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WISDOM PAPER

A NEW MODEL OF LEADERSHIP-AS-PRACTICE DEVELOPMENT FOR CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS

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Leveraging leadership capability is a critical challenge for contemporary organizations. Yet leadership development (LD) remains problematic because the existing multibillion-dollar leadership industry fails to deliver results. This paper contends that the underlying reason for this precarious state of affairs is that current approaches to LD are out of sync with our changing world. To address this problem, this paper offers a new model of "leadership-as-practice development" for consulting psychologists and organizational development (OD) practitioners. The paper provides a rationale for the need for the model based on extant literature, and consulting anecdotal evidence. The paper's position statement is presented by outlining definitions, assumptions, and perspective. An overview of the evolution of leadership models is discussed with an emphasis on, and critique of, the competency movement and the use of competency-based models as the main approach to LD. Moreover, and taking a practice orientation, the theoretical foundations of the model, which identifies and integrates three components and 42 elements, is described and discussed. Various case examples are presented. Finally, the paper recognizes the limitations of the model and offers recommendations on how to address these.

What's It Mean? Implications for Consulting Psychology

This paper explains why the existing multibillion-dollar leadership development (LD) industry fails to deliver results, while leveraging leadership capability is a critical challenge for contemporary organizations. To address this problem, and drawing on the legacy of social psychology, group dynamics, and the latest perspectives on leadership, this paper offers a new model of 'Leadership-as-Practice Development' (LaPD) for consulting psychologists and organizational development (OD) practitioners to bring the LD industry back on track.

Keywords: adaptive leadership, leadership development, leadership-as-practice development

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The premise that the world is experiencing a leadership crisis is shared by both academics and practitioners (French, 2016; Walsh, Meyer, & Schoonhoven, 2006). Leadership development (LD), in particular, remains problematic as the existing multibillion-dollar leadership industry fails to deliver results (Conger & Ready, 2003; Gurdjian, Halbeisen, & Lane, 2014; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013; Kellerman, 2004; Pfeffer, 2015; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Probert & Turnbull James, 2011). In 2014, 86% of the world's 1,500 foremost global experts agreed that we are experiencing a leadership crisis ("Outlook on the Global Agenda 2015," 2015); while in 2018 in the United States only 13% of employees believed that their leaders display moral leadership (Seidman, 2018). Not surprisingly, the LD industry has been labeled as "The Great Training Robbery" (Beer, Finnström, & Schrader, 2016). At the same time, leveraging leadership capability remains a critical challenge for contemporary organizations (Day & Dragoni, 2015). As a practitioner who has designed and delivered LD programs for over two decades, I can attest to the above observations. I also believe that, as a community of practitioners and as an industry, we can do better. In this paper, I explain how.

The following two examples are the types of questions those responsible for procuring and implementing LD initiatives in their organizations are asking themselves:

1. How well equipped are we to respond to the future that is unfolding in front of us?
2. We do not know how long we can keep up the pace at which we are working on change! What kind of LD do we need to increase the likelihood that our leaders can keep up with and work in change?

The following e-mail, sent by the General Manager of Capability and Leadership, an organization with around 30,000 employees and revenues of well over $20 billion per year, to her network, is an example of how most senior executives talk about their commitment to change the culture of their organization, to break down silos and hierarchies, to boost employee engagement, to enhance inclusion and diversity, and to build capability:

> We have moved to an Agile way of working. As a result, we have a new leadership expectation and I need to develop new leadership solutions and development experiences for what is a VERY different way of leading . . . and co-create development interventions that could help our leaders move to a much more empowered leadership focused on team.

As noted by White and Shullman (2010), experience and research keep revealing new modes of leadership that challenge consulting psychologists. LD that has moved us beyond the once-held notion that leaders are born, suggesting that flexibility and receptiveness to new ideas are critical. The purpose of the present paper is to contribute to the practice of consulting psychology and the evolutionary concept of LD by offering a new model of leadership-as-practice development (LaPD) which will benefit LD and organizational development (OD) practitioners. Taking a process consultation (PC; Schein, 1999) and reflective practitioner perspective (Schön, 1987), and grounded in social psychology (Lewin, 1943), organizational learning theory (Argyris & Schön, 1978) and pragmatism (Dewey, 1950), as well as building on the existing relevant work in consulting psychology, this paper aims to assist consulting psychologists and OD practitioners to work more efficiently and effectively with their clients.

Definitions, Assumptions, and Perspective

To begin, given the plethora of definitions of leadership and LD, and the many perspectives that can be taken to address this topic, the definitions, assumptions, and perspective adopted by this paper are outlined as follows.

Leadership and Management

Leadership is a highly contextualized phenomenon (Hamilton & Bean, 2005; Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta, 2009). Context is the milieu, circumstances, conditions, or environment—physical, social, or economic—in which leadership arises and is observed (Liden & Antonakis, 2009). As the context changes, to be effective, leadership also has to change and be embedded in its context (Osborn & Marion, 2009). Yet, organizational context, as a major factor impacting leadership behavior and outcomes, has been identified as a neglected area in both leadership research (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006) and practice (Gurdjian et al., 2014).

We live in a constantly changing world with unprecedented economic conditions (Perrott, 2011), volatile ecosystems, and emerging sectors that have altered industry boundaries, all of which have affected ordinary organizational life (Meyer, Gaba, & Colwell, 2005). This has given rise to high velocity working environments (Bogner & Barr, 2000) that are inherently turbulent (Lichtenthaler, 2009). Turbulence refers to "the amount of change and complexity in the environment of an industry" (Kipley, Lewis, & Jewe, 2012, p. 251) created by constantly changing economic conditions (Perrott, 2011). Furthermore, the new context is characterized by disruption, unpredictability, constant ambiguity, interconnectedness, and multiple stakeholder perspectives (Berger, 2011). Borrowed from the United States military (Whiteman, 1998), the acronym "VUCA" (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity; Bennett & Lemoine, 2014) has become popular in recent years to describe these turbulent conditions. Hence, organizations must constantly adapt to the new context in order to survive and succeed. DeRue (2011) views leadership as "a socially complex and 'adaptive' process that is not constrained by traditional hierarchies and is thus very suited to modern progressive ways of working" (p. 125).

