



The Dynamic Nature of Leader Identity Development

Citation

Weimer, Laura. 2023. The Dynamic Nature of Leader Identity Development. Doctoral dissertation, Harvard University Graduate School of Arts and Sciences.

Link

<https://nrs.harvard.edu/URN-3:HUL.INSTREPOS:37375531>

Terms of use

This article was downloaded from Harvard University's DASH repository, and is made available under the terms and conditions applicable to Other Posted Material (LAA), as set forth at

<https://harvardwiki.atlassian.net/wiki/external/NGY5NDE4ZjgzNTc5NDQzMGIzZWZhMGFIOWI2M2EwYTg>

Accessibility

<https://accessibility.huit.harvard.edu/digital-accessibility-policy>

Share Your Story

The Harvard community has made this article openly available.
Please share how this access benefits you. [Submit a story](#)

HARVARD UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Arts and Sciences



DISSERTATION ACCEPTANCE CERTIFICATE

The undersigned, appointed by the Committee for the
PhD in Business Administration have examined a dissertation
entitled

The dynamic nature of leader identity development

Presented by **Laura Renee Weimer**

candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and hereby
certify that it is worthy of acceptance.

Signature 
Joshua Margolis, Co-Chair

Signature 
Ting Zhang, Co-Chair

Signature 
Ethan Bernstein

Signature 
Lakshmi Ramarajan

Date: March 6, 2023

The Dynamic Nature of Leader Identity Development

A dissertation presented

by

Laura Renee Weimer

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

In Business Administration

Harvard Business School

Boston, Massachusetts

6 March, 2023

© 2023 Laura Weimer. All rights reserved.

Dissertation Advisors:
Joshua Margolis
Ting Zhang

Laura Renee Weimer

ABSTRACT

The Dynamic Nature of Leader Identity Development

Leadership is complex: at its core, it deals with influencing and developing unique individuals in unique contexts. Equally complex is the construction of leaders' identities and how they are developed. Existing research focused on identity work and leader development acknowledges some, but not all of the dynamic aspects that affect leaders' identities, resulting in incomplete theories and understanding of how leaders develop both internally and in response to experience and external expectations. Recognizing this limitation in current research, my dissertation focuses on answering this question: How do we identify, understand, cultivate, and leverage the complex and dynamic nature of leader identity development?

By dynamic, I mean that leader development is not one-dimensional or isolated; it is not linear or continuous; its effects are not uniform. My work explores and illustrates a number of these dynamic aspects. First, there are multiple standards and motivators of leadership behavior, including one's internal self-concept and leader identity as well as the organization's or role's external expectations. How well each is developed and integrated is important to a leader's sense of self and their professional success. The path of leader development is non-linear, as early-stage leaders often step into and out of direct leadership roles; I question what impact these micro role transitions may have. The development of leaders' behaviors and perceptions are non-continuous as they experiment with their leader identities, and this development occurs at non-uniform rates in how their perceptions of others versus themselves as leaders change.

My dissertation is inspired and informed by 25 years of my own leader identity development, through personal growth and leader experiences mostly in the US Army, and

cultivating the same for others at various stages of their careers. As I explore and make sense of the dynamism of leader identity development, I integrate research on **identity** (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Caza, Vough, et al., 2018; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Ibarra, 1999; Kegan, 1994; Lord & Hall, 2005; Miscenko & Day, 2016; Stryker & Burke, 2000), **leader development** (Day et al., 2014; Day & Dragoni, 2015; Day & Harrison, 2007; Miscenko et al., 2017; van Knippenberg, 2011), **awareness and authenticity** (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997; Gardner et al., 2005; Kernis, 2003), **role transitions** (Ashforth, 2001; George et al., 2021; Levinson, 1978; Lieberman, 1956), and **feedback** (London, 2003; London & Smither, 2002; Toegel & Conger, 2003). I approach the topic by developing theory, conducting quantitative empirical analysis, and providing in-depth illustrations and critical insights.

My first chapter proposes a theory of leader identity development focused at the individual level, that moves beyond siloes of internal reflection about their own values and goals and external assessments of organizational metrics of success. In reality, identities develop more fully by incorporating cross-view perspectives, integrating external feedback on their internal goals and standards of success, and intentionally assessing their own performance in line with the organization's external expectations. I walk through how this dynamic approach to identity development mitigates the imperfections of traditional identity work and performance feedback, and also aids leaders in constructing a harmonious identity by identifying and resolving any conflict between internal and external priorities.

My second chapter analyzes in-depth one contributing factor to a leader's identity, direct experience, which requires a leader to simultaneously consider their own internal and external expectations, ultimately – and repeatedly – deciding how they should appropriately behave in that particular situation (March & Olsen, 2004). I look specifically at the dynamic, non-linear nature of leadership experience, asking what impact stepping into and out of leadership roles has on leader behaviors and perceptions. I leverage a natural field experiment of over 3,000

military cadets at West Point, who were randomly assigned to leadership and non-leadership roles, analyzing feedback they provided, as an indicator of their development of others as a core aspect of their leadership role. My analysis using multi-level linear regression revealed that those in formal leadership roles provided more critical lateral and upward feedback, and were less critical when they stepped out of the leadership role, but not as favorable as before they occupied the role. This change in how early-stage leaders provide feedback in response to role transitions suggests non-continuous development of their leader identity, in line with Ibarra's (1999) idea of experimenting with provisional selves and selectively incorporating aspects into their identity, regardless of their current role. Additionally, having found no significant change in self-views either during or after leadership role occupation suggests non-uniformity in leader development, in terms of how they perceive and behave toward others, and how they see and assess themselves.

My third chapter presents a number of rich first and second-hand experiences that illustrate leader identity development and suggest patterns at three general stages of one's career. My combination of robust personal involvement and academic professional distance (Anteby, 2013) contributes unique and valuable insights from the use of cross-view perspectives and responding to transitions in and out of leadership roles toward my own and others' leader identities. I reflect upon and analyze steps taken to honoring my internal values, goals, and passions for leadership, while also navigating the external expectations and measures of success. I conclude with personal lessons learned for both individuals and leaders or mentors or others in deliberately cultivating a more holistic and harmonious identity.

My work collectively contributes to a more nuanced understanding of both leader identity and identity development more broadly, drawing attention to the dynamic composition of one's identity, the path of development, and its outcomes of leader behaviors, perspectives, and career decisions. I contribute the novel ideas of leveraging cross-view perspectives toward identity development, as well as looking at the feedback leaders provide as an indicator of their

development. Practically, my work has implications especially for early-stage leaders, informing and inspiring them to agency in their early identity development. However, I also show the relevance of understanding the dynamic nature of one's identity across the span of one's career, and encourage additional research that explores the unique effects of leader development moderated by cumulative experience or career stage.

I conclude with a fruitful path of future research expanding upon the dynamic aspects of leader identity development. We can and should develop interventions to validate and assess the impact of cross-view assessments, while also exploring ways of understanding and measuring the holistic and harmonious extent of leaders' identities. We can also leverage the extensive use of multi-source feedback to look specifically at the change in how leaders provide feedback, and identify what metrics may be meaningful to reflect their development. Each of these paths of exploration are ripe with opportunities to better understand and leverage the dynamic nature of leader identity development.

Key Words:

Identity; leader identity; leader development; role transitions; personal well-being; feedback

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	i
COPYRIGHT	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	x
DEDICATION	xiii
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 1 - IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION AS A JOINT VENTURE: HOW CROSS-VIEW PERSPECTIVES CONTRIBUTE TO MORE HOLISTIC AND HARMONIOUS LEADER IDENTITIES	7
IDENTITY: EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL EXPECTATIONS DRIVE BEHAVIOR	10
An overview of identity and leader identity	11
Internal standards of identity and leadership	12
External standards of identity and leadership	14
THE SILOED APPROACH TO IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION: INSUFFICIENT AND DISCONNECTED	16
Baseline identity development from siloed approaches	17
Complex effects of siloed assessments: Unidentified and unresolved tension	23
CROSS-VIEW ASSESSMENTS: IMPROVING AWARENESS AND AGENCY	27
Supplemental value of cross-view perspectives	28
Elements of increased awareness and agency	29
Identifying and resolving conflict between internal and external leadership standards	32
Indicators of a holistic and harmonious leader identity	35
Practical ways to conduct cross-view assessments	36
Boundary conditions: When cross-view assessments are most likely and most effective ...	39
Considering the risks of cross-view assessments	40
FUTURE RESEARCH: EMPIRICAL TESTS AND THEORETICAL EXTENSIONS	42
Opportunities for empirical exploration and future research	42
Theoretical and practical contributions	43
CONCLUSION	45
CHAPTER 2 – THE BROKEN ROAD OF LEADER DEVELOPMENT: THE DYNAMIC PATH AND EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE	47

ABSTRACT	47
INTRODUCTION	47
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMING	52
The dynamic nature of leader development and non-linear paths of experience	52
Difficulties researching dynamic leader development.....	55
An important leader development outcome: Developing others with feedback	58
RESEARCH CONTEXT AND HYPOTHESES	60
Research Context: A leader development program with non-continuous experiences	60
Hypotheses: Feedback provided before, during, and after direct leader roles	65
Hypotheses for self assessments.....	69
DATA AND FINDINGS	71
Data Sample and Variables	71
Measures.....	72
Analysis	74
Results.....	75
DISCUSSION	83
Theoretical Implications	85
Practical Implications	87
Limitations	89
Future Research.....	90
CONCLUSION	94
CHAPTER 3 – PERSONAL REFLECTIONS ON LEADER IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT OVER TIME	96
THE VALUE OF MY PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES AND PROFESSIONAL DISTANCE	96
IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SILOED AND CROSS-VIEW PERSPECTIVES	98
What drives us: Both internal and external expectations and goals.....	98
Disconnected siloes: Why individual leaders struggle personally and professionally.....	99
Breaking out of siloes by integrating cross-view perspectives	100
Personal Examples of siloed and cross-view perspectives over a career	103
STEPPING INTO AND OUT OF LEADERSHIP ROLES.....	115
Personal Examples of Stepping Into and Out of Leadership Roles	115
LESSONS LEARNED IN LEADING MYSELF AND OTHERS	122
Leaders as Individuals	122
Mentors and Leaders of others	124
CONCLUSION	126

CONCLUSION	128
APPENDICES	132
BIBLIOGRAPHY	133

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It truly takes a village to write and defend a dissertation, to thrive in an academic career. The pandemic highlighted this, as my community went from in-person to zoom work sessions and facetime check-ins. But everyone I acknowledge below – and so many others – kept showing up for me, and helped me focus on what was important to me, and what is ultimately an investment in my current Soldiers and future students. To everyone, I sincerely thank you.

To my committee – Joshua Margolis, Ting Zhang, Ethan Bernstein, & Lakshmi Ramarajan – you have been a tremendous source of inspiration, partnership, empowerment, and accountability. Thank you for ensuring we accomplished both the sacred and the secular on this journey, for encouraging me to share my voice as a leader, and for investing immeasurably in my future. Your leadership and friendship are unmatched, and I look forward to continuing in partnership for years to come.

To my West Point BS&L family – from the leadership of COL Everett Spain, COL Archie Bates, and COL Darcy Schnack, to the tremendous military and civilian teammates, I cannot say enough about how you inspire me every day to invest in myself, the cadets we have the privilege to teach, and the Soldiers they will one day lead.

To Dr. Rich Lerner and the Tufts Project Arete team – Elise, Hillary, Andy, Chevy, thank you for welcoming me into your research team, sharing the rich data and insights that contributed significantly to this dissertation and much of my current research. You were instrumental in my early research development and are all tremendous friends and scholars.

I have shared the last four years of my life (in-person and on-line) with colleagues from Harvard Business School and Harvard University – building friendships, refining our research, and sharpening each other's academic pursuits. Our PhD cohort – across eight different disciplines always came together for social events and birthday celebrations in the Commons, and celebrated each other's successes. Thank you especially to Bushra, Liz, Jimin, Hannah, Tuna, Masha, Maya, and Botir, for the countless conversations over coffee and chocolate-

covered almonds. Thank you to the last of the Management crew – Mike and Yusaku – I am so grateful for your guidance, gingerbread making excellence, and Thanksgiving apple pies. To Nataliya, Jeff, Innessa, Lumumba, and Tommy, thank you for being amazing thought partners, friends, and guides through this process – I am excited for the journey ahead for each of us.

The faculty at HBS and Harvard invested in me as a scholar and as a person – academically and professionally, and I will forever be grateful. To Amy Edmonson, Linda Hill, Robin Ely, Teresa Amabile, Ryan Raffaelli, Mike Pratt (at Boston College), Scott Snook, and Hise Gibson: thank you for your time, and for believing in and strengthening my work.

To the leaders and members of our OB Lab and DevelopMENTOR writing lab – you all were truly foundational to the development of my research. To the research assistants who helped with cleaning, coding, and exploring data with me – your work will carry me for years, and contribute immensely to future work. And to the tremendous team in our HBS Doctoral Office (Jen, Marais, Angela, Darlene, and Maryna) as well as our Faculty Support Specialists (Katie, Meggie, Evan, and Dory) and Research Assistants (Rachel and Akshaya), I felt supported and encouraged by you all every step of the way; you truly run the school and neither the faculty or students could succeed without you.

To my Duke Sociology colleagues, with whom I started my academic career and pursuit of knowledge and greater understanding of people, culture, and society. This community developed my ability to explore, articulate, and collaborate on ideas, all within the time after grad campout and *many* Duke basketball games.

To my Army teammates, my Soldiers, and my peers who have inspired so much of this work: from the Big Red One during application season and celebrating my acceptance to HBS in the DTAC expando van, to the Iron Soldier leaders and teammates who have asked about my research, and who made sure I focused when I needed to, even during the nights at NTC.

To my Army PhD brethren, the people with whom I navigated the application process, the dramatic transitions, and challenges of dissertating; I know you will be the first to celebrate

with me. Chevy Cook, Kate Conkey, Tiara Walz, and Rebecca Beard, you understand the multitude of my identities, and I cannot thank you enough for your solidarity and friendship.

To Alison and the amazing crew of The Academic Writers' Space (TAWS). You have been one constant in my life since the summer of 2020, meeting me online for work accountability, reminding me to honor myself through the process, providing countless sticky notes full of wisdom, picking me up on the hard days, and celebrating even the smallest wins. You all are truly special.

To so many of my Boston friends – at Hillsong Boston and New York, Orange Theory Back Bay, Breathe Yoga, Heard on the Streets, and the dinner party crew, thank you for doing life with me, for bringing music, fitness, food, and a love for God and people into my daily journey. You helped keep me grounded and true to myself through this journey, and your wisdom and support is reflected in the words on these pages.

And to those closest to me, you know who you are – WPLDS and the New Year's travel crew, thank you for helping me be who I want to be, inspiring me with your strength to overcome life's challenges, encouraging me to pursue the things that are most important to me, taking time to have fun, enjoy life, and travel, and for inviting me to celebrate your lives and families. You are friends for life – 24 years and counting, Guvvi!

To my family – Mom, Dad, and Kirsten – who instilled in me the discipline and pursuit of excellence, while appreciating and enjoying the special times to sit on the back porch and roast s'mores. Thank you for all your love and support over the years. And to my cats for the ultimate, non-judgmental, comforting company; even if you didn't let me sleep in often, it was comforting to know I was never alone in the house.

To my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, nothing is possible or worthwhile without You. With your strength, anything is possible. You are the foundation of my strength and skill; my purpose is to bring you glory. May I serve wholeheartedly, serving you, and not man or myself (Eph 6:7).

DEDICATION

To everyone who is on a journey of self-development,
for themselves, and for others.

You are worth the investment.

Regardless of how small, take a step forward *every day*.

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1. Summary table of siloed and cross-view perspectives.....	41
Table 2.1. Unique rater demographics	71
Table 2.2. Feedback items in USMA Periodical Development Report	72
Table 2.3. Descriptive statistics by role and feedback direction.....	74
Table 2.4. Multi-level linear regression models: Feedback average score predicted by rater leader status and feedback report direction.....	76
Table 2.5. Descriptive statistics by rater, leader experience, and feedback direction	78
Table 2.6. Multi-level linear regression models: Feedback average score predicted by rater leader experience and feedback direction	80

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Summary table of siloed and cross-view perspectives	27
Figure 1.2. Basic model of holistic and harmonious leader identity development	28
Figure 1.3. Expanded model of holistic and harmonious leader identity development	37
Figure 2.1. Multi-source feedback structure for West Point Cadets	65
Figure 2.2. Effects of rater role on feedback average	77
Figure 2.3. Effects of rater leader experience on feedback scores by leader experience and feedback direction.....	81
Figure 3.1. Illustration of siloed and cross-view perspectives	101

INTRODUCTION

Leading people is complex: at its core, leadership deals with influencing and developing unique individuals in unique contexts. Equally complex is the construct of leaders' identities and how they are developed. The process of how leaders learn and respond to both internal and external expectations of who they are and how they behave is inherently dynamic. There is difficulty, yet significant importance in leaders staying true to their internal sense of purpose, values, and life goals, while simultaneously meeting the standards and metrics of effective leadership within their organization. Both personal well-being and professional success are critical. Each layer and process is important, and reveal the dynamic nature of leader identity development. It is both practically and theoretically important to understand how leaders discover and stay true to themselves, how they develop – in immediate and delayed, non-linear, non-uniform ways – from experience, and how the process occurs at various stages of personal and professional life.

Existing research focused on identity work and leader development acknowledges some, but not all of the dynamic aspects that affect leaders' identities, resulting in siloed, oversimplified, and incomplete theories of leader identity development. Identity work is often presented as an internal or personal process (Caza, Vough, & Puranik, 2018; Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010; Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006), while external assessments of performance (formal and informal) are based on organizational metrics (Thach, 2002). A leader's identity – how they see themselves and behave as a leader (Ashforth, 2001; Carroll & Levy, 2010; Day & Harrison, 2007; Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005; van Knippenberg et al., 2004) is a combination of their self-concept (Gecas, 1982; Lord et al., 1999; Oyserman, 2001; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003), role expectations (Biddle, 1986; Day et al., 2004; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Gjerde & Ladegård, 2018; Waldman et al., 2013), and external affirmation (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). The dynamic nature of a leader's identity includes the difficulty of achieving identity coherence, authenticity, and personal well-being (Gardner et al.,

2005; Kernis, 2003; Swann et al., 2003; Swann, 1990), while also aiming to meet organization expectations.

The complex composition of a leader's identity is reinforced by the dynamic path of development, which consists of learning, practicing, receiving feedback, and reflecting (Day et al., 2008; Kolb et al., 2014). The dynamic nature of leader development is implied by literature and research on role transitions – both within organizations in general (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2000; George et al., 2021), as well as in early manager and leadership roles (Hill, 2003), but neglected in the preponderance of qualitative and program-level research on leader development (Day et al., 2014; Day & Dragoni, 2015; Day & Harrison, 2007; Miscenko et al., 2017; van Knippenberg, 2011). The gaps in understanding and accounting for the dynamic development of leaders' identities is one specific context, but reflects a need for more comprehensive understanding of the dynamic aspects of identity development more broadly.

My personal inspiration to pursue this work comes from 25 years of leadership and personal development experiences that started with leading a student retreat in high school and attending the United States Military Academy at West Point, to leading Soldiers through two tours in Iraq and returning to teach leadership at West Point, and currently includes serving in a formal leadership role for over 600 Soldiers. Though I may not have realized it at the time, each of these steps, and many other in between, were contributing to my leader identity. The conversations I have had with others who are exploring their internal and family desires and trying to balance them with the organization's expectations have been enlightening to this dynamic nature of our leader identity. Watching cadets and young Army officers reflect upon and adjust their leader behaviors after unique seasons of experience revealed so much nuance to their developmental process. These personal revelations and the opportunity to partner with others on their developmental journeys intrigued me to better understand and articulate for other leaders and organizations the dynamic nature of our leader identities and developmental paths.

By dynamic, I mean that leader development is not one-dimensional or isolated; it is not linear or continuous; and its effects are not uniform. My work explores and illustrates a number of these dynamic aspects. First, there are multiple standards and motivators of leadership behavior, including one's internal self-concept and leader identity as well as the organization's or role's external expectations. How well each is developed and integrated is important to a leader's sense of self and their professional success. The path of leader development is non-linear, as early-stage leaders often step into and out of direct leadership roles; I question what impact these micro role transitions may have. The development of leaders' behaviors and perceptions are non-continuous as they experiment with role expectations and their own leader identities, that result in both temporary and more permanent changes. These developments occur non-uniformly in perceptions of self versus others, and across stages of one's professional life.

Recognizing the limitations in current research and inspired by my personal experiences, my dissertation focuses on answering this overarching question: **How do we identify, understand, cultivate, and leverage the complex and dynamic nature of leader identity development?** I approach this question through a constructivist lens, focused on individual meaning-making and self-definition cultivated by experience and personal interpretation. Though identity and leadership can be particularly individual, we can also observe and leverage patterns to understand and create a developmental approach that benefits both leaders and organizations.

I start my exploration of the dynamic nature of leader identity development theoretically, developing a process model of dynamic identity construction. I illustrate the multiple dimensions of our identities, as we respond to both internal and external expectations and standards for who we are and how we behave. However, I highlight through current literature on identity work and performance feedback, that these expectations, and the feedback around them, often exist in siloes – internal reflection about one's own values and goals, and external assessments of

organizational metrics of success. These siloes prevent people from developing holistic or harmonious identities, neither fully understanding their leader identity, nor being able to identify or resolve tension between their internal purpose or values and expectations from assigned roles or organizations.

