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From the Editor

October 2022

Welcome to the 43rd issue of the *International Leadership Journal,* an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains five articles.

In the first article, McClellan outlines a new model of leadership that helps researchers and practitioners reexamine the way they think about and practice leadership in the dynamic moments people face. Based on an understanding of historical models for thinking about leadership and the challenges of these models within a global context, his article proposes and discusses a cognitive process model for leadership theory, practice, and development.

Focusing on one of the fastest-growing health care markets, Hinck offers a new model for family eldercare. Rooted in leadership, transformational negotiation, and Jung's archetypes, a relational-responsive and integral approach was used to develop the leadership caregiving model for family eldercare. This model can help provide the required skills to manage the range of demands that are often out of reach or developed after the caring process begins and requires a transformative change, with military families and veterans facing additional challenges in the military medical system.

Shoup, Wu, and Crate evaluated how and why metaphors matter and which leadership metaphors matter most in the study and practice of leadership. They asked leaders and scholars from different disciplines across the globe to provide a leadership metaphor and corresponding explanation. Using grounded theory and narrative analysis, they found that the more than 500 metaphors received predominately fell into one of three themes: navigational, nurturing, or performance related. The three meta-metaphors will help leaders construct desirable social realities consistent with good leadership and a conceptual definition of leadership congruent with those found in the literature.

Recognizing that determining leadership potential is challenging, Rawlings and Janson designed a global mixed methods survey to examine criteria and tools used by leaders to determine leadership potential based on measures from the Leadership Blueprint. The survey was completed by 566 participants from the United States and seven other countries. They used a multivariate analysis of variance to determine the perceived importance of certain criteria in determining leadership potential. Their findings can help profoundly improve the ability to successfully determine leadership potential and develop high-functioning organizations.

Finally, Katsande, Dean, Winner, and Winston developed a validated instrument to measure transforming steward leadership. In their study, participants from the United States, India, the Philippines, and other countries provided their perceptions of their team leaders' levels of transforming servant leadership. The analysis of their responses led to the development of the Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire with three five-item scales for stewardship, competency, and character.

Please spread the word about *ILJ* to interested academics and practitioners and remember to visit http://internationalleadershipjournal.com. Also, feel free to propose a topic and be a guest editor of a special issue by contacting me at jcsantora1@gmail.com.

Joseph C. Santora, EdD
Editor

ARTICLES

Reimagining Leadership Theory: A Cognitive Process Model of Leadership*

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The need for effective leadership is evident in an increasingly global society that faces significant leadership challenges. As the impact of the global pandemic wanes and the implications of the global response to the virus are felt, issues of how leaders responded to the crisis will be explored. This will likely result in a need to reexamine the way we think about and practice leadership in the dynamic moments we face. This article outlines a new model of leadership that fulfills this need. Based on an understanding of historical models for thinking about leadership and the challenges of these models within a global context, this article proposes and discusses a cognitive process model for leadership theory, practice, and development.

Keywords: cognitive process model, emergent leadership, global leadership, international leadership, leadership development, leadership theory

In the wake of the multiple crises that permeated the global arena during the global pandemic, it is evident that our ability to respond to global challenges is not equal to the challenges we face. Evolution is needed, particularly in the way we organize ourselves. Central to our ability to do so is the way we think about and practice leadership and develop leaders. Unfortunately, it is becoming clear that the way we think about, practice, and develop leadership is not equal to the complexities of the issues we need to address. As a result, it is time for us to refine our thinking on leadership and explore new models for defining and practicing leadership and leadership development. This article explores historical ways of thinking about leadership and the limitations of these paradigms of leadership within a global context. It also offers a new way of thinking about leadership: a cognitive process model for leadership theory, practice, and development.

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Leadership Theory

While the history of leadership theory and its limitations are well known, there is value in understanding the way leadership has been studied and the limitations of these traditional approaches so that alternative perspectives and models can be developed. One of the first ideas that students of leadership encounter as they begin studying leadership theory is the “great man” theory of leadership. It originated in the work of 19th-century British historian and philosopher Thomas Carlyle (1841/1973), who argued that “the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at bottom, the History of the Great Men who have worked here” (101). He further asserted that “all things that we see standing accomplished in the world are properly the outer material result, the practical realization and embodiment, of Thoughts that dwell in the Great Men sent into the world” (101). This idea that leadership is what great men do represents the foundation of modern leadership theory and has shaped the study of leadership ever since.

The great man theory guided early research toward understanding leadership as scholars sought to identify the traits, behaviors, styles, and approaches of great men as leaders (Northouse, 2019). These early efforts were largely unsuccessful, as they revealed that situational variables contributed to variation in the outcomes of these studies, which suggested the need for a contingency approach to leadership. Consequently, scholars shifted their focus to identifying the leader, follower, and contextual factors that predicted leadership success to develop models that could help leaders know how to respond in any given situation (Ayman, 2004; Lussier & Achua, 2007). While these contingency approaches expanded the study of leadership to include the follower and context, the inability to develop the intended predictive models gave rise to an awareness that no one right way to lead existed. Nonetheless, they did not alter the emphasis on the role of the leader as the unit of analysis for understanding leadership. Indeed, what followed was an exploration of a variety of approaches to leadership that might be termed contemporary models of leadership. These models, which include theories such as transformational (Bass & Riggio, 2006), servant (Greenleaf, 2002), adaptive (Heifetz, 1994), authentic (George, 2008), and others, represent attempts to identify approaches to leadership that, while not universal, are nonetheless effectively practiced by leaders to influence others to achieve success. In many ways, these models represent a continuation of the leader-centric efforts of early scholars, as they continue to focus on the leader as the unit of analysis. Unfortunately, as Rost (1991) suggested, many of these theories emphasize the periphery and content of leadership while failing to capture the real essence of leadership as a process and a relationship. Consequently, to challenge these approaches, models have been proposed that explore leadership as a relationship (Rost, 1991; Uhl-Bien, 2006), a system (Kellerman, 2016), and a collaborative process (Komives et al., 2009). The result is a collective array of leadership theories that provide valuable insights to scholars, theorists, and practitioners regarding what leadership is and how it is practiced.

As valuable as these models and theories are to our understanding of leadership, they have, unfortunately, created several challenges that delimit their effectiveness. Despite efforts to alter the emphasis on "great men" as leaders, the person-centric approach they represent or counter is still the dominant way of thinking about and practicing leadership. While it is not reasonable to assume that the actions of a leader could ever be eliminated as an area of emphasis, the focus on the leader as the unit of analysis promotes a self-centered approach to leadership that has proven detrimental to the theory and practice of leadership and minimized the other elements of the leadership system (Kellerman, 2016). Even the efforts that have been made to explore the follower and followership have also tended to follow in the footsteps of leadership theory by focusing on the style and approach of a follower as an individual (Chaleff, 1995; Kelley, 1992, 1998; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In addition, leadership models and theories have tended to identify ideal approaches to leadership that are largely prescriptive in nature and values based (Mendenhall, 2013; Rost, 1991). While this focus is valuable, prescriptive, values-based models tend to be idealistic and ethnocentric rather than practical and global (House et al., 2014; Peterson & Hunt, 1997).

Finally, leadership models have been critiqued as placing too much emphasis on the role and impact of hierarchical leaders on the behavior of followers. Indeed, some authors have suggested that substitutes for leadership represent a significant limiting factor for traditional ideas regarding the significance of hierarchical leadership (Howell & Dorfman, 1981; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Howell and Dorfman (1981) argued that the "characteristics of the organization, the subordinate, or the subordinate's job task may substitute for the hierarchical leader by impacting on important subordinate outcomes and also preventing the hierarchical leaders' behavior from having an impact" (715). Nonetheless, the research does not suggest that these completely neutralize the need for formal leadership (Howell & Dorfman, 1981; Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

As mentioned previously, while there are models that have addressed this person-centric approach, such as the relational and social change models of leadership, these remain deeply values based, prescriptive, and culture specific (Komives et al., 2009; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Consequently, a model of leadership is needed that is culturally flexible and redirects the emphasis away from the person as the unit of analysis, without losing the reality of the role of the leader. The cognitive process model of leadership achieves this by viewing leadership as a relational, process-based, momentary phenomenon.

Leadership Happens in Moments

One approach to understanding leadership is to focus on understanding what takes place in the moments when leadership occurs (McClellan, 2021b). At a fundamental level, leadership is a social influence process (House et al., 2004; Uhl-Bien, 2006). It takes place when people mutually influence one another to achieve some desired end. These moments are often brief and episodic (Mintzberg, 1975; Rost, 1991), especially if one focuses on the individual influence activities of the moment. But, as one focuses on these, one can examine the anatomy of such moments. In his description of leadership, Rost (1991) captured the essence of these moments. He explained that leadership is "a process that is bounded by time, subject matter, specific leaders and collaborators engaged in the process, place, and context" (103). Based on this description, it becomes clear that, as a momentary phenomenon, leadership is made up of six key elements: a leader, a follower, a goal, a process, a relationship, and the context (McClellan, 2021b).

To understand what is happening in the interaction of these elements within leadership moments, it is essential that we explore these in a descriptive fashion that examines the underlying processes that are universal, rather than culture specific. As Rost (1993) suggested, we must examine the essence of leadership. To do this, there is value in examining the basic neurological processes that characterize such moments. This emphasis is valuable because, while the contents and neural networks of the human mind are shaped by culture, the most basic functional processes of the brain are driven by human anatomy (Bender & Beller, 2013; Medina, 2008; Park & Huang, 2010), Thus, while culture drives the content of the cognitive processes of leadership, the functional processes that underpin these are more consistently universal and have much to contribute to the development of leadership theory (Waldman et al., 2011a).

Cognitive Processes

Consider, for example, a leadership moment wherein an elected official from China encounters an elected official of the United States in a negotiation setting as part of an effort to mutually influence or "lead" one another to address a diplomatic situation. Based on an understanding of what is happening in the brain as the encounter occurs, we can attempt to describe what takes place at a cognitive process level. As they meet, a moment of reciprocal influence begins. Everyone enters this moment with a brain recalling and sifting through the information that it deems relevant to the current encounter while simultaneously gathering additional information that will be used to make decisions about where to focus and direct attention (Dickman & Stanford-Blair, 2002; Jensen, 1998; LeDoux, 2002). Much, though not all, of this cognitive work is done subconsciously. As awareness increases and attention is directed to the elements that matter most based on cultural filters and biases (Thompson et al., 2004), these are processed, and decisions are made regarding the goal that is to be achieved and how best to achieve it (Goleman, 2013; Lehrer, 2009; Morris & Gelfand, 2004; Mumford et al., 2015; Rock, 2009). In some cases, goals and processes may predate the immediate moment, entering it as elements of awareness, but the brain shifts and filters these as awareness of the immediate context directs and focuses attention and decision-making processes (Jensen, 1998; Morris & Gelfand, 2004; Rock, 2009). As the individuals from both countries decide what actions to take, they attempt to capture, direct, and maintain the attention of the other by influencing his or her awareness, attention, and decision-making (Dickman & Stanford-Blair, 2002; Rock & Schwartz, 2007). This process of attention management and influence is achieved through communication, the nature of which results in emotional responses to both the present interactions and memories that give rise to and shape the nature of the relationship between the individuals (LeDoux, 2002). Finally, each of them engages in specific activities and processes, or actions, that are unique to the moment. In this example, these likely involve negotiation-oriented processes.

Now consider another example, in a performance evaluation in a business context, similar processes would take place with regard to the awareness processes of each person driving attention and decision-making at the individual level. Then, mutual influence processes of attention management occur between individuals via communication processes. As this is occurring, emotional responses to present interactions and memories contribute to relationship formation and change. The action-oriented skills that are then applied might include coaching and motivational interviewing instead of negotiation, but action is still required based on the needs of the moment. Therefore, as one examines these and other leadership moments at a neurocognitive level, the same six principles represent fundamental cognitive processes within these moments: awareness, attention, decision-making, communication, relationships, and action. These six principles represent the foundation for a cognitive process model of leadership that is descriptive in nature, process oriented, and culture free. Figure 1 depicts the overall nature of the interaction between the two diplomats as they mutually influence one another.

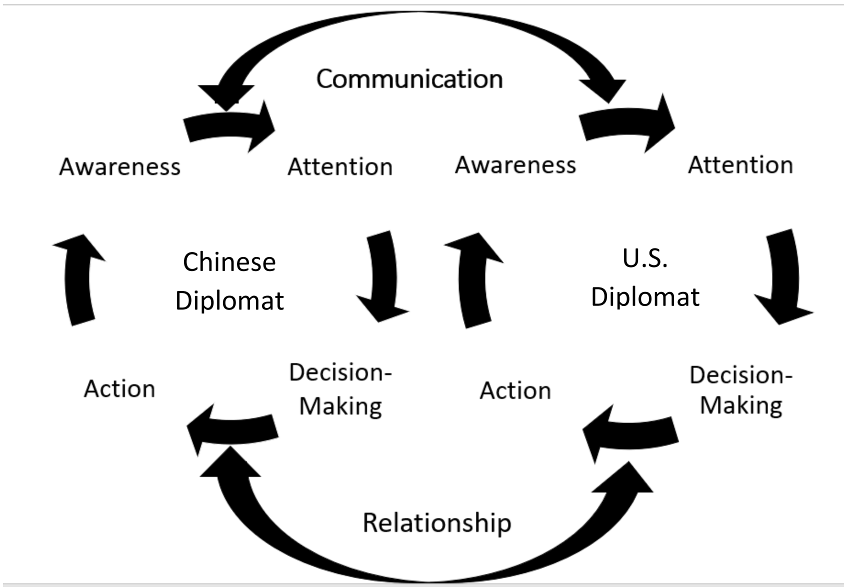

Figure 1. A graphic depiction of the cognitive process model of leadership.
Note. Adapted from "Addressing the Problem of Global Leadership Theory: Proposing a Cognitive Process Model for Leadership Training and Development," by J. L. McClellan, 2021a, *European Journal of Training and Development, 46*(5–6), p. 614 (https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-03-2021-0041). Copyright 2021 by Emerald Publishing.

Awareness

The first of these principles is awareness. All cognitive processes, and thus all leadership, begin with the neural processes associated with gathering information for processing, decision-making, and action (LeDoux, 2002). Indeed, information is a prerequisite for cognition (Mumford et al., 2015). In day-to-day life, the brain constantly scans for information that is needed to respond effectively within the environmental context. As Dickman and Stanford-Blair (2002) explained, "the business of the brain . . . is the monitoring and adjustment of the internal elements of an organism in concert with the monitoring and processing of information about the organism's external environment" (16). Thus, the business of the brain is to increase awareness, evaluate the environment, make decisions, and respond appropriately. For leaders, awareness is an essential foundation for vision creation and other leadership processes (Partlow et al., 2015).

Attention

The second principle, attention, occurs within the leader as the subconscious and conscious parts of the brain determine where to direct attention based on an analysis of available information. As Mumford et al. (2015) attested, "leaders must focus on, or attend to, problems if intelligence, or domain specific cognitive skills (e.g., divergent thinking, forecasting, planning), are to influence performance" (303). This is the role of the limbic centers of the brain, which determine where we direct our attention. According to Rock (2008), the "approach–avoid response drives attention at a fundamental level—nonconsciously, automatically and quickly" based on the perception of threats or rewards related to status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness, and fairness (2). The prefrontal cortex is then involved in maintaining and managing attention (Goldberg, 2001), which continually reshapes the brain and promotes learning and change.

Attention also applies to the interaction between a leader and follower as a means of promoting change. As Rock and Schwartz (2007) suggested, "behavior change brought about by leaders, managers, therapists, trainers, or coaches is primarily a function of their ability to induce others to focus their attention on specific ideas, closely enough, often enough, and for a long enough time" (16). This occurs as a leader, based on the use of cognitive skills such as divergent thinking, forecasting, storytelling, planning, sensemaking, and sense breaking (Gardner & Laskin, 1995; Mumford et al., 2015), strives to influence the attentional processes of followers to facilitate their decision-making and actions toward goal achievement (McClellan, 2011). To do this, leaders "make a direct appeal to the personal values, beliefs, and needs of followers and attempt to get them excited and optimistic about the future" (Waldman et al., 2011a, 63). Doing so is likely, at least in part, associated with how well leaders respond to followers' need for hope, stability, compassion, and trust (Rath & Conchie, 2008), as well as how well they manage followers' concerns about status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness, and fairness (Rock, 2008). As Boyatzis (2014) argued, leaders can manage attention by inspiring and motivating "those with whom they interact" (301) with a compelling vision and a believable plan. Additionally, they can encourage and support actions that promote approachable behaviors and creative engagement on the part of followers. At the same time, they should avoid dissonant behaviors, like "repeatedly reminding people of threats, demeaning others, and focusing on problems" because these behaviors activate "regions of the brains of people around them that make others want to avoid them" (301).

Decision-Making

The third principle, decision-making, is an essential aspect of leadership that is dependent upon attention and awareness and facilitates problem solving and solution finding (Mumford et al., 2015). It occurs as a leader engages conscious, rational, and subconscious intuitive processes, based on the information acquired and attention choices made in response to the needs of the moment. The leader then makes decisions regarding goals and objectives and determines and enacts the influencing behaviors to achieve these (Hamilton, 2016; Lehrer, 2009). This includes making decisions about how to influence follower attention, communicate persuasively, and build and maintain the relationship between leader and follower(s).