Based on the foregoing discussion, this paper subscribes to Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky's (2009) definition of adaptive leadership as "the practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive" (p. 14). This is a "distributed leadership" approach, in that it assumes that leadership can be displayed by people across an organization, not only by those in positions of authority or in management roles. The choice to espouse adaptive leadership is consistent with Kaiser and Overfield's (2010) remark that "leadership is vital to organizational adaptability" (p. 105) and Nelson, Zaccaro, and Herman's (2010) claim that "adaptability has become increasingly important to leaders at all organizational levels as the nature of work grows in complexity, change, and ambiguity" (p. 131). Postmodern organizations are adaptive systems that need to match the complexity of their environment to survive (Boisot & McKelvey, 2010). Adaptive capacity relates to the overall ability of individuals, groups, and organizations or systems to adjust to, cope with the consequences of, and prevent or mitigate the potential damage of change by taking advantage of opportunities. This, in turn, requires the ability to facilitate the process of adaptive team performance with the aim of achieving team adaptation by (a) identifying and understanding contextual changes, (b) implementing and reviewing plans, and (c) learning from their execution to be better prepared in the future (Shawn Burke, Hess, & Salas, 2006). Successful adaptations enable organizations to thrive in challenging contexts or new environments (Heifetz et al., 2009).

From this perspective, while distinct, leadership and management complement each other within a broad system of action. Management (authority) is used to address "technical" problems or challenges—those which are easy to identify and well defined, and can be solved by applying well-known solutions or the knowledge of experts. Leadership, on the contrary, addresses "adaptive" challenges—those which are difficult to define, have no known or clear-cut solutions and call for new ideas to bring about change in numerous places that involve many stakeholders (Heifetz et al., 2009). An equivalent distinction is that between "tame" and "wicked" problems (Churchman, 1967; Rittel & Webber, 1973). Tame problems are those that we have experienced before and for which we have a known solution (e.g., building a submarine or conducting a liver transplant). Wicked problems, on the contrary—like adaptive challenges—are ill-formulated, always occur in a social context, have complex interdependencies and innumerable causes, are difficult to recognize, change constantly, involve many stakeholders with different values and agendas, have no known solutions, and often are symptoms of other problems (e.g., poverty, terrorism, public policy, organizational strategy and change; Grint, 2005). In essence, adaptive or wicked challenges cannot be solved with the existing repertoire of skills or modus operandi. Hence, when organizations attempt to address such problems, they uncover a gap between their current capacity and that actually needed to do so effectively. According to Ludwig (2001), the era of management is over because, when confronted with complex problems, such a paradigm fails.

LD

This paper endorses the broad definition of LD as a community or organizational development process (Barker, 1994). More specifically, LD relates to the growth of the organization's collective capacity to generate and sustain three critical outcomes: direction, alignment, and commitment (Palus, McGuire, & Ernst, 2012). From this perspective, LD is relational (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Uhl-Bien, 2006), collaborative (Rost, 1993), and collective and pragmatic, while advocating democratic values (Raelin, 2011).

Perspective

This paper contends that a significant contributing factor in the precarious state of affairs of the LD industry is that current LD approaches remain rooted in obsolete, individualistic paradigms. By and large, organizations cannot see the forest for the trees (Salicru, 2017) and they require a new pair of glasses to read the new context for leadership. "As work itself is changing, some of the basic tenets of leadership development are being challenged" (Jesuthasan & Holmstrom, 2016, p. 1). As part of the call for a rethink of leadership and LD, leadership and LD as a collective practice is advocated (Raelin, 2015). The sections that follow elaborate on this perspective.

Leadership Versus LD

The distinction between leadership and LD is an important one. As highlighted by Leonard (2017), while leadership relates to the process and practice of achieving results, LD relates to the pedagogical processes—theory and methods—of teaching leadership which use pedagogical principles such as inductive methods, inquiry and self-discovery strategies; opportunities for real-world practice, real-time feedback, and debriefing; and participant accountability. Similarly, Ganz and Lin (2011) assert that "leadership is the practice of accepting responsibility to enable others to achieve shared purpose under conditions of uncertainty . . . and is learned experientially, combining heart, head, hands or . . . being, knowing, and doing" (p. 354). Furthermore, Berkovich (2014) critiques the dominant functionalist approach to LD by saying that current LD approaches are overly concerned and fascinated with "techniques," while pedagogy is more concerned with the relational learning interaction that inevitably takes place in the context of coconstructed meaning. LD, then, is a complex learning process (Leonard, 2017) which uses a critical transformative pedagogy and learning theory that leads learners to "a new way of seeing" (Brown, 2004, p. 97).

Leader Versus LD

Sadly, and despite their rhetoric, many organizations find shifting this leadership paradigm is extremely difficult, and they continue to use highly romanticized implicit models of leadership (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985). The vast majority of LD models used by organizations are based on competency frameworks focusing on developing personal characteristics (e.g., traits, personality, styles, behaviors, or competencies). Such approaches assume that the sources of leadership reside in those individuals in positions of authority (Denyer & Turnbull James, 2016), for example, competent managers (Boyatzis, 1982). They are consistent with the notion of "leader development" (Day, 2000) or the development of "human capital" (Day & Dragoni, 2015) and thus advocate the "Lone Ranger" or "John Wayne" image of leadership (Rost, 1993). This is the legacy of the "great man theory" of the 19th-century which believes in heroes who shape history through their individual attributes and divine inspiration (Carlyle, 1888). Such approaches to leadership are out of sync with our changing world and represent "the fallacy of misplaced leadership" (Wood, 2005, p. 1101). Gronn (2000) contends that this "leader-centric" type of thinking exaggerates the leader's sense of agency, and labels it the "belief in the power of one" (p. 319).

From a practitioner's perspective, Pasternack, Williams, and Anderson (2001) refer to this belief as "the inadequacy of personalized leadership" (p. 70) to denote the acts of solo performance by charismatic CEOs which promote the "Cult of the CEO" (p. 68) and provide unstable and short-term business leadership as opposed to leaving a legacy of "institutional leadership capacity"—a true strategic asset. Similarly, Burke (2018) highlights that OD practitioners' strong focus on leader development represents a "headwind for OD" (p. 200). Furthermore, Burke (2018) is also a critic of what he refers to as the "cult of personality" (p. 200). He states that leadership researchers have neglected investigating "how leaders influence organizational functioning and performance and instead focused on who leaders are" (p. 200) and their career advancement, using personality assessment.