In this first chapter, the fundamental question I aim to answer is: **How do leaders develop holistic and harmonious leader identities?** Specifically, I ask how leaders achieve greater awareness around 1) their own strengths, values, and goals as well as the organization's standards; 2) how well they are meeting those expectations; and 3) how well do their internal and external standards align? I suggest that holistic and harmonious identity development occurs through the leader's incorporation of cross-view perspectives, which increase both awareness and agency. Identities develop more fully by integrating external feedback on their internal goals and standards of success, and intentionally assessing their own performance in line with the organization's external expectations. I walk through how this dynamic approach to identity development mitigates the imperfections of traditional identity work and performance feedback, and enables leaders to construct a more harmonious identity by minimizing conflict between internal and external priorities.

In my second chapter, I narrow my research focus to one specific contributor to the development of one's leader identity: direct experience. This setting presents a collision of external role expectations with one's internal meaning, values, and behaviors. It triggers an assessment (or reassessment) of one's leader identity, allows for experimentation while occupying the role, and requires a decision on what behaviors and beliefs to retain as part of their own leader identity once they leave the role (Ibarra, 1999). I propose that this leader experience follows a naturally dynamic path, and aim to discover what nuanced effects this dynamism has on developmental outcomes such as leader behaviors and beliefs. A review of current research and theories around leader development and leader identity will show that many speak to the longitudinal, cumulative nature of leader development, but assume or infer a

continuous process. Thus, my research question asks: **What effect does stepping into as well as out of direct leadership roles have on the behaviors and beliefs of early-stage leaders?**

To answer this, I leverage a natural field experiment of over 3,000 military cadets at West Point, randomly assigned to leadership and non-leadership roles during the first semester of their third year, when they occupy their first substantial organizational-level leadership role. I choose to analyze how they provide feedback as a novel leadership behavior that reflects their growth as leaders as they develop and improve the performance of others. The results reveal expected non-linear effects on this leader behavior before, during, and after occupation of the formal leader role, and also reveal non-uniform development of their leader identities between how they view others and how they view themselves. This focused empirical analysis opens a door to a promising strand of research to further explore the effects of dynamic developmental paths and the complex content and processes of identity development.

In my third chapter, I illustrate my main concepts of dynamic leader identity development through personal reflections, introducing a final dynamic element of career stage. My focus question for this chapter is: **What does leader identity work look like across the professional lifespan?** Leveraging my personal leadership experience as well as observations and engagement with other leaders, I illustrate the valuable application of cross-view perspectives and stepping into and out of leadership roles for early-stage, mid-career, and senior leaders as they navigate their identity development and respond to both internal and external triggers. I conclude by sharing lessons learned for individuals and leaders to encourage agency and intentionality in navigating leadership roles and careers in a way that is both personally fulfilling and organizationally beneficial.

Throughout each chapter, I highlight contributions of my research to theory, research methodology, and practice. Most notable is the continuous thread of the dynamic nature of leader identity development, bringing together previously siloed topics of identity work and

leader development activities, and challenging future research to account for the non-linear path of development experience, the non-uniform impact of development on the aspects of one's identity, and the unique changes based on the stage of one's professional career. Both theory and empirical research hold opportunities to further develop our understating of the dynamic nature of leader identity development and take valuable action from this new knowledge.

CHAPTER 1 - IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION AS A JOINT VENTURE: HOW CROSS-VIEW PERSPECTIVES CONTRIBUTE TO MORE HOLISTIC AND HARMONIOUS LEADER IDENTITIES

ABSTRACT

Throughout their careers, leaders are challenged to behave in ways that are both authentic to themselves and that fulfill their organization's expectations. Individual approaches to identity work and external development systems separately fail to explain how leaders construct identities that are holistic – aware of themselves and their environment – and harmonious – where their internal values, goals, and expectations align with those of their environment. Siloed views – where leaders reflect internally on their internal standards of leadership and external entities make assessments based on externally established standards – are necessary but insufficient for leaders to obtain full awareness of themselves in their organizational context, or to identify and resolve any conflict between the two standards. In this paper, I suggest that cross-view perspectives help leaders overcome the cognitive and social limitations of siloed views, and – with the assistance of others – increase both leader awareness and agency to facilitate the construction of more holistic and harmonious leader identities.

By nature of their role, leaders provide purpose and direction to others, but they are also constantly navigating who they are and want to be, and who others want or need them to be. They observe role models, explore and reflect, and learn from trial and error, but also take guidance from job descriptions and performance evaluations. Throughout their lives, most people feel some strain between their internal self and external expectations. The importance of leader awareness for themselves and those they lead implores us to understand how and why leaders best understand themselves and resolve this common tension.

It is critical that leaders honor and adequately respond to both internal and external forces, aiming to achieve identity coherence, authenticity, and personal well-being (Gardner et al., 2005; Kernis, 2003; Swann et al., 2003; Swann, 1990), but also to meet organization expectations (Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) and achieve success. A person's unique identity is similar to their self-concept (Gecas, 1982), consisting of values, emotions, and goals or motives (Gardner et al., 2005), both current & possible (Lord & Brown, 2001; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

In response to their personal growth and increasing responsibilities, leaders continually navigate an iterative and dynamic development of their leader identities (Day & Harrison, 2007; Lord & Hall, 2005) in response to psychological development and transitions between roles (Ashforth, 2001; Kegan, 1994; Markus & Wurf, 1987). One's identity responds to both external factors such as role expectations (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Turner, 1978), group membership (Hogg, 2001; Tajfel, 1974), and social norms (van Knippenberg, 1999), and one's internal sense of self built upon previous experiences, personality, and goals (Emmons, 1986; Simon, 2004). These complex identities drive how a person behaves, reflecting the appropriateness for a "person such as I in a context such as this" (March & Olsen, 2004).

Current theories of identity construction and leader development suggest separate approaches, which are insufficient in enabling leaders to become their best, most successful selves. One perspective focuses on identity work as an internal or personal process (Caza, Vough, & Puranik, 2018; Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010; Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006), and the other on external assessments of performance (formal and informal) based on organizational metrics (Thach, 2002). These result in separate and distinct perspectives – bodies of information from a single source, internal or external to a person – without context, consideration, or accountability from the other. Separately, these siloed perspectives are insufficient in explaining how leaders can develop a holistic identity, which I define as the presence of clarity about both one's self and their environment, and how they fit within it. Leaders may have difficulty articulating their own internal standards or being honest with themselves about their behavior (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Due to bias (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) or lack of familiarity with external standards, leaders may also resist external feedback, and fail to take ownership or achieve true awareness of how their behavior is measuring up with external expectations.

Additionally, as separate silos, these simple, parallel perspectives fail to look at a leader's identity comprehensively or to consider potential compatibility or conflict between the

two sets of expectations. This fails to promote the development of a harmonious identity, which I define as alignment or compatibility between one's internal and external values, goals, or expectations, noticeably absent of conflict. External feedback focused on external standards is often blind to a leader's internal priorities and goals, and internal reflection on one's own standards may be blind to how their standards conflict with the organization's expectations. These simple and separate views of a leader's identity development fail to adequately explain how leaders achieve the dual aims of meeting both internal and external standards, and finding harmony between the two.

From this problem of siloed identity development, the fundamental question I aim to answer is: How do leaders develop holistic and harmonious leader identities? Specifically, how do they achieve greater awareness around 1) their own strengths, values, and goals as well as the organization's standards; 2) how well they are meeting those expectations; and 3) how well their internal and external standards align? Additionally, how do they strengthen their own agency to act toward resolving any conflicts between their internal and external standards?

In this paper, I suggest that holistic and harmonious identity development occurs through the leader's incorporation of cross-view perspectives, which increase both awareness and agency. I define cross-view perspectives as the off-diagonal combinations, specifically, external feedback on internal standards and internal feedback on external standards. I show how cross-view perspectives can mitigate the limitations and gaps in awareness from siloed perspectives by targeting a number of identity elements, and enhance a leader's agency to resolve tensions between internal and external standards of leadership. I suggest sources of resistance that may limit the use of cross-view perspectives, as well as conditions that enhance their effectiveness. I also highlight potential risks to a leader's identity and well-being from excessive or exclusive emphasis on cross-view perspectives, highlighting the inherent, basic value of simple-view perspectives.

My theory contributes to current identity literature by simultaneously considering the effects of external and internal expectations, bringing together previously separate focus areas of leader development and identity work. I suggest a new concept of cross-view perspectives as a way to address both levels of identity simultaneously and comparatively. I propose that when leaders include others in their identity work, and utilize cross-view perspectives to increase their awareness and agency, they can cultivate more holistic and harmonious identities. Practically, I explore specific elements of leader identity that can be targeted by leaders as well as mentors and organizational members.

Armed with this more robust theory of leader identity development, I call on both individuals and organizations to recognize the shared responsibility for identity development and integration of cross-view perspectives, contributing to leader well-being and authenticity as well as organization-valued performance, retention, and positive climate. Leaders – and those with whom they trust to partner in their identity journey – have agency in fostering holistic and harmonious leader identities by expanding their developmental focus beyond the silos of leader performance and individual leader philosophies or goals.

IDENTITY: EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL EXPECTATIONS DRIVE BEHAVIOR

Every person navigates who they are: they explore, discover, construct, refine, and enact their identity. Individuals behave in ways that align with who they are, and within expectations of a particular context, meeting the “logic of appropriateness” (March & Olsen, 2004). As leaders, individuals must understand who they are internally as leaders, and also shape their behaviors to meet social expectations that surround them. The literature review below provides a basic understanding of identity and its various components to then allow us to look at the processes of how leaders navigate identity construction.

An overview of identity and leader identity

A person's identity is an amalgamation of thoughts, beliefs, values, goals, and expectations both internal to themselves and in response to their environment. A personal identity is similar to one's self-concept (Epstein, 1973; Gecas, 1982; Goffman, 1978; Oyserman, 2001), consisting of values, emotions, and goals or motives (Gardner et al., 2005), which are learned and internalized from previous experiences, personality, and attained or failed goals (Emmons, 1986; Simon, 2004). Social identity on the other hand, comes from expectations and norms from any number of social groups in which they are members (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002; Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

With a combination of internal and external expectations, our identities provide cognitive organization of our experiences, prescribe expectations for how we should behave, and minimize uncertainty or conflict by understanding our place in the social world and how others are likely to respond to us. These complex identities drive how a person behaves by considering and enacting appropriate actions. People act out their internalized roles within situations as context (Gecas, 1982), considering both their current state and how they see their possible selves in the future (Ibarra, 1999; Lord & Brown, 2001; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Individuals – and their identities – develop dynamically throughout their lives (Erikson, 1968; Kegan, 1994; Laske, 2003; Levinson, 1978; Markus & Wurf, 1987) in response to psychological development, role transitions (Ashforth, 2001; Lewin, 2016; Lieberman, 1956), and personal reflection. Leaders navigate this same continuous identity development through various roles and increasing levels of responsibility (Charon, Drotter, & Noel J.L., 2001; Hill, 2003; Ibarra, Snook, & Guillen Ramo, 2010; Lanka, 2020; Miscenko, Guenter, & Day, 2017). Leader identity is a “sub-component of [their] identity that relates to being a leader or how one thinks of oneself as a leader” (Day & Harrison, 2007, p. 365), which directs their behavior and interactions in their leadership roles and processes (Day et al., 2009).

Leader identity has generated much interest among leadership researchers (e.g. Day & Dragoni, 2015; van Knippenberg, 2011), and crafting one's leadership identity has become more prevalent in treatments of leadership development (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Day & Harrison, 2007; Lord & Hall, 2005; Pierro, Cicero, Bonaiuto, van Knippenberg, & Kruglanski, 2005). To better understand the processes of identity development, I present ideas of internal and external standards of identity and illustrate the importance of each to the context of leadership.

Internal standards of identity and leadership

The internal standards or aspects of a person's leader identity reflect their self-concept (Gecas, 1982; Oyserman, 2001; Sosik, 1998), or how they apply a role uniquely to themselves. Leaders attempt to craft a model of leadership for themselves, designating internal standards that are most important for them to live and lead by. This internal sense of self informs a leader's behaviors, as does their external environment or expectations. Internal standards may consist of personal values, sources of motivation, short or long-range goals (Gardner et al., 2005), and the unique ways of applying or demonstrating leadership skills. Shalom Schwartz defines values as "conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g., organizational leaders, policy-makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations" (1999, p. 24). Goals may be considered as "personal strivings", which are the aims people attempt to accomplish through their behavior, or the purpose they try to carry out (Emmons, 1986). These aspects of identity may manifest in how people spend their time away from work, what job they decide to pursue or accept, or how they perform particular roles in personal or professional domains.

Internal standards of leadership are often adopted from personal experiences (Simon, 2004) or influenced by external factors that "guide exploration or development of... individuality" (Postmes & Jetten, 2006, p. 261). Leaders may reflect upon lessons from first-hand experiences

to inform important aspects of how they lead and where they spend their time and energy. Leader identities can also be informed by group membership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), historical prototypes, and role expectations (Ashforth, 2001; Goffman, 1959; Koenig et al., 2011; Rosch & Lloyd, 1978; Lord & Maher, 1991; Rosette et al., 2008; Schein 1978; Tajfel et al., 1971; van Knippenberg, 1984), but internalized and adopted as their own beliefs (Schafer, 1968). When this occurs, leaders may or may not be able to identify the reasons they maintain certain values or goals, or when they were originally exposed to the ideas; these standards become part of who they are.

The importance of defining, understanding, and enacting one's personal identity or internal standards centers on achieving identity coherence and personal well-being. People select roles and behave in ways that validate their sense of self and that lead to a sense of coherence (Cable & Kay, 2011; Swann et al., 2003), both of which are important for personal well-being (Kernis, 2003; Swann et al., 1987). Working to achieve self-concept clarity (Sosik, 1998) includes identifying aspects of one's life purpose and sense of meaning. These predict a number of individual outcomes, including work enjoyment (Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000), life satisfaction (e.g., Chamberlain & Zika, 1988b), happiness (Debats et al., 1993); physical health and mental health; resilience to obstacles (McKnight 2009); and late life functioning (Dewitte et al, 2020).

Leaders in particular need to be anchored in a sense of self (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) to ground themselves, benefit their leader-subordinate relationships, and resist overidentification with an organization. Leaders must meet their own internal standards to verify their identity and maintain a sense of self, find meaningfulness in their work (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997, 2003), and lead from a place of authenticity (Avolio et al., 2004; Cable et al., 2013). Both in leadership research and practice, leaders are encouraged to be authentic (Avolio et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Cable et al., 2013; Cha et al., 2019; Weischer et al., 2013) and to resist being a "company puppet" or losing themselves. Indeed,

overidentification with an organization can impair decision making, engender corruption, and slow organizational learning and adaptation (Dukerich, Kramer & McLean 1998; see also (Ashforth et al., 2008; Caprar et al., 2022; Dukerich et al., 1998).

External standards of identity and leadership

I define external standards of one's identity as the behaviors and characteristics determined by a source external to the leader that define success. These could include what values they are expected to hold, how they are expected spend their time, how they ought to communicate with their team, and what types of relationships they are encouraged to cultivate. Organizations commonly articulate written expectations and standards. These often include behaviors such as exuding confidence, creating a culture of teamwork, adhering to a protocol of travel days, and achieving certain performance metrics. Role Theory suggests behavior is significantly informed and influenced by social positions and the associated expectations (Biddle, 1986; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Similarly, Social Identity Theory tells us that individuals reflect the characteristics and behaviors common to groups in which they are members (Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This idea also directly applies to leaders who conform to the prototype in both cognition and behavior (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Lord et al., 2016; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Each supports the influence of these external expectations on individuals' and leaders' behaviors.

External standards are often communicated to leaders and other members of the organization through formal socialization processes, whereby the organization teaches new members – including its leaders – how they operate, what values and goals drive their actions, and how they divide roles and responsibilities (van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Organizations also communicate to leaders what is expected of them in their particular roles (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Pratt et al., 2006; Waldman, Galvin, & Walumbwa, 2013). Society, culture, and broader institutions also provide external expectations of leadership, drawing on both stereotypes

(Brescoll, 2016; Koenig et al., 2011; Pellegrini et al., 2020) and prototypes (Rosette et al., 2008) based on demographics. Organizations may communicate these standards clearly through job descriptions and mission statements, as well as through practices of hiring, rewards, and promotions. Informally, peers and direct-reports may support or reject a leader's status validity through granting behaviors (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) such as public acknowledgement of their authority, or verbal deference in meetings.

Meeting external standards of leadership is important for a leader to demonstrate an understanding of, and to honor, the organization's expectations for the role. Whether formally or informally, these expectations are part of the job description for which a leader is hired, retained, and promoted. Meeting these expectations demonstrates institutional relevance and will likely determine a leader's potential for progression and success, as well as recognition as a leader from subordinates, peers, and supervisors. Should they fail to meet the expectations set forth by the organization, they risk losing the confidence – and possibly employment – of their leadership team (Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Failing to meet standards can also demonstrate a misfit between the person and their environment, which can negatively affect success, retention, and well-being (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999).

The above literature suggests that leaders naturally seek a balance of both personal identity validation and organizational success (Brewer, 1991; Kreiner et al., 2006), striving for a holistic identity by attempting to meet both internal and external expectations and standards of leadership. I define a holistic identity as having clarity and confidence about themselves, their particular environment, and how well they fit into it. This combines an understanding and awareness of both one's internal values, goals, and standards for leadership as well as how they are perceived and fit into the external organization's standards. A holistic identity goes beyond identity coherence and self-concept clarity (Campbell, et al., 1996), which focus only on the contents of one's internal self-concept. Accounting for the relationship between one's internal and external standards, I also define a harmonious identity as having alignment or

compatibility between one's internal and external values, goals, or expectations, noticeably absent of conflict. Achieving a sense of well-being and identity coherence as well as professional success requires developing an identity that is both holistic and harmonious. However, the internal nature of identity work and external nature of leader development fail to explain how leaders cultivate an identity that reflects both important elements.

THE SILOED APPROACH TO IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION: INSUFFICIENT AND DISCONNECTED

Identity construction is a continuous, dynamic process, iteratively responding to various triggers in life (Kreiner et al., 2006). Leaders continually navigate an iterative development of their leader identities (Day & Harrison, 2007; Lord & Hall, 2005; Pratt, 2001), specifically during transitions when they are met with new expectations. Individuals who are new to leadership, new to a profession or organization, or new to a role (Ashforth, 2001; George et al., 2021) must renegotiate their identity (Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010) and decide how they will behave as leaders, accounting for both prior and new aspects of their internal and external expectations. Changes to one's personal life may also drive a reflection and validation process of one's identity as they respond to new relationships or obligations, or changes in their schedule or physical environment.

Despite the prevalence of this important negotiation, many theories of identity and leader development present only the development of *either* the internal or external aspects of one's identity, rarely addressing the aim to cultivate both, let alone to find harmony between them. Traditional approaches to identity development focus separately on two silos, one centered on internal identity work, and the other on external skill development. More specifically, we most often see two types of siloed, or simple, assessments: internal assessments of internal standards – in line with identity work and personal reflection – and external assessments of external standards – which focus on a leader's performance based on an organization's

standards. The silos are created when only internal feedback is considered about one's internal standards, and external feedback is the sole source of feedback regarding external standards.

Each serves an important role in contributing to a leader's identity, providing valuable feedback and insight to the leader about who they are and who they want to (or should) be. Separately, however, they can result in incomplete and potentially conflicting information about the leader's identity. Each has limitations that indicate they are insufficient in explaining how leaders develop their identities more holistically, and pursue harmony between internal and external standards.

Baseline identity development from siloed approaches

Internal assessments of internal standards. Leaders strive for internal identity coherence and clarity in route to one that is more holistic by reflecting internally on their values and goals and how well they are achieving them. They then leverage this insight as feedback to drive their future behavior or identity refinement. Identity work is often presented as an internal or personal process (Caza et al., 2018; Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010; Pratt et al., 2006; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). Active identity work can include “forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening or revising the constructions that are productive of a precarious sense of coherence and distinctiveness” (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002, p. 626). People actively seek meaning and coherence from their experiences through self-interpretation or perception, seeking to understand themselves and cultivate their identity (Bem, 1972; Simon, 2004). Through identity work, often in response to personal or professional role transitions, people generate variations of possible future selves, and iteratively accept, reject, or refine those options (Ibarra, 1999; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Yost et al., 1992).

Organizations often encourage or help facilitate internal identity work by requiring leaders to develop individual development plans or short, mid, and long-range goals for themselves and their families. Some prescribe categories designed by the organization. The

intent, however, is typically to facilitate personal introspection about what the leader values, how her current behavior aligns with those values, and how she wants to pursue success or fulfillment in her work and life going forward. The most intimate assessment of whether people are leading according to their internal standards comes from within themselves. This internal assessment can draw from the most thorough set of observations, and leaders can compare them to the most complete knowledge of who they are and how they want to lead.

Limitations of internal assessments of internal standards. A number of limitations to internal assessments of internal standards show us how this type of siloed assessment cannot fully account for how leaders develop a holistic leader identity.

Despite their personal intimacy, internal standards of leadership or success are rarely documented, measured, or even clearly understood. Early in their lives or careers, it is often difficult for leaders to understand what drives their sense of ambition, joy, or purpose, especially without an event to trigger a self-assessment. As adolescents, and even into early adulthood, people naturally look to others – parents, mentors, or peers – to determine how they should lead and live (Kegan, 1994). As they begin to navigate a profession or leadership role, people often mimic others they see as successful or in line with how they want to live (Ibarra, 1999), but they still may not be able to clearly articulate standards or assess themselves against these criteria. They may also intentionally hide the contents of their internal selves, protecting themselves from scrutiny or influence (Ibarra, 1999).