Relationship Building

The fourth principle, relationship building, begins the moment attention is captured. Initial first impressions and the emotional responses of individuals to these impressions create a foundation for the establishment of a relationship (Gladwell, 2005). As interaction proceeds, the behaviors of both the leader and followers elicit emotional and behavioral responses that shape the role-based interaction and resulting relationship between individuals. These can either strengthen or diminish the quality of the relationship and, ultimately, the capacity for ongoing mutual influence based on trust and the communication and pursuit of mutually beneficial shared visions (Costigan et al., 1998; Covey, 1989; Gottman, 2011; Hosmer, 1995; Lewicki, 2006; Schindler & Thomas, 1993; Schoorman et al., 2007; Waldman et al., 2011a). There is also evidence that the strength of social relationship networks affects effective decision-making based on increased access to information (Mumford et al., 2015). Indeed, as Waldman et al. (2011b) suggested, it may well be that "the basis of effective leadership is centered on the leader's ability to form emotional bonds with followers" (1098).

Communication

The fifth principle, communication, is an essential element of the process. As a basic human neurocognitive process, it involves interpreting, evaluating, assimilating, encoding, conveying, and monitoring information flow (Trenholm & Jensen, 2000). As is evident from the discussion of the other principles, communication contributes to and is an essential element of all the preceding leadership processes (awareness, attention, decision-making, and relationship building) as it is a foundational element of all influence attempts. To communicate effectively, leaders must use "visionary communication abilities" to articulate a vision that responds to followers' needs and a plan that inspires and engages them to act (Waldman et al., 2011a, 61). In doing so, they should avoid overly complex communication, focusing instead on simplicity and clarity as perceived by followers (Mumford et al., 2015). Gardner and Laskin (1995) asserted that the ability to tell and embody stories that resonate with followers is central to leadership influence. Mumford et al. (2015) referred to this as *sense giving* and suggested that it is one of the major skills of effective leaders. Regardless of how it is conceptualized, leadership cannot occur without communication.

Action

The final principle, action, suggests that leaders must enact relevant processes in the moments of leadership in which they operate to influence others and achieve goals. The actual processes and actions required are determined by the context of the situation and the goals, knowledge, and skills of the leader and followers. For example, at the interpersonal level of leadership, motivation and coaching are relevant processes. Whereas, at the group level, facilitation and meeting management are essential. Thus, while the need for both a leader and followers to act based on the cognitive processes outlined previously is essential to leadership effectiveness, the nature of that action is determined by the context of the moment.

Leadership as an Emergent Phenomenon

It is worth noting that this model is aligned with the notion of leadership as an emergent phenomenon (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Leaders engage in awareness, decision-making, attention management, relationship building, communication, and process enactment in the living moment and in response to the follower and the context. Thus, the kind of leadership process that emerges is not dictated by a leader in a way that is consistent with the traditional leader-centric model. Rather, a leader seeks to engage in a process that is emergent within the moment itself in response to the followers and the context (McClellan, 2021b). It also acknowledges that the influence process is not role dependent or unidirectional and can, therefore, shift from person to person in the moment, allowing for the notion of shared or plural leadership (Denis et al., 2012; Komives et al., 2009).

Cognitive Processes and Culture

While these neurological processes are not culture dependent, no human makes decisions without first acquiring information upon which to base these decisions, the content of these processes is, therefore, very dependent on culture (Bender & Beller, 2013; Medina, 2008). As Morris and Gelfand (2004) suggested,

> culture can influence whether a knowledge structure is *available* or possible to retrieve from memory, whether it is highly *accessible* or easy to retrieve, and finally, whether it is *activated* or brought into working memory to guide one's current judgment. (47)

Thus, the information that one chooses to attend to, what information is considered most valuable for making decisions, and the intuitive or rational approach to making these decisions are shaped by culture. At the same time, the fact that decision-making is dependent upon knowledge and that "in order for a knowledge structure to be activated, it must become accessible, and before this it must be available" (Morris & Gelfand, 2004, 54) represents a more universal underlying cognitive process.

To further illustrate this point, Medina (2008) explained that

> urban Asians pay a great deal of attention to the context of a visual scene and to the relationships between foreground objects and backgrounds. Urban

> Americans don't. They pay attention to the focal items before the backgrounds, leaving perceptions of context much weaker. (76)

While this statement implies differences regarding what both cultures pay attention to, it also suggests that both must pay attention to information before they can process it and make decisions. Likewise, the fact that individuals communicate and build relationships based on cognitive processes is unavoidable even if the nature of the communication and relationship-building processes are shaped by culture. This awareness of what is universal in leadership moments and what is culture dependent provides context for better understanding leadership via this cognitive process model and, ultimately, for developing leaders across cultures.

Leadership Competencies

Based on an understanding of this cognitive process model of leadership, it is possible to distinguish competencies that are elemental and essential to leadership regardless of context from those that are context specific. Essential competencies are those that describe how the cognitive processes occur regardless of cultural context. For example, awareness is achieved through sensory input processes such as listening and environmental scanning. Decision-making in humans is marked by a combination of intuitive and rational processes (Hamilton, 2016; Lehrer, 2009). Attention management is governed by basic neurological processes rooted in approach and avoidance mechanisms associated with goal-directed and self-protective behavior (Rock, 2008; Siegel, 2016). Cognitive communication processes of encoding, clear message conveyance, and decoding of information are universal even if the content of messages and means of communicating them are culturally dependent (Livermore, 2010; Lussier & Achua, 2007; Meyer, 2014). Finally, relationship building is grounded in emotion-based assessments of trustworthiness that share some consistent patterns, even if culture shapes how trusting relationships develop (Gottman, 2011; Schoorman et al., 2007). Consequently, this cognitive process model allows for training in universal core competencies while exploring cultural differences in the expression of these. Table 1 summarizes these core competencies.

Table 1: Essential Competencies and Principles

Principles	**Essential Competencies**
Awareness	Listening Environment scanning Self-awareness
Attention: Leader	Sensemaking Goal direction and self-protection processes
Decision-making:	Decision-making (intuitive and rational) Critical thinking and problem solving
Attention: Capturing, directing, maintaining	Perception management Vision creation Strategic and action planning
Relationship building	Trust building Relationship development
Communicating	Encoding, conveying, and decoding messages
Action	Demonstrating initiative and skilled practice

Note. Adapted from "Addressing the Problem of Global Leadership Theory: Proposing a Cognitive Process Model for Leadership Training and Development," by J. L. McClellan, 2021a, *European Journal of Training and Development, 46*(5–6), p. 616 (https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-03-2021-0041). Copyright 2021 by Emerald Publishing.

As is evident, these competencies are essential for a leader to engage in the principles of the cognitive process model of leadership. Furthermore, they are relevant across cultural contexts. Individuals in Saudi Arabia, Ghana, or Brazil must encode a message before communicating it (Trenholm & Jensen, 2000), even if the culture-specific ways of encoding the message vary (Meyer, 2014). Likewise, while Scandinavians may build trust based on different processes and interactions than Latin Americans (Hofstede, 2001; Livermore, 2011; Meyer, 2014), trust and its basic structural elements (integrity, competence, loyalty, etc.) are essential to the development of an influence relationship in either culture (Caldwell & Clapham, 2003; Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Rath & Conchie, 2008). Consequently, the cognitive process model provides a framework for organizing leadership knowledge and developing leaders in cross-cultural contexts.

Implications

As discussed previously, this model can help resolve some of the leadership challenges we face, such as what matters in leadership, by providing a foundation for understanding leadership that separates it from personal and cultural biases and preferred styles. For example, servant leadership suggests that listening is a core essential element of leadership and the motive to serve others should be primary (Greenleaf, 2002; Keith, 2008; Sipe & Frick, 2009). Transformational leadership suggests that the motive to achieve a morally worthy shared goal is preeminent, and leadership rests more in inspirational communication (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Smith et al., 2004; Stone et al., 2003). The cognitive process model makes it clear that effective leadership in any given moment is dependent on the quality of information that a leader acquires. Listening and gathering information about both oneself and one's followers is essential for effective decision-making. Furthermore, capturing attention requires telling a story (including a vision) that resonates with followers' desires and needs. Thus, by providing a descriptive depiction of leadership processes in moments, the model bridges the gap between more values-based models.

In a similar fashion, the cognitive process model can reduce the extent to which leadership models imply that idealistic conceptions of leadership represent realistic approaches to influencing others. Doing so can be problematic, especially in cross-cultural and multicultural contexts, because individuals who believe these idealistic models represent descriptive practices may experience significant cognitive and emotional dissonance when they fail to achieve these ideals. Furthermore, they may be forced to resolve this dissonance by rejecting the ideal of effective leadership and arguing that it is not possible, altering their perception of themselves to believe they conform to the ideal when they do not, or rejecting themselves as potential leaders because of their failure. The cognitive process model potentially limits such occurrences because it sets a realistic depiction of what leadership requires and involves.

Another way the model can strengthen leadership is by providing a foundation for essential leadership development. As Mumford et al. (2015) explained, "understanding how leaders apply cognition, and the conditions shaping effective application of cognitive capacities in solving leadership problems, contributes to our ability to improve leader performance" (302). Consequently, "understanding how people apply cognition might provide a basis for formulating more effective leadership development programs" (302). This is important because different contexts require different skills and competencies. For example, individuals leading others in a task-oriented, individualist context may rely on coaching as a major tool of interpersonal influence, whereas, in a more relationship-oriented, collectivist cultural context, a greater emphasis may be placed on group-level, mutual problem solving and action planning. Nonetheless, all leaders—regardless of context—can be trained in the foundational competencies associated with the principles of awareness, decision-making, attention, communication, relationship building, and action (McClellan, 2021a).

Using this foundation, leaders can engage in conversations with individuals from different cultural contexts about the differences in how the principles and competencies are practiced. For example, while relationships are developed using bid-and-response processes that correspond with different role-based levels that build upon one another over time (Gottman, 2011; Gottman & DeClaire, 2001; Northouse, 2019; Trenholm & Jensen, 2000), the nature of what constitutes appropriate bids and responses and the levels of role-based interactions may differ dramatically across cultural contexts (Livermore, 2013).

Finally, unlike models that focus on processes corresponding to leadership ideas in more abstract ways, this model focuses on processes and practices that can be applied through the application of competencies (McClellan, 2021b). Thus, it represents a practical approach to leadership rather than a purely theoretical approach.

Conclusion

The need for new ways of thinking about leadership is clear. For years, we have been discussing a crisis of leadership (Burns, 1995; Owen, 2013), which recent history has brought to our awareness in significant ways. This suggests a need for those who study and practice leadership to reimagine leadership theory, practice, and development. The cognitive process model in this article does just that. By changing the unit of analysis from the historical emphasis on the leader to an emphasis on the moments in which leadership takes place, it fundamentally alters the way we think about leadership. Focusing on what these moments have in common—both structurally and procedurally—provides a descriptive realistic model of leadership practice. By emphasizing the underlying cognitive processes that are involved in leader–follower interactions, the cognitive process model identifies leadership principles that are essential across all cultural contexts and provides a framework for the kind of dialogue about differences in the application of the principles that facilitates understanding. It also provides a framework for facilitating international and multicultural leadership development efforts through an understanding of which competencies are essential skills of all leaders and which are contextual. As a result of these contributions, the cognitive process model represents a new and effective model for understanding leadership in a global society.

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The Leadership Caregiving Model: Addressing the Transformative Change Needed in Military Family Eldercare for Veterans*

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Family eldercare, one of the fastest-growing health care markets, requires unique skills to take care of aging loved ones, maintain a household, and prevent caregiver burnout. The required skills to manage the range of demands in eldercare are often out of reach or developed after the caring process begins and requires a transformative change. Military families and veterans face additional challenges in the military medical system. To address these individual, family, and societal needs, a new model for family eldercare was developed using an interdisciplinary, grounded theory approach. Rooted in leadership, transformational negotiation, and Jung's archetypes, a relational-responsive and integral approach was used to develop the leadership caregiving model for family eldercare.

Keywords: caregiving, eldercare, leadership, military, transformative change, veterans

Eldercare is one of the fastest growing markets in health care (Eldercare Workforce Alliance, 2013; Family Caregiver Alliance, 2006). Yet the required skills to adequately care for military and non-military aging adults are often out of reach or underdeveloped for many families. Moving an aging family member into one's home is often thought about, but the decision is rarely planned and often a last-minute decision due to health conditions or financial limitations. At times, the nature of caring for elders can seem more like a series of transactions rather than a path for mutual transformation. Caregiving in the military and for veterans is even tougher because

> little is known about the incidence and impact of parent care on the military. The impact is likely to emulate society in that parent care is an age-graded task associated with higher probability with midlife, and that the onset of parent care can have adverse effects on the health and vocational capacities of adult children who provide care to aging parents. Over 35 percent of career officers at the U.S. Army War College indicated significant worry and concern about the health of their aging parents and in-laws, and over one-third were not satisfied with the aging plans of their parents. Research suggests that almost all senior military personnel have at least one parent or in-law alive during the late stages

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> of their career, and that most officers have not completed the majority of parent care tasks. (Martin & Parker, 2003, 5)

A new model is needed to understand the relational and transformative dynamics between caregiver and care-receiver, especially when they are related. Using leadership, developmental, and aging studies literature, as well as results from direct participation and interviewing multiple family caregivers, a grounded theory approach was used to construct an integrated theory for eldercare. Brief overviews of the methodological process and substantive considerations are provided before explaining the building blocks of the new model. Literature is used to understand what was discovered in relationship to or grounded in the results (Patton, 2015).

The new leadership caregiving model for family eldercare is a relational–responsive and integral approach that is grounded in adaptive leadership (Heifetz, 1994); transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns, 2003); the trust, information, power and options (TIPO) analysis framework (Eisen, 2014); and transformational negotiation (Matyók, 2019). Archetypes for caregiving and care receiving are overlaid on the leadership frameworks. At the individual and interpersonal levels, the model offers a way to conceptualize the caregiver's role in relation to the loved one receiving care. The relationship between caregiver and family care provider is an adaptive challenge (Heifetz, 1994) that many will face in coming years as families reach the point of needing care and the high costs for nursing home or in-home care are realized. If done well, the process can feel more transformational for all involved.

There is both a societal and individual need for a new model in family eldercare. The 65+ age group, often called a *silver tsunami* (Barusch, 2013), will double to 70 million people by 2015 (Family Caregiver Alliance, 2004) and with extended lifespans, many will require increasing levels of medical and care attention over longer periods of time. An overstressed national health system will face a growing need for extended care, potentially causing family networks to provide the required care for family elders (AARP Public Policy Institute, 2008; Eldercare Workforce Alliance, 2013; Family Caregiver Alliance, 2004; Institute of Medicine of the National Academies, 2008).

Family members will require a new education and deeper understanding of the leadership challenges involved in eldercare (Duxbury et al., 2011; Eldercare Workforce Alliance, 2013; Family Caregiver Alliance, 2006). Nuclear and extended family members, including military and veterans, will have to care for aging adults who face memory loss, dementia, and other health concerns. Due to continuing challenges in the veterans' health care network, the moral and ethical weights can feel heavier when military families and veterans care for other veterans.

Managing myriad health challenges amid limited resources requires a different kind of model to not only provide necessary health measures but also bridge generational divides and negotiate strained relationships (Bastawrous, 2013)—all while avoiding caregiver burnout. The psychological, social, and relationship stresses of juggling work and caregiving responsibilities have been studied (Fortinsky, 2011), but there is not enough scholarly understanding of the combined impact on a family caregiver's emotional health (Lee et al., 2011) and how to effectively respond to the tensions created by caring for self and the family member. Beyond how to prepare for the silver tsunami, there is a major concern for the growing demands on veterans' homes and hospitals.

We as a society must address how a family responds to a family elder in meaningful ways. Yet an investigation of literature (Barling et al., 1994; Bastawrous, 2013; Blum & Sherman, 2010; Braun et al., 2005; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; McBee, 2008; O'Connor, 2007; Reuben et al., 2000) reveals that there is no current model that views caring for adult family members as both a relational and responsive practice while giving equal attention to the individual, interpersonal, collective, and system levels at play.

Why Transformative Change and a New Family Eldercare Model Are Needed

Much of the scholarship directed toward families focuses on avoiding harm (Millert et., 2002) or the costs of and barriers to health care (Misra-Hebert et al., 2015), including using the system to get care for a loved one; preparing for the costs; dealing with burnout; communicating with elders about insurance, finances, and housing options; finding resources; hiring a “homecare” specialist to find an affordable or best home for your budget; and building a care network. In the corporate arena, there are even articles on how to market business services to families or how to provide concierge services—all at a profit that seeks to establish a niche in the growing marketplace (Senior Finance Advisor, 2019; Zallman et al., 2019). Yet there is little research found on how to actually provide care in your own home to an aging family member, the potential for a transformational process, and negotiating with a different generational culture (Karner, 2001). Care for family elders becomes even more challenging for military families and veterans, or the unique care required for veterans that include invisible wounds, battlefield wounds, and PTSD (Smith & Harris, 2017; Spiro et al., 2016).

Caring for elder military members or veterans “represents a more encompassing set of roles and responsibilities and is often a less accommodating career setting in which to experience elder care challenges” (Martin & Parker, 2003, 4). First Command’s 2018 Financial Behaviors Index found that

> 36 percent of middle-class military families [commissioned officers and senior noncommissioned officers with a household income of at least $50,000] currently or anticipate providing care for an elderly parent or other family member. Further, military families expect to provide elder care in a variety of settings, most commonly in their own home (54%) or in the elderly person’s home (42%). (“Military Families and the Cost of Elder Care” section)

The survey also found that military families expect to pay for care services that include home care (18%), nursing home care (8%), and health care (7%). The cost of providing this care is not insignificant. In fact, according to the survey, military families spend an estimated $1,342 monthly on the care of a senior loved one with 40% of respondents saying the cost of care is higher than they had anticipated. Over one-third of military families caring for a loved one admitted to feeling extremely or very financially stretched.

