garvin Edmondson, & Gino, 2008). It could be productive to further explore the ways in which the literature on organizational learning can contribute to discussions about group leadership competencies.

IV. Current & Emerging Conversations

Beyond leadership development techniques, theories, and competencies, the current academic literature on leadership development points to several emerging discussions which warrant mention:

a. Justice-Based Leadership Models

Strategic social change leadership is relatively new framework that emerged from extensive research with social change organizations, including local nonprofit groups engaged in grassroots efforts to harness the collective power of constituents to participate in social action and effect change (Ospina,

2012). Key principles that guide this framework are the value of social justice, working assumptions that include the recognition of structural inequality, and a focus on redressing systemic inequality.

b. Racial Leadership Gap

The well-documented lack of racial diversity that exists in positional leadership in nonprofit organizations continues to be critical to the field of leadership development (Thomas-Breitfeld & Kunreuther, 2017), and require an intentional focus on racial bias, power and decision-making in leadership development.

c. 70-20-10 Model

Many authors and leadership development programs have adopted a 70/20/10 learning model in which they believe that leaders develop best if seventy percent of their learning is experiential (or through stretch assignments), twenty percent is through coaching/mentoring, and ten percent is skill development (Petrie, 2014; Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015; Shepherd, 2014; Bridgespan Group, 2012). This model is based on an understanding of how adults learn and grow and has been clearly articulated by the Center for Creative Leadership and adopted by companies such as American Express and the YMCA (Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015; CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, 2015).

d. Vertical vs. Horizontal Leadership Development

The terms “vertical” and “horizontal” have been used by authors in many ways in leadership research. Recently, there has been more discussion about the importance of vertical leadership development which aims to address the need for leaders to develop adaptability, self-awareness, boundary spanning abilities, collaboration, and network thinking (Petrie, 2014). In this framework, vertical leadership development—which must be earned by the leader—is distinct from “horizontal” development which focuses on capacities and skills which can be taught (Petrie, 2014). Vertical leadership development occurs when there is a cognitive shift and a leader moves through a cognitive developmental stage. Kegan proposes that the ideal leader will begin with a socialized mind, advance to a self-authoring mind, and finally develop a self-transforming mind (Petrie, 2014). The SCC Leadership Scan notes that “successful leadership development programs tend to blend traditional horizontal competencies with the vertical development of leaders” (CompassPoint, 2015, p. 14)

e. Tie Leadership Development to Strategic Plans: Recruitment & Succession Planning

While it is rarely explicitly discussed, one gap in leadership development seems to be a failure to create pipelines for young professionals to develop and grow into positional leadership. Two deficiencies are often cited in the literature as concerns: the need for recruitment that includes an equity and inclusion lens and the need for deliberate succession planning (Williams & Lindsey 2011; Bridgespan Group, 2012; Landles-Cobb, Kramer & Milway, 2015). Taken together, both deficits point to a need to tie leadership development to organizational strategic plans. If organizations prioritize leadership development as a process that begins with inclusive recruitment and ends with succession planning, fewer organizations will find themselves in a position of panic because they cannot identify their next CEO or Executive Director. If leadership development is part of an organization’s long-term plan rather than a short-term or reactive endeavor, it will help to address some of the chronic issues faced by the nonprofit sector.

f. Resource Library/Open Source Materials

There is a call in some leadership development circles for additional resources to be made available through an open source format. The Leadership Learning Community (2010), for example, recommends

providing “those engaged in leadership of organizations, networks, and communities with access to tools and resources that support them in making racial justice a conscious part of planning and decision-making in their leadership work” (p. 8). Examples of this approach can be found in the W. K. Kellogg Foundation’s *Collective Leadership Framework: A Workbook for Cultivating and Sustaining Community Change* (2007) and in CREA’s *Achieving Transformative Feminist Leadership: A Toolkit for Organizations and Movements* (Batiwala and Friedman, 2014). Both resources are available online to the public at no charge. These types of resources are critical to consider, particularly when targeting populations that live in rural areas and have limited financial resources and therefore fewer facilitated leadership development opportunities.

g. Alternative Organizational Forms

An important emerging conversation includes the impact of new organizational forms. Emerging from concerns about complexity and uncertainty, and critiques of traditional hierarchies within social change organizations, scholars and practitioners are exploring distributed leadership, holacracy, and self-directed organizations (Robertson, 2015; Mont, 2017). These new organizational forms will require new leadership competencies, and require leadership development programs to center new approaches, skills and experiences.

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