Leaders may lack clarity or conviction in their sense of purpose, priorities, or values as they respond to and align with their organization's values and norms (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Early in their lives and careers, they may struggle to identify meaningfulness in their roles and tasks or the purpose of their work (Pratt & Ashforth, Blake, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). They may also lack sufficient experiences and social responses to identify any aspect of life meaning and know what will facilitate life satisfaction (Hu & Hirsh, 2017; Wrzesniewski et al.,

2003). When met with strong and clear expectations through socialization into a new role or organization, it may be more powerful than what they have identified for themselves.

Internal assessments can also be difficult as leaders struggle to be honest with themselves. Leaders may deny the reality of their performance if they feel like they are failing to live up to their own expectations, values, or aspirations. For example, a leader may feel disappointed in himself when he is delayed in responding to an email from a former subordinate asking for a letter of recommendation, which conflicts with his genuine passion for supporting career progress and opportunities for others. In this instance, his behavior does not reflect his internal standards of leadership, but it may reveal a disconnect between how he is prioritizing his time or energy.

If leaders are the lone assessors of their internal standards, they can fall into a number of biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) and inaccuracies. Leaders may be convinced that they are behaving a particular way or having a certain effect, and look for, or pay sole attention to feedback or data points that confirm this pre-decided belief. They may also convince themselves that their internal behaviors or negative effects are excused by external factors while assessing individual blame to other leaders who behave the same way. Both of these examples demonstrate potential blind spots leaders may have when theirs is the only perspective they consider in assessing how their behavior aligns with their personal values or standards of leadership. Leaders may also fall into common psychological traps of over- or underestimation of their abilities and performance (Dunning et al., 2003; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Identity work is suggested to have “at least a minimal amount of self-doubt and self-openness, typically contingent upon a mix of psychological-existential worry and the skepticism or inconsistencies faced in encounters with others or with our images of them” (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002, p. 626).

Leaders who are particularly young or inexperienced may also neglect their internal standards when they have an underdeveloped sense of self stemming from a lack of awareness

or understanding. A relatively new leader may naturally lack awareness of internal standards for how they want to lead, or how they want to live their lives personally and professionally. They may lack clear understanding of what their priorities are in how they treat people, how they make decisions, how they spend their time, or how they develop others. They may simply not have enough experience or insight into themselves to have a clear sense of who they are, and how they want to lead. These inadequacies result in a lack of internal clarity or holistic nature to their identity.

External assessments of external standards. External assessments often focus on how well a leader is doing in his current job within a particular organization. Organizations often publish written evaluation criteria for successful leadership performance, documenting such criteria on standardized forms requiring some combination of numeric or written assessments. Direct external assessments may come in the form of performance evaluations by the leader's supervisor, often required at a set time interval such as quarterly or annually. The supervisor is a representative of the organization, given authority to evaluate according to published standards, and determine others' future potential for continued or increased responsibility. This is part of the socialization process that provides an evaluation of progress toward both understanding and meeting established standards. Supervisors can also provide insight regarding the purpose and importance of particular standards, in terms of the organization's performance, values, and effects on subordinates or team dynamics.

Other formal assessments may come from a leader's peers and subordinates – in addition to his supervisor(s) – in the form of multi-source feedback. Many organizations use this method to give leaders insight into how their behaviors are perceived by those who do not conduct their formal evaluations, and to increase the leader's self-awareness with the goal of improved leader performance (e.g. Atwater & Brett, 2005; Thach, 2002). Similar to evaluations,

organizations may structure their multi-source feedback assessments with criteria reflecting the traits or behaviors they value from their leaders, and require submission at routine times.

Informally, leaders also receive feedback about their effectiveness and legitimacy as leaders from their subordinates. Followers demonstrate various behaviors that recognize leaders' authority and influence, socially granting them a leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Their responses reinforce informal expectations as well as formal, documented external expectations. This input can not only provide leaders insight to their effectiveness, but may also be valued by organizations as data points for promotion or selection to more senior positions.

Whether formal or informal, external feedback or assessments may be of both personal and professional value. Because the information comes from a perspective that the leader may not see, it may illuminate potential blind spots and provide direction for growth or improvement. In particular, it may reveal cognitive biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) or unintended effects their behaviors have on others around them and on the organization as a whole. This external feedback also adds value by informing the leader of how their performance measures up to the organization's and its members' expectations. This evaluative feedback can predict higher performance, pay increase, increased responsibility, and promotion.

Limitations of external assessments of external standards. Imperfections and resistance to external assessments of external standards suggest this siloed approach is insufficient in developing holistic identities.

Receiving feedback from others serves a valuable purpose, but the information can also be misunderstood or even rejected by a leader. Recipients may reject feedback that negatively assesses their performance or potential, attributing it to a number of reasons. Though external standards are more likely to be clearly articulated and measured, the socialization process may be imperfect, resulting in a lack of clear guidance or expectations communicated to the leader. Even if clear to the organization, they may not be fully understood by the leader, resulting in a

knowledge gap. The organization has a responsibility to socialize new members at every level to close this knowledge gap and aid in the learning process.

Leaders may be less aware of external expectations when they are new to an organization or to a particular role – either at the beginning of their career in a particular industry, after a recent move, or with an increase in responsibility. At the most basic level, they may not have received a complete in-brief or the organization's code of conduct, for example. They also may not have fully completed the socialization process, either formally or informally, leaving their understanding of how the organization works, and what it expects of them, incomplete. From this, leaders may default to what they know: either based on previous situations, or the values and preferences they hold internally. For example, they might call everyone by their rank and title based on the formal organization they came from, out of respect for people's experience and authority, while the new organization culture is one that emphasizes team members connecting personally, including using first names on a regular basis.

Regardless of the effectiveness of the organization's socialization efforts, leaders will still require time and opportunities to demonstrate their behavior in order to be assessed. If they receive negative feedback, they may perceive that they have not had adequate opportunities to demonstrate their potential to meet external expectations, or that others' observations are only partial assessments, and do not adequately reflect their full performance. Some leaders may not have frequent engagements with their supervisors, and believe the assessments are incomplete.

Additionally, there will likely be factors in the leader's life that impact their behavior and decisions. Life situations such as health, family concerns, or other responsibilities are less likely to be known or fully understood by peers, subordinates, and even supervisors. Thus, a leader may consider external assessments in context with those additional influences and multiple roles (Caza et al., 2018; Ramarajan, 2014; Yip et al., 2019).

Inherent in their source and content, external assessments of external standards may naturally fail to recognize or evaluate a leader's internal values, priorities, or goals, and also fail to take into consideration personal insights about a leader's past performance or current life challenges. Internal assessments of internal standards partially fill this gap in information, though I suggest that even when combined, they are still insufficient in constructing a holistic - complete and fully coherent – identity. While both external and internal siloed assessments of feedback provide valuable insights to a leader's identity, they only moderately contribute, and are ultimately insufficient in constructing holistic leader identities. This siloed approach is an incomplete explanation of identity development, demonstrated by those who lack coherence. This leads us to my first proposition:

Proposition 1: Siloed-view perspectives weakly predict holistic leader identities.

Complex effects of siloed assessments: Unidentified and unresolved tension

While siloed feedback and developmental approaches lead to non-holistic and incomplete identities, they also fail to explain how leaders cultivate harmonious identities, in which leaders are able to identify and resolve tension or conflict between their internal and external standards. Despite the value gained from both external assessments of external standards and internal assessments of internal standards, this incomplete approach of siloed perspectives fails to identify or reconcile the complex imperfections in a leader's identity development.

Particularly early in one's career or role, leaders likely have an underdeveloped sense of self or understanding of external expectations. This may result in unidentified or unintentional tension between internal and external standards, not knowing its cause, or how to resolve the feeling of incoherence. Alternately, a more developed leader may be able to identify a tension, but endures its persistence due to a lack of knowledge, confidence, or opportunity to resolve the dissonance. Both sources of tension can have negative effects on personal well-being,

performance, and retention, as previously discussed. And regardless of why or how these tensions arise, they can also lead to dangers of blind commitment to the organization, perceptions of inauthenticity in one's own leadership, or resentment toward the organization and a loss of sense of self.

When a leader is unable to fully articulate or confidently demonstrate their internal values or goals, they may feel a subconscious resistance to the organization's measures of successful leadership but be unable to recognize or articulate why. Sometimes a focus on one's self increases the likelihood of conforming to an ideal or to prototypical standards to alleviate the discrepancy or discomfort (Duval et al., 1992), resulting in a greater influence by external standards imposed by an organization, resembling a somewhat "over-socialized" leader identity. The frequent documentation, communication, and evaluation of external standards suggests how a leader may default their behaviors to meet these expectations. He may also be relatively new to the industry, organization, or position, and lack insight into how his behaviors will be perceived by supervisors, peers, or subordinates. In these particular contexts, leaders are much more susceptible to social sanctions and therefore adjust their behavior to avoid negative responses from the organization or its members. The content or tone of delivery of external feedback may be overpowering such that a leader settles for that feedback and the external standards are most important, or all-consuming.

Some may be fully aware of their internal leader standards or beliefs, but intentionally choose – maybe with some difficulty – to align their behaviors with the external expectations of the organization. In other words, leaders may recognize expectations placed upon them, and choose to suppress their own internal beliefs, either consciously or subconsciously. Leaders may believe external expectations are tied to performance evaluations, promotions, and acceptance in the organization, whether those outcomes are communicated or not. For example, a company may list multiple locations for leadership positions, but only a select few are viewed as demonstrating the most loyalty to the company, and thus lead to faster or more

substantial promotions. Despite wanting to live close to family, or keep his kids in the same school, a leader may choose to prioritize this external expectation over his own values or preferences. Similarly, he may choose to accept or pursue a particular position that he knows will lead to extra-long hours away from home, which he previously decided for himself or with family members that he did not want to allow. Living with this known tension can have a significant impact on one's internal identity coherence and personal well-being, perceptions of leader inauthenticity, or personal relationships and work endurance.

Other leaders may demonstrate an imbalance toward internal standards – and behave accordingly – due to tensions from their preference or loyalty to personal values, beliefs, or goals. This state may reflect a kind of “under-socialized” leader identity. It is less likely that leaders will gravitate toward internal standards as a result of social pressures due to their mostly private nature. It is possible that a leader could respond to the power or draw of internal standards over those of the organization, particularly when they are unaware of external expectations or how to appropriately demonstrate them with their leader behavior. In this case, they may feel tension due to negative social feedback or poor performance evaluations, but not be able to reconcile why they are drawn to behaviors that appear to be counter-productive to the organization.

More consciously, a leader may be fully aware of the external expectations – formal or informal – yet behave in line with his particularly salient internal beliefs. For example, a leader may be aware that in his role, he is expected to punish an employee for failing to achieve a certain performance metric, yet he believes strongly in providing support and opportunities for rehabilitation rather than transactional forms of leadership (Bass, 1985) and positional bases of power or influence tactics (French & Raven, 1959; Yukl & Falbe, 1990).

Unidentified and unresolved tension are both significant because failing to meet either internal or external expectations – whether through ignorance or conscious conviction – can

have detrimental effects on personal well-being and identity coherence or the organization's perception of our inability or unwillingness to be a successful part of the organization.

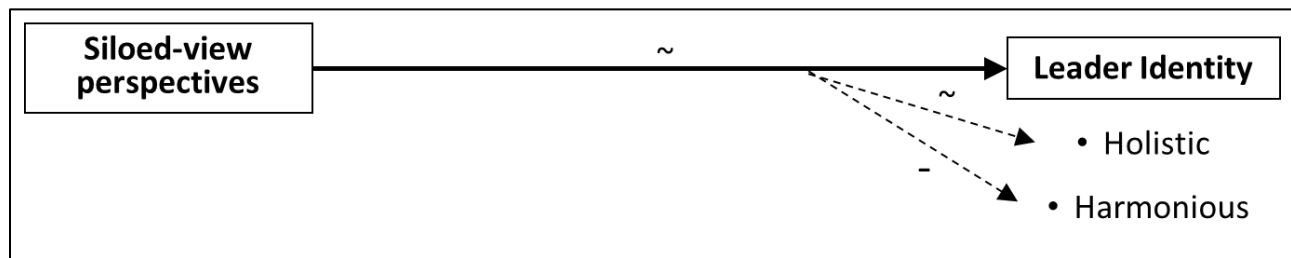
An example illustrates the problem I aim to address: At some point in her career, a leader may feel greater passion for teaching and mentoring than managing the operations of an organization. While she is tremendously successful in her current position, it only provides intermittent opportunities for leadership, and she wants to commit her full professional energy to mentoring. A recognition of this tension or imbalance may create a decision point regarding her role, or require her to relook her internal goals, and consider the organization's existing (or potential) opportunities to fulfill those goals. But as she continues to develop or refine her leader identity, she may not be able to reconcile the tension between her internal desires and the external expectations of the organization. She may pursue the only path she believes to exist, or she may not have the strength or confidence to take the steps to reconcile the disconnect.

Siloed perspectives only serve to strengthen the separate aspects of a leader's identity, doubling down on the flawed and disconnected sources of feedback that contain minimal knowledge or confidence to change their understanding or behavior going forward. This passive approach fails to integrate the internal and external aspects of one's identity, fostering conditions for unidentified and unresolved conflict. My next proposition summarizes that alone, siloed perspectives can be detrimental to a leader's identity in terms of its internal alignment and compatibility between internal and external standards.

Proposition 2: Siloed perspectives negatively predict harmonious identities.

The insufficiency of siloed-view perspectives on the development of leader's identities is visually depicted in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Summary table of siloed and cross-view perspectives

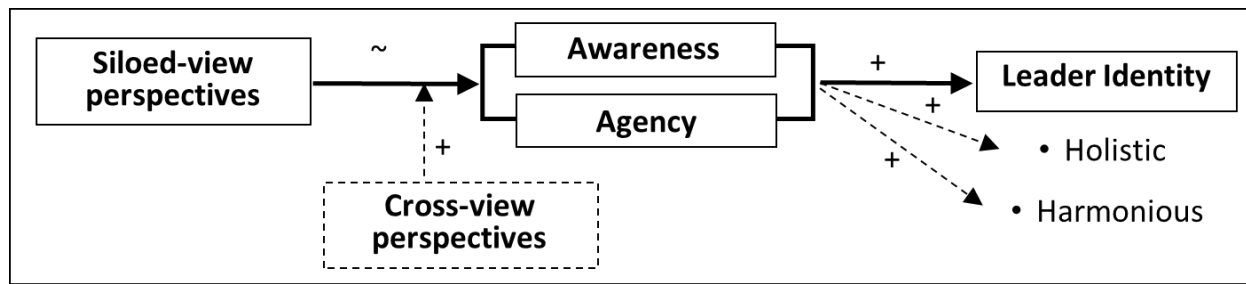


Having identified the problem that siloed approaches cannot fully account for identity development, the fundamental question we are left with is: How do leaders develop holistic and harmonious identities? Specifically, how do they achieve greater awareness of 1) their own strengths, values, and goals as well as the organization's standards; 2) how well they are meeting those expectations; and 3) how well their internal and external standards align? And how do they cultivate the agency necessary to resolve any present conflict?

CROSS-VIEW ASSESSMENTS: IMPROVING AWARENESS AND AGENCY

I propose the process of cultivating a holistic and harmonious leader identity follows a more complex approach with cross-view perspectives that enhance awareness and agency, as displayed in Figure 1.2. I define cross-view perspectives as assessments or feedback that provide the opposite-source perspective (internal or external) for either of the two siloed approaches; specifically, they consist of internal perspectives of external standards and external perspectives of internal standards. Cross-view perspectives build upon the baseline identity developed from siloed perspectives, mitigate several of their imperfections, and increase the holistic nature of one's identity through increased awareness. Specifically, internal perspectives on external standards strengthen leaders' awareness through understanding and ownership of how their performance is meeting organization standards, and external perspectives on internal standards can provide leaders unique insights, and enhance their agency through accountability and support.

Figure 1.2. Basic model of holistic and harmonious leader identity development



Siloed perspectives contribute moderately to a leader's identity, but the addition of cross-view perspectives positively enhances the effect on awareness and agency, and subsequently: 1) cultivates a more holistic leader identity and 2) facilitates a more harmonious identity between a leader's internal and external standards of leader behavior.

Supplemental value of cross-view perspectives

The first cross-view perspective consists of internal assessments of external standards. Recognizing the limitations of siloed external assessments of external standards, leaders can leverage their own valuable feedback to overcome limitations of this siloed approach. They can consciously assess themselves against the same well-known standards to understand how well they fit with an organization, or how well they are performing. The benefit comes from their unique access to information about their life that is less known by others, which allows them to better understand themselves and how they are accomplishing their current role. Because they are using the same measures as others, these cross-view self-assessments provide value through “triangulation”, comparing or contrasting with multiple measures of feedback or evaluation (Moskal, 2010).

The second cross-view perspective – external assessments of one's internal standards – can be particularly useful in overcoming a leader's internal biases and lack of accountability around their personal values and goals. Perspectives that vary in terms of organizational familiarity, personal closeness to a leader, and pressure from impression management can enhance a leader's self-awareness with honest, constructive feedback, and help them chart a

way forward that aligns with their internal standards. The most basic nature of cross-view perspectives noticeably starts to fill the gaps left by siloed perspectives.

Elements of increased awareness and agency

The process of integrating cross-view perspectives ultimately increases the leader's awareness, enabling them to gain greater clarity around both internal and external standards, more accurately assess their level of performance, identify appropriate behaviors to demonstrate those standards, and better identify or reconcile any tensions between their internal and external standards of leadership. Inherently, this process of partnered identity construction enhances a leader's awareness toward a more holistic identity, and strengthens the leader's agency to take steps toward a more harmonious identity.

The integration of cross-view assessments into one's development often challenges a leader to clarify the definition or personal meaning behind the values or leadership tenets they live by. Friends, colleagues, or mentors may engage in conversation with a leader about a tenet they profess is important, asking them to clarify what it is, or what it is not. They may help a leader compare or contrast it to another similar idea, challenging the leader to refine and more clearly articulate what they mean. This adds unique value beyond the ideas a leader has observed from historical figures, role models, peer leaders and personal experience, enhancing awareness of the personal relevance, meaning, and importance of their internal leader standards.

Internal assessments of external standards similarly contribute to a leader's understanding of those external standards, or what the organization expects of them. The internal reflection and evaluation challenges leaders to translate those standards into their own words, and give them greater personal meaning. When leaders have adequate maturity and experience to consider the meaning and purpose of external standards, they can improve their own awareness and cultivate a more holistic and coherent identity.

Another way cross-view assessments enhance awareness is through clarity around a leader's personal performance. Internal assessments of one's behaviors and effectiveness are riddled with bias and inaccuracy (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), and leaders often resist external assessments due to pride and immaturity. External cross-view assessments can aid a leader in seeing more clearly how well their behavior is achieving the standards and values they have set for themselves. This accuracy is critical to build consistency into their identity. Otherwise, naivete about how well their behaviors are reflecting their priorities or values can result in internal conflict and confusion around failed goals. Unbiased feedback specific to leaders' internal standards can encourage leaders to reevaluate their priorities or redirect their efforts.

Leaders also improve awareness by personally assessing how well they are fulfilling external, organizational standards and meeting the aims of the organization's socialization (van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Siloed external assessments may be inaccurate or fail to account for contextual factors for a leader, but when leaders assesses themselves against external standards, they can open their own eyes to make sense of how they have been evaluated, and how well they are actually performing. Through focused attention and educating themselves on external standards, a leader may recognize for herself that her behaviors don't meet the standards as well as she previously assumed. If a leader learns that her behaviors are less in line with external expectations, this realization may help explain particular formal or informal feedback she has received, and it may help explain the tension (or lack thereof) in how she feels about her behaviors. Inversely, a leader may discover that his behaviors align better with the standards than he has given himself credit for. This awareness is critical for leader identity consistency, as they think more critically about whether their current behaviors are sufficient to meet the organization's expectations.

A third form of awareness comes from understanding behaviors that accurately or appropriately demonstrate internal or external standards. A leader significantly develops her

identity through first-hand experience, but her knowledge is limited to a single perspective: her own. Observing others' behavior is also valuable to broaden one's perspective, but receiving direct external feedback tailored to the leader's internal standards is more personally relevant, as it accounts for the individual's strengths, weaknesses, personality, values, and goals. An outside perspective contributes additional perspectives and experiences, expanding the repertoire of effective behaviors while remaining focused on the individual leader's goals and values. This insight for appropriate and effective behaviors may be specific to a leader's current role, but external feedback, especially from mentors or senior leaders, may also inform a leader about how they can demonstrate their values or achieve their standards of leadership in future roles that they are less familiar with. This increase in awareness can contribute to a greater sense of confidence in themselves as leaders and greater consistency and coherence – all elements and indicators of a holistic identity.

Internal assessments of external standards also allow the leader to determine how they might achieve externally-defined standards by leveraging their own unique set of skills or personality traits. Being able to see their own behavior within the context of other life demands or stressors can provide clarity about how to adjust or improve their behavior to better meet external expectations. For example, a leader may be able to better fulfill expectations by adjusting their time management to account for family demands, extracurricular activities, or health obstacles. They may also recognize that their temperament when dealing with subordinates or peers is particularly strained when they have not been able to work out at the gym or attend yoga classes that they like. They can identify conditions that may influence their performance, and design a strategy to better align their behaviors with their potential in order to fulfill the organization's external expectations. They can move beyond what the organization or other leaders determine to be the most common forms of behavior to achieve those standards. Reflecting upon and personalizing the behaviors to achieve external standards increases their awareness and ultimately increases the holistic nature of their identity.

Proposition 3: The use of cross-view perspectives contributes to a more holistic identity through increased awareness.

Identifying and resolving conflict between internal and external leadership standards

While many aspects of awareness contribute to the holistic nature of one's leader identity, they can also contribute to a more harmonious identity, in conjunction with strengthened agency, reflected by the alignment or reduced tension between a leader's internal and external standards of leadership. Cross-view perspectives are particularly useful in raising a leader's awareness to the broader set of standards at work, and whether they are complementary, or ultimately cause tension within a leader's identity. This increased awareness can either reinforce and affirm their current direction of leadership, or illuminate the need for a change to resolve the tension, and enhanced agency can inspire or support action to resolve tension between the internal and external expectations.