The current models of eldercare focus on hospitalized patients and the prevention of cognitive or functional decline, increasing knowledge and skills of care workers, caregiver role conflict in relation to employment, mindfulness-based stress reduction, and caregiver burnout or burden (Barling et al., 1994;

Bastawrous, 2013; Blum & Sherman, 2010; Braun et al., 2005; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; McBee, 2008; O'Connor, 2007; Reuben et al., 2000). However, they do not address the relationship between a caregiver and care-receiver with equal value given to both participants, particularly when both are related. In many of the models, social and emotional enrichment give way to physical and cognitive transactional concerns. A more holistic or transformative approach is avoided or not employed. The current models focus on the immediate concerns of providing or protecting the individual as a patient, which seem more closely aligned with institutional or managed care and feel akin to a transactional versus transformative process. A new model is needed that is focused on the caring of the people in both roles. A transformative or generative model could embrace the complexity and demands of the leadership phenomenon (Conger, 1998) involved in family eldercare. Such a model would envision leadership and the family caregiving process as involving multiple dimensions or embedded nests of phenomena (Avolio & Bass, 1995) that capture the duality that each person gives and receives elements of leadership in the caring process. A new model needs to address the fact that both individuals are engaged in the caring process and that caregiving is a two-way relationship—a truly transformative, relational process. Both caregiver and care-receiver can influence the morale, values, motivation, and performance to a higher moral ground using the four components of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns, 2003). The research question that guided this preliminary study was as follows:

> Research Question: How can a model for military family eldercare be developed that addresses the transformative relationship between caregiver and care-receiver?

Method

The methodological process for this study utilized a grounded theory approach to understand and build an explanation or theory that inductively arises out of relationship with the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 2015). The inquiry began with a personal desire to better understand my emerging role as a family caregiver, seek ways to improve skills, and conceptualize my caregiver role in relation to my loved one. Notably, my positionality was used as a caregiver and provides a relative strength in the process. A qualitative approach was used that captured participant voices and theoretical underpinnings to construct a new model that addresses the need to capture the integral, adaptive, and transformational elements involved in the caregiving process of family eldercare.

The four-step approach—participant selection, data collection, data analysis, and theory building—was underlaid by an initial examination of current eldercare models and documents from health care agencies that explained family eldercare. The existing models were limited in scope on family caregiving. Hence, the experiences of three family caregivers, including my own, were used to help understand the relational challenges as captured by personal notes, reflections in journaling, and communication with family members.

Participant Selection and Data Collection

The three cases were selected due to convenience and in a purposeful way to ensure a wide range of caregiving situations involving family eldercare were used in the study. All participants voluntarily provided their personal notes that described their own thoughts and feelings during the process of family eldercare. The first case involved a female spouse of an active-duty member who was taking care of her mother, a veteran, over a 17-month period. The second case involved a wife taking care of her older husband, a veteran, over a 23-month period. The third case involved a nephew, a veteran, taking care of his aunt, a former WWII POW, for 34 months in which direct participation of the researcher was employed. Follow-up interviews with other participants were conducted using a conversational style, or open-ended structure, to collect and identify contextual data and examine the convergence or divergence of data from the document analysis. In all cases, only the experiences of the caregiver were used. Each case represented a single longitudinal way of understanding the shifts in caregiving over a period of 17 to 34 months. Data collection on and from the elder family members involved in the caregiving process was considered, but due to the intrusiveness of the approach, interviews and direct observation methods were not conducted. The subsequent limitations and positionality of this decision are discussed later.

Data Analysis and Theory Building

Using a simple coding process between personal notes, journaling, emails, and text messages to family members concerning caregiving roles, as well as transcript analysis from the follow-up interviews, keywords were categorized and themes developed. Four coding cycles were used, moving from pre-codes to coding of documents, followed by grouping the codes into categories to help produce themes or ways to understand the relationship of the data. NVivo qualitative data analysis software, values, and descriptive and thematic coding were all used in the first cycle of the coding process. Axial, focused, and pattern coding were used to organize the data into categories and then themes. Each case was internally cross-examined between interviews and communication documents (e.g., personal notes, journals, emails, and texts), and cross-case analysis was conducted across the three cases. Each participant was provided a copy of the interview transcript and the results of the internal case analysis between the documents and the interview.

The final step in the methodological process involved a further review of literature from human developmental, aging studies, leadership studies, and conflict transformation (including negotiation) fields to determine what could be scaffolded onto the coding structure to make sense of the themes. Themes were further revised based on what was found in the literature. Literature was used to further understand the findings.

The progressive methodological structure served as the foundation for constructing an integrated theory for family eldercare. The analysis anticipates future conditions and begins to view the care of elders through the lens of an inter-individual (Kegan, 1982), which offers a more expansive view than current eldercare models. The findings show the categories and themes that emerged from the data, based on which the new model for family eldercare was developed.

Findings

Nineteen concepts stood out from the first coding cycle: self, relational, cognitive, emotional, love, forgiveness, masks, faces, influences, collective, systems, family, history, individual, interpersonal, roles, time, reality, and moments. The terms were categorized under the relational influences, like individual and interpersonal (between caregiver and care-receiver), and external influences in the wider system or collective framework. Using these terms, a more expansive search was done in the human development, leadership studies, and conflict transformation literature of peer-reviewed journal articles and books to make sense of the emerging themes. Participants made minor changes to the transcripts and acknowledged the results of the analysis between the documents they provided and their interviews. Cross-case analysis was used to find patterns and opportunities for integration, as well as disconfirming contradictory evidence.

Six common themes emerged from the collective voice of the caregivers:

- The relationship with the care-receiver was key to how each participant responded to the situation in the immediate moment, which were seen as more transactional experiences.
- There was an adaptive challenge in relating to the gaps in cognitive, social, physical, and emotional capacities and values between participants and their elder family members.
- Clear relationships existed between self and others beyond the care.
- Participants described their role as reacting to what was seen or felt in the face or context of the elder family member with a desire for generative or transformational moments.
- There were consistent themes around self, relationships, social, and emotional and the tensions around caregiving/care receiving.
- The time concept was different between and with participants.

The relationship with their care-receivers was key in how they responded to situations in the immediate moment. Their common challenge seemed to be that they were constantly adapting to gaps in the cognitive, social, physical, and emotional capacities of their elder family members. There were clear relationships between themselves as caregivers, and at the same time, with their older family members. Participants described their role as reacting to what was seen or felt in the face or context of their care-receiver. It seemed like they would react to what they saw or felt in the situation. There were consistent themes around self, relationships, social, and emotional well-being and the associated tensions around caregiving and care-receiving. The concept of time was different between and with participants.

In all three cases, the caregivers' experiences revealed that the relationship between and with the aging family member was key to how each responded to the role and in relation to family history as it was being played out during the moments of caregiving. Time is integral in reliving key moments in the past as ways to simultaneously embrace the present and accept the future. In each case, it seemed that the adaptive challenge (Heifetz, 1994) in elder caregiving lay in dealing with the values and gaps in the moment of care relating to cognitive, social, physical, and emotional capacities. Concepts from earlier disciplines, particularly the concept of self, love, and elements of Jung's (1957/1990) collective unconscious, were used to propel others in the art of presencing (being in the moment with self and/or others or connecting present self with future self (Scharmer, 2007), renegotiating reality, and the acceptance of the approaching changes in life. The concepts aligned more with transformational and adaptive leadership frameworks.

Reflecting on the family caregivers' interactions and reflections, during the process of moving from codes to categories, I began to see clear relationships between self and other, as well as relationships between human development models and leadership theories. From their experiences, the primary lines of development (Wilber, 2000) between caregiver and care-receiver seemed to be self, relational, cognitive, social, and emotional. Also, in the first case involving a daughter caring for her mother, there seemed to be a level of guilt present that was not found in the other two cases.

Trust and power were two other concepts that were present in all three cases. In the transcripts, trust and power were discussed 23 and 19 times, respectively.

Caregivers felt that trust had to initially be gained by the elder family member, especially if the care-receiver was new to the environment or not considered close in a familial relationship. The concept of power had a wider range of use in each of the three cases that included the various types of power (e.g., referent, reward, and expert). In many of the situations described in the interviews, power was used in an authoritative way over the elder family member and usually connected to safety and health. Yet there were times when more of a shared power took place, such as when stories were exchanged or options were discussed about meal selection or activities to do away from the home. Each of the caregivers had slightly different approaches to their caregiving. The daughter taking care of her mother relied more on a values-based than a power-based approach. The wife providing care for her husband invoked a power-based approach. The nephew used a middle-ground approach that progressed to a heavier reliance on shared values.

There were similar instances when differences or divergence were present across the cases. The main area of differences was in the individual methods of getting and using care-assistant methods, such as other family members, volunteer services, or paid services from either individuals or organizations. The process of care involved in the different situations was not a part of the study but could have had an influence in the care process. Within each case, there were some differences between the analysis of documents and the interview results, but those differences were negligible when moving from codes to categories.

Discussion and Building the Model

Several scholars have discussed the building blocks of theory development (Bacharach, 1989; Byron & Thatcher, 2016; Dubin, 1978; Whetten, 1989). The building blocks, or key theoretical elements, should show what is included and dismissed to construct the theory and show relationships between the underlying dynamics and assumptions, as well as address the limitations of the new concept (Dubin, 1978; Whetten, 1989). Only those related concepts or theories involving individual or self, interpersonal or relational, and collective systems in relation to cognitive, emotional, and social development and time were considered. The other areas were not used in further analysis due to time constraints and a lack of clear relationships on which to build a useful theory.

Using multiple bodies of knowledge to develop a skeletal framework (Jabareen, 2009) with intentionally defined constructs (Suddaby, 2010), the leadership caregiving model for family eldercare is more fully explained. Four theoretical areas were used that linked to the six themes of the collective voice of participants: archetypes/faces/roles, concept of "self," lines of development, and time. The themes were further examined to identify the larger systems of influence that are present, yet beyond the immediate caregiving situation. The model primarily focuses on the roles of the caregiver in response to what was seen in the faces or needs of the care-receiver and in relation to time. The model is a step toward further addressing a growing social phenomenon and social concern of caring for elders and supports the concept of being a "good enough caregiver."

Archetypes, Faces, and Roles

My own cognitive and emotional development has influenced my role as a caregiver, especially the deeper understanding of myself, by embracing my full, authentic, true self using the combined energy of the anima-animus (Jung, 1957/1990) for greater self-realization. The elements of anima-animus were present in the other two cases but seemed more alive in my notes. To be a good enough caregiver as a male, I had to accept the female and more inclusionary sides of my psyche (the anima) and capitalize on the emotional aspects of the archetype, which were less present in the other two cases. Yet, in all three cases, a golden side of each individual shadow (Jung, 1957/1990) emerged and allowed each to be a caregiver in a more authentic and responsive way. This evolution was critical for all caregivers with their aging family members—each could access a more authentic self and the full energy of anima-animus in the role of caregiver.

Due to what was occurring internally and externally with the aging family members, the caregivers would observe several faces or identify different needs in the moment: safety, food, medication, relearning, reminding, reliving a past moment, mediation to reduce anger or confusion, helping hand of assistance, cheering up or using humor to break tension or reduce anxiety, or the desire to pass on information or be the wise elder. Using cross-case analysis of the three cases and moving from codes to categories during the coding process, I categorized those needs into seven faces in the moment: safety, survival, relearn/remind, mediation, helping hand, down clown, and sage.

In all three cases, when a need of the aging family member was noticed, they responded to the situation using one of seven roles. The roles were developed from a combination of the personal notes, action logics (Rooke & Torbert, 2005; Torbert & Associates, 2004) and Jung's archetypes: protector, ruler, teacher, diplomat, collaborator, jester, or strategist–learner. Each role is meant to address the immediacy of the situation in response to what is needed for the aging family member. The protector is focused on the need for physical safety and takes immediate action in the situation (prevent falling or clear a path for walking). The ruler enforces standards for long-term survival and to sustain life, such as taking medicine or eating nutritiously. The teacher aids in relearning a forgotten task or gently reminds the care-receiver to complete a thought or foster discussion. The diplomat recognizes that emotional or relational comfort is needed due to cognitive difficulty or physical limitations causing confusion or requiring negotiation of feelings, which involves listening to repeated stories or empathizing with the care-receiver to help diffuse, balance, or mediate concerns. The collaborator joins with the care-receiver in a relational way to provide a helping hand in a joint action (e.g., doing physical therapy together). The jester recognizes that the elder is unhappy or not smiling (down clown face) and chooses humor in physical or verbal form to lighten up the situation. The shared laughter can provide an outlet and strengthen the emotional connection between participants. The adage that laughter is good medicine comes to mind as the caregivers reflected on their experiences. The strategist–learner is a role that understands the other roles and can adjust to the care-receiver's face of being a wise elder or sage; this is sort of a role reversal in a relational way because the caregiver is now in a receiving mode and the care-receiver is the one providing knowledge, sharing an experience, or offering a lesson about life. The seven caregiver roles focus on a continuum from physical, cognitive, emotional, and social to relational needs or faces of the care-receiver.

Lines of Development

The lines of development inform a caregiver's actions or responses in reaction to what is occurring, not occurring, or could be occurring in the third space (Green, 2009) between the caregiver and care-receiver. Oftentimes, elders put on faces to mask loss of control, cognition, ego, and ability. The main lines of development are self, relational, social, affective, and cognitive, which influence the moments in caregiving (myself) and a caregiver (other self) reacts either out of necessity or in a more nurturing way. The challenge for a caregiver is to understand what is behind the mask at that moment and choose the appropriate role for the situation. The moment can be classified using three related terms: Chronos, Kairos, and Ananke.

Concept of Time

Whereas Chronos is the linear concept of time, Kairos is more relational and alludes to what is happening in the moment (Liddel & Scott, 1982). In eldercare, time is relative, and the present moments are usually spent holding onto or remembering the past or avoiding the looming future (Grainger, 1993; Jones, 2006). Freud (1937) used the concept of Ananke, the Greek goddess of necessity, and Eros, the Greek god of love, as parents of civilization. But in eldercare, Ananke, in relation to time, can be considered what is needed or necessary in the moment. In eldercare, Ananke is normally the choice of a caregiver as a response to a situation with an elder. The concept of "tough love" comes to mind when combining Eros and Ananke. For the caregiver, importance is placed on what is needed in the moment for the physical and emotional health of the elder person, so Ananke takes precedence over Chronos or Kairos. But for the elder, living in the moment may be more critical for health than dwelling on the past or avoiding the future; hence, Kairos becomes the driving force. Understanding the overlaps and distinctions expands our depth of knowledge in and horizons of human development as we explore our systems of influence.

Beyond Self and With Others: Seeing Our Systems of Influence

In terms of how a person develops over time, the bio-eco system (Brofenbrenner, 1979) may be one of the most influential concepts. The human, or bio element (e.g., gender, age, and health), is at the center of the increasing circles representing the immediate developmental influences or microsystems (e.g., child, siblings, peers, parents, teachers, and others), the relationship between the microsystems or mesosystems (e.g., home, neighborhood, school, and church), the indirect influences on development or exo-systems (e.g., parents' workplace, school board, and mass media), and the wider attitudes and ideologies of the culture or macrosystems. The chronosystem encompasses the bio-, micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems and contains the environmental patterns and sociohistorical conditions influenced over time. The human element is a product of the various systems and developmental influences, which are dynamic. While Brofenbrenner (1979) had an expansive view of human (especially) child development, Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory is more concerned with bio-social development. The systems of influence are a mix of the socio- and cognitive developments that involve both the caregiver and care-receiver.

Vygotsky (1978) believed that the social learning process precedes development for children, which was a direct contrast to Piaget's (1964) assertion that cognitive development must take place before learning can occur. Purporting that human development is too complex to be mapped to stages, Vygotsky developed the zone of proximal development, in which language and context are key for social interaction, social learning, and cognitive development. The child is the central circle, with a larger outer ring representing the parent (or other most knowledgeable person). The space between the child and parent is the zone of proximal development, or the capacity of the child to know and do things with the aid of the other person. The interaction between a child and another equates to guidance, mentoring, and modeling being given to the child. Social interaction between child and adult is a reciprocal experience and responsive to the needs of the child, which leads to cognitive development and learning language. What is not accounted for is the developmental and mental health disorders that affect learning. Between a care-receiver and caregiver from the same family origin exists a reciprocal and responsive nature, and it is this unique interaction between family loved ones that must be accounted for in family eldercare.

The developmental, individual difference, relationship-based (DIR®/Floortime™) model (Greenspan, 2004) encourages the use of emotional and social learning exchanges that consider developmental abilities and learning challenges. The DIR model uses the concept of floor time with the goals of following the child's lead and then bringing the child into the shared reality of the moment (Greenspan, 1979). Seeing the world through the child's interests or inquiries and responding in a relational way are the windows of occurrence to the cognitive, emotional, and social lines of development. The concern in older adults, especially those in the fourth age (Laslett, 1995), is the loss of autonomy due to cognitive and physical degradation. Hence, the role of caregiver is instrumental in all developmental lines.

In most situations, the caregiver has greater power over the care-receiver. The concept of power was present in all three cases, yet was used in slightly different ways for different reasons. The dichotomy of power over and power with most closely resembles the concepts of how power is used in negotiations, particularly in differing between transformational and bargaining-type negotiations (Matyók, 2019; McDonald & Millen; 2020; Eisen, 2014). If a values-based approach is used, then power seems to go beyond the caregiver and becomes a shared exchange of authority. Instead of power over the caregiver, both participants in the care process move into a "power with" phenomenon in which the space for transformational negotiations becomes more important. In this new, shared role of power in a values-based approach, the relational dynamics increase and open the pathway for transformation versus transaction. The caregiver then becomes a more influential part of the system rather than working the system for the benefit of the care-receiver. When power is used for transformation, there is a more positive view of the caregiving situation by both the caregiver and the care-receiver in connection with the leadership displayed by the caregiver. The voices of *both* participants matter. The influence or leadership displayed by the caregiver is transformative regardless of cultural barriers, and he or she then becomes a meta-caregiver capable of seeing the situation and dynamics at play in a more holistic way (Brown, 2012; Cialdini, 2007; Cohn & Ebner, 2010; Firman, 2014; Lederach, 2003; Matyók, 2019; Salacuse, 2015; Shmueli et al., 2009; Zohar, 2015).