LD, on the contrary, is a collective activity which entails developing and improving the relationships of groups and networks working together, also referred to as "social capital" (Mc-Callum & O'Connell, 2009) thus aiming to break down the company "silos" that many managers complain about as being obstacles to a customer-focused culture (Gulati, 2007). This is because "leadership solves the problem of how to organize collective effort; consequently, it is the key to organizational effectiveness" (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005, p. 169). Typically, however, LD programs pay insufficient attention to the interpersonal and social aspects of the organization (Lynham, 2000). As highlighted by Schein and Schein (2018), this relational dimension of leadership is "too often ignored by the mainstream of 'leadership development' which emphasizes the special skills required for individual leadership excellence" (p. 125), as opposed to viewing interpersonal and group dynamics as the centerpiece of LD. Similarly, Petrie (2011) argues that a transition from the old, individual-focused and elitist paradigm of LD to a new one, of leadership as a collective process, is required. However, shifting paradigms is difficult, because many organizations experience an insidious and pervasive fixation with competency-based models.

Competency-Based LD

The competency movement was pioneered by psychologist David McClelland, who in the 1970s identified the specific competencies required to perform a particular job effectively in a specific organizational setting (as cited in Hogan & Kaiser, 2005, p. 172). Competency management blossomed in the United States and the United Kingdom due to the need for more efficient and effective managers during declines in international competitiveness. Competencies became the solution, given that they offer a very convenient way to codify the required behaviors for particular jobs. Competency management also spread rapidly into public management throughout the 1990s. Prompted by both the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and the management consultancy industry, the competency movement is well-established today (Horton, 2000). According to Conger and Ready (2004), the main benefits of competency models are that they offer clarity, consistency, and connectivity. In addition, continue the authors, despite their limitations of being complicated, conceptual, and built around current realities, as well as the fact that they are based on an idealized notion of leadership (the image of the universal, best-in-class leader who is able to succeed in all contexts), "competencies are not obsolete" (Conger & Ready, 2004, p. 46) and "leadership competency models are here to stay" (Conger & Ready, 2004, p. 47).

However, as noted by Hogan and Kaiser (2005), unlike management—which considers that the incumbent of position (a manager) is in charge of an area or organizational function—leadership is not a position. In fact, as the same authors point out, leadership can be conceived as "an adaptive solution to the problem of coordinating collective effort" (p. 218). Leadership, above all, is about achieving results (Leonard, 2017; Salicru, 2017) by building and maintaining organizational performance relative to the competition (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). While competencies are necessary building blocks of leadership, they should not be confused with (a) leadership itself (Hannah, Lord, & Pearce, 2011; Leonard, 2017; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010), (b) leadership strategies—the plans for achieving goals and objectives (Leonard, 2017), or (c) organizational leadership capability—the dynamic capability resulting from the collective and interrelated qualities of processes, systems, and structures that are embedded in the organization (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2010). Kevin Cashman, CEO and Executive Development at Korn Ferry, makes the point that leaders need to challenge themselves by moving beyond competencies by saying that "competencies get us to the doorway of leadership . . . but character is what gets us through the doorway of leadership" (Cashman, 2014, 0:17).

Leadership entails much more than behaviors, and while competency models have taught us a great deal about leadership, the time has come to move toward a more holistic approach (Ruderman, Clerkin, & Connolly, 2014). Competency-based models are highly structured. Leadership in real life is less clear cut, being much more fluid, dynamic, and chaotic. Hence competencies limit the full picture of leadership as a truly social and relational phenomenon (Carroll, Levy, & Richmond, 2008; Ruderman et al., 2014). From this perspective, accepting the colonization of leadership by such a distinctly managerial concept as the competency paradigm is particularly problematic, inappropriate, and misplaced (Carroll et al., 2008). This is in line with Barker's (2001) claim that leader-centered approaches are reductionistic and limit the true nature of leadership. As Bolden and Gosling (2006) state:

> the competency approach to leadership could be conceived of as a repeating refrain that continues to offer an illusory promise to rationalise and simplify the processes of selecting, measuring and developing leaders yet only reflects a fragment of the complexity that is leadership. (p. 147)

Considering the foregoing discussion, it is not surprising that only 7% of organizations feel that they have a best-in-class leadership development programs (Harvard Business School, 2016).

Postheroic Models of Leadership

Postheroic models of leadership have emerged as a response to the evolving nature of work, leaving behind models from the industrial era defined by mechanistic thinking and command and control authoritarian systems, and giving rise to new approaches better suited to the current knowledge-intensive economy (Fletcher, 2004). These include the emergence of relational models of leadership (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Uhl-Bien, 2006), shared leadership (Pearce, 2004; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2008), and collective leadership (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012; Cullen, Palus, Chrobot-Mason, & Appaneal, 2012; Cullen-Lester & Yammarino, 2016). "Pluralistic leadership" is an umbrella term that encompasses collective, collaborative, shared, distributed, and emergent models of leadership (Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012) and which addresses the need to distribute the responsibilities and practices of leadership up, down, and across the organization by reexamining "by whom," "where," and "how" leadership is provided (Fletcher, 2004).

Incorporating these traditions, the leadership-as-practice (L-A-P) movement represents the latest expression of this evolution in leadership models (Raelin, 2017).

The L-A-P Movement

The L-A-P movement views leadership as an occurring practice rather than dwelling on the characteristics or behaviors of certain individuals (Raelin, 2016b) thus conceptualizing leadership as a "collaborative agency" (Raelin, 2016a). "Leaderful practice" is a derivative of L-A-P which, from a more practical perspective, embodies the democratic values enacted by actors exercising leadership concurrently and collectively (Raelin, 2011). Denyer and Turnbull James (2016) were the first authors to offer four guiding principles for L-A-P development (LaPD). Building on their work, informed by approaches consistent with consulting psychology and the L-A-P philosophy, and taking a practice orientation, the next section offers a full model for LaPD which integrates 42 elements distributed within three sequential components.