Both forms of cross-view assessments provide opportunities for leaders to inventory not only the content and accomplishment of their internal and external standards of leadership, but also the alignment between them. Gaining external feedback about both internal and external standards provides a leader a valuable resource – someone who is able to see alignment or possible misalignment. Additionally, as the leader himself undertakes this exercise of assessing himself against both categories, he is personally able to see them simultaneously and notice their compatibility or misalignment.

Proposition 4: The use of cross-view perspectives enables a harmonious identity through awareness of leader identity conflict.

Reconciling tension between internal and external standards or expectations of leadership can be informed by recent work on multiple identities and identity conflict. Substantial research has indicated the presence of multiple, concurrent identities, or self-definitions influenced by personal and social attributes such as gender, ethnicity, religion, nationality, and family role, as well as group membership and profession. Cross-view perspectives help

illuminate and clarify the content of a leader's multiple identities, which Ramarajan (2014) suggests are organized in a network, related in terms of salience by levels of conflict, enhancement, overlap, relative power, and time. When reconciling potential conflicts between identities, Ashforth & Mael (1989) suggest we order, separate or compartmentalize, or buffer the identities, but do not integrate them. Identities are enacted based on the salience of importance, value, appropriateness for the context, accessibility, and connectedness, which consists of the number and strength of relationships associated with that identity (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Stets & Burke, 2000). Collinson (2003) outlines three identity strategies to survive in surveillance-obsessed organizations, but which do not necessarily mitigate the conflict: they may appease organizational demands (conformist), impression manage the appearance of acceptance (dramaturgical), or employ means of resistance such as irony, satire, and cynicism (resistant). These strategies reflect likely outcomes from siloed approaches, which merely suppress conflict rather than resolving it.

Intentional cross-view assessments can enable a leader to resolve perceived misalignment or conflict, either through cognitive reframing or adjusted behaviors. Both internal and external cross-view perspectives can aid a leader in identifying the salience, importance, value, or importance of both internal and external standards of leadership. External sources can also aid leaders in resolving conflict through simple reframing. Leaders who are new to a role, organization, or profession may hold narrow definitions of particular tenets of leadership or values, and struggle to see congruity between their tenets of leadership and external expectations of the organization. External sources may be able to illuminate their complementary nature and minimize the perceived tension without any behavioral changes.

However, a change in behavior or a change in position may be necessary to resolve tension between internal and external standards; clarity around what steps to take may be particularly informed by cross-view perspectives, and they may enhance a leader's confidence to take those steps. These perspectives not only increase a leader's awareness, but also their

agency to resolve conflict through cognitive or emotional support, experienced perspective, and professional advocacy.

External perspectives on internal standards may strengthen a leader's agency to pursue particular behaviors simply through recognizing and acknowledging the validity of their perspective and encouraging what behavioral changes the leader knows will resolve the conflict. The value of mentorship and some personal relationships – when given the opportunity to engage with a leader's internal drive and goals – is obvious when they provide support and belief that may otherwise be weak within the leader (Levinson, 1978). Personal and professional accountability can powerfully enhance a leader's agency to take the action in which they believe.

Internal perspectives on external standards can bolster a leader's confidence in how to resolve conflict as they gain appreciation and understanding of how the organization interprets certain behaviors. They can observe other leaders, comparing their actions with their own, and decipher any necessary discrepancies to resolve. This personal exploration and discovery gives leaders a sense of ownership in adjusting their behavior to fulfill both their internal and the organization's external expectations.

Cross-view perspectives also add valuable perspective – both external and internal – to enable the leader's agency to resolve conflict. External view will inherently contribute different perspectives than the leader himself, sometimes within the same organizational context. Combined with intimate knowledge of the leader's values and passions, they can identify and recommend alternate organizational opportunities to fulfill a leader's goals or aspirations, ranging from short-term projects to changes in specialty or geographic location.

External perspectives may also contribute tangible support for positional changes in the form of personal advocacy (Ely et al., 2011). Those who have both internal knowledge of a leader's desired direction and the power to enable the leader to take steps toward those aims are of tremendous value to their success and personal fulfillment.

Internally, a leader can leverage her own strengths and desires to resolve misperceptions of poor performance or indifference to organizational standards. It is only from her internal reflection on how she is meeting external standards will she be able to compare, contrast, and resolve the two.

Despite attempts to reframe or resolve tensions, one form of resolution may be to accept that a leader's behavior does not meet the organization's standard, and that they either aren't likely to achieve that standard, or they choose not to. The more they learn about the external expectations, the better they can compare them with their own internal values and goals. It is possible that increased understanding of the organization's standards may present an option to terminate their work with that organization. For example, a leader may face a decision to accept a senior operational position within their company. A close friend may remind them that they are most passionate about, and feel most fulfilled by, engaging in leader development, which is not likely to be part of their new role. The leader may recognize that if they take the role, they are likely to be resentful for not being able to find fulfillment in their current role.

Proposition 5: The use of cross-view perspectives enables a harmonious identity through increased agency toward resolution of identity conflict.

Indicators of a holistic and harmonious leader identity

Cultivating holistic and harmonious identities through increased awareness will reveal indicators of identity coherence, work meaningfulness, personal well-being, and even professional success.

Significant work has shown that self-awareness positively contributes to authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2005) as well as leadership performance (Ashford, 1989; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Sosik, 2001) and psychological well-being (Kernis, 2003). Wood, et al. (2008, p. 386) suggest three steps to achieving authenticity, which are helpful indicators of a more holistic leader identity: (1) knowing oneself versus being alienated from oneself ('self

alienation’); (2) behaving and expressing emotions consistent with the knowledge of oneself (‘authentic living’); and (3) remaining true to oneself instead of conforming to the expectations of others (‘not accepting external influence’).” Similarly, the sense of “identity transparency” addresses the balance between one’s true self and the demands or expectations from a role (Kreiner et al., 2006, p. 1052).

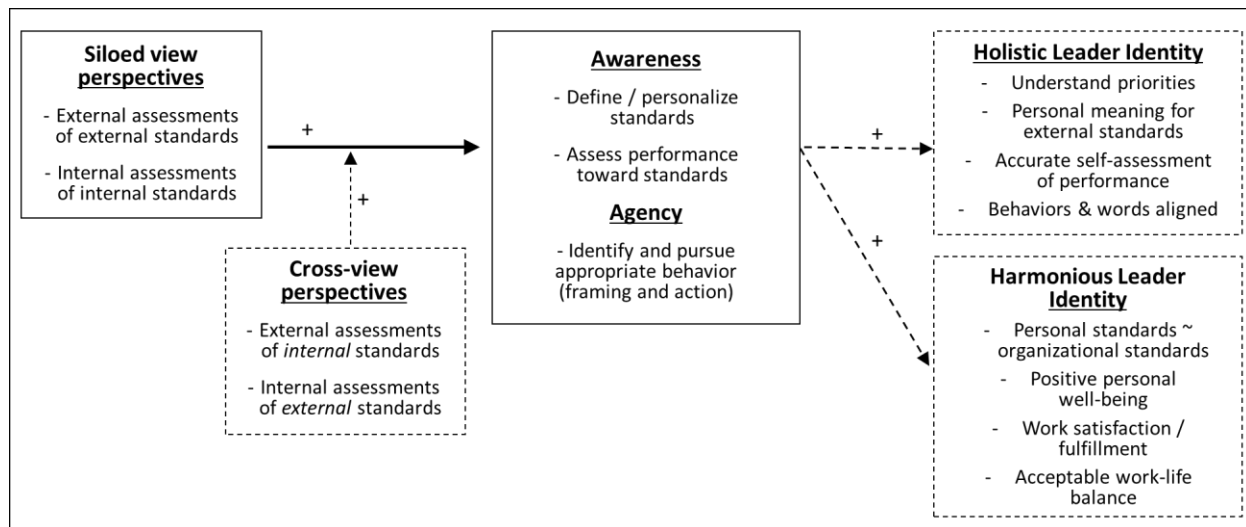
Practically, leaders with a more holistic identity will understand and be able to articulate the priorities and goals for themselves and their organization. They may also have personal meaning and appreciation for external standards of the organization. They will have a strong sense of awareness in accurately assessing their performance and achievement of both internal and external standards, and their behaviors will align with what they profess as their internal standards, values, and goals for themselves as leaders.

As leaders further their awareness and improve the harmony in their leader identity, they will identify a peace or positive co-existence between their personal standards and those of the organization or institution. They will feel less anxiety from being pulled in different directions in terms of their leadership values and goals. Having deliberately navigated their position and micro behaviors, they will likely have greater work satisfaction and fulfillment and an acceptable balance of work and life. Indicators of holistic and harmonious leader identities, as well as the other components of our theoretical model are shown in Figure 1.3.

Practical ways to conduct cross-view assessments

Internal assessments of external standards. A common method for conducting internal assessments of external standards is 360-degree, or multi-source feedback (e.g. Atwater & Brett, 2005; Thach, 2002). While much of the value of this approach comes from gaining perspective from coworkers in various relational positions, added benefit comes from one’s look internally at how they are performing. When evaluated using the same metrics, the data can be compared with external assessments, identifying potential gaps between how a

Figure 1.3. Expanded model of holistic and harmonious leader identity development



This expanded models shows indicators of both holistic and harmonious leader identities, as well as details of the other model components.

leader sees himself and how others see him (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992, 1997; McKee et al., 2018; Sosik, 2001). Another tool – often used in the military – is the After-Action Review (AAR). The steps usually include stating what was supposed to happen, what did happen, what should be sustained (what went well), and what should be improved. Doing this internally, especially after discrete events, can illuminate any gaps between one’s behavior and the organization’s expectations or standards.

Second, direct leadership experience is a useful leader development tool to facilitate internal assessments of external expectations. Learning a lesson or gaining insight first hand may result in a more salient sense of understanding, ownership, or commitment to adjusting future behavior. Being able to see and understand for themselves how well they are performing or evaluated by the organization may provide particular insight into how well a leader’s behavior is aligned with the external standards. Even secondary (vicarious) or observational learning can give leaders new insights into how others perform, how they are perceived, and how their own

behavior compares. This cross-view perspective can expand a leader's repertoire of behavior, arming them with new or refined actions that can achieve the organization's external standards.

External assessments of internal standards. There are numerous options for leaders to solicit external assessments of their internal standards. Friends, family members, colleagues, mentors, and coaches will inherently differ on the extent of their knowledge about the leader, familiarity with the leader's current context and role expectations, and the vested interest they have in the leader's personal or professional success. Both informal and formal conversations (e.g. a coaching session) can facilitate productive reflection to refine and strengthen a leader's internal standards, and provide them feedback regarding their current or past performance.

Even new colleagues can add value through conversation about a leader's desires to demonstrate certain values at work, or an upcoming career decision. Leveraging their familiarity with the professional context and its norms, colleagues can engage in meaningful dialogue about a leader's self-proclaimed values; they can recognize the difficulty a leader faces in sharing those personal priorities with mentors and supervisors, or in requesting their next position based on a very personal set of beliefs. Being able to verbalize one's internal values and goals with someone who can relate, and receiving affirmation or constructive feedback in return are both tremendously valuable toward achieving a more holistic and harmonious leader identity.

In a more formal sense, mentors may be one of the most valuable external perspective for a leader's internal standards. Based on their own experiences, mentors are often familiar with the professional setting and its demands, as well as the impacts a leader's behaviors may have on those around them. If they are not part of a leader's supervisory chain, and if the leader has shared weaknesses they want to improve upon or particular goals they have set for themselves, the mentor's knowledge of both the environment and the leader's inner self makes them a valuable asset in both evaluating a leader's authenticity and offering options for behavior

and career decisions that align with their sense of self. Similarly, professional coaches – who have no connection with or influence upon the leader's career field – can be a safe source of personal, developmental feedback.

Boundary conditions: When cross-view assessments are most likely and most effective

If my theory that leaders develop more holistic and harmonious identities with the presence of cross-view assessments is accurate, there must be an explanation for why they do not always occur. In a number of ways, leaders may be unaware or incapable of pursuing these complex forms of feedback and require greater emotional and social maturity to take advantage of their benefits.

Internal assessments of external standards require some knowledge or familiarity with the external standards, which may positively correlate with time in the role, organization, or profession. The leader must also possess a desire to understand and meet these standards, which may be explained by their level of organizational identification (Brown, 2017; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Thatcher & Zhu, 2006). Internally, they must possess sufficient levels of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) – particularly humility, empathy, and awareness – to assess their own behaviors, consider how others may perceive them, and have some idea what their behavior strengths and weaknesses may be.

Leaders who are able to seek and appreciate external assessments of their internal standards also require a level of emotional intelligence, specifically a willingness to be open and vulnerable, and social connection with a variety of individuals in whom they can trust. Herminia Ibarra (1999) talks about the process of exploring options for future selves, and shares that individuals often hide and protect the contents of these possible selves to avoid criticism or influence. The value of these cross-view assessments for greater awareness and a more holistic identity requires self-disclosure (Collins, 1994), which is essential to build the intimacy that enables the partnered development of one's identity.

Leaders will also benefit and develop most when they can incorporate feedback from people in a variety of relationships, contributing various experiences and insights which naturally expand options for reflection and perspective. A variety of external perspectives can also provide diverse forms of accountability and support, as well as knowledge and advocacy in attempting different behaviors or pursuing a change in role or profession to resolve tensions between internal and external standards. External perspectives can not only increase awareness, but strengthen a leader's agency by supporting and advocating for their pursuit of leadership or career changes.

Each of the above conditions could be implied as connected to elements of time, where those leaders who are older possess more maturity and experiences to facilitate and benefit from the cross-view perspectives. I propose that leaders should be confident in themselves yet able to be vulnerable and consider feedback and possess healthy relationships to engage in partnered identity construction. It is likely that a leader's psychological and emotional development, as well as their life stage, has an impact on the effectiveness of cross-view perspectives, which I look forward to exploring in future research.

Considering the risks of cross-view assessments

My final point regarding this theory of holistic identity development is that excessive focus on either of these cross-view perspectives can have a detrimental effect similar to the original problem of an underdeveloped identity. A holistic identity is developed through understanding, appreciating, and demonstrating both internal and external standards; emphasizing one or the other without caution can lead either to a loss of individual authenticity from fixation on external standards, or overwhelming feelings of failure and discontentment by fixating others feedback on the leader's internal standards. Excessive focus on internal

Table 1.1. Summary table of siloed and cross-view perspectives

		Perspective	
		External (Others)	Internal (Self)
Standard	External (Org-defined)	Siloed View <u>Example:</u> - Performance reviews, 360-degree feedback - Selection (or non-select) for promotion <u>Imperfections:</u> - Personal resistance to feedback - Uninformed by full (internal) context - Lack understanding of standards	Cross-view <u>Example:</u> - Self assessment of org measures of performance - Reflection of performance in new leadership role <u>Benefits:</u> - Self-awareness of how they are experienced - Increased ownership of performance - Understanding of person-environmental fit <u>Risk:</u> - Loss of authenticity / fixated on external measures
	Internal (Self-defined)	Cross-view <u>Example:</u> - Mentors, coaches, family members, friends, colleagues; feedback around personal goals / behaviors <u>Benefits:</u> - Honesty, perspective, and accountability - Encouragement and support - Information about opportunities <u>Risks:</u> - Personal vulnerability / judgment	Siloed View <u>Example:</u> - Leadership philosophy - Life goals, 5-year plan <u>Imperfections:</u> - Weakness in defining / assessing - Biases, excuse-making

Siloed perspectives yield incomplete leader identities and fail to account for or resolve tension between internal and external standards. Off-diagonal cross-view perspectives mitigate these imperfections and provide a more holistic and harmonious leader identity through increased awareness and agency to resolve conflicts.

assessments of external standards may result in a fixation on external metrics and loss of leader authenticity. Alternately, excessive focus on external assessments of internal standards may result in a fracture of internal identity coherence or perceived threats to personal well-being if external feedback is too strong or prompts overwhelming feelings of internal failure. Table 1.1 summarizes my theoretical proposal, highlighting the imperfections of siloed assessments, as well as the benefits and risks of cross-view assessments.

FUTURE RESEARCH: EMPIRICAL TESTS AND THEORETICAL EXTENSIONS

Opportunities for empirical exploration and future research

This theory of holistic and harmonious identity development is inherently personal, though it also includes a number of social elements. A research line to empirically test the ideas I proposed here should focus on further defining and measuring the theoretical constructs, understanding changes in leaders' identities through first-person meaning making, and leverage field interventions as possible.

I proposed a number of constructs that would benefit from validation and distinction from other measures. The elements of awareness and agency are central to the process of cultivating more holistic and harmonious leader identities, but differ slightly from existing constructs of self-awareness and self-concept clarity. Also, while identity and role conflict have been theorized and researched, developing a self-report scale could further empirical tests and experiments towards its resolution. Finally, despite the inherently personal nature of one's identity, it would be beneficial to develop more concrete definitions and indicators of holistic and harmonious identities.

Personal narratives and other qualitative approaches will be necessary to continue the study of identity development, as we see the importance of personal meaning making and learning through both siloed and cross-view perspectives. Semi-structured interviews at multiple time points will be most productive in allowing leaders to identify previous inaccuracies and tensions in their identities *after* they experience the filling of those gaps. While there may be some external observations that can speak to tension between external and internal standards of leadership, the internal perceptions of misalignment or harmony is most relevant to illustrating this theory of more robust identity development.

Finally, interventions in both laboratory and field environments will be useful in isolating the causal relationship between cross-view assessments and increased awareness and agency to resolve identity conflict. A number of personal variables, such as emotional intelligence,

vulnerability, personality, and relationship networks will be important to control for, and it will be difficult to craft intervention elements that afford equal opportunity for growth to all participants. For example, providing an example leader to observe and compare with their own external performance will then require guided reflection questions to leverage the value of the internal cross-view assessment. Additionally, the source of external cross-view feedback will undoubtedly influence the leader's reception. These internal and social considerations can be manipulated and may further define the boundary conditions of effective cross-view perspectives.

There are also a number of follow-on research questions that can be pursued from this work. As identity development naturally occurs along with personal maturity and experience, it is possible that this process, and the effectiveness of cross-view perspectives may differ at various seasons in one's life. The boundary conditions of maturity, vulnerability, and the availability of trusted external sources of feedback are likely to differ by life or professional stage, and could yield a multi-stage pattern of identity development. In the same vein of time, one could also explore the difference between discrete and cumulative cross-view perspective engagements, and whether there are other antecedents – possibly cyclical – that contribute to the effectiveness of cross-view perspectives cultivating more holistic and harmonious identities.

Theoretical and practical contributions

Though explored through the context of leadership, my theory of identity construction contributes to current identity literature in three valuable ways. I also join the conversation about identity-based leader development.

My first and most important contribution is my concept of cross-view perspectives, which both contribute to greater awareness and subsequently, a more holistic identity. Siloed perspectives – internal assessments of internal standards, and external assessments of external standards – are limited due to bias and resistance to feedback, and cannot fully explain

how leaders gain greater awareness of their values, performance quality, and appropriate behaviors. Internal assessments of external standards and external assessments of internal standards are vital components of identity construction as they allow us to look at internal and external standards simultaneously and comparatively. Cross-view perspectives give us greater insight into how leaders can cultivate a thoroughly understood and accurately demonstrated identity.

My second major contribution is the idea of partnered identity work that enables cross-view perspectives to increase leader awareness and agency, and ultimately leads to more holistic and harmonious identities. Identity work is touted as a particularly individual venture (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Caza, Vough, et al., 2018). Natural resistance to self-disclosure and vulnerability (Collins, 1994), and organizations' emphasis on socializing its members and leaders to their external standards and norms (van Maanen & Schein, 1977) suggest it would be counterintuitive for external agents to aid leaders in clarifying and enacting their internal identity, a challenge addressed by Cable, Gino, and Staats (2013). This partnership, however, leverages both internal and external perspectives in tandem, complementing each other and benefiting both the leader in terms of identity coherence and well-being, and the organization in terms of understanding and behaving in ways to achieve external standards. Rather than avoiding discussion of employee or leader values, goals, and leader philosophies, organizations should participate in the process of identity construction, helping identify and resolve tensions that would otherwise fester and lead to less favorable outcomes.

Third is both a theoretical and practical contribution: I explored three specific elements of identity that can be targeted by individuals as well as mentors or other external identity partners. Identities consist of values and goals, which may be vague or impersonal early in one's life or career. Being able to articulate the nuances of those beliefs is a valuable aspect of gaining identity clarity. The second element is a person's understanding of their own performance or how they are perceived. Social and cognitive biases make it challenging to accurately assess

how well they are achieving either personal or organizational standards. Soliciting feedback and reflecting to gain clarity in this area is important for identity coherence and self-validation.

Finally, behaviors or actions are the manifestation of one's internal (or social) identity. People must develop a repertoire of behavior that reflects their values and works toward achieving their goals – in line with both internal and external standards.

Finally, my theory contributes to the ongoing conversation and calls for a more identity-focused approach to leader development (Day & Harrison, 2007; Ibarra et al., 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005; Miscenko et al., 2017; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, de Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). Lord and Hall supported this idea fairly early, suggesting that “to sustain interest for the months and years required to develop and practice complex leadership skills, it is also likely that the leadership role needs to become part of one's self identity” (2005, p. 592). Similarly, Ibarra, et al., (2010) emphasized the importance of both internal and external feedback regarding one's role identity, aiming for congruence and authenticity of their behavior. My theory of cross-view perspectives and partnered identity work take these ideas one step further by illustrating how we concurrently develop our identities both inside and out.