The relational role of caregiver (Bastawrous, 2013; O'Connor, 2007) is an influencing role in terms of the authentic activity of leadership that influences the behaviors and attitudes of others (Avolio et al., 2004) and deals with the conflicting values at play between participants as leaders with authority (Heifetz, 1994). The caregiver and elder are dual influences in constructing both the environment and the reality of caregiving (Blum & Sherman, 2010; Grainger, 1993; Jones, 2006). The role of leadership can be taken up by either participant when the focus is on a common objective (Hickman & Sorenson, 2014) and goes beyond transactional and is closer to transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns, 2003). Leadership in this process becomes a transformational container of the physical, emotional, and cognitive health of both caregiver and care-receiver (Bastawrous, 2013; Blum & Sherman, 2010; O'Connor, 2007). Using the occupants of a car as an analogy, the caregiver would sit in the driver's seat and the care-receiver would occupy the front passenger seat. In a sense, the caregiver drives the relationship in response to what is needed by the elder person receiving care. Both occupants influence the direction of the vehicle, but it is incumbent upon the caregiver to be the authority regarding safety and the overall journey.

The Leadership Caregiving Model for Family Eldercare

Figure 1 depicts the new leadership caregiving model for family eldercare. The area of activity between an elder and caregiver contains the immediate individual–interpersonal windows of occurrence and the wider collective–systemic forces of influence.

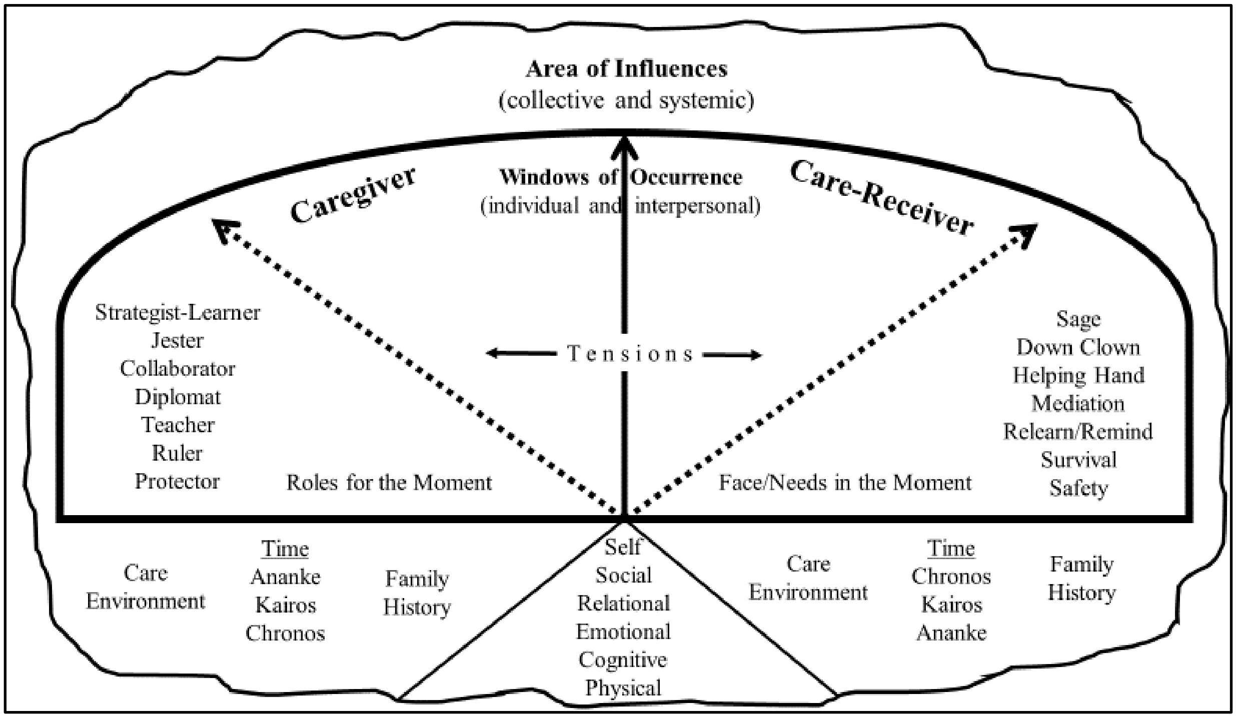

Figure 1. The leadership caregiving model for family eldercare

The individual and interpersonal modes of operating are the windows of occurrence between the caregiver and care-receiver. Everyone brings personal elements to a situation or relationship based on multiple lines of development including self, social, cognitive, emotional, relational, and physical. The caregiver is the formal authority and takes on the responsibility of leadership due to the diminishing physical and cognitive abilities of the aging family member. There is tension between what is seen or observed and what must be done or not done in the moment. The role taken up by the caregiver is a response to the face or need of the care-receiver. Often, the face is masking other feelings or used to protect the ego, so there is a tension between what is seen and what is needed. Over time, there is a dance between participants regarding the seven faces (safety, survival, relearn/remind, mediation, helping hand, and down clown) and seven roles (protector, ruler, teacher, diplomat, collaborator, jester, and strategist–learner). Understanding self and others simultaneously is further complicated by a larger domain of collective and systemic influences.

Area of Influences

The collective and systemic forces of influence involve the immediate care environment, which could be at home or in a skilled nursing facility, hospital, or other place. What is needed or provided in each environment differs and influences the level of care between participants. Family history is a real and always present influence in caring for aging family members. The baggage from past relationships, family situations, and memories is sometimes shared territory, but over time, it becomes part of the new shared reality in the evolving relationship between caregiver and care-receiver. The concepts of time—Chronos, Kairos, and Ananke—contribute to the relative aspects of the relationship, and all must be available, as they collectively influence the caregiving decisions. The balancing of the three time elements presents a constant challenge in eldercare, particularly regarding the cognitive and emotional security of the care-receiver. The domain of care environment, family history, and elements of time influence the shared space between caregiver and care-receiver, and consequently, becomes an "elder zone of care," like the proximal zone of development. A "good enough caregiver" can respond to a situation with an appropriate role and provide the necessary care in a moment of need that elevates and transforms the other person. The caregiver becomes more of an adaptive leader who generates the capacity for transformation for both the caregiver and care-receiver.

Limitations and Implications for Further Study

There are three prominent limitations to this study: sample size, limited methods, and positionality. Foremost is the small sample size, which, despite multiple levels of notes and communication content, was limited to understanding three viewpoints based on a long-term care relationship. While observations were not completed, each participant did review and approve (i.e., member checking) the findings and discussion sections. A next step would be to use a larger sample of caregivers and begin to understand a wider view, as well as adding observations to the next evolution of the study to better understand the roles in the moment and which could provide a measure of convergence or divergence with the intra- and cross-case analyses. Qualitative interviews of other individuals involved in the care process could be used, and cases constructed for a deeper, more detailed cross-case analysis. The process would aid in a richer and more robust coding structure, and emerging themes could be compared to what was found in this study. A survey of caregivers within a certain organization would be beneficial for empirical reasons. The third concern is my positionality as the researcher. Despite some contextual limits, including a personal narrative analysis using notes and various personal communication and correspondence in the process of caring for an elder relative over 34 months, I felt a continuous need to discover something of value. I wanted to inform my own caregiving and help fill a gap in the field, and in this regard, the positionality was embraced as both a limitation and a strength. An increase in the sample size with reliance on statistical testing of survey results could lessen my influence on the research process. Nevertheless, the new model adds to the interdisciplinary fields by conceptualizing elements from the fields of human development, leadership, and aging studies. Further study is needed to confirm or change the elements of the newly constructed model.

Conclusion

The leadership caregiving model for family eldercare represents a final piece on the family caregiver's path of integrating developmental and leadership theories at the individual, interpersonal, collective, and system levels. Literature supported the individual and societal need for a new model in family eldercare. After a brief overview of the methodological and substantive considerations, a foundation was provided using a progressive coding structure from three case studies. Applicable theories from human development, leadership, and conflict transformation fields were used to frame the findings. The new model was developed and discussed using building blocks ranging from individual, interpersonal, collective, and systemic aspects. A brief summary explained the windows of occurrence and the area of influences that constitute the new model. Further study is recommended to determine to what degree the small sample size represents the relationships, occurrences, and influences involved in the greater community of family eldercare.

However, the new model offers a way for caregivers and others to make sense of the complicated nature of caring for aging family members. The faces and roles may change, but the need for family members to appreciate and understand the domain of family eldercare is a path many will soon travel. The leadership caregiving model for family eldercare offers one model to aid in what should be a transformative relationship rather than transactions of care.

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What Leadership Metaphors Matter Most and Why Metaphors Matter*

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Apt leadership metaphors uniquely reveal the essence of leadership and shape organizational practices and outcomes. This study evaluated how and why metaphors matter and which leadership metaphors matter most in the study and practice of leadership. Leaders and scholars from different disciplines across the globe were asked to provide a leadership metaphor and corresponding explanation. More than 500 metaphors were received and evaluated using grounded theory and narrative analysis. The metaphors predominately fell into one of three themes: navigational, nurturing, or performance related. The three meta-metaphors provide relevant frames of reference for leaders to construct desirable social realities consistent with good leadership and a conceptual definition of leadership congruent with those found in the literature.

Keywords: leadership, language, metaphors, meta-metaphors, reframing, semantics

The leadership metaphors people use in their workplace and the stories behind the metaphors construct social realities with both intentional and unintentional consequences. The metaphors people use reveal assumptions, frame perceptions, and govern subsequent interactions. The “right” leadership metaphor facilitates socialization to desired norms in respective contexts and is a catalyst for creating a culture consistent with the valued outcomes of the institution and good leadership (Geary, 2012).

This research identified universal generative metaphors that different leaders used to understand leadership. More than 10,000 e-mails were sent to leaders and scholars across the globe that asked them to “please provide a metaphor regarding leadership by completing the following statement, ‘Leadership is . . . ’ and include

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a brief description of your metaphor." The findings revealed a consensus on leadership's essential elements and provide a model to understand and practice good leadership.

The Impetus to Find the Leadership Metaphors That Matter Most

A continual refrain in leadership studies is that the field lacks an agreed-upon definition of leadership. Bass (1990) observed that there are "as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (11). Northouse (2021) noted that "scholars and practitioners have attempted to define leadership for more than a century without universal consensus" (2). He concluded that "after decades of dissonance, leadership scholars agree on one thing: They can't come up with a common definition of leadership" (5). The field of leadership studies is not unique in lacking an agreed-upon overarching theory, let alone a common definition (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006). Definitional challenges are common when attempting to capture abstract concepts involving complex phenomena (Borghi & Binkofski, 2014).

Alvesson and Spicer (2011) argued that people should "abandon the common assumption of the many mainstream studies of leadership that is possible to develop a universal theory of leadership" (9). They observed that "despite what mainstream leadership authors and many managers claim, leadership is seldom self-evident and clear cut" because there is so much variation in how people talk about leadership (10). Alvesson and Spicer lobbied for an ambiguity-centered approach to understand how leadership varies because of the unique culture, situation, and people involved in those moments when leadership is exercised. It was clear to them that "to capture the variation, we need a range of different ideas that will help us understand leadership" (10). They demonstrated that apt leadership metaphors provide sufficient insights for a conceptual definition and model of leadership and grant sufficient latitude for leadership to be situational.

An impetus for this study was the thought that leadership metaphors used by a variety of leaders and scholars would reveal common themes to better understand, study, practice, and teach leadership. As Alvesson and Spicer (2011) established, metaphors on leadership can provide shades of distinctions useful for developing a nuanced conceptual definition of leadership beneficial for advancing the field of leadership studies (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006).

Why Metaphors Matter

René Magritte (1898–1967), the Belgian surrealist, used art to provoke people to rethink their assumptions. His 1929 painting *The Treachery of Images* depicts a traditional English pipe with the words *Ceci n'est pas une pipe* ("This is not a pipe" in French) written below the image of the pipe. The painting is designed to look like a flashcard and bring observers back to school for a lesson on the gap between language and reality. Magritte demonstrated that words and drawings are symbolic representations of reality. For example, when you read a newspaper, you are not reading the actual accounts of the day, but rather the writers' perceptions of the reported events, subject to verification. Magritte illustrated that knowledge of the world and corresponding beliefs are abstractions of reality structured by people's interpretations and perceptions.

Alfred Korzybski (1879–1950), a linguistic philosopher and scientist and the progenitor of general semantics, documented Magritte's observations that all thinking is metaphorical. General semantics evaluates how words are abstractions of reality that construct meaning and generate resultant states of mind and social realities. *Metaphors* are comparative abstractions that poetically and creatively represent or symbolize another thing. Korzybski (1933/1994) concluded that "a word is not the object it represents" just as "the map is not the territory it represents" (58).

Language is the use of symbols to understand, experience, make, and exchange the meaning of the tangible and intangible. As a result, all language is metaphorical at some level—"seeing, experiencing, or talking about something in terms of something else" (Ritchie, 2013, 8). The labels *moose, mouse,* and *monkey* are not actual animals but meaningful representations of the respective animals with unique etymologies. Words like *trust* and *honor* convey meaningful concepts and conjure up images of distinguishable virtues, but the words are not the actual virtues.

Metaphors are not only symbolic representations the mind uses to draw meaningful inferences about the nature of reality; they are also transformative literary devices to enhance sensemaking (Parry, 2008). Ritchie (2013) documented different types of metaphors. On one end of the continuum "are the eloquent and colorful literary metaphors, such as the oft-quoted lines, 'All the world's a *stage,* and all the men and women are merely *players*" (3).

> [On] the other extreme are familiar idioms such as '*rising* prices,' '*icy* greeting,' '*close* relationship' and '*dead-end* job'. These phrases are certainly not *literal,* since prices are not objects located in or capable of moving through space, and a greeting is not an object or substance that can have a temperature. (4)

Along the continuum are commonly used words in conversation today like *salary,* which "comes from Latin, *sal*, salt; at one time Roman soldiers were paid with a monthly allotment of salt" (4).

Because of their formative influence, metaphors are used in a cross-section of disciplines, including organizational leadership. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) demonstrated that "we draw inferences, set goals, make commitments, and execute plans, all on the basis of how we in part structure our experience, consciously and unconsciously, by means of metaphor" (158). According to Cutright (2001), "a metaphor for an organization or its processes, then, has utility for shaping our very conceptions of the organization" (2).

Morgan (1998) demonstrated the power of metaphors in managing organizations. He noted that metaphors create meaning and shape organizational culture "by using one element of experience to understand another" to uniquely allow people to "see things new ways and act in new ways" (4–5). Bennis (1974) provided several metaphors to vividly illustrate the various aspects of a college president's role. He even admonished search committees to "determine the university's particular metaphor, the collectively held image of what the university is or could become. Just as there are a number of successful presidential types, there are many university metaphors" (77). According to Bennis, "metaphors have tremendous power to establish new social realities and to give life and meaning to what was formerly perceived only dimly and imprecisely" (77). Cherry and Spiegel (2006) used metaphors with educational leaders to effectively facilitate both professional development and school change. Shoup (2016) provided relevant metaphors associated with the different facets of organizational leadership and demonstrated that leaders would do well "to embrace multiple metaphors to better understand their numerous roles and responsibilities" (178). Sergiovanni (1994) persuasively demonstrated the logical consistency between metaphors and actual practices in his cogent argument for the better metaphor of "community" over "organization" in characterizing educational administration. Sergiovanni astutely posited that changing the metaphor changes the theory and practice.

Alvesson and Spicer (2011) used the "metaphors of the leader as saint, gardener, buddy, commander, cyborg, and bully" to better capture the ambiguous factors of leadership (11). They identified the metaphors using an inductive approach to the "interplay between various theories of leadership" and their "own empirical work on leadership" and made explicit connections with major themes in leadership studies (Spicer & Alvesson, 2011, 47).

This current study expanded on works by Morgan (1998), Parry (2008), and Alvesson and Spicer (2011). It was designed to ascertain what, if any, universal features of leadership are revealed in the leadership metaphors people use. It was conducted in three phases and entailed collecting and analyzing leadership metaphors and corresponding descriptions from scholars and seasoned leaders across disciplines and around the globe.

Method

The first phase was conducted with various established civic leaders, university and college presidents, and faculty scholars in the United States. Phases II and III involved the collection of metaphors and descriptions from different regions across the globe, first from university presidents and scholars (Phase II) and then from an opportunity sample of various professionals in China (Phase III).

Participants were asked via email to provide a metaphor for leadership and a brief explanation of their metaphor. Grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and narrative analysis (Riessman, 1993) were used to evaluate and group the metaphors according to themes identified in the metaphors themselves and the corresponding descriptions. The procedures for each phase are described below.

Phase I: U.S. University Scholars and Presidents and Select Civic Leaders

Professors, associate professors, and assistant professors in business, educational administration, military science, political science, and religious studies from a random selection of 100 Tier-One research universities were contacted via email. The email addresses were obtained from their university websites. The selection of the scholars from the selected disciplines was based on the assumption that they likely devoted formal time to the study of and development of leaders within their respective fields of study. A total of 5,060 emails were sent; 915 came back as undeliverable. A total of 313 replies were received for a total response rate of 7.6%.