An Integrated L-A-P Development Model of Theory and Practice

Practice informed by theory distinguishes professional practice by expanding the conceptualization of clients' problems, assisting the organization of data, and providing direction for effective interventions (Berlin & Marsh, 1993). Taking a practice orientation relates to the capacity to put lived experience into words in such a way that researchers engage with what Whittington (2004) refers to as "managers' real problems" (p. 62), and with what Chia (2004) terms "the scene of everyday action" (p. 30). This is consistent with Denyer and Turnbull James' (2016) "Principle 3: Working in the learners' context on their organizational problems and adaptive challenges" (p. 266).

Three overarching questions guided the development of the LaPD model: (a) what are the unique features and benefits of L-A-P?; (b) what are the outcomes, benefits, and results this model is expected to deliver to the end users?; and (c) what types of evidence-based methods, consistent with consulting psychology, the L-A-P philosophy, and leaderful practice, can best deliver the model's intended outcomes and results? These three questions represent each of the three macro-components of the model. For practical purposes, they are depicted in a different sequence in the final model. The answers to the three questions generated the 42 microelements of the model. Figure 1 depicts the full model.

Features

Leaderful practice comprises four operating tenets referred to as the Four Cs (concurrent, collective, collaborative, and compassionate; Raelin, 2003). In this context, I introduce an additional "C" ("cocreative"). I propose cocreative with a double meaning, as "adjective" and as "verb" (i.e., as "cocreat[iv]e"): first, cocreative as adjective, as being novel, original, or unique; second, cocreate as verb, as a way for people working collaboratively to create something new to them and for their benefit. The rationale for introducing this term is based on the following account provided by Raelin (2005):

> Then, all of sudden, some member offers an idea, typically not a mainstream idea but one that has an immediate appeal, which engages the community's imagination. Soon, everyone begins throwing out additional thoughts and tactics to build on the original idea. (p. 22)

Therefore, I refer to the Five Cs of the LaPD model as follows: (a) concurrent—leadership can take place by people at the same time (this is perhaps the most radical proposition), thus no one depends on one individual or authority; (b) collaborative—anyone can speak for the whole team/organization and advocate a point of view that they believe can contribute to the common good; (c) collective—leadership can be practiced by the group, not just by individuals mobilizing action or making decisions on behalf of others; (d) compassionate—everyone is committed to

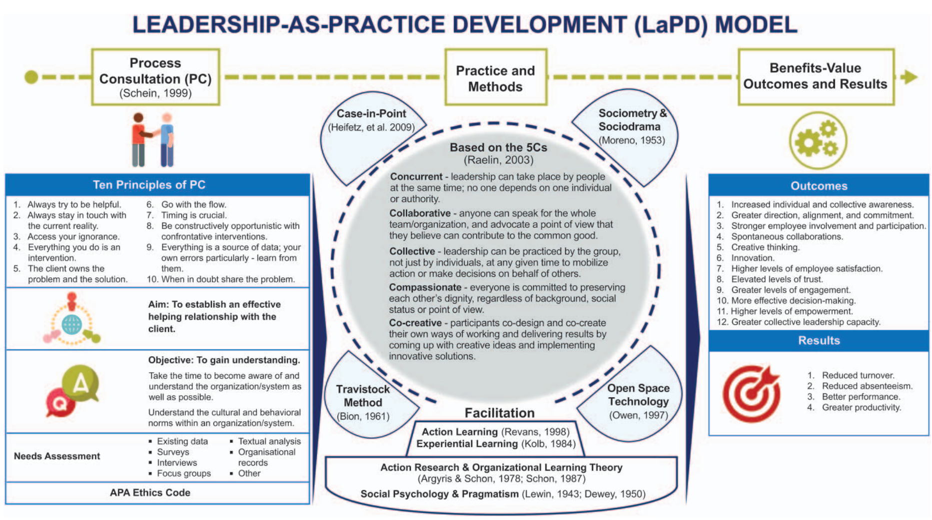

Figure 1. Leadership-as-practice development (LaPD) model.

preserving each other's dignity, regardless of background, social status, or point of view; and (e) cocreative—participants design and cocreate their own ways of working and delivering results, and do so by coming up with creative ideas and implementing innovative solutions.

Value, Benefits, Outcomes, and Results

This component refers to the overall value and benefits offered to the end users by the LaPD model, as identified in the model. As a highly subjective concept, however, value may also depend on the agreed contract between the client and the consulting psychologist. In this context, value is defined broadly as the client's "perception of net benefits gained in exchange for the costs incurred in obtaining the desired benefits" (Chen & Dubinsky, 2003, p. 324). In reference to benefits, this component could be thought of as equivalent to Kaplan and Norton's (1992) balanced scorecard which takes a holistic view on performance measures from three perspectives: customers, internal business processes, and learning and growth. In relation to outcomes and results, in line with the collective philosophical underpinning of LaPD, this component of the model aligns with, or is equivalent to, the second category of leadership criteria provided by Kaiser, Hogan, and Craig (2008) which views group performance as a unit of analysis and measurement. More specifically, this third component conceptualizes two distinct categories: outcomes and results. The "outcomes" category relates to the more proximal or immediate benefits resulting from implementing the practices and methods of the model (e.g., increased collective awareness or elevated levels of trust). While such outcomes are usually subjective, intangible or invisible, they have an impact on more distal benefits which are objective, tangible, and quantifiable (e.g., reduced turnover or greater productivity), and referred to as "results" in the LaPD model. They are sources of competitive advantage which need to be to identified, measured, and controlled to ensure the delivery of value (García-Ayuso, 2003). To clarify, this terminology is not exactly the same as that used in Kaiser et al.'s (2008) taxonomy where outcomes is referred to as "Process ('How did the team play?')" and results as "Outcomes ('Did the team win or lose?')" (p. 100). Other authors, and in various industries, refer to the intangible or invisible outcomes as "leading" indicators (e.g., trust and commitment generated by the team dynamics), and to the tangible or measurable results as "lagging" indicators (e.g., productivity and financial measures; Nogeste & Walker, 2005).