CONCLUSION

As individuals navigate new roles and professional environments, they must continuously navigate their internal sense of self and balance it with the expectations of their organization. With disconnected theories of internal identity work and external performance evaluations, I address the need for a more holistic theory of identity development, as individuals and leaders aim to understand and behave in ways that are both authentic to themselves and fulfilling of organizational expectations. Our theories must further integrate these mutual aims, to explain more fully how leaders navigate identity construction. In this paper, I suggest the value of cross-view perspectives toward enhancing both awareness and agency as mediators toward more holistic and harmonious identities. I outline specific limitations to siloed-view perspectives

toward identity development and the gaps that cross-view perspectives fill. I also suggest a number of personal and social boundary conditions where cross-view perspectives are likely to be most productive.

Armed with this enhanced theory of identity development, I call on individuals as well as organizations to recognize the multi-echelon value of cross-view perspectives, from leader well-being and authenticity to organization-valued performance, retention, and positive climate. Leaders have the ultimate agency in developing holistic and harmonious identities for themselves. Expanding their developmental focus beyond the silos of leader performance and individual leader philosophies or goals, and inviting partners on their identity journey, however, are critically valuable to help leaders reach the best version of their potential selves.

In the following chapter, I build upon the idea of dynamism within leader development, considering the impact of context and experience on a leader's identity. I explore in-depth the dynamic path of leader experience as a tangible input to the process, and reveal the subsequent non-uniform impacts on leader beliefs and behaviors.

CHAPTER 2 – THE BROKEN ROAD OF LEADER DEVELOPMENT: THE DYNAMIC PATH AND EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE

ABSTRACT

A leader's journey of development is a long-term and cumulative process, occupying positions of increased responsibility and authority from which they gain experience and insight. The reality, however, is that leaders often navigate non-continuous paths of development, stepping into and out of formal roles that provide this direct experience. I investigate the naturally dynamic nature of leader experience and the subsequent complexity of its outcomes, asking what impact leadership role transition has on leader behaviors and perceptions. I explore this through a particularly relevant leader behavior: developing others by providing feedback. In this research, I leverage a natural field experiment of over 3,000 military cadets at West Point, randomly assigned to leadership and non-leadership roles. Analyzing their multi-source feedback, I found that those who stepped into formal leadership roles provided more critical lateral and upward feedback, but were slightly less critical when they stepped out of the leadership role. This change suggests non-continuous development of their leader identity as they experiment with expectations of the role and their sense of self. I reveal a number of non-linear and non-uniform elements around leader development, including the experiential process, the demonstration of and changes in leader behaviors, and changes in leader perceptions of themselves and others. The findings and discussion contribute to the rich conversations on leader development and leader identity, revealing nuances that can be further explored and leveraged by organizations in their leader development programs.

INTRODUCTION

Even the best leaders are not born; they all navigate a journey, a series of steps, a pipeline of experiences, reflections, and outcomes. Leader development expands “the capacity of individuals to be effective in leadership roles and processes” (Day & Dragoni, 2015, p. 134), whether or not the leader fulfills a formal and hierarchical position of authority and claims a leader identity (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003; van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016). Over a lifetime (Liu et al., 2021), leaders learn and develop for themselves the abilities to inspire, organize, and develop others, by nature of their responsibilities.

Among numerous practices that contribute to leader development, both research and practice tout direct experience as instrumental for development, growth, and learning skills (Lowy et al., 1986; McCall Jr, 2004; McCall et al., 1988; Robinson & Wick, 1992), as it provides opportunities for leaders to personally try out and experience various behaviors (Ibarra, 1999; Kardas & O'Brien, 2018; McCall Jr, 2004), and assess internal and external feedback around

their developing leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Subjectively, leaders can also leverage the experience to improve their self-awareness by identifying or clarifying their strengths and weaknesses, explore relationship expectations with peers and supervisors, and gain reputational value and build trust for additional responsibility.

Much of the literature seems to rely upon a foundational assumption that leader development is a continuous process, as leaders occupy progressive positions of increased responsibility and authority, through which they accumulate experience and insight about themselves and others. The reality, however, is that leaders often navigate dynamic paths of development, stepping into and out of formal roles that provide this direct experience. For example, in the military, young officers are in leadership positions for one to two years, followed by one or more administrative or technical staff positions to gain a variety of experience and organizational perspective. In consulting, early-stage leaders are often placed in charge of project teams for 4-6 months and then return to non-leadership roles as team members. Additionally, professors may lead their peers designing and teaching a core curriculum course for only one semester out of the academic year. Each of these examples illustrate naturally dynamic paths of leader development, and suggest that ensuing changes in one's behaviors and beliefs may be similarly complex.

Despite the reality of a non-linear path of leader experience, particularly for early-stage leaders, we have yet to see research that investigates its naturally dynamic nature and the subsequent complexity of its outcomes. Some researchers have identified non-linear trajectories of leader development outcomes (Day & Sin, 2011; Middleton, Walker, & Reichard, 2018; Miscenko, Guenter, & Day, 2017), and others have indicated non-uniformity of development based on individual differences (Dechant, 1989; Robinson & Wick, 1992). But a specific focus on the dynamic nature of the experiential path of leaders remains unexplored. We must therefore ask: What effect does stepping into as well as *out of* direct leadership roles have on the behaviors and beliefs of early-stage leaders?

This question has been particularly difficult to study. Theoretically, much of the leader development research has been presented as process models, aimed at understanding the influential steps toward development, or conducive conditions that enable development to occur (Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005), but few have suggested specific effects of direct experience (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Eich, 2008; Mumford et al., 2007). Analytical approaches have focused solely on leaders' experiences within direct leadership experiences, which cast doubt on whether any changes will be temporary and specific to that role, or enduring as part of the leader's identity. Studies that exclusively study developing leader populations without comparing to non-leaders lack the ability to claim that leader experience enhances any particular outcomes. Methodologically, it has been nearly impossible to separate the influence of direct leadership experience from often-concurrent and interacting processes or influences such as organizational socialization, mentorship and other feedback, and observational or vicarious learning (Bandura & Walters, 1977; Eich, 2008). Much of the research attributes leader development outcomes to a combination of influences, or compounding influences over time (McCall et al., 1988).

We approach our study of the dynamic leader experience path using a particularly relevant leader behavior: developing others by providing feedback. Developing others is a key leader behavior that contributes to leader effectiveness and follower job performance (Bass & Avolio, 1996; Kaiser et al., 2008; Luthans & Lockwood, 1984; Mumford et al., 2007; Rego et al., 2019; van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979). In the developmental process, early-stage leaders are learning to lead, and a core part of their formal role includes learning to support, coach, develop, and ultimately evaluate their subordinates and others on their team. It makes sense to study leader experience as a method of development concurrent with feedback provision as an indicator of their development as leaders.

Feedback, put simply, is "the information people receive about their performance. It conveys an evaluation about the quality of their performance behaviors" (London, 2003, p. 11).

In providing feedback, leaders carry the responsibility of improving others' performance (London, 2003). We capture a unique and valuable look at the effects of the non-linear path of leader experience on leaders' behaviors by investigating the changes in how early-stage leaders provide feedback. Additionally, with the inclusion of self-assessments, we also explore changes in leader self-perceptions, capturing the potential for another complex outcome from the dynamic path of leader development.

Our research capitalizes on a rich field setting's natural experiment characteristics to look at measurable changes from non-continuous paths of direct leadership experience. Cadets at West Point (the United States Military Academy) are early-stage leaders engaged in developmental experiences throughout an immersive 4-year program. During each of the academic semesters in their third year, cadets are randomly assigned into mid-level leadership positions or non-leader administrative positions, giving us the opportunity to identify changes in leader behavior as a result of stepping into and out of formal leadership roles. Routine collection of multi-source feedback at the completion of the role tenure allows us to see variance in how early-stage leaders perceive themselves and others, and how they contribute to others' development through providing feedback.

With our data consisting of 25,582 feedback reports from 3,338 raters from 3 cohorts, we look at changes in numeric feedback scores. We focus on the changes in views of themselves and others before, during, and after formal leadership roles (direct experience), identifying (1) what change occurs as a result of occupying a formal leadership role and (2) what, if any, change endures after stepping out of the leadership role. We found that those who occupied direct leadership roles provided significantly lower scores both laterally and upward. Additionally, those who had occupied and then departed leadership roles demonstrated partial continuation of this behavior, providing more critical assessments than those who had yet to occupy a formal leadership role, but less critical than those currently occupying the role. We found no significant change in self-views either during or after leadership role occupation.

Our research contributes to leader development theory in four ways. First, we find that the non-continuous nature of leader development experiences yields non-linear effects on leader behaviors and perspectives when stepping into and out of direct experience leadership roles. Both the dynamic experience context and its subsequent effects on developmental outcomes add complexity that is worth exploring to understand leader development more accurately. Second, our findings suggest a non-uniform nature to leader development, in that the change in how leaders perceive themselves and others may occur at different rates or in different ways. Though we saw no significant change in leaders' self-assessments either during or after occupying leadership roles, these changes may occur in less proximity to direct experience, or changes in how one views himself as a leader may manifest in how he perceives and behaves toward others. The multiple layers of complexity in this early stage of leader development also suggest greater nuance will occur across the spectrum of life and career.

Our third contribution is methodological, by using feedback provision as a measure of leader development rather than assessments of their performance by others. Developing others is a key task for leaders, and the ability to assess others in line with their organization's values and goals can be a valuable metric to reflect a leader's development. Finally, our research design allows us to methodologically focus on the effect of direct experience, leveraging the consistency of other developmental activities, such as socialization, observational development, mentorship, and feedback. With cadets randomly assigned to either leader or non-lead roles in our natural field experimental design, we are able to compare those in similar developmental stages and separate the effects of direct experience on leader views and developmental behavior.

In this chapter, we review relevant leader development, role transition, and feedback literatures to inform our context-specific hypotheses. We then present our data, analysis, and results. Within our discussion, we theorize possible mechanisms for our findings, address

limitations to our study, and suggest valuable paths for future research on the numerous dynamic aspects of leader development.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMING

The dynamic nature of leader development and non-linear paths of experience

Leaders are individuals assigned to formal positions of authority and who claim an identity as a leader (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003; van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016). Successful leader behaviors and responsibilities generally focus on tasks – utilizing resources and personnel, and reliably organization operations and services, relations – building commitment to the organization and its mission as well as mutual trust and member cooperation, and change – facilitating innovation and adapting to external changes (Yukl et al., 2002). Leader development – often facilitated through deliberate organizational programs – naturally focuses on progressing the skills, knowledge, and behaviors that make individuals more effective in executing their leader roles (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lord & Hall, 2005). Leader development can be influenced by a willingness to learn (Day, 2010; Dweck, 1986; McCauley, 2001), cognitive stages of adult development (Kegan, 1994), and the development of knowledge structures and mental models of leadership (Day & Sin, 2011).

A leader's identity refers to the "sub-component of one's identity that relates to being a leader or how one thinks of oneself as a leader" (Day & Harrison, 2007, p. 365). It is a social construction combining their own self-concept (Gecas, 1982; Lord et al., 1999; Oyserman, 2001; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003), role expectations (Biddle, 1986; Day et al., 2004; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Gjerde & Ladegård, 2018; Waldman et al., 2013), and external affirmation (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). This leader identity influences and guides their thoughts, behaviors, and interactions (Ashforth, 2001; Carroll & Levy, 2010; Day et al., 2009; Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005; van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

In the present study, we focus particularly on early-stage leaders, who are engaged in deliberate developmental environments, with notably different levels of previous experience, leader identity, and skill (Day & Sin, 2011). At this early stage, their development is typically focused on identity development, skill development, and socialization into the organization and the expectations of their leadership role.

Within leader development, direct experience is promoted as one of, if not the most instrumental activities that contribute to leaders' development, growth, and learning (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lowy et al., 1986; McCall Jr, 2004; McCall et al., 1988; Robinson & Wick, 1992). Job experiences are estimated to account for up to 70% of all developmental experiences (Robinson & Wick, 1992), and much of managerial learning is thought to occur informally on the job (Lowy et al., 1986). In terms of leadership, theoretical and empirical works have focused on how direct experience provides opportunities to develop skills (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Mumford et al., 2007), define and improve the quality of work relationships (Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005), practice and integrate leader behaviors (Hill, 2003; Ibarra, 1999; Kardas & O'Brien, 2018; McCall Jr, 2004), and gather insights for reflection and future application (McCall et al., 1988). The value of experience goes beyond that of observation and vicarious learning, as the knowledge of actions or behaviors to implement cannot replicate the actual feeling of taking those steps (Kardas & O'Brien, 2018). Additionally, the opportunity to practice leadership skills strengthens an individual's self-perception as a leader and cultivates further changes in their leader identity (Miscenko et al., 2017).

The value, process, and outcomes of leader development through personal experience have been widely researched, but many studies focus on acute developmental events, or imply the continuous progression of experience and growth (Middleton et al., 2018). Some researchers have identified non-linear trajectories of leader development outcomes. Day & Sin (2011) show that leader development does not involve only positive growth, as many leaders in their longitudinal study showed a period of decline in self-professed leader performance.

Similarly, Miscenko, Guenter, & Day (2017) found a J-shaped progression of leader identity, associated with changes in leadership skills, over a 7-week leader development program. However, even these empirical studies analyze the outcomes from consistent experiences, only accounting for the transition into an experience.

Leader development journeys, particularly first-hand leadership experiences, are more often non-continuous: leaders navigate dynamic paths of development, stepping into and out of formal roles that provide direct experience. A specific focus – both theoretical and empirical – on the dynamic nature of the experiential path of new leaders remains unexplored. We must therefore ask: What effect does stepping into as well as *out of* direct leadership roles have on the behaviors and perceptions of early-stage leaders?

We can look to literature around role transitions – both in organizations in general (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2000; George et al., 2021), as well as in early manager and leadership roles (Hill, 2003) – to ground our expectations from the dynamic nature of leader experience. Much of the discussion around role transitions focuses on the psychological experience (George et al., 2021), including crafting identities from particular transitions (Pratt et al., 2006), and deidentifying (or not) with previous roles (Wittman, 2018). In general, role changes are often accompanied by changes in perspectives due to shifted reference groups (Lieberman, 1956), resulting in new ways of thinking about themselves in both current and future contexts. In his extensive review of role transitions within an organizational setting, Ashforth (2001) suggests we seek to fulfill our psychological needs of identity and meaning as we settle into new roles (in addition to control or mastery, and belonging). We attempt to categorize and order our environment and locate ourselves within as we explore the boundaries of our role identities. Ibarra (1999) further expands on this idea of identity development by experimenting with, or trying on “provisional selves” and subsequently adopting or rejecting elements of that identity based on internal and external feedback about its effectiveness and personal fit. Expectations of both the role and one's sense of self may have influence on the

outcome of one's identity, displaying temporary or permanent effects on behavior and beliefs. Applying concepts from role transitions to naturally dynamic paths of leader development opens the idea that changes in one's leader behaviors and beliefs may be similarly complex.

Considering literatures on both role transitions and identity development leads us to consider multiple forces at play when stepping into and out of formal roles: there is likely an influence to fulfill external expectations while occupying the role, as well as a continuous desire to experiment with one's personal leader identity and discover internal coherence. Additionally, as one's frame of reference changes when they occupy a new role, it is possible they perceive concrete expectations for how to view or behave toward others, with less concrete expectations for how to view ones' self. We can expect a number of non-linear and non-uniform outcomes from the dynamic path of leader experience.

Difficulties researching dynamic leader development

Much of the leader development and direct experience literature has not only overlooked the dynamic nature of experience, but has also structured research and approached theoretical ideas in ways that have made it difficult to study changes to leaders' beliefs and behaviors. As an exception showing changes in leader performance, DeRue & Wellman (2009) analyzed discrete work experiences, evaluating their developmental value through measurable outcomes using a taxonomy of 21 leadership skills (Mumford et al., 2007). Day et al. (2004) also measured the effects of occupying formal leadership roles as National Hockey League team captains, but focused on individual task performance rather than leadership behaviors or beliefs.

The dominant theoretical structure of leader development research has been presented as process models, aimed at understanding how development occurs, or what paths lead to the most effective leaders (Hill, 2003; Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005). Robust qualitative studies aim to unpack leaders' experiences through a grounded theory approach, designed to generate theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). For example, Komives, et al.

(2005) conducted in-depth interviews with 13 students from which they constructed a multi-layered cycle of leadership identity development, focusing on *how*, or through what steps an individual goes through iteratively in developing their self, changing views of themselves and others, and broadening their view of leadership, all within context of a variety of development influences. Both approaches are helpful in exploring leader development, but more is needed to account for within-leader variance as they move in and out of experiential roles over time.

Many studies have looked in depth at experiences of early-stage and developing leaders, exploring patterns or boundary conditions that best contribute to their development. Hill (2003) pulled valuable insights from 19 managers in their first year, sharing their experiences of learning “to think, feel, and value as managers” (p.5) undergoing “considerable introspection and personal growth”, and making sense of the “evolution of a new professional identity” (p.7). She finds that these managers (and leaders, according the 2nd edition) undergo four tasks of transformation: learning what it means to be a manager, developing interpersonal judgment, gaining self-knowledge, and coping with stress and emotion. Others leverage longitudinal data from leader development programs to study trajectories and changes over time. Two studies measured self-assessed levels of leader identity over 7-week (postgraduate students) and 5-month (mid-career executives) leader development programs, finding generally positive linear growth over time, with some dynamic nuances, such as a decline after receiving 360-degree feedback reports, and rebounding after debriefing the feedback with a coach (Middleton et al., 2018; Miscenko et al., 2017). Day & Sin (2011) captured changes in externally-rated leader effectiveness over time, and as a function of self-rated leader identity and learning growth orientation, revealing multiple different trajectories based on personal characteristics. Although purposeful and valuable to better understand early-stage leader experiences, this analytical focus on leader populations excludes non-leader comparison groups, limiting our ability to claim causality of direct experience on any particular outcomes.

The few who have identified or measured effects of leader development struggle methodologically to separate effects of single sources of influence, often looking at holistic programs or experiences. For example, Eich (2008) looked at 4 different leadership programs, aiming to identify components of high-quality programs. His findings yielded 16 different components in 3 clusters that are all simultaneously present within the programs. From robust interviews, he proposes a number of effects on students from each cluster – one of which is student-centered experiential learning experiences – but the influence of other aspects cannot be separated out. Like the leadership programs in Eich's research, it is common to have simultaneous leader development components working in a parallel and complementary nature, but that also differ in their developmental aims. For example, socialization, mentorship and other feedback, as well as observational or vicarious learning all provide or reinforce information to a leader about organizational expectations and values, demonstrations of successful behaviors, and advice or support from more experienced leaders. Direct experience, on the other hand, affords a leader the opportunity to personally experiment with, or try on (Ibarra, 1999) leader behaviors and receive direct feedback from others (and oneself) about its effectiveness and personal fit. As we attempt to focus singularly on the effects of direct experience, we can aim to control for other leader development influences while still acknowledging their presence and interaction.

We move forward in this research accounting for two necessary and important insights: 1) the dynamic nature of direct experience caused by stepping into and out of formal leader roles, and 2) the methodological structure of isolating the effect of a direct experience intervention with a control group who is otherwise comparable in personal and situational factors. From these two anchor points, we can explore both temporary and enduring effects of leader role transitions. In other words, we aim to assess whether direct leader experiences change internalized beliefs and behaviors as a part of one's leader identity, or if they merely cause temporary behavior changes to fulfill expectations of the formal roles they occupy.

An important leader development outcome: Developing others with feedback

As reviewed above, researchers have leveraged a wide variety of outcomes to assess and demonstrate the development of leaders, including both self and other-reported measures of performance, collecting both quantitative data and qualitative interviews. Within the field, both theoretical models and empirical studies suggest redefining and engaging in interpersonal relationships are important changes for early-stage leaders. Early work and management experience provide lessons on handling relationships (McCall et al., 1988) as well as understanding power dynamics and using appropriate influence tactics with peers and bosses (Hill, 2003). Leaders shift from seeing themselves as dependent on others, to independent, to interdependent (Komives et al., 2005), and also shift focus of their identity from individual to collective (Lord & Hall, 2005), and eventually systems-level (Day & Harrison, 2007).

Navigating and building individual relationships is noted as an important category of skills for effective leaders. In a meta-analysis of leadership taxonomies, Yukl et al., (2002) present three main categories of effective behaviors: relations, task, and change behaviors. They highlight the importance of relations behaviors in achieving strong commitment as well as shared trust and cooperation among its members, which are themes echoed by others (Rego et al., 2019; van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016). In the development and testing of a leadership skills strataplex on over 1000 executives at various career stages, interpersonal skill is revealed as the second most important category (after cognitive), with its importance positively associated with higher organization levels (Mumford et al., 2007). Bass & Avolio (1996) also highlight individualized consideration as a key element of transformational leadership in their Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

More specifically, developing others is specified as a key relations behavior that contributes to leaders' personal effectiveness as well as follower job performance (Bass & Avolio, 1996; Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Kaiser et al., 2008; Luthans & Lockwood, 1984; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). In the developmental process, early-stage leaders are learning to lead, and a core

part of their formal role includes learning to support, coach, develop, and ultimately evaluate their subordinates and others on their team. The leadership skills taxonomy meta-analysis shows developing as consistent with effective leadership, alongside other relations tasks of supporting, recognizing, consulting, and empowering subordinates (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). It is also specified within the scale of individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1996).