Presidents from 725 randomly selected universities and colleges across the United States were solicited via email in a similar fashion. A total of 175 replies came back for a 24.1% response rate. The national leaders of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, Optimist International, and Rotary International were also solicited via email for their metaphors on leadership and respective explanations. Forty-four replies from the 583 e-mails delivered yielded a 7.5% response rate.

Phase II: International University Scholars and Presidents

Phase II involved the analysis of metaphors on leadership and respective explanations solicited from presidents and scholars at leading institutions of higher education in various countries. Using information from the United Nations website, the three most populated countries in each of the 10 global regions (Africa, Asia, Caribbean, Central America, Central Asia, Europe, Middle East, North America, Oceania, and South America) were identified. Based on a list of recognized universities from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the top-three ranked, four-year universities from each country (as measured by in-country rankings) were selected.

The email addresses of the university presidents and the business, political science, and education faculty were collected from what was available on the universities' websites. A total of 8,475 e-mails with the same request as in Phase I was sent to selected university presidents and faculty at universities in Angola, Argentina, Australia, Botswana, Canada, Colombia, Cuba, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guatemala, Honduras, India, Kenya, Mexico, Namibia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Spain, Sudan, Uganda, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Scholars from religious studies and military science were excluded in Phase I, given such programs are fewer in number when compared to the other programs included and are more common at American universities. In total, 7,598 e-mails were presumably delivered for a 1.7 % response rate with 129 responses.

Phase III: China

Given the low response rate and the challenges of navigating foreign websites, Phase II was suspended, and a new strategy was implemented to solicit metaphors from different leaders in China. Metaphors on leadership and corresponding descriptions were solicited from various leaders using the commercial Chinese online social survey agency, WenJuanXing (https://www.wjx.cn/). Three hundred and nine participants volunteered to respond, of which six were excluded as four people responded twice and two provided vulgar replies, for a total of 303 usable responses. The survey was completed in Chinese and translated to English by one of the researchers of the study.

The participants included 165 males (54.46%) and 138 females (45.54%) serving in college and research institutions (7.25%), state-owned enterprises (20.77%), joint ventures (7.94%), private enterprises (47.18%), foreign enterprises (6.29%) and governmental and public organizations (10.57%). The professional roles consisted of chief-level managers (15.18%), senior managers (16.82%), middle managers (25.11%), frontline supervisors (22.77%), and employees (20.12%).

Analysis

Grounded theory posits that coding data into themes and subthemes will reveal different properties and dimensions of the phenomenon in question sufficient to generate a theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). *Narrative analysis* treats discourse, including metaphors, as representations of reality with intended and discernible structures and meaning (Riessman, 1993).

The metaphors and accompanying descriptions were first categorized by their explicit and implicit themes using principles from narrative analysis. Once the metaphors were grouped, each submission was placed on a continuum that reflected different foci in the corresponding explanations. The patterns were considered valid when there was triangulation of the data, saturation of the themes, and corresponding dimensions from the narrative data. Consistent with the tenets of grounded theory, multiple groups of participants provided high concentrations of similar metaphors and corresponding themes to yield a universal set of generative leadership meta-metaphors.

Results

The 964 responses to the request for a metaphor on leadership yielded 541 metaphors. The remaining responses provided attributes of leaders and definitions of leadership in lieu of specific metaphors, causing a colleague familiar with the study to observe that "people either don't understand leadership or they don't understand metaphors." The plainer speech set of replies provided useful data as they also had common themes, specifically around character, integrity, and ethics, and complemented the findings from the different metaphors.

As indicated in Table 1, most of the metaphors from Phase I (86.63%) had navigational (31.44%), nurturing (29.77%), and performance-related (25.42%) themes. Most metaphors from Phase II (82.68%) fell into one of the three categories identified in Phase I: navigational (21.15%), nurturing (21.15%), and performance-related (40.38%). Phase III (82.10%) also yielded navigational (36.84%), nurturing (15.26%), and performance-related (4.74%) themes, and a fourth theme focused on leadership as a type of force and presence (25.26%). The remaining metaphors from each phase were assorted and shared few similarities with each other (e.g., sawblade, foxhole, jello-making, glue, engine, and a finger in a dike).

The percentage of metaphors for the identified categories for each phase of the study and combined percentages are listed in Table 1. Approximately 76% of all the metaphors and accompanying descriptions were distributed into three categories among the identified groups, with different frequencies, to reveal meta-metaphors on the different facets of leadership. The metaphors represented navigational (32.35%), nurturing (23.84%), and performance (19.59%) themes.

Table 1: Metaphor Themes by Phase

Navigational	Nurturing	Performance-Related	Assorted	Sense of Presence/ Force	Total Metaphors	Total Non-Metaphors	Total Responses
Phase I							
94	**89**	**76**	**40**		**299**	233	532
31.44%	**29.77%**	**25.42%**	**13.38%**		**56.20%**	43.80%	
Phase II							
11	**11**	**21**	**9**		**52**	77	129
21.15%	**21.15%**	**40.38%**	**17.31%**		**40.31%**	59.69%	
Phase III							
70	**29**	**9**	**34**	**48**	**190**	113	303
36.84%	**15.26%**	**4.74%**	**17.89%**	**25.26%**	**62.70%**	37.30%	
Phases I, II, & III Combined							
175	**129**	**106**	**83**	**48**	**541**	423	964
32.35%	**23.84%**	**19.59%**	**15.34%**	**8.87%**	**56.12%**	43.88%	

The navigational metaphors compared leadership to sailing, the captain of a ship, a light, a compass, herding cats, or a journey (see Figure 1). The nurturing metaphors emphasized the supportive relational aspects of leadership, such as the servant (the most frequently cited), coach, pastor, and parent (see Figure 2). The performance-related metaphors included concertmaster, conductor, drum major, jazz musician, master chef, and various sports metaphors (see Figure 3). As indicated in Figures 1 to 3, additional analysis of the navigational, nurturing, and performance-related metaphors revealed a continuum of generative metaphors in each category.

Journey

Steering and Exploring

- Doorperson
- Herding Cats
- Icebreaker
- Pathfinder
- Sheepdog

Direction/Journey Bound

Showing the Way

- Flashlight
- Guide

Destination

Arriving at a Fixed Point

- Candle
- Captain of a Ship
- Lantern
- Lighthouse
- Pilot
- Steersman
- Trimmer

Figure 1. Navigational metaphors

Secondary Caregiver

Supporting the Development of Others

- Coach
- Servant
- Teacher

Primary Caregiver

Directing the Development of Others

- Father/Dad
- Parent
- Shepherd

Figure 2. Nurturing metaphors

Epigenetic

Participating in an Emerging Process

- Artist/Bricoleur
- Improvisation
- Juggling
- Jazz Ensemble
- Lacrosse
- Master Chess Player

Teleogenetic

Directing a Rehearsed Process With a Clear End in Mind

- Circus Ringmaster
- Conductor
- Relay Team
- Team Captain
- Tight Rope Walker

Figure 3. Performance-related metaphors

The navigational metaphors and corresponding descriptions ranged from those that focused on the journey (e.g., herding cats or icebreakers) to those that focused on predetermined destinations (e.g., a lighthouse or compass). As a navigator, a leader must appreciate the nature of the journey and at times be amenable to the fact that environmental challenges may delay arrival, if not change the destination. At the same time, a navigator must remain resolute on the focus on the people (i.e., the nurturing metaphors) and accomplish the mission and tasks at hand (i.e., the performance-related metaphors).

The nurturing metaphors and corresponding descriptions ranged from that of a secondary caregiver (e.g., coach, servant, and teacher) to a primary caregiver (e.g., father, mother, parent, and shepherd). Several metaphors and the corresponding descriptions focused on developing peoples' competencies and confidence to accomplish (i.e., performance-related metaphors) the objective of the team (i.e., navigational metaphors).

The performance-related metaphors and descriptions ranged from those that were more epigenetic, path-dependent types of accomplishments (e.g., jazz ensemble) to those that were more teleogenetic, scripted performances (e.g., conductor of an orchestra) with a fixed end or destination. Others communicated that successful performance requires both improvisation and a precise game plan (e.g., a quarterback of a team makes on-field adjustments to the play based on what is happening).

Several of the descriptions of the individual metaphors captured more than one facet of leadership. For example, the metaphor of leadership as a "jet landing on an aircraft carrier at night in a stormy sea" emphasized the successful landing (performance) at the destination (navigational) in the context of challenging circumstances (performance). Several of the descriptions for the various coaching metaphors emphasized developing people to play to their potential (navigational), while others focused on the coach's role of play calling to coordinate the team's overall functioning (performance). Some of the descriptions for the captain of a ship metaphor focused on developing the crew (nurturing), while others focused on ensuring smooth operations (performance) necessary to arrive at the specific destination (navigational). One respondent in Phase III provided captain (navigator), coach (nurturing), and conductor (performance) metaphors, making it explicitly clear that leadership has three core facets, as reflected in the three primary meta-metaphors identified in this study.

The three meta-metaphors highlight the primary facets of leadership and provide a useful conceptual framework for understanding, studying, practicing, and teaching the essence of leadership. The navigational metaphors emphasized the goal, vision, and direction-setting aspects of leadership. The nurturing metaphors emphasized the relational side of leadership, in which leaders serve, develop, and empower followers. The performance-related metaphors focused on the accomplishment of a task in alignment with a vision and in coordination with a group of people. The results suggest that leaders who narrowly focus on one aspect of leadership at the expense of the others risk sabotaging their effectiveness. Utilizing the three meta-metaphors provides a rich, transformative, and holistic perspective for attending to the critical aspects of leadership. Leadership involves the attention to vision (navigation), the people (nurturing), and successful implementation and completion of the tasks at hand (performance).

The three meta-metaphors are found in the plethora of the more prosaic definitions of leadership, suggesting an alignment with the leadership literature. Most definitions of leadership either explicitly or implicitly describe it as a process in which people develop individuals (nurturing) and coordinate people and tasks to accomplish (performance) a common purpose (navigational). The meta-metaphors are even implied in Northouse's (2021) synthetic definition: "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences [nurturing] a group of individuals to achieve [performance] a common goal [navigational]" (6).

The responses that included traits (e.g., leadership is integrity, character, influence, responsibility, etc.) associated with leadership in lieu of literary metaphors were equally informative in capturing another facet of leadership. Many of the respondents described leadership as a type of influence that comes from certain character traits and abilities. The different narratives from these responses highlighted that leaders should possess certain influence traits if they are to sway people to engage.

The fourth metaphor theme that emerged in Phase III of the study portrayed leadership as having an influential presence and/or personal charm. The metaphors included a roaring lion that instills awe (16 references), an alpha wolf that commands respect (13 references), a bellwether that draws people near and portends what is to come (10 references), a prowling tiger that solicits heightened awareness (7 references), water as a powerful force that moves and lifts obstacles and people (7 references), and an elephant with formidable presence (3 references). The corresponding descriptions for the different metaphors in this theme emphasized influence flowing from personal charm, charisma, and sense of presence.

The emphasis on the sense of presence, charm, and power in the Phase III responses embodies the characteristics of the traditional Chinese culture of authoritative bureaucracy. It reflects people's recognition of and respect for the authority of business or government leaders. It also reflects people's view of leaders as agents of fairness and justice. Social fairness and justice are fully embodied in the popular paternalistic leadership theory in East Asia (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000). Paternalistic leadership theory includes three main components: benevolence, morality, and authority. Benevolent leadership involves caring for subordinates in all aspects of their work and family and understanding and forgiving subordinates. Moral leadership means that leaders show high moral standards, virtues, self-discipline, and selflessness. Authoritative leadership means the absolute authority and control of subordinates and the unconditional obedience of subordinates to leaders that results in a sense of presence worthy of deferential respect. A key construct to authoritative leadership in the paternalistic model is *li-wei*, which translates to awe-inspiring presence (Cheng et al., 2004). The prevalence of paternalistic leadership in East Asia explains why many of the Chinese participants in Phase III depicted leadership as invoking a sense of awe and power in their metaphors.

Figure 4 incorporates the meta-metaphors as dynamic reference points to posit that leadership is, at minimum, a triune construct that consists of navigational, nurturing, and performance-related activities. The set of definitions and attributes from the respondents who did not provide specific metaphors and the subset of metaphors from Phase III that described leadership as a sense of force reveals that influence traits such as character, personal charm, and sense of presence are axiomatic for leadership. Character and moral presence capture the themes of trait theory (Northouse, 2021) and authentic leadership (George, 2004). The data from the study affirms that leadership involves honorable navigators nurturing others in their collective performance and accomplishments.

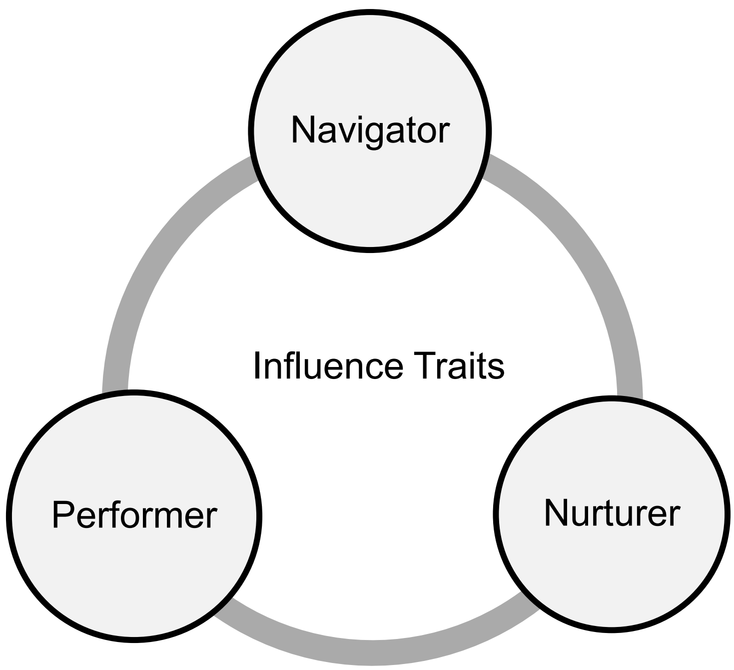

Figure 4. Leadership meta-metaphors

Summary and Conclusions

Metaphors are illuminating and didactic tools for understanding and teaching complex phenomena such as leadership. This research evaluated 541 metaphors for leadership from different leaders and scholars to develop a consensus-informed conceptual definition of leadership, 76% of which were grouped into one of three meta-metaphors: navigator, nurturer, and performer. They reveal that leaders navigate the environment, nurture people along the way, and perform to make things happen.

The additional metaphors and descriptions from the study revealed that leaders not only need to be competent navigators, nurturers, and performers, they should possess essential virtues and sense of presence. Accordingly, leadership, at minimum, consists of endearing directional (navigational), developmental (nurturing), and achievement- (performance-) related activities. Thus, *leadership* can be conceptually defined as a process of influence whereby a person with endearing traits and abilities navigates the environment and nurtures people to collectively perform toward a common end.

The meta-metaphors for leadership provide a conceptual definition of leadership sufficient to capture its particulars and ambiguous enough to grant latitude to judiciously balance the navigating, nurturing, and performing aspects of leadership in particular situations. They reflect a consensus among leaders and scholars across disciplines around the globe and with what is found in the different definitions of leadership. Given this consensus and advances in the field, it is probably time to retire the lament that the field of leadership studies lacks a universal conceptual definition and rally around the essential features that makes leadership a unique and distinct endeavor.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

There are several limitations for the study. First, leaders in higher education are overrepresented. This was intentional in Phases I and II to secure metaphors on leadership from those who had presumably engaged in some formal study of the phenomenon in their respective roles as presidents and faculty. In Phase II, participants were limited to those at the top-ranked four-year universities in the more populated countries in the various regions across the world. The results from the participants may not be representative of the views of those from the institutions of higher education professionals not selected. A response rate below 3% in Phase II and a lack of responses from the Asian, Middle Eastern, and Oceania regions of the globe are additional limitations associated with Phase II. A fourth limitation is associated with language barriers. While some emails were written in the primary language of the respective institution, most emails in Phase II were written in English. This would partially explain the low response rate and that some of the nuanced thoughts on leadership might have been lost in the translation from respondents whose primary language was not English.

Despite these limitations, consistent with Dewey's (1990) observation that empirical models, in general, establish the feasibility of identified principles, the triangulation and saturation of the data suggest that the essence of leadership involves three core activities embedded in the three meta-metaphors and the axiomatic endearing traits like virtue, charm, and sense of presence. At the same time, each limitation cited above is an area for future research to evaluate the feasibility of the metaphors to better understand, practice, and teach leadership. Studies that expand the number of participants from across the globe and professional fields and evaluate the metaphors in their original language would prove useful to confirm to what degree leadership metaphors share universal features or are particular to language, culture, and/or professional fields.

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Insights and Lessons from CEOs and Senior Leaders on How to Best Determine Leadership Potential*

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There are those in leadership roles who affect people and businesses in ways that are detrimental to the vision, mission, and goals of organizations. Determining leadership potential is challenging, with tremendous variation in the way organizations determine which employees are high-potential leaders. A global mixed methods survey was designed to examine criteria and tools used by leaders to determine leadership potential based on measures from the Leadership Blueprint. The survey was completed by 566 participants with 85% from the United States and 15% from seven other countries. A multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine the perceived importance of certain criteria in determining leadership potential. Key findings revealed that intelligence was used by 73% of participants, personality by 78%, motivation by 86%, and learning agility by 87% to determine leadership potential. Improving the ability to successfully determine leadership potential could make a profound difference in developing high-functioning organizations.