The outcomes and results of the model are as follows. As alluded to earlier, leadership constitutes social interactions and leads to specific pragmatic outcomes, and LD is the growth of a collective capacity to produce direction, alignment, and commitment (Drath et al., 2008). This latter is "because of its focus on agentic relationships" (Raelin, 2011, p. 203), and social outcomes such as spontaneous collaborations (Gronn, 2002). Similarly, practitioners and managers, the clients or end users of the model, think in terms of benefits (e.g., achieving goals, objectives, outcomes, and results) in order to deal with the problems, challenges, or practical realities of their organizational life (Odiorne, 1966). Leaderful practices within organizations can impact the bottom line either directly or indirectly. This can include the bottom-line savings and increases in performance and productivity resulting from the reduced rates of employee turnover and absenteeism which are likely to occur following the sense of fair treatment and empowerment felt by employees enjoying leaderful practices (Raelin, 2005). Furthermore, Nair (1996) refers to the elevated levels of trust resulting from people learning to count on each other. Moreover, Miller and Monge (1986) point out the benefits related to more effective decision making by employees as a result of their increased levels of satisfaction and productivity in participative working climates, such as leaderful conditions. A final example relates to the genuineness inspired by leaderful practices which enables employees to "bring their whole person to work" (Raelin, 2005, p. 27).

Practice and Methods

Practice and methods refers to the consulting stance and various modalities or practical approaches that are capable of delivering the outcomes and benefits outlined above, and that are consistent with the L-A-P philosophy and pedagogy. This is in line with Denyer and Turnbull James' (2016) "Principle 2: Surfacing and working with leadership process, practices, and interactions" (p. 265).

The various methods selected for the model are based on the foundations of action research and organizational learning theory (Argyris, 1985; Argyris & Schön, 1978; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1987), social psychology, and other traditions that emphasize pragmatism and the social dimensions of learning (Dewey, 1950; Lewin, 1943). This aligns with the fact that "leaderful practice is unrepentant in advocating distinctively democratic values" (Raelin, 2011, p. 203) and takes a practical "reflective stance" (Raelin, 2003, p. 59). To this end, PC (Schein, 1999) and the following six delivery methods were selected: (a) action learning (AL; Revans, 1998), (b) the Tavistock method (Bion, 1961), (c) case-in-point (CIP) method (Heifetz et al., 2009), (d) sociometry and sociodrama (Moreno, 1953), (e) open space technology (OST; Owen, 1997), and (f) facilitation (Schwarz, 2002).

PC. Schein (1999) states:

> Process consultation (PC) is the creation of a relationship with the client that permits the client to perceive, understand and act on the process events that occur in the client's internal and external environment in order to improve the situation as defined by the client. (p. 20)

The major distinction of the PC model, explains Schein (1990), compared with other models (e.g., expert-driven approaches that sell information, or the doctor-patient approach), is that it places the focus on the relationship between the consultant and the client—whether the latter is a person, group, or organization. The consultant works "with," not "for," the client, thus encouraging client and consultant to work as equals, where mutual learning can take place, and with the main goal to establish an effective helping relationship. Overall then, PC is in line with Lowman's (2016) view that the goal of consulting psychology is "to empower clients and improve workplace functioning" (p. 1). It is also consistent with Kurpius' definition of consultation in Backer et al. (1992) in which, following a systems perspective, he suggests shifting from an expert problem-solver position to that of a skilled systems collaborator. Kurpius further acknowledges that, in practice, "consultation has a strong interpersonal relationship aspect and like any other helping relationship, it requires a strong facilitative process" (Backer et al., 1992, p. 21).

The practice of PC is governed by 10 principles, as depicted in the first component of the model along with its aim, objective, and the needs assessment methods that can be used. This first component also includes ethics as an essential element which governs general psychological practice and consulting psychology, in particular, thus reinforcing the fact that psychologists ought to practice ethically (Lowman, 2016). It is important to highlight that, despite the fact that PC is placed at the beginning of the model, and while some of its elements may be most relevant at the beginning of the consultation process (e.g., needs assessment), other elements (e.g., ethics and always trying to be helpful) are applicable throughout the consulting process and thus permeate the rest of the model.

Prior to outlining the six modalities selected for this paper, it is important to acknowledge that such methods are the tremendous legacy of Lewin (1943, 1948) and his colleagues (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939) who developed the laboratory method or T-group in the late 1940s with further refinements during the 1950s. As noted by Burke (2004), their initial work "in a sense is a present-day version of the earlier less-structured forms of giving and receiving feedback interpersonally and in small groups" (p. 7), known today as "360-degree feedback." The T-group, in fact, was not only the foundation of LD and OD but also "both a historical event/action and an invention" (Burke, 2018, p. 190) which cannot be understated (for a detailed history of the T-group and its early applications in management development, refer to Highhouse, 2002).

AL. AL is an experiential learning process that involves small groups working on real-time problems by taking action, as well as learning as individuals, as a team, and as an organization (Revans, 1998). AL has been used extensively in leadership and organizational development interventions (Boshyk, 2002; Cho & Marshall Egan, 2009; Conger & Toegel, 2002; Dinkin & Frederick, 2013; Marquardt, Leonard, Freedman, & Hill, 2009; Raudenbush & Marquardt, 2008; Skipton Leonard & Lang, 2010; Volz-Peacock, Carson, & Marquardt, 2016), and in management consultancy (de Haan & de Ridder (2006). According to Revans (1998), "There can be no action without learning, and no learning without action" (p. 14). To this end, AL not only offers solutions to problems by encouraging questioning, reflection, and feedback on what to know (content), but also generates transformational learning by encouraging participants to reflect on how to improve relationships, teamwork, and the learning process itself (Cho & Marshall Egan, 2009). From this perspective, AL seeks to elicit learning from the human/social interaction arising from engagement that is generated by working collaboratively to find possible solutions to real-time workplace challenges and problems (Raelin, 2000). This enables participants to learn with and from each other while finding solutions to immediate, real problems (Keys, 1994) hence its ideal suitability for the LaPD model. Examples of organizations with best-practice global LD programs that incorporate AL include Johnson & Johnson and Cisco (Giber, Lam, Goldsmith, & Bourke, 2009); Motorola (Foxon, 1998); Boeing and the United States Department of Agriculture (Skipton Leonard & Lang, 2010); Alcoa, Du Pont, and Nokia (Marquardt, 2000); and Ameritech, Citibank, General Electric, Prudential Assurance, Shell, the University of Michigan, and Harvard Business School (Dotlich & Noel, 1998).