One tangible method of developing others is through providing feedback, offering an evaluation of a target's past performance behaviors and competences (London, 2003; Toegel & Conger, 2003), including its appropriateness or achievement of established goals (Ilgen et al., 1979). In providing feedback, leaders carry the responsibility of improving others' performance. They understand how the information can lead to others' development (London, 2003), and also enhance the overall effectiveness of the organization (Larson Jr, 1984). This information – often subjective, in either numeric or written form – is often supplemented by objective performance measures and feedback from others such as peers, direct-reports, and themselves (Fleenor et al., 2010; London & Smither, 1995; Smither et al., 2005, 2008). Much of the feedback literature, especially for leaders, focuses on seeking or receiving feedback to improve their performance (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; London & Smither, 1995; Smither et al., 2005), or how to provide negative performance feedback (Burk & Wiese, 2021; Larson Jr, 1984; London, 2003).

We propose value in looking at changes in leaders' behaviors and beliefs through the feedback they provide, representing the contribute they make in the development of others. As we explore the potential effects of non-continuous leader development experiences, we look first at whether direct experience affects how leaders view and behave toward others, and more importantly, to what extent they persist when individuals step out of formal leadership roles. It makes sense to study leadership experience as a method of development concurrent with feedback provision as an indicator of their development.

While we highlight developing others through providing feedback as our focus outcome, we also recognize the likelihood for changes in leader self-perceptions as a result of dynamic

leader experience roles. As they step into and out of formal leadership roles, they are continuously renegotiating their own sense of who they are as a leader (Zheng et al., 2020). The presence of self-assessments as well as assessments of others allows us to identify any nuances to a leader's identity development, through indicators of both their outward behavior in providing feedback to others, as well as their inward view of their own leader performance.

We have provided a baseline of existing literature around leader development, experiences, and role transitions, and suggested providing feedback (to develop others) as a key leader behavior outcome to study the impact of the dynamic leader experience path. Next we introduce our research context, which naturally reflects our theoretically proposed dynamic or non-continuous path of direct experience. It allows us to methodologically isolate the effects of direct experience on developing leaders' feedback toward others, and as a result of stepping into and out of formal roles, identify whether these changes endure as part of one's revised leader identity or represent temporary changes in line with their finite leadership role.

RESEARCH CONTEXT AND HYPOTHESES

Research Context: A leader development program with non-continuous experiences

West Point (the United State Military Academy) is a four-year undergraduate institution that commissions officers into the US Army upon graduation. This leadership laboratory provides 47 months of immersive military-leader socialization, with a mission of developing "leader(s) of character...prepared for a career of professional excellence and service to the Nation" (USMA, 2023). West Point is a valuable setting for studying the dynamic nature of leader development. First, upper class cadets (those in their 3rd and 4th years) are assigned in a near-random fashion into leadership and non-leadership roles at the beginning of each academic term (fixed duration of 3 months, regardless of performance), offering a natural experiment to look at the effect of direct experience intervention while controlling for numerous individual and contextual factors (such as cohort and program tenure) and 2) it affords rich

cross-sectional data from routine subjective multi-source feedback. Despite some of the unique aspects of this undergraduate military context, its structure with non-continuous paths of direct leader experience allows us to explore the effects on leader behaviors and beliefs.

Of tremendous value for our research is that the program offers a natural experiment to study how stepping into and out of leadership roles impacts views of and behavior toward others. As developing and early-stage leaders, the cadets' level of responsibility and scope of influence increases in each of their four years as they occupy leadership roles among their fellow cadets. During their first two years, individuals occupy follower and one-person supervisory roles¹, while students in their third and fourth years are assigned into organizational leadership roles, rotating at fixed time points at the beginning of each academic semester and summer session, regardless of their performance. A portion of the students are assigned to a formal leadership role overseeing a range of 6-30 cadets from all years (including true peers and some senior cadets), with the remainder assigned into administrative or technical roles that do not involve formal leadership responsibilities.²

In particular, this setting's natural experiment characteristics allow us to focus on the effects of first-hand leader experience (or role occupation), holding constant the overall socialization from the immersive leader development program. All cadets – through their four years – are aspiring leaders; they are all on the path to becoming Army officers, although they may identify with and define that role differently at various stages of the process. Through the socialization process, they are taught – through instruction and examples – the values and expected behaviors of a military leader. But the first organizational leadership position (in their

¹ In their first year, cadets occupy the role of a follower, learning basic institutional norms and military skills, while they focus on adapting to rigorous academic requirements. Second-year cadets assume an introductory leadership role with developmental responsibility and oversight for one to two first-year cadets, changing direct-reports halfway through the year.

² All cadets are required to complete the full four-year program, though some may repeat one or more semesters for academic, physical, conduct, honor, or medical rehabilitation. A very small percentage may leave the Academy due to any of the above issues, and return within 1-2 years to resume the program.

3rd year) is direct experience as a formal leader, in which they are given authority to reward and punish, are evaluated based on the performance and accountability of others, and whose behavior and decisions can directly contribute to the organization's success.

While the large data sample consists of both 3rd and 4th-year cadet reports, there are significant differences between them in the scope and level of responsibility for leadership roles that have implications for how we make sense of what development is occurring. In their 3rd-year, leader and non-leader roles are assigned in a near-random nature, as there are minimal examples of performance or potential for institutional leaders to base assignments on, and there is an institutional goal of providing leadership experience opportunities to all 3rd-year cadets during at least one semester. Approximately 60% of 3rd-year cadets serve in a formal leadership role each semester. During the 4th-year however, some cadets request and compete for higher level leadership positions, up to and including the brigade commander who oversees the development of the entire student body (4400), although she only has 4 direct reports in that position. Only 20% of 4th-year students serve in a leadership role each semester, with a large portion rotating between two administrative staff roles that year (Conkey, 2023). Focusing the analysis on 3rd-year cadets will likely reduce unaccounted for variance in feedback scores due to this self-selection.

Information on each cadet's leadership positions over time allows me to look at the dynamic nature of their developmental path, stepping into and out of leadership roles. Though cadets do not provide or receive subjective feedback during their summer assignments, the roles are none-the-less direct leadership experiences that may affect their beliefs and behaviors. During the summer, cadets – whether a leader, non-leader, or subordinate – focus exclusively on military training and leader development. There are no academic or sports

requirements, and no clubs have activities that overlap with the concentrated military training sessions.³

The leadership roles that take place during the academic year come with both responsibility and authority. Each cadet leader is held responsible for personnel accountability and performance (academic, physical fitness, and military performance) of their subordinates, information dissemination (downward) and reporting (upward), and personal development and inspiration. Leaders have several transactional tools at their disposal, including the ability to write positive or negative reports, resulting in extra privileges such as weekend liberties away from West Point, and punishments such as the loss of off-post privileges, or spending hours marching in the central courtyard. Naturally, each leader leverages different aspects of their leader identity, confidence, and authority in carrying out their leadership through the semester. Regardless of their military role, all cadets are full-time academic students, compete in either intramural or varsity sports (one is required), maintain their own physical fitness, and selectively participate in a variety of extra-curricular clubs, such as debate, glee club, or religious groups.

There are three types of objective (or semi-objective performance) evaluations cadets receive throughout the program: academic – objective scores from academic coursework, physical – objective scores from physical fitness tests and physical education course performance, and military – a score combining subjective evaluation of their assigned role performance (academic semester and summer roles) given by a military officer (institutional representative), and objective grades on military coursework. A weighted average of these grades determines the order in which a cadet's preference is considered for their assigned

³ Within the two summers before their third and fourth years, cadets fulfill three unique requirements (randomly assigned): they each serve as cadre in summer training for their first or second-year subordinates, either in a leadership or administrative/training role; they spend three to four weeks in a full immersion "internship" with an Army unit, observing the unit's functional specialty as well as the leadership requirements of a junior officer which they will assume upon graduation; and they spend two weeks conducting and being evaluated upon intense military leadership training in a combat-simulated environment.

military specialty and assignment location after graduation (both of which are awarded during their 4th or final year at the Academy). Subjective feedback is not directly integrated into military performance scores, but may provide unique insights for institutional leaders to consider when evaluating the cadets.

Feedback assessments. Within this research context, we are able to look at the effect of direct leader experience on one specific leader behavior: developing others through providing feedback. In this case, the feedback takes the form of subjective, numerical assessments. Cadets submit assessments on others as well as themselves routinely: at the end of each academic semester⁴. This multi-source feedback provides a holistic picture of each cadets' strengths and weaknesses in terms of the leadership behaviors, traits, and values determined most important by the institution (HQDA, 2019), but also gives cadets an opportunity to contribute to the development of other early-stage leaders. The assessments are intended to provide developmental feedback for personal awareness and growth, and are not directly incorporated into the cadets' performance scores⁵.

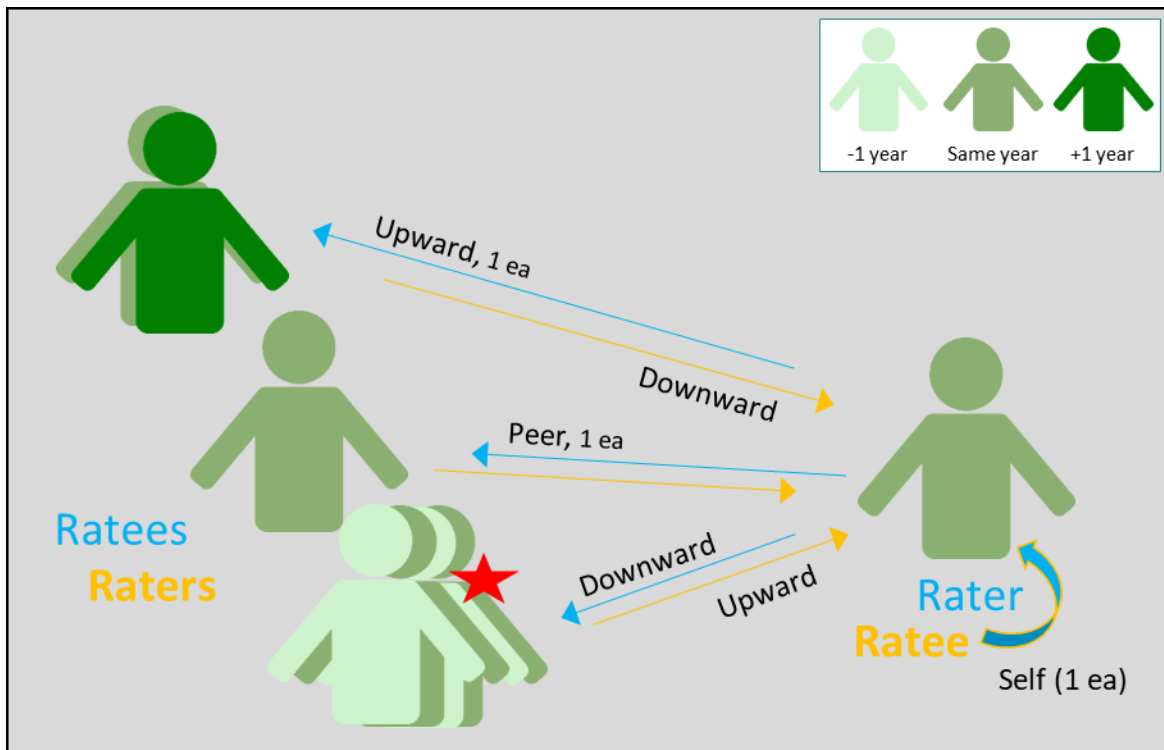
At each time point, a cadet assesses himself (self-evaluation), one peer (lateral feedback), their cadet supervisor (upward feedback), and if in a formal leadership role,⁶ one or more subordinate cadets (downward feedback). Peer evaluations are randomly assigned from a pool of approximately 36 cadets that live, dine, and conduct military training in close proximity, but do not necessarily have formal leadership relationships, and may vary in terms of interaction frequency or familiarity. Upward and downward feedback is exchanged between those in formal

⁴ This subjective feedback is not collected during the summer leadership events.

⁵ It is possible that some or all military officers consider this feedback when assigning military performance scores at the end of the semester. I will be conducting interviews this summer to determine how this subjective feedback is used, if at all, as well as any other factors – such as cadet leadership input – that goes into the officer-assigned performance scores.

⁶ Cadets also receive feedback in the same format from an academic instructor each semester, and a military officer during their junior year. These reports are not directly relevant to my research question about emerging leader evaluations of others' leadership performance.

Figure 2.1. Multi-source feedback structure for West Point Cadets



leadership relationships. As Figure 2.1 shows, depending on his or her assigned role (leader or non-leader), each cadet will be both provide and receive 360-degree feedback evaluations at the conclusion of every academic semester, coinciding with role transitions for the entire cadet population, regardless of anyone's performance in their role.

Hypotheses: Feedback provided before, during, and after direct leader roles

In order to address our primary research question – whether dynamic paths of experience produce variable effects on leader views and behaviors – we hypothesize whether assessments of others and themselves will differ before, during, and after direct experience in formal leadership roles grounded in theory and considering aspects of the context. We consider two possible directions for this behavioral change, based in feedback and power literatures. Although our quantitative data is not sufficient to identify the intent behind the behavioral

changes, current literature can provide some insight into possible reasons for perspective or behavior change.

First, feedback literature suggests that leaders may overinflate their feedback as they attempt to avoid conflict or the negative emotional or psychological effects of having difficult conversations (Longenecker et al., 1987). The “deliberate manipulation of formal appraisals for political purposes” (Longenecker et al., 1987, p. 183) can also be in an attempt to keep subordinates motivated and an organization functioning, rather than provide developmental information. Inflation is more common when ratings are tied to compensation and career outcomes, as leaders hesitate to have tangible negative effects on their subordinates. Leaders may also inflate feedback when there is outcome dependence – when a leader’s job and career outcomes depend directly on their subordinates’ performance (Larson 1984, p.53).

This same hesitation and conflict avoidant mindset applies to giving peer feedback, especially in collaborative organizations with a positive culture of support where “their natural inclination is to offer counsel and encouragement, and yet they’ve been asked to pass judgment on a colleague’s performance” (Peiperl, 2001, p. 4). Leaders may perceive both personal and professional risk in evaluating peers, concerned about damaging relationships or negatively impacting others or their own careers. Feedback inflation may also be due to distrust in the organization’s use of the feedback to promote or punish others (Peiperl, 2001).

While feedback inflation is likely for all of the above reasons, the context of early-stage leaders may present fewer monetary or career implications, particularly with time-based leadership position rotations. Early in a leader’s career, particularly in one of their first roles with substantial responsibility – as is the case in our research context – the leadership role and development of others may be less defining of one’s sense of self, and thus present less psychological influence to inflating the feedback.

Alternately, power literature suggests that those in direct leadership roles may be disinhibited or more honest due to the power they receive from their formal position. Power is

described as “an individual’s relative capacity to modify others’ states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments” (Keltner et al., 2003, p. 265), where resources can fall into material or social categories. For example, one resource that a person in a formal leadership role may have is a direct line of communication to the institutional leaders responsible for others’ performance grades and rewards or punishments. In our research context, cadets in formal leadership positions make recommendations for their subordinates’ performance grades, and are able to submit their subordinates for extra rewards in the form of weekends away from campus. Empirical studies have shown that increased power creates a tendency toward action and reduces disinhibition, to include sharing honest opinions (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006; Keltner et al., 2003). Additionally within this context, there is a fixed distribution of performance grades, and perceptions of competition or comparison during a high-profile leadership position may lead those in formal leadership positions to be more critical of others.

Along with experiencing a sense of disinhibition due to power, early-stage leaders are navigating and developing their own technical and interpersonal skills, identifying their strengths and weaknesses through the process. Through this identity work, Petriglieri & Stein (2012) suggest those in formal leadership roles may project unwanted aspects of themselves onto others (through more critical feedback), attempting to “shape and sustain an identity befitting” their leadership role. An environment of competition among near-peers for future career options may facilitate particular projection of more negative feedback. Amid these factors, those in leadership roles may feel disinhibited to provide more critical assessments of others’ performance, such that:

Hypothesis 1: Assessment scores will be lower from those currently occupying leadership roles due to power disinhibition.

Once developing leaders transition out of formal leader roles, any behavioral changes that occurred have the potential to endure through the transition, or cease upon departure from

the formal role. Both outcomes draw on identity literature that suggests experience enables early-stage leaders to experiment with behaviors as part of a provisional, yet not fully established form of themselves (Ibarra, 1999; Markus & Nurius, 1986). As they experiment, they make ongoing decisions about whether to incorporate or discard new behaviors and beliefs into their permanent self-concept of who they are as a leader (Yost et al., 1992).

In one sense, they may internalize some or all of the beliefs and behaviors they developed and exhibited during their experiential role. Occupying a new role often results in a change in one's reference group that leads to new self-conceptions (Lieberman, 1956), providing both a point of reference and reflected appraisals that shape the focal person's self-understanding (Baumeister, 1998; Cooley, 1902). By doing new things and interacting in different networks, people create new meaning of who they are and who they want to become. Their inner self may be transformed through these behaviors, based on a new way of thinking about the organization and their own future path (Nohria & Khurana, 2010). This incorporation or internalization of behaviors and beliefs is a gradual process of translating external interactions into internal, personalized versions of the same interactions (De Vries, 2006). Leaders' identities change over time as a result of iteratively internalizing behaviors or beliefs that attempt to align their self-concept with their public behavior (Tice, 1992).

Some behaviors and perspectives are specifically adopted to fulfill role expectations (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Lieberman, 1956). In their Logic of Appropriateness, March and Olsen (2004) suggest we internally ask ourselves about the situation, the role, and how a person in this particular role should act in the specific situation. It is possible that stepping out of a role can result in complete abandonment of the behaviors and beliefs tied to the role. However, the robust literature regarding the impact of direct experience suggests this extreme is improbable. Particularly in an immersive leader development context, it's unlikely that a person will remain completely unchanged from their experience and revert entirely to their pre-role beliefs and behaviors. In this case, their behaviors would likely differ from those who have yet to occupy the

direct leadership role, suggesting some integration of these beliefs and behaviors into their revised leader identity.

Hypothesis 2: Assessment scores from those having occupied and exited leadership roles will rebound positively from assessments provided during role occupation, but will still be more critical than those provided before occupying the leadership role.

Hypotheses for self assessments

While not the primary focus of our analysis regarding leader development behaviors, there is value in also looking at changes in how early-stage leaders view themselves as leaders in response to the non-linear path of leadership experience. Leadership is inherently focused on influencing others, but we are likely to see indicators of development in how leaders perceive and assess themselves. We want to stay open to the possibility that leader development changes different parts of ourselves – inward as well as outward perceptions – even if we only see behavioral changes in terms of how they develop others around them. Within the context of multi-source feedback, self-assessments are done using the same metrics, allowing raters to compare their own views to how they are perceived by their peers, supervisors, and if applicable, their subordinates.

Previous research provides theoretical insight for how people may assess themselves when stepping into and out of a formal leadership role. Overestimation is one of the most common biases in a variety of assessments (Lichtenstein & Fischhoff, 1977), to include a positive bias on assessments of their own strengths and achievements (Dunning et al., 1989; Krueger & Mueller, 2002; Svenson, 1981). This can manifest through overestimation of skills, influence, or performance, overplacement when comparing oneself to others, or overprecision with regards to one's confidence about knowing the truth (Moore & Schatz, 2017).

One factor influencing the level of overconfidence is knowledge about a task, or intellect. In studying simple task completion in a laboratory, a complex relationship emerged between knowledge about a task and the level of overconfidence, with the most knowledgeable actually

demonstrating a level of underconfidence (Lichtenstein & Fischhoff, 1977). Additionally, Kruger & Dunning (2002) find that poor performers are less accurate in self-assessments of how they performed on cognitive reasoning tasks. Amidst these findings, it is prudent to control for both academic and military performance scores, controlling for any effect of intellect or leadership capability.

Predicting changes from stepping into a formal organizational leadership role for the first time could be informed by the perception of task difficulty. Despite the tendency toward overestimation and overconfidence, people underestimate themselves and their performance on more difficult tasks (Burson et al., 2006; Klar & Giladi, 1997; Kruger, 1999). In stepping into a complex task such as leadership that requires both organizational and interpersonal skills, people may recognize its inherent difficulty, and assess their abilities or performance lower than before. We leverage this idea to propose:

Hypothesis 3a: Self-assessment scores from those currently occupying leadership roles will be lower due to the perception of task difficulty

Once an early-stage leader steps out of the formal – and more difficult – leadership role, can we expect their underestimation to fade, resulting in more positive self-assessments? We combine the findings of overconfidence on less difficult tasks with leader development literature and the benefits of direct experience on development of skills and knowledge to inform our hypotheses about the effect of the non-linear experiential path. We expect an early-stage leader's self-assessments to increase upon completion of a formal leadership role, to a higher extent than before their experience, due to their ability to experiment and engage with the leadership role, their increased skill and knowledge development, and reduced doubt from a less complex role. This combination of findings suggests:

Hypothesis 3b: Self-assessment scores from those having departed leadership roles will be higher than before or during leadership role occupation due to increased confidence.

DATA AND FINDINGS

Data Sample and Variables

The data used to analyze the effect of leader role occupation was collected from the United States Military Academy (USMA) at West Point through Project Areté, a Templeton grant-funded project focused on character development. In June 2020, West Point provided demographic, performance, and feedback data variables (all secondary data) for cadets in current and previous classes from graduation years 2016-2023. I excluded feedback data collected prior to the fall of 2018, as the feedback report scale and score definitions changed. I further reduced my data sample to include only cadet raters in their 3rd and 4th years based on the roles that would allow me to compare leaders and non-leaders with the most similar surrounding contextual factors.

The resulting sample consisted of 3,338 cadet raters (22.3% female, $Age = 18-27$, $SD_{age} = 0.967$) from three cohorts (classes of 2019, 2020, and 2021) over four semesters (Fall of 2018 to Spring of 2020), while they were 3rd and 4th-year cadets⁷. Table 2.1 shows gender and racial demographics for the population of raters.