Keywords: high-potential, assessment, leadership, leadership development, talent management

The impact of poor managers and leaders is tremendous, resulting in absenteeism, lost opportunity, turnover, and reduced productivity (Brandebo et al., 2016; Church, 2014; Hight et al., 2019). A solution is needed to address the widespread and critical issue of placing the wrong people in leadership roles. It stands to reason that if there was an improvement in identifying those with the greatest potential, there would be fewer poor leaders and managers (Janson, 2020). Examining patterns of behavior regarding these practices provide a better understanding of current assessment strategies, values, and challenges encountered when determining leadership potential in others.

Despite all the work company leaders have done to identify the leadership potential of employees, selecting people who will go on to become highly successful leaders remains a significant challenge (Brant et al., 2008). Roughly

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half of all leadership appointments fail (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). This is especially true of external senior hires, nearly half fail in the first 18 months (Church, 2014). A survey by Development Dimensions International (DDI; 2018) of high-potential best practices found that 65% of companies surveyed have high-potential programs. Yet 68% of the people surveyed, including five out of the six human resources professionals, stated these efforts were not meeting the need to create a pipeline of viable high-potential leaders (DDI, 2018). In another study, 77% of CEOs responded that the topic was one of their top priorities (Steffens et al., 2018). A study by the Kenan Flagler School of Business at the University of North Carolina found that only a quarter of the responding companies indicated they were either satisfied or highly satisfied with their efforts at identifying high potentials (Zenger & Folkman, 2018), and identifying high-potential leaders surfaced as a significant issue in the PricewaterhouseCoopers 20th Annual Global CEO Survey.

Researchers have estimated the cost for every leader who fails to be $1 million (Gaddis & Foster, 2015). According to Conger (2014), the estimated cost is $1.5 to 2.7 million per failed leader when including other costs, such as severance and impact on employees. A hidden but associated cost is the length of time required to fill the role, as open positions are another casualty of poor leadership identification tools and criteria (Craig, 2015). Comparing current timelines to fill roles across a three-year average, it takes, on average, 77% longer to fill vital positions (Craig, 2015). Often, having poor leaders in place leads to intangible costs such as missed opportunities, which can result when following a sub-par leader who may not be driven to achieve the same business results as a high-potential leader (Buckner & Marberry, 2018).

The benefits are considerable when leader selection is done well (Finkelstein et al., 2018). One study showed that 63% of organizations maintain that wealth creation comes from investing in effective talent management practices (Craig, 2015). According to DDI (2018), the upside of companies becoming competent and consistent in determining leadership potential (DLP) can be significant. Organizations that effectively identify high-potential talent through all levels in the organization are likely to financially outperform those that do not do this work by 4.2 times (DDI, 2018).

Conceptual Framework

The Leadership Blueprint (LB), designed by Church and Silzer (2014), is a systematic vehicle through which organizations can assess the viability of their employees for leadership potential. This practical model was used as a backdrop for the construction of a global mixed study and is a framework that resonates with leaders. Based on research conducted by Church (2015), most of the components in the LB are used in organizations such as Citibank, Eli Lilly, and Right Management. PepsiCo conducted an extensive rollout of this framework, beginning with a validation of the model in 2014, translating it into 11 languages, and cascading to more than 3,000 employees to serve as the foundation of development work across the organization (Church et al., 2015; Church & Silzer, 2014). The LB has three dimensions, including the *foundational* elements of personality and intelligence, the *growth* elements of learning agility and motivation, and the *career* elements of leadership and functional capabilities (Church & Conger, 2018). While open-ended questions were used to explore participants' perceptions about leadership potential in terms of tools and criteria, the latter part of the survey contained questions specifically about the use of these dimensions.

Method

A mixed methods study approach was used for data collection through an electronic survey entitled "Determining Leadership Potential." The survey was constructed and tested for validity with a sample size representation of the target population. Before data collection began, the study was approved by the International Review Board (IRB) at Northcentral University (NCU). The survey contained 32 multiple-choice questions and three open-ended questions.

Sample and Demographics

Snowball sampling was used to recruit a sample of 566 leaders worldwide with approximately 85% of participants from the United States and the remaining 15% from seven other countries. The sample size exceeded 200 for every analysis and was sufficient to meet the power analysis estimates established at the beginning of the study. The highest number of respondents came from people who had been employed in their positions for one to three years (46%). The most common role held by respondents was that of director, with 20% of the participants being CEOs. To develop a calibrated perspective, participants were asked how many levels they were below the CEO. Those two and three levels below the CEO came in at the same highest level. The highest number of participants held master's degrees (45%), followed by those with bachelor's degrees (36%) and a surprisingly high number of those with doctorates (14%). Nearly half (46%) of the participants were between the ages of 51 and 65 years old, with a total of 76% of respondents being between 41 and 65 years old. While offering the options to identify differently for age, only two participants chose "prefer not to answer." The population in terms of gender was nearly split, with 46% female and 42% male. On average, the most responses were from people with one to four direct reports (34%), closely followed by those with five to ten direct reports (30%); about one fifth (20%) of the respondents had no direct reports. Companies with revenue of more than a billion (32%) were most represented, with companies having less than $10 million (26%) being the second-largest group. Most respondents came from companies with fewer than 50 employees. The industries represented were manufacturing, retail trade, information, finance and insurance, real estate, rental and leasing, professional, scientific, and technical services, educational services, health care and social assistance, and public administration. Any industry category that had fewer than eight responses was placed in an "other" category. There was a three-way tie for the highest level of representation with professional/scientific/technical services; educational services; and arts, entertainment, and recreation each representing 12% of the respondent group.

Procedures

A recruitment flyer was posted on social media with a link to the semi-structured electronic survey that contained 32 multiple-choice questions and three open-ended questions. All participants provided consent to participate in the study. The estimated time to complete the study was 10 to 15 minutes. Participants had no direct contact with the researchers.

Data Analytic Techniques

The analysis approach was multifaceted, considering the length and depth of the survey. For the quantitative analysis, both estimation and inferential components were used. First, the summary statistics from the survey responses were computed. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized for the inferential analysis to determine if the perceived importance of the criteria for DLP differed by the various demographic factors, including company size, gender of respondent, company revenue, position at company, and industry. A posthoc analysis was then performed, which used both univariate ANOVA and *t*-tests. Other analyses were run to determine what factors contribute to an individual's views regarding DLP. These quantitative methods included a chi-squared test for independence, two sample proportions tests, ANOVA, and two sample *t*-tests. When parametric assumptions were not met, nonparametric methods were utilized, including rank tests and bootstrapping. Qualitative data were coded for thematic analyses.

Findings

An open-ended question prompted participants to define *leadership potential.* The majority of the responses described characteristics that good leaders possess. There were several comments that focused on demonstrated behaviors and a small amount that addressed people already in a leadership role. Those, however, did not answer the question. The following is a sampling of comments that addressed the actual definition of leadership potential and were future focused:

- "A leader who: (a) has a proven track record of strong performance across a variety of settings/roles; (b) has the abilities (e.g., intellect and learning agility) to do more; and (c) has the desire (i.e., ambition) to expand leadership responsibilities."
- "The likelihood that an individual has the ability, knowledge, experience, natural ability, [and] EQ to grow in their role or areas of responsibility in an organization or position of authority."
- "Leadership potential involves the combination of personality and intellectual traits/abilities that set up employees to advance and succeed in leadership roles."

- "[A] person who exhibits the characteristics, mindsets, behaviors, and abilities to . . . advance [into] formal leadership positions."
- "A leader who has the potential to assume responsibilities that are one to two levels above their current [position]."

Participants were asked to select their top-five criteria for DLP from a long list of options. The top 10 identified by participants were emotionally intelligent (34%); problem solver/decision maker, (26%); and communicative (22%); adaptable, authentic, and critical thinking were a three-way tie (20%); ethical (18%); and high performing/high achiever, collaborative, and strategic was also a three-way tie (17%). From those options, participants were asked to narrow the list to their top-two criteria. Interestingly, the top-10 responses for both questions only differed by one response, with learning agility selected on the top-two list by 57 respondents.

Tools Utilized

The top-three tools identified by participants used for DLP included how they manage key constituents (40.3%), face-to-face meetings (31.7%), observation (28.5%), current performance (27.8%), and provide new opportunities/give new challenges to test employees (25.9%). All levels except CEO and one level below CEO rated observation high. Interestingly, four levels below the CEO were the only group to include past performance and a matrix of skills in their top 10. CEOs were the only group to select get to know them/interview and gut feeling for their top 10. Stretch assignments were chosen by 21% of participants but no CEOs selected this option as a top-10 choice. Conversely, learning without prompting was in the top 10 for CEOs and one and two levels below the CEO but no one groups. Assessments rounded out the choices, occurring in the top 10 14% of the time. Study results showed that assessment tools were also periodically used to DLP. The top assessment tools identified were 360° feedback (58%), Meyers Briggs (50.4%), and DISC (41.3%). IQ (9.6%) and Watson Glaser (7.0%) were much lower. In the Other category, many individual tools were mentioned, including Hogan (> 5%).

The tools utilized were not found to be significantly different by organization level ($\chi 2(15) = 16.2$, $p = 0.372$) or the number of direct reports ($\chi 2(15) = 5.52$, $p = .987$), indicating that the assessments used are consistent at all levels and for leaders with all numbers of direct reports. Statistically, organizational level and tools were not dependent; they were independent of each other based on tests performed with chi-square, *p*-value 0.45407.

Use of Intelligence, Personality, Motivation, and Learning Agility

When specifically surveyed on whether intelligence, personality, motivation, and learning agility (IMPL) criteria were used in DLP, 87% indicated learning agility, 86% motivation, 78% personality, and 73% intelligence. In the questions that broadly queried what criteria are used for DLP, only 33 respondents identified intelligence as one of their top-five choices. Personality was not chosen in the top five, with only nine people choosing it, but emotional intelligence (EI) is often associated with personality, and EI was rated as a top criterion. Motivation was not in the top five, but it was chosen by 49 people as a critical criterion. Table 1 illustrates that while not top of mind when listing criteria used unprompted, upon reflection and when asked directly, the majority of participants indicated they are critical criteria they use for DLP.

Table 1: Comparison of Unprompted vs. Prompted Responses for Use of IMPL

	Number of participants who identified each item when asked, "What criteria do you use to determine leadership potential?"	Number of participants who answered yes when asked "Do you use each of these criteria?"	Percent Increase
Intelligence	9	73	711%
Motivation	13	86	561%
Personality	2	78	3800%
Learning agility	11	87	690%

When asked to rank these four criteria on a scale from 1 to 4, with 1 being most important and 4 being least important, the average ranks were:

- 2.69 for personality,
- 2.68 for intelligence,
- 2.38 for learning agility, and
- 2.26 for motivation.

Intelligence

When asked if they use intelligence when DLP, 73.23% of participants answered yes, and it was found that intelligence is more likely to be used for DLP when someone has held their position for several years (most used four to seven and 10+ years) and obtained higher education. The most important identifiers of intelligence were critical thinking (70.40%), followed by strategic thinking (69.31%) and emotional intelligence (66.43%). Of the individuals who use intelligence, the top-five responses were:

- critical thinking (70.4%),
- strategic thinking (69.3%),
- emotional intelligence (66.4%),
- intellectual curiosity (56.0%), and
- can generate and manage complex ideas (55.2%).

The profile of what people look for regarding intelligence was not specific to their organizational level but was consistent across the board.

Motivation

The survey results indicated that 86.47% of participants use motivation for DLP. There was a balanced approach to judging motivation, which was consistent across position levels, including

- proactiveness (82.15%);
- persistence (75.08%);
- effort (70.15%);
- focus (63.08%); and
- other (summary): commitment, resilience, and drive.

Observation was selected by 94.4% of participants to assess motivation. No other assessment method came close, though assessment (40.2%) and reference/word of mouth (39.9%) were both very similar. The lowest three selections were scenarios (25.2%), self-report (21.2%), and other (4.1%). Many of the other options involved interaction or conversation with the individual they are assessing.

Personality

Participants indicated that 77.84% use personality for DLP. In general, evidence suggested that people with fewer direct reports were more likely to consider personality. Responses were consistent across organization levels, including

- possession of specific traits (74.49%),
- derailing personality traits (50.68%),
- intensity of traits (45.24%),
- absence of traits (34.69%), and
- other (summary): examples of specific traits they possess.

Learning Agility

The survey responses indicated that 86.56% of participants use learning agility for DLP. Only 14% use assessments for DLP overall (in top 10), but 46% use assessments to determine learning agility. In general, evidence suggested that people with higher education more commonly sought out learning agility. Additionally, respondents employed by companies with revenues of $510 million to $1 billion viewed learning agility as more important than employees of companies with smaller revenues ($0 to $50 million) and the largest companies (greater than $1 billion). They look for

- change agility (76.88%),
- self-awareness (74.38%),
- people agility (70.00%),
- results agility (53.13%),
- mental agility (56.56%), and
- other (summary): being able to adapt and crisis agility.

Challenges in Determining Leadership Potential

There were several challenges identified with DLP. One third of the participants (31.42%) were dissatisfied with their level of competence in DLP. The most dominant factors included lack of time (40.35%) and being unfamiliar with the latest tools and information (43.86%); 29.82% said that their company does not focus on tools when DLP.

Competence Level. When asked if they were happy with their competence level, only 31.42% answered yes. Multiple participants noted they were dissatisfied because they always feel they can do better. Reasons provided as to why they were unhappy included unfamiliarity with the latest tools and information (43.9%), lack of time (40.3%), and their company doesn't focus on it (29.8%). Ranked fourth, 25% of participants selected other, and a few common themes emerged: I can always improve, changes based on leaders, need more practice, and no objective definition. Of those who did engage in this work, the most commonly stated purpose (69%) was to work with senior management for leadership and career development purposes. One out of four people indicated they did not know whether their future was being discussed with senior leaders nor knew if their boss was creating a development plan for them. Those who were dissatisfied with their level of competence were more likely to select clarity of definition and tools than those who were satisfied. Those who did feel satisfied with their level of competence were more likely to select employees lacking self-awareness than those who were not satisfied with their level of competence.

Lack of Time. Only 57.3% of participants indicated they were satisfied with the amount of time spent on DLP. Competing priorities (82.7%) and short-term focus (44.2%) were the top reasons given as to why more time is not spent. When asked what help they would like, the majority of the participants indicated consistent assessment/measurement tools, quantitative processes, formal programs, and more time to dedicate to the work.

What Assistance Is Needed

An open-ended question asked participants what areas of assistance was needed to be more proficient in DLP. The greatest number of comments (82) indicated the need for a structured approach that included training on how be better at DLP. Participants consistently indicated they wanted a plan and pathway for high potentials as an output that includes stretch assignments and opportunities for growth. Comprehensive leadership development programs were identified as a great need by many. Proactive and effective communication was raised numerous times as a critical factor.

Through 46 comments, participants expressed the desire for DLP to be a focus and priority for the company. Requests for deep engagement from the CEO and senior leaders as well a link to the strategic plan were represented in numerous comments. Many participants referenced this being embedded as a cultural priority.

The topic of assessments arose in 50 comments. The participants indicated that they desired effective, data-driven, objective assessments. They noted the need for appropriate assessments for the work of DLP, to be trained on how to use them, and an understanding of what they do. Assessments surfaced throughout this study as a major area of opportunity.

Another area that surfaced in 17 comments was the need for time. Participants indicated that DLP should be made a priority area of focus and, consequently, more time should be allocated to this work. Some comments included a need for better resource allocation for required work, noting that a constant demand of doing more with less was a detriment to this work.

With 10 comments each, changing the talent pool, measurement, and coaching were important to participants. They indicated the need to both be able to eliminate ineffective talent and have a stronger approach to recruiting top talent. Many referenced the need for good metrics to accurately track progress to create accountability. Additionally, several comments were dedicated to the need of providing ongoing coaching to high potentials. The only other theme that surfaced, with seven comments, was the need to be transparent with the results and with conversations with employees.

Discussion/Recommendations/Conclusions

There were four notable results from the data analysis of the IMPLs. First was the unprompted versus prompted mention of IMPLs in the DLP process. All responses were statistically significantly higher when participants were prompted, “Do you use _____?” versus when they were asked to select from a dropdown menu.

Another interesting result was how participants ranked the four IMPLs. The most significant ranking was motivation as the most important, followed by learning agility as the second most important. Personality and intelligence tied for third in importance. When examining what differentiates participants who use IMPLs from those who do not using logistic regression, it was found that highest degree achieved and company level were both significant contributors to how much individuals valued intelligence in the DLP process. Those with higher degrees and those who had been in their positions longer tended to use intelligence more often. A few marginally significant results were observed for personality. Participants who had fewer direct reports tended to value personality more than learning agility. Those with any level of higher education may have valued learning agility higher than those whose highest level of education was high school.

The amount each IMPL weighs in the DLP process was examined for participants who selected they did use IMPLs in their decision-making process. Since the importance value of each IMPL was correlated for each individual participant, a MANOVA was utilized to determine if the demographic covariates explained the variation in response variables, the IMPL's importance score. The only significant result of the model pertained to learning agility. The degree to which participants valued learning agility was statistically different based on the approximate revenue of the company. Employees of companies with revenues of $510 million to $1 billion valued learning agility significantly higher than those of companies with revenues less than $10 million, between $10 and $50 million, and over $1 billion. All other IMPLs were found to be nonsignificant, meaning they do not statistically vary based on the demographic covariates. The IMPLs were each examined more closely to see how they were used and what participants are looking for, based on the survey questions. These results did not statistically vary by organizational levels. The breakdown of criteria was very clearly consistent across all groups.