Tavistock method. The Tavistock method, also referred to as "group relations" (Miller, Gould, Stapley, & Stein, 2004), originated from Bion's (1961) work. Like the methods outlined previously, this approach also conceptualizes the group as a collective entity, as opposed to clusters of individuals. While the Tavistock method is rooted in the psychoanalytic tradition (Klein, 1952), as an interdisciplinary field, group relations also integrates systems theory and political science—with a focus on power and authority (Wallach, 2013). This unique lens enables us to see organizational life fully, and promotes the integration of intellectual capacity and emotions to produce creative and visionary leadership. In essence, this method is an accelerated immersive learning experience which enables participants to explore their work together toward achieving the group's primary task, and to examine their own and others' resistance to change. To this end, a strong emphasis is placed on the behavior of group members at any moment as the expression of their own needs and behavioral patterns. All in all, group relations are primarily intended to teach group dynamics and increase the awareness of group phenomena (Rice, 1969); hence, its suitability for the LaPD model.

CIP method. The CIP pedagogy emerged from the group relations tradition, and promotes individual introspection and learning of group dynamics simultaneously by harnessing the power of experiential learning in large groups (Gallant & Getz, 2009). Based on the principles of adaptive leadership, CIP aims at building adaptive capacity by using adapting learning situations that enable individuals and groups to take responsibility, discover, and invent (Heifetz, 1994). In essence, this is an experiential and provocative learning method to assist groups to deal with real-time issues during discussions facilitated by trained practitioners (Heifetz et al., 2009). What makes CIP most suitable for LaPD is that this method connects the dynamics of the here and now, and invites participants to notice their own default patterns of relating with key leadership concepts by bringing into life the unfolding narrative in the room through which participants can learn "leadership" via their own actions. Thus, like leaderful practice, CIP allows leadership to emerge "concurrently" and "collaboratively" from multiple members of the group at any time, particularly when important needs arise (concurrently; Raelin, 2005).

Sociometry and sociodrama. Sociometry is a method for exploring and measuring social relationships, developed by Moreno (1953). It measures how individuals associate with each other in trying to achieve something together (collectively), by exploring the formation, evolution, and functioning of the group, while heightening awareness of its members. This includes identifying, correcting, and sharpening perceptions by revealing covert group dynamics. What make this method particularly suitable and powerful for LaPD is that it is a flexible, creative, and spontaneous way of working with groups. Sociometry assesses interpersonal and intergroup relationships by asking about and making explicit the invisible patterns of preferences in any group, or among groups—of any size and purpose, using either graphs or human sculptures. Group members make informed choices while being aware of the effect their choices have on the group (Salicru, 2017). From an L-A-P perspective, then, the sociodramatic method offers group members the opportunity (Raelin, 2011) to:

> participate together in the collective emergence of ideas and actions heretofore unplanned and unadvocated. L-A-P is concerned with the clustering and ordering of these ideas and actions and facilitates the emergence of any recurring patterns both in the moment and over time. (p. 201)

In a similar vein, "Sociodrama is a learning method that creates deep understanding of the social systems that shape us individually and collectively" (Browne, 2005, p. 9). Using role theory and role-playing techniques, this action method enables group members to achieve greater understanding of group relationships by enacting chosen social situations spontaneously (Torrance, 1975). In summary, both sociometry and sociodrama are methods that use similar techniques of spontaneous role playing to explore and expand various aspects of people's lives collectively within group settings through concrete action, hence their relevance to L-A-P.

OST. OST is a purpose-driven leadership methodology developed by Owen (1997). The goal of OST is to create time and space for large groups to engage deeply and creatively in conversations to deal with their issues of concern. The agenda is set by individuals with the desire and power to make decisions happen. OST enables groups of all sizes to self-organize to generate creative solutions to deal with complex issues in a relatively short period of time. Such meetings often result in transformative experiences for the individuals and groups involved (Saam, 2004). According to Michael Lindfield, an organizational development consultant at Boeing in Seattle, OST is an effective and simple way of creating an environment where things are possible. He adds that, while the business culture is driven by a need to control outcomes, which is desirable to control and reduce variations in the manufacturing processes, it is counterproductive when attempting to generate creative thinking, as any control will kill the innovation (Lindfield, 1995). According to Owen (1997), OST epitomizes deliberative democracy as an answer to the challenge of participation. The group itself must generate its own leadership, and "real learning and real progress will only take place when we all move beyond original agendas and convention-bound expectations" (p. 96). These are some of the key characteristics that make OST so suitable for LaPD.

Facilitation. Facilitation entails empowering people to take control over and responsibility for their own efforts (Bentley, 1994). It is a way of providing leadership without taking control (Bens, 2017). As noted by Hogan (2005), a facilitator is a process expert and from this perspective she draws a parallel with Schein's (1999) PC as outlined earlier. Facilitating leadership involves enabling groups to adapt, solve problems, and improve performance collectively, while learning and often creating or inventing new ways of relating (Schwarz, 2002). The terms "collectively," "learning," and "relating" indicate how facilitation is clearly linked to L-A-P. The practice of facilitation is embedded in the modalities described above. This clearly makes it suitable for the LaPD model.

Finally, it's important to highlight that these modalities have their own assumptions and process, some of which are more compatible than others with the principles of L-A-P. I discuss some of these, and compare their utility, later in the Case Examples section below.

The Quest of Handling Challenges, Fears, and Objections in Moving Forward

> The greatest danger in times of turbulence is not the turbulence; it is to act with yesterday's logic.—Peter Drucker

Thus far, we know that to "get leadership development right—it is not about training" Burke (2011, p. 143), rather LD is a process of social meaning making which happens when groups of people are engaged in working together (Drath & Palus, 1994) with acute immersion in practices that are "embedded within in situ material-discursive relations" (Raelin, 2018, p. 1). Nonetheless, the "productization" of LD programs misaligned with strategic goals (Conger & Ready, 2003) is insidious, pervasive, and cunning, as well as baffling. Hence, it would be too naïve to expect that organizations will change their leadership paradigms and practices easily. The challenges, fears, and objections of embracing a collective leadership perspective are very real, understandable, and convenient. Raelin (2018), for example, points out the fears associated with letting go of the "repetition compulsion" due to psychological immaturity, the pervasive and prevailing cultural and political rugged individualism, and the power dynamics that serve those at the top. Furthermore, adopting new LD practices also requires abandoning the currently dominant, overly "rational," "functional," and very "appealing" approaches which use a "tool box" of skills, techniques, and abilities that offer the expectation (illusion) that they will produce great leaders (Carroll & Levy, 2010). Grint (2007) refers to these approaches as "symptom relievers rather than cause removers" (p. 235); which relates directly to Argyris and Schön's (1978) distinction between "single-" and "double-loop" learning. It is not surprising, then, that the promise of the learning organization hasn't been delivered (Elkjaer, 2001).