Within the dataset, cadets were identified as occupying a leader or non-leader role at each of the time points, and both groups conducted self, peer, and upward feedback evaluations at each time point, allowing for cross-sectional comparison, controlling for time. As only those in leadership roles had

Table 2.1. Unique rater demographics

	Raters	
	n	%
Total	3338	100%
Male	2593	77.7%
Female	745	22.3%
White	2186	65.5%
Black	451	13.5%
Asian	296	8.9%
Hispanic	303	9.1%
Other	102	3.1%

¹This count includes all 3rd & 4th-year cadets from YG 19, 20, and 21 during fall & spring semesters of AY 19 & 20 (4 semesters).

⁷ In the fall of 2018 and spring of 2019, the class of 2019 cadets were in their 4th year, and the class of 2020 cadets were in their 3rd year. In the fall of 2019 and spring of 2020, the class of 2020 cadets were in their 4th year, and the class of 2021 cadets were in their 3rd year.

direct-reports for whom to provide downward feedback, this did not allow comparison for non-leaders, and I excluded these feedback reports. At each time point, cadets completed 1 self-evaluation, 1 upward evaluation, and 1 peer evaluation.

Feedback evaluation items. The assessment evaluation used for the 360-degree feedback was created by the institution (USMA) to align with the US Army's desired traits for an Army Officer. It consists of 23 items, listed in Table 2.2, with full definitions shown in Appendix A. Each item is measured on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 being "Unsatisfactory," 2 as "Below Pace," 3 as "At Pace," 4 as "Ahead of Pace," and 5 as "Exceptional". A "Not Observed" rating allows individuals to not assess that particular item if they do not feel like they have enough information upon which to base an assessment.

Table 2.2. Feedback items in USMA Periodical Development Report

Army Values	Empathy	Leads by Example	Prepares Self
Builds Trust	Expertise	Leads Others	Resilience
Communicates	Extends Influence Beyond Chain of Command	Mental Agility	Sound Judgment
Confidence	Gets Results	Military / Professional Bearing	Stewards the Profession
Develops Others	Innovation	Physical Fitness	Warrior / Service Ethos
Discipline	Interpersonal Tact	Positive Environment	

Measures

Rater Leader Role. The primary independent variable (IV) is a dummy variable coded as 1 for raters who are assigned to a formal leadership role during that semester, as indicated by receiving one or more subordinate (upward) reports (and providing 1 or more supervisor (downward) reports) in their 360-degree feedback during that time.

Feedback Scores. The primary dependent variable (DV) – *Feedback Average* – is an average of all 23 feedback items (accounting for any N/A responses), with $\alpha = 0.968$; the continuous variable ranges from 1.0-5.0.⁸

Feedback Direction. This 2-category variable indicates the direction or source of the feedback evaluation: self and other; for robustness checks, analysis is also run on a 3-category variable separating reports on others into peer and upward feedback.

Control Variables.

Time is a 4-category variable, including fall and spring semesters of academic years 2019 and 2020. The reference category is 19-1 (fall of AY19).

Gender is a binary response variable, with Male as the reference category (both rater and ratee).

Race is a 5-category response variable (white, black, Asian, Hispanic, other) with white as the reference category⁹ (both rater and ratee).

Rater class and *ratee class* are both two-category variables indicating the rater's (or ratee's) progress through the four-year development system; the main dataset includes only raters and ratees in their 3rd and 4th year, with 3rd year serving as the reference category.

Military Performance Grade is a continuous variable (range 0-4.33, mean-centered) indicating the formal grade assigned for the ratee's role performance and any military coursework that semester. This is provided by a member of the institution, rather than a peer emerging leader. Though direct experience provides an opportunity for development, various

⁸ I explored the idea that direct experience may affect different types of skills, such as competence or interpersonal dynamics. I explored this possibility through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, resulting in 5 factors each with 4-5 items, generally described as warmth (or interpersonal skills), competence, agency, influence, and values. However, there was no differences in the patterns of findings for the factors as outcomes when compared with average feedback scores.

⁹ The original ethnicity measure includes seven factor levels; American Indian/Alaskan and Pacific Island were collapsed into the "Other" category due to small numbers. Using a 5-category variable for ethnicity did substantively affect any analysis outcomes. The full dataset includes 176 reports with N/A for rater race and 12 for ratee race, which will be excluded in the regression analysis when those controls are included.

levels of awareness, cognitive processing, and performance are shown to affect development (Dechant, 1989; Robinson & Wick, 1992).

Ratee Leader Role. This is a dummy variable coded as 1 for ratees who are assigned to a formal leadership role similar to the criteria for *rater leader role*. A potential confounding variable for feedback is the identity of the feedback recipient. It's possible that emerging leaders may evaluate peer leaders differently than peer non-leaders based on their status.

Additional control variables were included in tests for robustness, but did not result in any substantive difference in results, or improved model fit.¹⁰ Table 2.3 shows descriptive statistics for the total number of evaluations conducted by cadets in leader and non-leader roles, and by report type. Feedback to others consists of peer and upward feedback reports combined.¹¹

Table 2.3. Descriptive statistics by role and feedback direction

	Reports n	Feedback Score	
		Mean	s.d.
All Reports	25,582	3.70	0.55
Non-Leader	10,842	3.71	0.56
Self	3,781	3.61	0.47
Peer	3,575	3.70	0.58
Upward	3,486	3.84	0.60
Leader	14,740	3.68	0.55
Self	4,794	3.64	0.48
Peer	4,852	3.64	0.57
Upward	4,914	3.76	0.57

¹The full dataset includes all feedback reports from 3rd & 4th-year cadets from YG 19, 20, and 21 during fall & spring semesters of AY 19 & 20 (4 semesters total).

Analysis

To analyze the effects of occupying a leader role, I ran a series of multi-level linear regression models using the lmer function in R, analyzing feedback reports nested within raters.

¹⁰ *Recruited athlete* (ratee) is a binary response variable, with non-athletes as the reference category. The experience and perceptions of varsity athletes can differ from non-athletes due to significant time and travel requirements for practices and competitions. This can reduce their availability for leadership and social interactions with those providing their external subjective performance assessments (peers, supervisors, and subordinates). *Prep School* (ratee) is a binary response variable, controlling for those who attended the United States Military Academy Preparatory School, and thus had one additional year of military training.

¹¹ The discrepancy in the number of leader and non-leader evaluations stems from an imbalance in the total number of leader vs. non-leader positions (approximately 60% of 3rd-year cadets are in leader roles, and approximately 20% of 4th-year cadets are in leader roles each semester).

I allowed for random intercepts and accounted for repeated measures of both rater and ratee (Goldstein, 1986; Long, 2012).

Results

The first set of analyses looked at the main effect of the rater's leader role status on average feedback score provided. It used the full dataset, consisting of all feedback reports submitted by 3rd and 4th year cadets at 4 time points (report n=25,582, rater n=3,338).

The regression output for this first set of models is shown in Table 2.4. Model 1 shows a significant negative correlation between cadets being in a leadership role and the average feedback scores they provided ($p < 0.01$), while Model 2 separates the effect of rater leader status on feedback reports for self and others and shows that the negative effect of leader role occupation only holds for feedback toward others (combined peers and supervisors). This effect held after controlling for both rater demographics and performance (Model 3) and ratee demographics and performance (Model 4)¹². A comparison of means showed no significant difference in self-evaluation scores between leaders and non-leaders. Figure 2.2 shows the pattern visually.

Noticing a significant negative correlation between 4th-year raters and average feedback score, and understanding the contextual differences in leader responsibilities and the much less random assignment process in the 4th year, I ran the same analysis on a subset of the data consisting of only 3rd-year cadet raters. While the patterns remained the same, the basis for practical recommendations may be more robust based on a more appropriate population for

¹² Including additional controls (rater and ratee varsity athlete status and ratee attendance at the Military Academy Preparatory School) resulted in no substantive or significant difference in the effect of the rater leader status, no increase in variance accounted for, and no improvement in model fit. Additional analysis of peer evaluations considering leader status of evaluation recipient (ratee) showed no significant difference in feedback; leaders provided lower feedback to peers regardless of the ratee leader status.

Table 2.4. Multi-level linear regression models: Feedback average score predicted by rater leader status and feedback report direction

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
(Intercept)	3.710 *** (0.01)	3.633 *** (0.01)	3.530 *** (0.01)	2.544 *** (0.06)
Rater: Leader (re: Self)	-0.044 *** (0.01)	0.008 (0.01)	-0.013 (0.01)	-0.012 (0.01)
Feedback: Others		0.126 *** (0.01)	0.131 *** (0.01)	0.077 *** (0.01)
Rater Leader: Feedback Others		-0.084 *** (0.01)	-0.085 *** (0.01)	-0.052 *** (0.01)
time: 19-2			0.034 *** (0.01)	0.037 *** (0.01)
time: 20-1			-0.070 *** (0.01)	-0.090 *** (0.01)
time: 20-2			0.029 ** (0.01)	0.012 (0.01)
Rater: Female			-0.035 * (0.02)	-0.035 * (0.02)
Rater: Asian			-0.003 (0.02)	0.007 (0.02)
Rater: Black			-0.009 (0.02)	-0.010 (0.02)
Rater: Hispanic			-0.024 (0.02)	-0.023 (0.02)
Rater: Other			-0.045 (0.04)	-0.046 (0.04)
Rater: Mil Perf			0.250 *** (0.01)	-0.035 . (0.02)
Rater: 4th Class			0.029 *** (0.01)	0.099 *** (0.01)
Ratee: Female				0.000 (0.01)
Ratee: Asian				-0.020 . (0.01)
Ratee: Black				0.040 *** (0.01)
Ratee: Hispanic				0.012 (0.01)
Ratee: Other				0.030 (0.02)
Ratee: 4th Class				0.205 *** (0.01)
Ratee: Mil Perf				0.357 *** (0.01)
N	25497	25497	25326	25318
N (raters)	3426	3426	3335	3335
N (ratees)	3320	3320	3317	3316
R2 (fixed)	0.002	0.008	0.068	0.140
R2 (total)	0.534	0.537	0.555	0.571

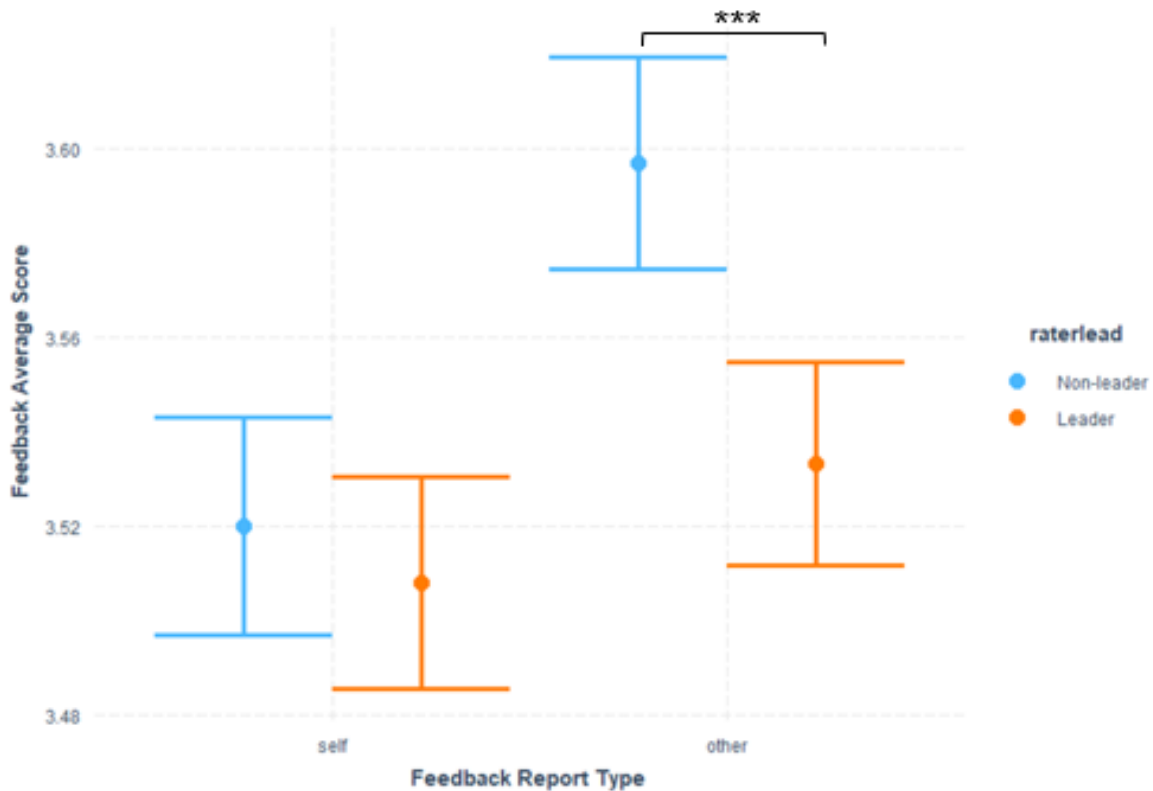
*** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05.

(SE is in parenthesis)

Reference groups (intercept): Non-Leader, Self-feedback, White, Male, 3rd class, time=19-1

¹ Dataset includes all report types, 3 cohorts, across 4 time points

Figure 2.2. Effects of rater role on feedback average



analysis. Focusing on 3rd-year cadet raters (with both 3rd and 4th year ratees) also provides a cleaner look at those who have not occupied organizational leadership roles (beyond supervising a single 1st-year cadet during their 2nd year); during the 4th year, a minimal number of cadets have not occupied a leadership role in the first semester, and it is reduced to almost zero in the 2nd semester, just before their graduation.

The second set of analyses aimed to differentiate the effects of stepping into and out of formal leadership roles on average feedback scores. The analysis was done using the same multi-level regression model, on a subset of data of only 3rd-year cadet raters (providing feedback to both 3rd & 4th-year peers and supervisors) at a single time point (19-1), from only one cohort (YG 2020) to identify unique effects of three leader experience categories – before, during, and after formal leadership roles – on feedback scores.

Categorizing cadets as BEFORE, DURING, and AFTER direct leader experience (formal leadership roles) was possible by accounting for the roles cadets occupied during the summer before the first (fall) semester of their 3rd-year. Sixty-five percent (65%) of 3rd-year cadets participated in a summer training event prior to the academic year, with ~ 75% of those in leadership roles (categorized as those who had a job title of “Squad Leader,” “Platoon Sergeant,” or “First Sergeant”), and others in non-leader roles, such as counselor, or “Supply Sergeant”.

Table 2.5. Descriptive statistics by rater, leader experience, and feedback direction

	n	%	Feedback Score	
			Mean	s.d.
Total Raters	1,135	100%	3.56	0.50
Male	896	78.9%	3.57	0.51
Female	239	21.1%	3.53	0.48
White	741	65.3%	3.57	0.50
Black	154	13.6%	3.55	0.49
Asian	101	8.9%	0.04	0.50
Hispanic	104	9.2%	3.55	0.52
Other	35	3.1%	3.48	0.52
n/a *	23	2.0%	3.69	0.49
	n	%	Mean	s.d.
Total Reports	3,351	100.0%	3.56	0.50
Leader Experience				
Before	791	23.6%	3.65	0.53
During	1,535	45.8%	3.51	0.48
After	983	29.3%	3.58	0.50
n/a *	42	1.3%	3.69	0.45
Feedback Report Type				
Self	1,146	34.2%	3.50	0.41
Peer	1,100	32.8%	3.49	0.49
Upward	1,105	33.0%	3.71	0.56

Those with this direct leader experience during summer training were categorized as AFTER if they were in a non-leader role in the fall semester and DURING if they continued into another direct leadership role in the fall semester (the time point for our analysis). Those who occupied non-leader roles during summer training, or who participated in other non-leader summer activities (such as an academic or military internship away from West Point) were categorized as BEFORE if they had still not occupied a leadership role (assigned to a non-leader role in the fall semester), or DURING if they were assigned to their first leader role in the fall semester.

Descriptive statistics by rater and direct leader experience status are shown in Table 2.5.

The regression output is shown in Table 2.6. Model 1 shows significant differences between feedback scores provided BEFORE, DURING, and AFTER direct leader

experiences. Cadets DURING and AFTER leadership roles provided lower feedback scores (Model 1), but

Table 2.6. Multi-level linear regression models: Feedback average score predicted by rater leader experience and feedback direction

Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
(Intercept)	3.655	***	3.542	***	3.554	***	3.551	***
	(0.02)		(0.03)		(0.03)		(0.03)	
Experience: During	-0.149	***	-0.029		-0.027		-0.019	
	(0.03)		(0.04)		(0.04)		(0.04)	
Experience: After	-0.075	***	-0.049		-0.042		-0.040	
	(0.03)		(0.04)		(0.04)		(0.04)	
Feedback: Others			0.179	***	0.179	***	0.075	**
			(0.03)		(0.03)		(0.03)	
During Exp: Feedback to Others			-0.190	***	-0.191	***	-0.132	***
			(0.03)		(0.03)		(0.03)	
After Exp: Feedback to Others			-0.044		-0.046		-0.051	
			(0.04)		(0.04)		(0.04)	
Rater: Female					-0.051		-0.037	
					(0.03)		(0.03)	
Rater: Asian					-0.029		-0.010	
					(0.04)		(0.04)	
Rater: Black					0.019		0.038	
					(0.03)		(0.04)	
Rater: Hispanic					-0.001		-0.005	
					(0.04)		(0.04)	
Rater: Other					-0.063		-0.090	
					(0.07)		(0.07)	
Rater: Mil Perf					0.064	**	-0.001	
							(0.02)	
Ratee: Female							-0.035	
							(0.02)	
Ratee: Asian							-0.053	
							(0.03)	
Ratee: Black							-0.072	**
							(0.02)	
Ratee: Hispanic							0.014	
							(0.03)	
Ratee: Other							0.081	
							(0.05)	
Ratee: Mil Perf							0.154	***
							(0.01)	
Ratee: 4th Class							0.230	***
							(0.02)	
N	3301		3301		3298		3291	
N (raters)	1125		1125		1124		1122	
N (ratees)	1727		1727		1726		1723	
R2 (fixed)	0.014		0.027		0.034		0.096	
R2 (total)	0.522		0.514		0.512		0.545	

*** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05.

(SE is in parenthesis)

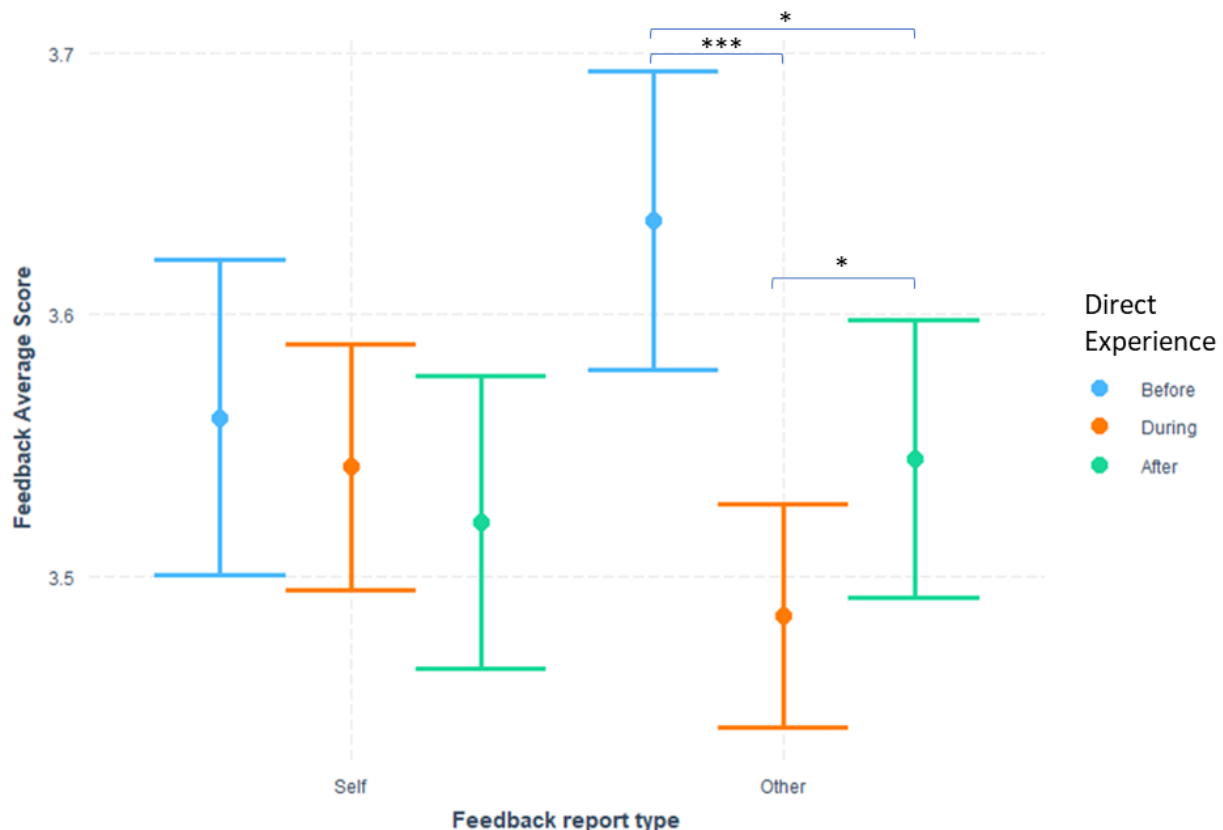
Reference groups (intercept): Leader Experience: Before, Self Report type, White (rater/ratee), Male (rater/ratee), 3rd class (ratee)

* Dataset includes all feedback report types, from only 3rd-class raters at 1 time point (19-1, fall semester; 1 cohort)

only to other cadets (not to themselves), as seen by the significant interaction terms in Model 2. This pattern also holds after controlling for both rater demographics and performance (Model 3) and ratee demographics and performance (Model 4). Figure 2.3Figure 2.3 shows this pattern visually.