Challenges in DLP

Overall, the greatest challenges in DLP identified by all participants were time (40.0%), employee self-awareness (37.4%), the promoting past competence level/Peter Principle (25.4%), and interest level/priorities change (26.8%). The percentage of individuals dissatisfied with their level of competence in DLP was 31.4% with a 95% confidence interval of (26.7,36.2). What was identified as the greatest challenge varied significantly for those who were and were not satisfied with their level of competence. Those who were unsatisfied with their level of competence were more likely to select unfamiliar with the tools, don’t have enough time, or the company doesn’t focus on it. Those who were satisfied with their level of competence were more likely to select employees lacking self-awareness as a major challenge in DLP. Some participants specifically mentioned that they were unsatisfied with their level of competence because they could always improve or get better in any endeavor.

The percentage of individuals dissatisfied with the amount of time spent on DLP was 57.3%; the 95% confidence interval was (52.2%,62.3%), and the top reasons stated for not spending more time on DLP activities because of competing priorities and the short-term focus of the company. When asked if DLP is more difficult in a virtual work environment, 76.0% of individuals said yes; the 95% confidence interval was (71.6%,80.4%). This is due to the lack of observation, body language, and interactions/direct engagement. When prompted about what help employees are looking for, many participants expressed the desire to have a formal leadership development program, more education, coaching, and tools to help them when DLP.

It is compelling to see how infrequently participants mentioned the IMPL components unless prompted. There appeared to be an education bias, as those who were more educated looked for leaders who were more educated. Considering the marginally significant results, those who have too many direct reports may not consider personality as often since they are making so many decisions on DLP. This group seems to be the one that could benefit greatly from a consistent method of selecting leaders. Additionally, employees at small and very large companies tend to use learning agility less in DLP than those at large companies.

Another notable result was the consistency of the results over many demographic factors—even company size, gender, position, and industry—making the data generalizable. Additionally, it is clear through the comments and responses that there is a need and desire to have more time, effort, and education related to DLP. With so many now working in the virtual environment with a lack of face-to-face interactions and ability to observe employees, the need for an objective and consistent process for DLP is greater than ever.

Limitations and Future Research

While evaluating the success of the participants in DLP was not one of the primary objectives of this study, one of the major limitations in this field of study in general is the inability to identify how successful an individual is at DLP. Specific to this survey, the question asking if participants felt satisfied with their ability to determine leadership potential, was confounded by participants who felt that they could always improve. To gain a clear picture of what success looks like, more time is needed, as well as input from leadership experts and those professionals who have been working long enough to have had many attempts to determine leadership potential. However, the intent of this study was to quantify and compare the current methods utilized by individuals for DLP; therefore, this is a recommendation for future research.

The other potential limitation of this study was the generalizability due to sampling methodology. Attempts were made to sample companies randomly, but there was an overwhelming majority of participants who were within the network of team members taking the study, a homogenous convenience sample instead of a probability sample. However, the data were examined to see if there was a significant difference between the data collected from different referral sources (e.g., Facebook, LinkedIn). The result was not significant; there was no referral effect. Additionally, as argued by Jager et al (2017), this type of sample does have merit. Finally, in the context of the generalizability, the population from which the data was collected is the same population for which the conclusions are desired to make the generalizations.

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Developing the Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire Scientifically Validated Measurement Instrument***

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In this research study, we developed a validated instrument to measure transforming steward leadership using DeVellis's (2017) instrument development steps. The concept was operationalized from the concepts of transforming leadership (Burns, 1978) and steward leadership (Donaldson & Davis, 1991). The literature explored in this study led to the extraction of 334 items. Three experts reduced the item pool to 64 items. In total, 341 participants from the United States, India, the Philippines, and other countries provided their perceptions of their team leaders' levels of transforming servant leadership. We used principal component analysis, followed by scale optimization, to produce three 5-item scales: (a) stewardship with a coefficient alpha of 0.93, (b) competency with a coefficient alpha of 0.92, and character with a coefficient alpha of 0.95. The Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire (TSLQ) has high validity and is therefore useful for further research to expand the transforming steward leadership literature.

Keywords: cross-cultural, scale development, steward leadership, stewardship, transformation, transforming leadership

Our purpose in this study was to develop a validated instrument to measure transforming steward leadership. Transforming steward leadership does not exist as a single construct but as a combination of transforming leadership and steward leadership theories. In his seminal work, Burns (1978) defined *transforming leadership* as the process in which "one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (20). He noted that transforming leadership results in a "relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (4). The transforming leadership concept has been widely confused with that of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). The concept became known as a theory

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emanating from the concept of personal transformation developed by Burns (1978) as moral consciousness embedded in the leader. The transformational theory focused more on the one-way influence of a leader on followers and less on the leader’s morals and character (Bass, 1985). Bass (1985) used the terminologies interchangeably and changed the meaning to state that the transforming leader experiences personal transformation and leads through character, morals, ethics, and values that motivate followers to act morally and commit to organizational transformation (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Transforming leadership explores a leader’s characteristics and the impact of that leader’s progressive change in leading followers (Burns, 1978). The concept transcends performance and task execution in addressing a leader’s transformation through the personal change process and experiential learning (Devine & Sparks, 2014).

In this study, we extracted characteristics of transforming leadership and steward leadership from the literature to conceptualize *transforming steward leadership* as the process in which leaders experience personal transformation through reflection and self-leadership to demonstrate character, morals, values, competencies; inspire followers through ethical and authentic relationships; and demonstrate stewardship of people and resources in transforming and stewarding organizations with integrity in serving their mission and stakeholders. The transforming steward leadership concept addresses the importance of continuous change in a leader’s value system, leading to personal transformation. Due to a leader’s integrity and character, he or she acts ethically and morally when leading organizations (Cloud, 2006). A leader’s personal transformation affects followers and transforms them to act morally (Burns, 1978). When both leader and follower experience transformation, they hold each other accountable, which Burns (1978) referred to as raising each other to become moral agents. This leads to organizational transformation and the establishment of an organizational ecosystem that promotes integrity and ethical decisions (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Theoretical Framework

The concept of transforming leadership echoes the belief that transformed leaders lead from a moral base (Burns, 1978) and display authentic and ethical behavior in engaging followers and stewarding resources (Bass & Riggio, 2005; Bennis, 2009). Transforming steward leadership does not exist as a single construct but has elements of both transforming leadership and steward leadership scattered throughout other leadership theories such as authentic, ethical, moral, servant, spiritual, steward, and transformational leadership. Therefore, the basis for operationalizing transforming steward leadership requires examining different variables of transforming leadership and steward leadership. Bennis (2009) defined *transforming leadership* as self-awareness demonstrated through competencies in executing leadership. Yukl (2013) viewed transforming leadership as being ethically based and affecting both leader and follower. In their expansion of Burns' (1978) concept of transforming leadership, Bass and Riggio (2005) focused on the competence aspect of transforming leadership and emphasized a leader's influence on followers. Zhu et al. (2011) affirmed Burns' emphasis on moral identity and investigated how moral emotions transform leaders and followers. The terms *transforming* and *transformational leadership* are used interchangeably by Burns and Bass and Riggio. To ensure clarity, the focus of the next section is on transforming leadership as a means to develop a scientifically validated instrument that can measure transforming steward leadership

Transforming Leadership

Transforming leadership is something that a leader experiences as a virtue, as a leader exhibits morals, values, and character by being authentic and ethical at the same time (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). With the exception of Burns' (1978) work, the transforming leadership concept has not been fully explored but has always been linked to transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2005). Though less explicitly, researchers have explored the concept of transforming leadership, as major elements of the construct appear in servant leadership as expressed by Patterson (2003) about a leader's good and firm habits guided by virtue. According to Patterson, “the leader seeks to do the right things with a focus on moral character” (2). Virtue guides a leader in choosing ethical and authentic behavior (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Brown and Trevino (2006) posited that a leader’s character leads to authentic and ethical behavior, regardless of situational influences. The reinforcement of the transforming behavior derives from understanding a sense of purpose (Fry, 2003). Leaders guided by a calling demonstrate a passion for serving and easily change to serve others effectively (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002) and develop others to lead (Conger & Fulmer, 2003) in an ever-changing, volatile environment (Lawrence, 2013). Burns stated that morals are the basis on which a transforming leader functions. According to Skubinn and Herzog (2016), internalized moral identity informs a leader’s actions.

Transforming leadership transcends the leadership process and places focus on a leader’s progressive development toward character and integrity (Bauman, 2013; Hannah & Avolio, 2011). According to Moorman and Grover (2009), a leader with integrity demonstrates consistency. Such leaders also demonstrate honesty, trustworthiness, justice, and compassion (Palanski & Yammarino, 1999). According to Anderson (1998), transforming leaders first focus on self-development and consciously work on their character, values, and morals and build organizations that further embed values and morals within each organization’s culture. Goleman (2018), to explain what makes a leader, listed self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills, such as communication (Lantara, 2019), as characteristics any leader should cultivate. Transforming leaders continually change themselves to lead effectively and serve their organizations with dignity, integrating skills into the holistic leadership function (Bennis, 2009). Transformed leaders value character as a prerequisite to discharging their duties and seek to achieve results ethically and morally (Singh et al., 2018).

Burns preferred viewing transforming leadership more as a moral venture centered on the authentic relationship between leader and follower. According to Miller (2007), transforming leaders espouse genuine love for themselves and their followers and engage in love-based leadership (Church, 2010). A transforming leader embraces values and conscience behaviors reflecting holistic transformation and does not act out of self-interest (Block, 2013; Gomez, n.d.; Winston, 2002). The elements of transforming and steward leadership constructs create a holistic view of leadership acts (April et al., 2013).

Transforming leaders ask questions leading to personal reflection and apply personal transformative experiences when leading followers (Hewitt et al., 2014). Ethics, morals, authenticity, and self-awareness define the leader–follower relationship (Yukl, 2013). The thoughts and behaviors of a transforming leader involve the development of self and empowerment of followers to enhance creativity (Dovey et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018), guided by moral values. Transforming leadership fosters organizational performance through a combination of understanding a leader's purpose, character (Hewitt et al., 2014), and competencies (Shields, 2010) and empowering followers (Lee et al., 2018).

Steward Leadership

The steward leadership theory emerged from the research developed simultaneously by Matnick (1973) and Ross (1973). Matnick coined the agent concept in his paper, while Ross studied the relationship between the agent and principal. The two papers fused to form the agent–principal theory, developing a sense of accountability to someone beyond the self. Sheldon and Foster (2003) characterized stewardship as a responsibility entrusted to humankind to care for the environment for the good of the entire creation. They argued that stewardship flows from love and knowing the stakeholders whom the leader trusts enforces a sense of accountability and responsibility.

According to Butkus (2002), the concept of stewardship as an ultimate leadership objective first appeared in the trust relationship between God and humankind to work and care for his creation. The goal was for humanity to provide leadership in the context of a steward (Butkus, 2002). The steward role existed based on relationships (Sheldon & Foster, 2003). The quality of leadership executed depends on a leader's response to stewardship as a calling (Guiness, 2003; Korn, n.d.). According to Sheldon and Foster (2003), understanding that leadership is stewardship provided through trust invokes responsibility, integrity, and creativity to maximize resources (Lee et al., 2018).

Donaldson and Davis (1991) noted that steward leaders achieve results to benefit stakeholders driven first by love (Sheldon & Foster, 2003) and collective, rather than individualistic, interest. Donaldson and Davis further argued that a limitation of principal–agent theory is that, instead of maximizing responsibility, it creates an environment in which the agent seeks an opportunity to meet self-needs. In contrast, Donaldson and Davis purported that steward leadership breaks the principal and agent barrier and creates a sense of responsible leadership. Block (2013), however, played within the agency theory limit and argued that a steward leader chooses service over self-interest. Block argued that stewardship replaced leadership, and leadership was viewed as a distribution of power. Wilson (2010) posited that acting on behalf of someone was a crucial indicator of steward leadership, with a high sense of accountability, creativity, and responsibility.

As Smith (2004) noted, understanding leadership as a calling makes a massive difference in forming the attitude and behaviors of leadership. Steward leadership builds the characteristic of thinking beyond self with an attitude of consideration of the future generation (Hernandez, 2008). The steward leader acts as a role model and creates opportunities for developing others (Gooden, 2002; Lawrence, 2013). The steward leadership concept denotes a holistic response to care for self, people, and the environment (Leavell, 2016). It builds the context in which leadership functions and leaders act in others' interests and develop human capacity, driven by the attitude of care (Caldwell et al., 2008). The elements of steward leadership are character, self-leadership, empowering behavior, and stewardship (Block, 2013; Donaldson & Davis, 1991; Karns, 2011; Sergiovanni, 2013).

Leadership in the 21st century has seen a rise in global challenges and scandals (Johnson, 2018) derived from the lack of stewardship (Wilson, 2010) and leaders of character, ethics, morals, and integrity (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Leaders who experience personal transformation develop moral and ethical consciousness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), and such leaders demonstrate responsible stewardship (Wong & Davey, 2007) informed by authentic behavior (Block, 2013), which is led by character, humility, servanthood (Winston & Patterson, 2006), and sense of stewardship (Karns, 2011). For transforming leadership, stewardship is the end goal (April et al., 2013; Sergiovanni, 2013). April et al. (2013) also viewed it as an alternative to other leadership theories.

Research Design and Methods

The research method used to create the scientifically validated instrument to measure transforming steward leadership followed DeVellis's (2017) eight steps: (a) determine what you want to measure, (b) generate an item pool, (c) determine the format for measurement, (d) have the item pool reviewed by a panel of experts, (e) consider the inclusion of validation items, (f) administer items to a development sample, (g) evaluate the samples, and (h) optimize scale length.

Determine What You Want to Measure

According to DeVellis (2017), the development of a measurement instrument requires theoretical backing. The development of transforming steward leadership was based on transforming leadership and steward leadership theories. A transforming steward leadership measurement instrument measures followers' perceptions of their leaders' transforming leadership and steward leadership characteristics. The measurement instrument is intended to measure specific behaviors related to transforming steward leadership constructs.

Generate an Item Pool

The review of the literature presented on transforming leadership and steward leadership created a theoretical framework for transforming steward leadership. A list of variables drawn from transforming leadership and steward leadership theories comprised the items considered for the measurement instrument. The item pool fits within the transforming steward leadership construct. At the point of generation of an item pool, redundancy exists, which enhances reliability, according to DeVellis (2017). The process of screening for redundant items helped remove ambiguity and ensure that relevant items formed the transforming steward leadership measurement instrument.

Determine the Format for Measurement

A semantic differential scale was used to measure the emotive perceptions or attitudes of research participants (Osgood et al., 1957). The scale measures the attributes of a construct as perceived by the research subject (DeVellis, 2017). The research subjects scored their perceptions of their leaders based on the transforming steward leadership instrument items. The participants ranked their leaders based on a continuum from 1 (never) to 7 (always) by selecting from two bipolar adjectives (DeVellis, 2017). A semantic differential scale is compatible with the study of the transforming steward leadership theoretical model as it: (a) allows participants to indicate their emotive feelings on a subject matter, (b) allows participants to give precise responses by choosing from extreme oppositive adjectives, (c) provides more accurate and reliable results, and (d) simplifies how participants assert their feelings as they respond to two bipolar options.

Have the Item Pool Reviewed by a Panel of Experts

The item pool generated through the literature review went through expert reviews by three authors who command authority on transforming leadership and steward leadership. The process helped to bring item clarity to and eliminate ambiguity for items measuring transforming steward leadership. The expert panel review involved experts who have published on transforming leadership and steward leadership. The generated item pool was administered to the panel of experts using the online survey software SurveyMonkey™. The panel of experts rated each item as either highly relevant (scored as 3), somewhat relevant (scored as 2), or not relevant (scored as 1) to transforming steward leadership. The team of three experts commented in provided comment boxes if an item required elimination, was ambiguous or confusing, or required additional context. Items that scored an average of 2 showed that the panel of experts found the items relevant to transforming steward leadership and were retained as part of the transforming steward leadership measurement instrument.

Consider the Inclusion of Validation Items

The objective of developing a measurement instrument is to ensure that it measures what is intended (DeVellis, 2017). According to DeVellis (2017), participant responses carry distortions driven by respondents' perceptions of what society considers positive. DeVellis recommended using validation item scales on self-assessment instruments to mitigate any bias individuals carry by presenting themselves in ways regarded by society as positive. DeVellis listed the social desirability measurement scale as suitable for eliminating bias. Because this instrument was not based on self-assessment, validation of items was not required.

Administer Items to a Development Sample

The questionnaire streamlined by a panel of experts and validated by eliminating response bias was administered to participants drawn from 12 organizations in multiple countries. The participants were staff members from these organizations, which included colleges; a training and consulting organization; and humanitarian, sports, and missionary organizations. A sample of five participants per every item measured, as recommended by DeVellis (2017), guided the sample size of this research. For the study, we applied the snowball sampling method. Emails with a link to the survey were sent to the human resources leaders of the 12 organizations for onward transmission to their staff.

Evaluate the Samples

Factor analysis helped to determine factors constituting transforming steward leadership. The determination to include an item in a factor depends on the correlation between the factor and the item measured by how much the item weighs in the factor using eigenvalues (Hair et al., 2014). DeVellis (2017) stated that "an eigenvalue represents the amount of information captured by a factor" (166) and determines that enough factors have been extracted. The eigenvalue of each factor represents a component of the unit of items, and an eigenvalue of 1.0 carries the same information in an item (DeVellis, 2017). Eigenvalues less than 1.0 indicated less significance in contribution toward the measurement of transforming steward leadership, and thus the item was not retained in the measurement. Eigenvalues above 1.0 indicated that the item contributed to the characteristics of transforming steward leadership and therefore was included to measure the construct.