In an ideal world, leadership theory informs LD practice. In reality, however, I find that, when I suggest to clients or prospective clients something different to what they are used to, the inevitable question they ask is, "Who is doing or has done this?" Curiously, this is the case even when the organization espouses either "creativity" or "innovation" as a core value. At that point, is always very useful to have some real case examples to share.

To this end, and with the aim of closing the gap between theory and practice as much as possible, in the next section I offer a relatively detailed case example using a "cross-walk" approach to illustrate and compare how some of the methods outlined above can assist practitioners to apply the LaPD model in a manner consistent with L-A-P principles.

Case Examples

Wärtsilä is a 185-year-old global leader in smart technologies and complete lifecycle solutions for the marine and energy markets, headquartered in Helsinki and listed on the Nasdaq Helsinki. Over this long period, in which new global business contexts, including forces such as rapid economic integration and accelerated growth of digital technologies, have rendered many companies and their business models obsolete, Wärtsilä has flourished. Employing approximately 19,000 people, and with operations in over 200 locations in more than 80 countries around the world, Wärtsilä's net sales reached EUR 5.2 billion in 2018.

LEAD is the company's LD program and it has been delivered globally since 2003. At its core, LEAD entails a 1-week intensive residential immersion for cohorts of mixed participants from multiple geographical regions and levels of the organization, who come together and live a very intense experience. There is a strong emphasis on L-A-P; the program has been recognized as a global best-practice LD program (Salicru, Wassenaar, Suerz, & Spittle, 2016).

Various elements of methods such as the Tavistock, AL, OST, and CIP, were useful to deliver LEAD. Their main overall utility was being able to address Principles 1 and 2 of LaPD in practice. Principle 1 entails "Reviewing and renewing the leadership concept held by learners and their organizations" (Denyer & Turnbull James, 2016, p. 264). More specifically, this relates to challenging the "leadership concept" (Probert & Turnbull James, 2011), or participants' embedded unconscious assumptions about leadership, by revealing that leadership resides in a dynamic system rather than in the individual. Thus, Principle 1 focuses on the practice of leadership as the object of analysis. Principle 2 is "Surfacing and working with leadership process, practices, and interactions" (Denyer & Turnbull James, 2016, p. 265). This relational dimension was brought forward by using the various robust processes built into the four modalities, namely, the sequencing and alternations between plenary and small group session formats, which assisted with designing and facilitating powerful here-and-now lived collective experience. These four methods also share the assumption that lasting changes in leadership behavior are more likely to happen in group settings (Kets de Vries, 2005), and the overall aim of teaching group dynamics and increasing the awareness of collective identity. As a result, they offer experienced practitioners ample latitude and flexibility in how to add value while maintaining their unique style.

Despite the commonalities outlined above between these four approaches, the Tavistock approach, in particular, also has some incompatibilities (or less compatible aspects) with LaPD. These include differences related to the context; the number and mix of participants involved; the duration (timeframe) of each of these processes; their assumptions or principles, aims, and intended outcomes; and the role of the consultant(s)/facilitator(s). The Tavistock method explores group dynamics and investigates causes of organizational distress, "so when participants return to their 'back home' organizations they can see them more clearly" (Hayden & Molenkamp, 2002, p. 4).

This indicates that participants, typically from different organizations, go to a "conference," which constitutes a relatively large group of people (between 20 to 90 members) who did not know each other prior to the event, and who spend a relatively long period of time together (between 5 to 14 consecutive days) with the aim of becoming a "temporary institution" (Wallach, 2013, p. 78), and are subsequently (hopefully) able to transfer their learnings to their real working context. Furthermore, attendees generally tend to be individuals holding formal senior management positions of authority in their respective organizations (e.g., CEO, Managing Director, Vice-President, Head of Unit, Director of Strategy). These factors are somewhat at odds with Principle 3 of LaPD, "Working with learners' context on their organizational problems and adaptive challenges" (Denyer & Turnbull James, 2016, p. 266). The LEAD experience involves employees from the same organization, at multiple levels, who generally already know—or know of—each other, working together on real-time shared challenges. From this perspective, instead of participants going to a conference, the conference—as it were—comes to them, to enable the witnessing of the emergence of leadership from the group. Moreover, the Tavistock model uses a very prescribed structure that focuses on issues related to the boundary, authority, role, and task of the system (Green & Molenkamp, 2005). This, combined with the three major psychoanalytic concepts or basic unconscious assumptions (dependency, pairing, and fight/flight) that govern Tavistock conferences (Shapiro & Carr, 2012), adds complexity and challenges in using this approach fully in LaPD. AL, OST, and CIP, on the contrary, are far more flexible and compatible when using LaPD.

Finally, the role or stance that consultants may take when adopting a particular modality should also be taken into account. Three key features that distinguish the psychoanalytic consulting stance from other consulting approaches are: translating or deciphering the group's unconscious thoughts and feelings, understanding resistance and defense mechanisms, and assessing transference and countertransference (Czander & Eisold, 2003). To this end, consultants articulate and interpret such unconscious desires or anxieties based on the "material" presented by the group. The aim of this psychoeducational process is to provide the group with insights into its dynamics, and offer development opportunities through the understanding of deep and covert behaviors of the group/system. As noted by Menzies (1970), this work can be uncomfortable and confronting for both clients and consultants because is likely to challenge well-established thinking and behavioral patterns, and thus elicit resistance to change. This stance also represents a departure from Schein's (1999) PC, a key component of the LaPD model, in which the consultant and client are expected to work as equals and experience mutual learning by establishing a strong trusting and effective relationship. From this perspective, and while keeping in mind that leadership in itself is inherently dangerous (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002), and acknowledging that sometimes (if not often) clients ought to be respectfully, constructively, and effectively challenged for their own learning and development (a point that may be incorporated within the verbal or written agreements that consultants have with the clients), the psychoanalytic stance is far more risky and likely to inadvertently jeopardize a client-consultant working relationship. This being the case, the inevitable outcome would mean compromising or precluding any real development of the client. This should be prevented at all cost.