The factors summing up items constituting transforming steward leadership should carry items with strong association (DeVellis, 2017). The principal component analysis determined the number of items in transforming steward leadership. Rotation ensured that only closely related variables with a single latent variable were retained for easy interpretation (DeVellis, 2017). The application of rotation eliminated cross-loading items and revealed the nature of factors, which were easy to interpret with an increased understanding of the items measuring transforming steward leadership. The selection of rotation methods in simplifying factors of transforming steward leadership required using a rotation in the principal component analysis. Where the covariation exceeded .32, oblique rotation was used. Where the covariation was less than .32, orthogonal rotation was applied (Brown, 2009). Oblique rotation refers to correlated factors, while orthogonal rotation refers to uncorrelated factors (Gorsuch, 1983). Factor rotation helped simplify the structure of the factors (Hair et al., 2014) to make the instrument usable for the participants (Brown, 2009).

Optimize Scale Length

According to DeVellis (2017), a scale's size matters in the reliability of a measurement. Regarding the scale length of the transforming steward leadership instrument, optimal length—not too short to compromise reliability and not too long to discourage participants from completing the questionnaire—was considered. According to DeVellis, a trade-off between brevity and reliability is necessary when reliability is spared. Optimization of the transforming steward leadership instrument's length involved removing some items not needed if the coefficient alpha was above .90 (DeVellis, 2017). Items with (a) lower factor loading, (b) highest cross-loading, (c) least impact on internal consistency, or (d) low correlations became the primary targets for elimination (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) until the coefficient alpha exceeded .70, which Nunnally (1978) considered to be scale optimized. According to Hair et al. (2014), a coefficient alpha of .70 is considered the threshold for validity. Many scholars use this number as the minimum accepted alpha (Lance et al., 2006). A coefficient alpha between .80 and .90, however, is very good (Nunnally, 1978). DeVellis recommended that an item may be dropped to increase reliability.

After determining the final factors, SPSS 24.1, a data analysis software, was used to run descriptive and correlation analyses on the transforming steward leadership questionnaires. Pearson correlation was used to determine the length of the scale and drop items to boost reliability by measuring the correlation between the factors and the items. If an item had a sufficiently lower-than-average correlation with the other items, dropping it raised the coefficient alpha. If its average correlation with the other items was only slightly below (or equal to or above) the overall average, then retaining the item increased the coefficient alpha (DeVellis, 2017).

Research Sample

The study focused on 12 organizations situated in multiple countries. The organizations include colleges; a training and consulting organization; and humanitarian, sports, and missionary organizations.

The research targeted 320 participants from 12 organizations. According to DeVellis (2017), a sample size of five participants per item measured is considered an adequate sample. The survey included 64 items describing the characteristics of transforming steward leadership. The snowball sampling technique formed the basis of participant selection. Babbie (2007) described snowball sampling as a "process of accumulation as each located subject suggests other subjects" (205). According to Creswell (2014), the researcher engages participants for referrals to other participants. The survey was transmitted through emails to subjects who referred their counterparts within the selected organization.

Data Collection

We collected data using a self-administered questionnaire distributed through SurveyMonkey. The research subjects responded to the questions using a semantic differential scale. We secured permission to survey the leadership of the organizations. To observe ethics in carrying out the research data collection procedures and engagement of research subjects, we complied with the guidelines of the Human Subjects Research Board (HSRB), which requires a research subject's consent to participate in the research. We maintained confidentiality of the information provided. The participants received an email with a link to the survey through the human resources managers of their organizations. We included a section in the first part of the survey explaining the purpose of the study and assuring participants that we would use the data collected solely for the purpose of the research. Further, we included options to participate in the survey or opt out. If an inadequate sample size was secured, widening the population within the guidelines of HSRB and contacting more participants increased the sample.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data collected through the questionnaire underwent analysis using SPSS 24.1, a scientifically designed data analysis software that applies different research analytical methods that match the research conducted (Green & Salkind, 2017). We utilized factor analysis to analyze the data on transforming steward leadership. A Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling and Bartlett's test were used to test the first set of items of transforming steward leadership to measure sample adequacy and correlation of the sample. KMO was used to measure the data sample to determine the use of data with factor analysis; a value more than .5, for example, indicated that factor analysis would be useful (Hair et al., 2014). Bartlett's test was used to measure the homogeneity of the sample and determine whether variances were equal across the population. It was also used to assess the correlation matrix of the variables among the population. A value less than .5 indicated that factor analysis might be useful (Hair et al., 2014).

Factor analysis aids in the reduction of huge overlapping variables to smaller, more easily measured variables (Hair et al., 2014; Williams & Monge, 2001). According to DeVellis (2017), factor analysis determines existing latent variables. In this research, factor analysis was used to evaluate the transforming steward leadership construct by retaining factors with an eigenvalue above 1.0, which is the contribution of each variable (Hair et al., 2014). According to Hair et al. (2014), an eigenvalue is a “column sum of square loadings of a factor; also referred to as the latent root. It represents the number of variances accounted for by a factor" (90). The eigenvalue helped define variables with the highest loading on each factor to determine necessary relevant variables for the study, forming the elements of measurement in the instrument (DeVellis, 2017; Williams & Monge, 2001).

Demographic Participation

According to DeVellis (2017), five participants for every item measured represent a sufficient sample to measure the construct. The sample size of 341 exceeded the 320 participants needed to evaluate a 64-item questionnaire measuring the concept, which also exceeded the recommendation of 300 as advocated by Nunnally (1978). The participants were invited to complete the questionnaire to evaluate their team leaders through emails. The demographic questionnaire included the gender, age, educational qualifications, nationality, and organization of each participant (see Table 1).

Table 1: Participants' Demographic Profile (N = 341)

Demographics	***n***	**%**
Gender		
Female	152	45
Male	189	55
Age		
18–20	1	.3
21–29	48	14.1
30–39	78	22.9
40–49	78	22.9
50–59	75	22.0
60+	61	17.9
Education		
Diploma	24	7
First Degree	197	58
Master's Degree	110	32
Doctoral	10	3
Country		
USA	114	33
India	63	18
Philippines	34	10
Nigeria	28	8
Thailand	24	7
Kenya	16	5
Malaysia	15	4
South Africa	11	3
Ethiopia	9	1
Zimbabwe	5	1
Indonesia	4	1
Other	18	5
Organization		
The JESUS Film Project	87	26
Campus Crusade for Christ SEA	77	23
India Campus Crusade for Christ	59	17
Global Aid Network	29	9
Great Commission Movement of Nigeria	27	8
Athletes in Action	18	5
Campus Crusade for Christ SA	11	4
Life Ministry Kenya	10	3
Great Commission Movement Ethiopia	10	3
International Leadership University	5	2
Africa Leadership and Management Academy	4	1
International Leadership Foundation	4	1

Correlations of Items

The first process conducted was to determine the degree of association between the variables using the Pearson correlation coefficient (Shrestha, 2021). According to Hair et al. (2014), correlations determine how different items interrelate to explain a factor measuring a construct. A Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was run to determine the strength of the relationship between the items (Williams & Monge, 2001). The results indicated high correlations above .50 and, therefore, an oblique rotation analysis was selected. Oblique rotation is a process of rotating the eigenvectors to attain a simple structure to explain a factor (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995). The process allows factors to correlate and reduce the number of factors for easy interpretation (Hair et al., 2014). Factor analysis using direct oblimin rotation was used to analyze the data, as the factor correlation matrix had a score of .32 (Hair et al., 2014).

Factor Analysis

According to Hair et al. (2014), "factor analysis is an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis" (92). Young and Pearce (2013) noted that "factor analysis operates on the notion that measurable and observable variables can be reduced to fewer latent variables that share a common variance and are unobservable" (80). After determining the significance of the correlation matrix and degree of relationship of the 64 items, the KMO was applied to determine the measure of sample adequacy, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was utilized to carry out a factor analysis on the items. The measure of sample adequacy was .98, which was significantly high and well above the recommended score of .50 (Young & Pearce, 2013). Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated a significant score of $p < .000$ (see Table 2 confirming that the items correlated (Young & Pearce, 2013).

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Sphericity for 64 Items

Test	Score
KMO measure of sampling adequacy	.98
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approximate chi-square	24,286.6
df	2,016
Sig.	.000

After establishing the data's eligibility for factor analysis, a principal component analysis with direct oblimin rotation was selected to "produce a pattern matrix that contains the factor of item loadings and factor correlation matrix that includes the correlations between the factors" (Young & Pearce, 2013, 84). A coefficient threshold was set at .40 to eliminate low-level factor loadings. The principal component analysis with direct oblimin rotation on the 64 items after the panel of experts review revealed six factors with eigenvalues above 1.0, comprising 34 items that explained 71.4% of the variables. We deleted the 30 non-loading items and ran the principal components again, and we found a five-factor model of 34 items.

After conducting the second round of factor analysis with oblique oblimin rotation, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy remained at .970, and Bartlett's test of sphericity remained significant at $p < .000$. The total variance explained was 71.5% emerging as a four-factor model. We removed the non-loading items and conducted another principal component analysis. The results of the principal component showed a three-factor model explained by 24 items. Factor 1 had nine items, Factor 2 had nine items, and Factor 3 had six items (see Table 3).

Table 3: Rotated Pattern Matrix for a Three-Factor Model

Item	1	2	3
My team leader demonstrates a servant attitude.	.867		
My team leader serves by building authentic relationships with followers and stakeholders.	.845		
My team leader invests in building authentic relationships.	.839		
My team leader goes out of his or her way to serve and meet people's needs.	.783		
My team leader demonstrates stewardship through serving others.	.780		
My team leader prioritizes developing his or her team.	.769		
My team leader focuses on the well-being of the employees.	.734		
My team leader serves based on humility.	.716		
My team leader demonstrates stewardship by creating opportunities to develop people.	.637		
My team leader articulates a clear vision.		.917	
My team leader demonstrates competency in decision-making.		.760	
My team leader challenges the status quo.		.750	
My team leader assigns roles and authority with clarity.		.722	
My team leader can identify problems and solve them.		.722	
My team leader exercises creative thinking.		.687	
My team leader evaluates work and the use of resources in accomplishing a task.		.670	
My team leader demonstrates high competency in communication.		.667	
My team leader demonstrates ethical stewardship by constantly improving the image of the organization through effective communication.		.611	
My team leader acts with honesty.			.880
My team leader acts with integrity.			.840
My team leader demonstrates authentic character.			.750
My team leader demonstrates character by being truthful.			.748
My team leader is guided by morals, values, and beliefs when making decisions.			.724
Morals, values, and beliefs guide my team leader in conducting the business of the organization.			.697

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Scale Optimization

Scale optimization requires the developer to consider a balance between the size and reliability of the scale (DeVellis, 2017). Reducing or increasing the length of the scale requires good judgment from the scale developer, which has been described by DeVellis (2017) as creating tension for the developer. Running scale optimization requires that, when a scale is above .90, the developer may drop items (DeVellis, 2017). We kept the highest-load items for each of the three scales and conducted another principal component analysis

Final Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire

The scale optimization resulted in 15 items measuring the three-factor model. A test to assess the sample measure of adequacy (KMO) indicating sample sufficiency to factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to assess the eligibility of the 15 items for factor analysis. Table 4 shows the KMO score of .954 was an indication of sample adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity showed a score of $p < .000$, indicating a correlation between the items (Williams & Monge, 2001). The three-factor instrument, the final Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire (TSLQ), adequately constituted latent variables measuring the transforming steward leadership construct.

Table 4: KMO and Bartlett's Test for the Three-Factor Instrument

Test	Score
KMO measure of sampling adequacy	.954
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approximate chi-square	4,972.852
df	105
Sig.	.000

According to Hair et al. (2014), "when a satisfactory factor solution has been derived, the researcher next attempts to assign some meaning to the factors" (136). The assignment of meaning is achieved by naming the factors (Hair et al., 2014). Young and Pearce (2013) posited that there is no rule for naming factors, "except to give names that best represent the variables within the factors" (91). After optimization of the three factors, a 15-item scale (TSLQ) emerged with five items each. Each factor was named based on the common theme emerging from the items explaining the factor. Factor 1 was named stewardship, Factor 2 was named competency, and Factor 3 was named character (see Table 5).

Table 5: Reliability of the Final Three-Factor Instrument

Factor	**Cronbach's Alpha**	***n***
Stewardship	.93	5
Competency	.92	5
Character	.95	5

After conducting the reliability test of the TSLQ, a test on data normality was conducted using descriptive analysis with skewness and kurtosis (see Table 6).

Table 6: Skewness and Kurtosis Test for the Final Three-Factor Instrument

							Kurtosis	
Factor	**Min**	**Max**	***M***	***SD***	**Skewness**	***SE***	**Statistics**	***SE***
Stewardship	2	7	5.58	1.32	-0.99	0.132	0.44	0.26
Competency	2	7	5.50	1.24	-0.85	0.132	0.47	0.26
Character	2	7	5.98	1.20	-1.38	0.132	1.65	0.26

Note. N = 341

A Pearson correlation test was conducted to assess the correlation of the three factors with 15 items. According to Williams and Monge (2001), "correlations measure the existence of a relationship between variables" (127). Items are considered correlated when the statistical values lean toward +1, while 0 is considered no correlation, and -1 indicates a negative correlation (Williams & Monge, 2001). When statistical p values are less than .01, the statistics show a significant correlation. The results showed a strong correlation between the factors (see Table 7).

Table 7: Pearson Correlation for the Final Three-Factor Instrument (N = 341)

Variable	**Stewardship**	**Competency**	**Character**
Stewardship	—	.741**	.797**
Competency	.741**	—	.746**
Character	.797**	.746**	—

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

The final items for the three scales are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Transforming Steward Leadership Questionnaire

Construct	Item
Stewardship	My team leader serves by building authentic relationships with followers and stakeholders.
	My team leader demonstrates a servant attitude.
	My team leader focuses on the well-being of the followers.
	My team leader serves based on humility.
	My team leader goes out of his or her way to serve and meet people's needs.
Competency	My team leader articulates a clear vision.
	My team leader demonstrates competency in decision-making.
	My team leader assigns roles and authority with clarity.
	My team leader can identify problems and solve them.
	My team leader evaluates work and the use of resources in accomplishing a task.
Character	My team leader acts with integrity.
	My team leader acts with honesty.
	My team leader demonstrates authentic character.
	My team leader is guided by morals, values, and beliefs when making decisions.
	My team leader demonstrates character by being truthful.

Discussion

The purpose of this current study was to create an instrument to measure the transforming steward leadership construct. The development of the instrument involved identifying items from transforming leadership (Burns, 1978), steward leadership (Block, 2013; Donaldson & Davis, 1991), and further applied servant leadership (Patterson, 2003), ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006), and moral leadership (Skubinn & Herzog, 2016). This resultant three-scale measure can be used to measure transforming steward leadership as a construct. This research filled a gap in the literature, as no instrument existed to measure the transforming steward leadership theory.

Implications of Research

A measurement instrument is necessary to gather empirical evidence on a subject matter to scientifically interpret a phenomena's characteristics and behavior (DeVellis, 2017). The TSLQ may aid leadership practitioners in assessing and developing leaders to become transforming steward leaders. The TSLQ may be a valuable tool for consulting with organizational leaders in inculcating value systems and developing character-based leaders. The findings of this research will create a shift from focusing on results as the end goal of leadership to achieving results on the foundation of character and integrity. The implications of this study will further address leadership, taking a general interest in people as stewards of relationships and leading based on love for people (Church, 2010). This study has a prerogative of training to approach leadership in the form of stewardship (Hernandez, 2008).

Future Research

It is necessary to conduct a research study applying the TLSQ and further retesting the instrument's validity to affirm the strength of the construct. The TSLQ does not cover other variables such as culture; therefore, a future study is recommended to review TSLQ in the context of a different culture. Furthermore, it is necessary to carry out a study on how transforming steward leaders enhance organizational performance. As much as character and personal transformation are considered the virtue of authentic leadership with integrity, research is necessary to ascertain whether leaders who are espousing transforming steward leadership influence organizational performance. We believe that future researchers can use the TSLQ to assess leadership competencies, character, and stewardship. The TSLQ can be used as a 360-degree assessment of individuals to assess self-perception and feedback from others on a leader's strengths in stewardship, character, and competencies and help participants come up with personal development plans (Beausaert et al., 2013). Further research is necessary to test the TSLQ in for-profit, nonprofit, and organizations with different education levels, age groups, and genders from different cultural backgrounds.

Conclusion

The focus of this study was to operationalize transforming steward leadership using transforming leadership and steward leadership models to create a scientifically validated instrument to measure the transforming steward leadership construct. This research confirmed that developing an instrument to measure the construct was possible, and a three-factor model with 15 items emerged. The study revealed that transforming steward leadership espouses stewardship characteristics of caring for people and organization, demonstrated through servant attitude, humility (Patterson, 2003; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2009; Wong & Davey, 2007), authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), and sacrificial caring for followers (Block, 2013; Wilson, 2010). The research further revealed that such leaders embrace integrity, morals, authenticity, and ethical behavior (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Cloud, 2006; Hannah & Avolio, 2011; Marques, 2017; Winston, n.d.).

This study included a total sample of 341 participants from the United States, India, the Philippines, and other countries. The participants responded to a 64-item online survey. A six-factor model emerged after conducting a factor analysis and principal component analysis, accounting for 73% of the variances. After oblimin rotation and elimination of cross-loading items, the model was reduced to three factors with 24 items. A scale optimization was conducted and further reduced the model to 15 items, with a reliability coefficient alpha above .90. The final three-factor scale of the TSLQ provided a new dimension for measuring transforming steward leadership. Further research was recommended to test the instrument and further develop the transforming steward leadership construct.

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