In a similar vein, the provocative stance of the CIP method, which originated from group relations, can be experienced as confronting by clients and risk the client-consultant relationship if not used wisely. I vividly recall the reminder that a faculty member at the Harvard Kennedy School (M. Linsky, personal communication, May 15, 2015) gave to our cohort on completion of the CIP method training. He emphatically cautioned the training group about using this approach for the first time, and explained that it was not uncommon for alumni members to contact the faculty once they had gone back to their organizations overenthusiastic and charged with energy to change the system, just to end up bitterly disappointed because their efforts caused the opposite effect to what had they intended.

In order to prevent the unwanted outcomes outlined above, which may include confrontation, resistance, hostile or antagonistic dynamics, or knee-jerk responses, and valuable losses of trust and even of the consultant's credibility and reputation, I would like to offer some suggestions. The first one, which is still consistent with the Tavistock approach, entails using two facilitators/consultants working together in order to share the effort of holding the space for the group, and to compare notes. The next suggestions represent more of a departure from the traditional Tavistock model. It's highly desirable for consultants to establish a clear verbal contract with the group before beginning the work. This contract should include: explaining the role of the consultant(s), spelling out the mutual expectations of the facilitator(s) and the group, being up front about the likely intermittent uncomfortable nature of the work, openly ascertaining the group's willingness to test its boundaries and its appetite for risk taking in proportion to the potential benefits to be gained, and the group's willingness and ability to take responsibility for its psychological/emotional safety. Next, consultants should be mindful of the fact that making interpretations of the group's (or individual's) behavior always entails a risk and should be done with caution. To a large extent, of course, this will be determined by the level of trust and intimacy consultants have with the group. Some useful questions to ask ourselves as consultants include: "How well do I know this group?" "How much do they trust me?" "How mature is the group?" "What could go wrong?" "How much am I prepared to risk here today?" A safer strategy for consultants who decide to make interpretations and/or provide unsolicited insights is always to ask for permission first, and then couch interpretation or insight as a possibility (e.g., Could it be that the group is lost on what to do right now? Could it be that the group is seeking guidance on what do next? Would you be willing to consider that the group may be completely lost or out of task right now?). Finally, an even safer, and more effective approach to promote a truly collaborative process of sense making within the LaPD model is shifting the pedagogy to a truly facilitation style, as defined previously. More specifically, using "immediacy" to promote insights on group dynamics is arguably one of the most powerful microskills that facilitators can use. In brief, this entails inviting the group to examine itself from a new perspective by considering what is going on in their relationships, as opposed to focusing on the content of the conversation. Group questions that can be asked, such as "How does this pattern of interaction (e.g., hostility) over the past 10 min relate to the other patterns in the organization?"; "What pattern has emerged just now in the group?"; "How does this pattern resemble any of the patterns that emerge in your teams?"; or "How is leadership showing up right now in the group?" are examples of how facilitators may use immediacy in discussion with a strategic intent. Such questions invite deep spontaneous reflection and often unveil a new reality, or dimension of it, that has been hidden from the group until that very moment. Furthermore, questions such as "What do you need from each other right now to move forward?" Or "What is the group crying for right now to be able to move forward?" can be powerful sequels to new action.

Other case studies include examples of LD practice that go beyond style, values, competence, and behavior (Turnbull James, 2011): a Swiss health care organization (Endrissat & von Arx, 2013), a major housing association in the UK, and a global service firm across 32 countries (Denyer & Turnbull James, 2016). Pasternack et al. (2001) provide the following examples of companies which they claim have been undetected by the business press. Reportedly, at the Intel Corporation, Motorola, and Hyundai Electronics Industries in South Korea, managers and engineers—at Motorola, with no titles allowed—also serve as leaders of entrepreneurial startup companies. They do so by using "institutionalized leadership" practices aimed at designing and implementing systems to respond to ongoing global competitive challenges. General Electric and Nestlé SA are two more examples of companies, cited by Pasternack et al. (2001), that have been able to renew themselves over the years despite their multiple CEOs' tenures, by institutionalizing their leadership capacities.

Limitations

This paper has presented a new LaPD model based on a broad integrative theoretical and practical foundation consistent with L-A-P. However, a comprehensive foundation cannot be provided within one single article and several well-known approaches that could have been incorporated in this model have been excluded, for example: appreciative inquiry (Ludema, Whitney, Mohr, & Griffin, 2009; Whitney & Cooperrider, 2000), social network analysis (Freeman, 2004), group-based leadership coaching (Kets de Vries, 2005), and team coaching (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). Similarly, three more recently developed approaches, "living autoethnography" (Ngunjiri, Hernandez, & Chang, 2010), "montage method" (Kennedy, Bathurst, & Carroll, 2015), and "spacing leadership" (Ropo & Salovaara, 2018), have been excluded. Having said this, the LaPD model offers sufficient flexibility for an experienced practitioner to integrate these and other suitable methods that are compatible with the L-A-P philosophy and robust enough. A second limitation is the unbalanced number of case examples provided for each of the methods outlined due to their scarcity in the literature. A recommendation for future research is to test the new model presented here within organizational settings using multiple case studies.

Conclusion

This paper has presented a new LaPD model which contributes to the next generation of research and practice in the field of L-A-P and the practice of consulting psychology. The model identifies 42 elements derived from the relevant literature which are grouped into three sequential components: (a) PC; (b) practice and methods; and (c) value, benefits, outcomes, and results. The first component comprises 14 elements (10 principles of PC, one aim, one objective, needs assessment, and ethics). The second component integrates 12 elements (the five operating tenets of leaderful practice or Five Cs, six methods or practitioner modalities, and a group of theoretical lenses through which practice is observed). The third component captures 16 anticipated benefits for the end users of the model (12 direct outcomes and 4 objective measures of results). The model can serve as a basis for doing something different as an effort to bring the LD industry back on track.

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