A comparison of means for feedback provided to others across the three conditions of leader experience suggests significant difference between each of the three pairs. Feedback scores provided DURING leadership roles (mean = 3.54, SE = 0.026) differed from those provided BEFORE (mean = 3.69, SE = 0.031) by -0.151 ($p < .001$). Scores provided AFTER departing a leadership role (mean = 3.60, SE = 0.029) differed from those provided DURING the role by 0.060 ($p < .05$); scores provided AFTER departing the role differed from BEFORE

Figure 2.3. Effects of rater leader experience on feedback scores by leader experience and feedback direction



scores by 0.091 ($p < .05$).¹³ These patterns also held for peer assessments regardless of whether the ratee was in a leadership role or not. There was no difference in self evaluations between the three conditions of leader experience. While there was a nominal decrease in the means of self-assessment scores from BEFORE to DURING to AFTER, none of these changes were statistically significant.

In summary, assessments of others (both peers and supervisors) by those who had stepped into and out of formal leadership roles (AFTER) were not as critical as assessments from those currently occupying the roles (DURING), but the post-role ratings (AFTER) were not as favorable as ratings of those who had never occupied a leadership role (BEFORE).

Our findings suggest support for Hypothesis 1, with lower feedback scores provided by those serving in leadership roles versus those not in leadership roles. Our findings also suggest support for Hypothesis 2. Scores provided by those who had stepped out of leadership roles were lower than before entering a leadership role, but were significantly different (higher) than while occupying the role. Of note, while statistically significant, the magnitude of change was quite small (average changes less than 0.1 on a 5-point scale).

Interestingly, the self-assessment scores did not show a statistically significant change after occupying a current leadership role, or after departing that role. This null result held even when controlling for and interacting with academic and military performance scores. These results fail to support Hypothesis 3a or 3b. They were neither more or less critical of themselves during or after the formal leadership experience, regardless of their academic or military performance scores.

¹³ When feedback reports for others were separated by lateral (peer) and upward (to supervisors), the same general pattern held. The before-during difference was significant ($< .001$) for both groups. The difference between during-after for peer feedback was also significant ($< .01$), but the before-after difference was moderately significant ($p = 0.085$). Within upward feedback, the difference between before-after for peer feedback was also significant ($< .01$), but the during-after difference was only moderately significant ($p = 0.064$).

DISCUSSION

We approached our research with two aims: 1) identify whether the naturally non-continuous path of direct leader experience would contribute to unique effects on how early-stage leaders viewed and behaved toward others, and 2) identify whether behavioral changes from direct experience would endure or cease once they stepped out of the role. Rather than looking only at leader and non-leader status, our research design allowed us to identify both initial and residual effects of stepping into and out of leadership roles on feedback behavior. Our results are promising, as they reveal clear and distinct effects from each role transition.

Serving in a formal leadership role for 2-3 months immediately resulted in providing more critical feedback to both peers and supervisors. This could be driven by a sense of disinhibition as a result of being formally assigned to a leadership role and given a formal based of power (French & Raven, 1959). Those in the leadership position may feel both empowered and held responsible by the institution to provide insight into others' performance and contribute to their development. We note that this trend of more critical feedback held when controlling for numerous rater and ratee characteristics, including demographics as well as official measures of academic and military performance. We also control for cohort, as our data is collected from three different year groups. Not including leadership experience and family background prior to the start of the leader development program at West Point, all of the participants had very similar experiences prior to this measure of their feedback.

It is likely that leader experience affects people differently, based on characteristics such as the salience of their identity as a leader or a growth mindset (Dweck, 2016). A number of leader development studies leverage Leader Identity (LI) as a possible moderator to performance or behavioral changes (Middleton et al., 2018; Miscenko et al., 2017). The extent to which individuals see themselves as leaders may moderate the effect of occupying a leadership role on the feedback they provide to develop others. Additionally, self-reported questions around feelings of empowerment or disinhibition at time points before and during the

leadership role could provide clarity around our proposed mechanism as to why they provided more critical feedback.

However, we can infer that the behavioral change is not solely about fulfilling expectations of the leadership role as the post-role behavior does not mirror pre-experience levels. The distinct feedback ratings between those in the role and those who have since stepped out of it suggest they may have experimented with role-specific behaviors of developing others, but did not fully adopt those behaviors into their internal leader identities. Our results reveal clear non-linear effects from the non-continuous path of leader experiences. Those who participated in direct leader experiences, but had since stepped out of the formal role, offered less critical feedback than those currently occupying the leadership role. It's possible that these cadets resumed partial inhibition from providing as critical feedback since they were no longer assigned as formal leaders responsible for developing others. They may not have seen providing critical feedback as part of their new non-leader role, and held themselves back from doing so. Measures of self-reported leader identity and the extent to which they feel responsible for the development of others at time points before, during, and after formal leadership roles could provide greater insight into the mechanism and thought process between the dynamic changes to our populations' behavioral changes. I look forward to continuing to explore these explanatory mechanisms for critical feedback while occupying direct leadership roles, as well as what social or psychological changes may be taking place when they subsequently step out of the direct experience roles.

While our current data does not provide direct insight into the leaders' perspectives throughout their stages of experience, the relatively consistent self-evaluations suggest that the direct experience had the greatest, and most immediate influence on how they perceived and behaved toward others. Leadership – and direct experience specifically – is inherently others-focused, potentially generating less emphasis on their self-perceptions. However, this one measure based on organizational metrics may not fully account for changes in self-perceptions,

as the extent to which they see themselves as a leader (leader identity) may change without showing any indicators of change in self-assessments of their performance.

Although only a few months passed between each role transition and correlated round of feedback, our results indicate a non-uniform rate of development, where the views and development behavior toward others changed noticeably, while the views of themselves appeared to remain unchanged. The external metrics used to assess both themselves and others may be naturally incomplete, but the consistent feedback content – important indicators of leadership ability determined by the institution – minimizes the potential effect from different evaluation measures. It's also possible that a number of aspects of the multi-source feedback could skew the results – such as online versus face-to-face delivery, constructive feedback for improvement versus a current assessment, and numeric versus written, qualitative feedback – although these are all consistent during both leader and non-leader roles.

Theoretical Implications

We believe our research approach findings add value to leader development research both theoretically and methodologically, investigating developmental paths that are closer to reality, leveraging feedback provision as an indicator of leader development, and narrowing the scope of research to discern effects from direct experience.

First, we provide a strong contribution to both leader development and identity literatures regarding the dynamism in both the experiential paths as well as the resulting outcomes on a leader's identity and behaviors. Our research context illustrates one example of non-continuous paths of leader development, as opposed to an inferred unbroken or continuous progression of increased responsibility. Our results, however, indicate the validity of focusing on these role transitions and further exploring the unique effects stepping into and out of experiential roles may have on various leadership outcomes. Our findings, and other work on role transitions and

identity development, suggest some behaviors may endure as part of a leader's identity regardless of their current role and expectations, and others that may be temporarily enacted to fulfill expectations of a role they occupy (Biddle, 1986; Eagly & Wood, 2012). The significant differences in how leaders view others both during and after direct leadership experience strongly support the traditional story of growth from direct experience, but our complex results after people left the formal leadership role suggest the experience may have targeted both role-specific and internalized leader behaviors. There is a valuable opportunity to further explore or differentiate between temporary (role-specific) and permanent (internalized) outcomes of both direct experience and other leader development tools.

Second, we contribute a layer of complexity to leader identity development, suggesting that various aspects of one's leader identity may develop at unique, dynamic rates. In particular, we showed that early-stage leaders' perceptions and developmental behaviors towards others changed both as they stepped into and out of direct experience roles, while their perceptions and assessments of themselves did not show any significant change in either transition. Much of the leader development research focuses either on the development of skills and performance outcomes (Day et al., 2014; Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lord & Hall, 2005), or in how they see themselves through survey response or qualitative interviews (Hill, 2003; Ibarra et al., 2010; Komives et al., 2005; Middleton et al., 2018; Miscenko et al., 2017; Pratt et al., 2006; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003), but has not considered that these internal and external beliefs and behaviors may change at different rates, or interact in ways that complement or hinder each other.

Our third contribution adds to the methodological study of leader development, suggesting the benefit of feedback provision as a valuable measure of leader development. Much of the feedback literature for leaders highlights the value and process of seeking, receiving, and translating feedback into changes in their performance (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; London & Smither, 1995; Smither et al., 2005), and narrowly focuses on how to provide

negative performance feedback (Burk & Wiese, 2021; Larson Jr, 1984; London, 2003). An indicator of their development as leaders can come from not just changes in the feedback they receive, but how they are able to leverage their understanding of leadership, assess others' performance and contribute to their growth through subjective assessments and constructive feedback for improvement (Bass & Avolio, 1996; Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Kaiser et al., 2008; Larson Jr, 1984; London, 2003; Luthans & Lockwood, 1984; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Just as Luthans and Lockwood (1984) called for early on, we agree with "getting back to observable behavior in natural settings as the unit analysis for the study of leadership" (1984, p. 117).

Finally, another significant methodological contribution to leader development research comes from our research context and natural experimental design that isolated the effect of direct experience from other developmental activities, such as socialization, observational development, mentorship, and feedback. With the random assignment of some to leader roles and others to non-leadership roles gave us very similar treatment and control groups that differed minimally, other than the assignment to a direct leadership role. We compared those in similar developmental stages, controlled for a number of demographic and performance measures, and allowed us to cautiously discount the effect of socialization or other shared experiences on our results, as they were shared across our entire population. Admittedly, though we control for these experiences as similar for all participants, we cannot claim these effects would occur without them. However, this experimental research design and context provides insight that robust qualitative studies (Hill, 2003; Komives et al., 2005; Lord & Hall, 2005) and longitudinal studies of within-person change (Day & Sin, 2011; Middleton et al., 2018; Miscenko et al., 2017) simply cannot provide.

Practical Implications

The core benefit of leader development programs is experienced by practitioners: organizations and leaders themselves. Our research question and findings provide insight into

micro-transitions around direct leadership roles that encourage both organizations and early-stage leaders to take pause during the developmental process to evaluate changes in behavior, and what they might mean for who the leader is and will become.

We believe using feedback provision – rather than receipt – may be a valuable measure of leader development. Leaders often struggle to give quality and honest feedback, and emerging patterns may be an opportunity to give the developing leader insight about how they provide feedback. At the same time, organizations should communicate the importance of leader feedback by helping equip, encourage, and empower even those in non-leader roles to provide honest, valuable, developmental feedback. Many institutions value contributions of former leaders regardless of their formal position (Rynne, 2014; Tonello, 2020). Without intentional messaging and empowerment from the organization, individuals may demonstrate some inhibition to sharing their insights and contributing the value of their previous experience to others' development.

Another important note for organizations is to recognize the potential impact of direct experience separate from (yet interacting with) other developmental activities, such as general socialization, mentorship, feedback, vicarious or observational learning, and leadership education. Organizations should continue to provide direct experience opportunities to try out various behaviors, and to avoid the illusion of skill from vicarious or educational learning alone (Ericsson et al., 1993; Kardas & O'Brien, 2018; Kolb et al., 2014). Organizations should also take caution when evaluating their leaders' development based solely on behavioral changes, as we have shown that they may only reflect temporary alignment with role expectations.

We suggest organizations can and should leverage the knowledge from our research to identify and encourage the leader behaviors they want individuals to internalize and demonstrate regardless of their formal position, and incorporate periods of time away from leadership roles to allocate time for leader reflection and growth (Senge, 1990; Sitkin, 2008).

Both developing leaders and organizations can leverage direct experience toward specific leader development goals with greater awareness of its potential influence.

Limitations

Despite the strength of our natural field experiment to overcome theoretical and analytical challenges to researching dynamic leader experience paths, we recognize several limitations to our research, some of which suggest valuable paths for future research.

First, particular nuances of this research context may influence our findings, and challenge their generalizability outside the military or academic setting. First, it's possible that the strong expectations of entering the US Army and being assigned to a formal leadership role upon graduation may influence the development of their leader identities. It's possible that beliefs and behaviors they adopt through direct experience become more integrated into their self-concept despite leaving the formal role, reflecting a type of lingering identities (Wittman, 2019). If this were the case, any behaviors that are not demonstrated after leaving formal leadership roles may be more tied to role expectations since the salience of their leader identity remains strong. Capturing the extent to which someone thinks of himself as a leader before, during, and after direct leader experiences (Bem, 1972; Miscenko et al., 2017) may identify whether leader identity salience is a moderator to behavioral changes.

The unique context also makes it possible for several aspects to have unmeasured or unidentified effects on the leader behaviors and subsequently, our results. For example, for many of the cadets, this leader experience is likely to be the first instance of them exercising officially sanctioned leadership. The effects of stepping into and out leader roles may be tied to this early stage of professional development and moderate level of responsibility. Additionally, age and life experience has an impact on identity development, as the less established one is in their sense of self, the more possibilities remain available (Yost et al., 1992). Just as new leader schemas are built through experience, the self becomes more consistent and less easily

changes once their sense of self builds upon experience and grows connected to other parts of themselves (Markus, 1977).

Though leader development research measures effects of varied durations of experience, our focused experienced period lasts for 2-3 months, with the next data point only 3 months later, which may be too short to measure internalization. These measures of time would be easy to evaluate as potential moderators, including the duration of the formal experience, the gap between the formal experience and the next set of feedback, as well as the total cumulative time in leadership experiences.

Within the data itself, we recognize that raters may possess varied levels of familiarity with whom they provide feedback, particularly for their peers who are outside their formal chain of command. While difficult to calibrate such a subjective measure, we recommend including one or more questions about the frequency and extent of interaction as a potential moderator for the effect on feedback scores.

Lastly, our dependent variable consisted of an average score of 23 feedback items, which could be thought to vary widely. While the alpha of the 23 items was a high 0.968, the results of an exploratory factor analysis provided similar results patterns to the average score. However, we recognize there may be other psychological or social influences on the ratings leaders and non-leaders provide for their peers and supervisors, aside from the demographics and performance scores we controlled for.

Future Research

There are a number of worthwhile research paths to further develop the thread of dynamism in leader development and build upon our current research. This study intentionally narrowed in on the effects of a micro-role transitions, stepping into and out of a direct leadership role on one leader behavior: providing feedback.

Exploring boundary conditions that account for dynamic changes in leader behaviors is a natural continuation of this research, and will aid in expanding our findings to more generalizable settings. Aspects of both leader role expectations and organizational environment are likely to impact feedback provision by those who step into and out of formal leader roles. A valuable next step is to identify influential aspects of the organization by conducting comparative studies with a similar natural experimental design, looking at contexts counter to the total institution of the military and the strong likelihood of a leadership role for cadets upon graduation. Characteristics of the leadership role itself – such as the leader’s access to rewards, and their influence on careers and compensation – would also further explore our mechanism of disinhibition or consider the resistance and hesitation to provide critical feedback. Conducting similar studies within a variety of organizations could further validate our findings around feedback provision and the unique effects of stepping into and out of leadership roles on leader behaviors and beliefs.

Another extension of this study would be to further identify what aspects of leader behaviors and beliefs change during the leadership experience, and which of those change after stepping out of the role, separating the process of experimentation in action from the reflection, internalization, and future planning of their leader identity. From our behavioral outcome – providing feedback to others – we can only infer changes in perceptions of others, and theorize about the mechanisms at play. Can we discern phases of Ibarra’s provisional selves development (1999)? Can we work toward identifying the meaning or motivation behind behavioral changes? Our findings suggest there was no change in our participants’ self-perceptions, but a simple numerical measure undoubtedly masks nuanced changes that may actually drive changed behaviors. An expanded study should include numerous role transitions and data collection consisting of both feedback provision as well as self-evaluated leader identity, perceptions of their role, and other personality characteristics. A mixed-methods approach including qualitative interviews or first-person narratives would work toward better

understanding the changed beliefs and subsequent behaviors in the dynamic process of leader development.

To further explore the effects of stepping into and out of leadership roles, it would be prudent to identify what elements of time may moderate the effects. The duration or length of the formal experience may result in a fundamentally different experience, in terms of the responsibility or expectations to yield results, or personnel transitions and unique problem sets. Longer durations may also result in a greater impact on others' affirmation of their leadership, more opportunities to experiment with new behaviors, and increased salience of their leader identity. Similarly, the length of time *out* of the leadership role – providing time for reflection and integration of previous experimental behaviors into one's new identity (Ibarra, 1999) – may reveal differences in terms of carry-over behaviors from their previous role. Hirst, et al. (2004, p. 322) highlights this gap between “gaining new insight and grasping an understanding of how to best translate this knowledge into leadership behavior”, ensure we take time to “consolidate conceptual insight into procedural skills and behavior.”

Another important aspect of time to investigate is that of cumulative experience, and how it may affect leader behaviors and perceptions. It is possible and likely that those with greater experience may respond differently to the continued non-linear path of experience, showing less dramatic changes when one steps into and out of leadership roles in later stages of their career. Yost, et al (1992) suggests the rate of change and number of possible selves decreases over time, as the self-schemas develop in complexity and strength, and thus resist change even with additional experience (Markus, 1977). Bettin & Kennedy (1990) cautions that neither time alone, nor the number of positions, predict leadership performance, as the quality of experience, in terms of knowledge, skills, and practice gained, may differ significantly. Cumulative experience may also moderate the impact on one's assessments of their performance and future capabilities. A number of studies using repeated simulation scenarios with nursing students show a significant increase in both mastery of skills as well as their self-confidence (Cummings

& Connelly, 2016; Ko & Kim, 2014; Mould et al., 2011). The accumulation of leadership experience is likely to build a foundation of self-confidence and more positive self-assessments, but we would need to conduct a more extensive longitudinal study of role transitions to identify when this confidence takes hold, as our results suggest little to no effect from a single experience.

Though a number of studies have focused on the processes and the holistic impact of experience on their long-term identity, we may be able to discern the short-term from more long-term impacts of the dynamic path of leadership experience. Day & Dragoni (2015, p. 135) suggest that proximal indicators, such as self-efficacy, self-awareness, and knowledge, skills and abilities eventual contribute to more distal indicators, such as dynamic skills and abstractions. A discernment of these immediate and delayed impacts may benefit from a mixed-methods approach, combining self-reported leader identity (Miscenko et al., 2017), measures of performance, and qualitative interviews regarding beliefs about oneself as a leader and others they engage with.

Finally, we propose future research expand upon feedback provision as an indicator of leader development. In particular, we must identify what feedback provision looks like in an effective leader. Quality feedback is considered as constructive, developmental, specific and considerate (Baron, 1988; Peiperl, 2001); it focuses the recipient toward what they should be doing (London, 2003, p. 114); it demonstrates self-control in expressing thoughts and emotions (London, 1995, p. 181); it demonstrates skills in observation, communication, and empathy; and it reflects or aligns with organizational standards and metrics. Research should seek to collect and analyze more robust forms of data to assess its helpfulness or constructiveness in developing others, whether through sentiment analysis of feedback comments, or evaluation of the feedback by the recipient or a third-party observer. I encourage these studies to continue in natural environments, rather than laboratories, based on the importance of interpersonal

relationships, ownership and investment in subordinates' development, and care for personal growth as a leader.

CONCLUSION

Leader development programs and paths of direct experience have been oversimplified; they are naturally dynamic and non-continuous, resulting in complex outcomes in leader growth and development. Our research context and natural experimental design allowed us to observe the effects of stepping into and out of direct leader experiences, revealing non-linear effects on outcomes of leader behavior and perceptions of themselves and others. Navigating these role transitions resulted in unique changes to how early-stage leaders developed others through providing feedback, which differed significantly between role occupation and after transitioning from the role.

Analyzing the naturally dynamic path of leader experience has allowed us to explore the likelihood that behavioral changes result from both fulfilling role expectations, and internalizing beliefs about who they are as leaders, and identifying what behaviors they want to exhibit as a result. Based on the non-linear outcomes, these sources of motivation seem to differ in strength and immediacy of implementation. We also see a non-uniform process of development, where leader experience results in immediate changes in perceptions of others, but not of themselves. And we propose an additional layer of complexity as changes in leader behaviors and beliefs will likely differ depending on the extent of cumulative experience and one's professional stage in life.

Ultimately, leader development is an iterative and multi-layered process that requires personal agency in seeking out developmental experiences, coupled with personal reflection and receiving feedback to identify and evaluate changes. At one or more times in their careers, leaders will likely encounter tension between role expectations and their own self-concept and authentic leader identity. But direct experience remains one of the most valuable opportunities

to learn about oneself, others around them, and how they will lead going forward, through a collision of internal and external expectations. Leaders must respond to the responsibility given them to develop others as a key element of their leader effectiveness. This between-subjects comparison provides an opportunity to further explore the complexity of leader identity development, providing organizations greater insight to organize their leader development programs and emphasize behaviors they desire from their leaders.

Having presented a theory of dynamic leader identity development and looked at the tangible effects of a dynamic path of experience, I now draw on my personal experiences to provide a rich and complex illustration of leader identity development over time. In the next chapter, I illustrate how we can leverage our knowledge of the dynamic content of a leader's identity as well as the dynamic process of development toward mutual benefits of a leader's identity coherence, well-being, and professional success.

CHAPTER 3 – PERSONAL REFLECTIONS ON LEADER IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT OVER TIME

Leaders are continuously undergoing identity work as they navigate internal and external expectations, role transitions, and other life events. The previous two chapters highlighted a number of dynamic aspects of leader identity development, as well as its importance for personal well-being and professional success. People simultaneously strive for identity coherence and authenticity while also attempting to understand and meet organizational expectations and social norms. Through identity work – enhanced by cross-view perspectives – we gain greater clarity of and alignment between our internal goals and standards as well as those of our current role and organization. And as we incorporate other people in this process, we enhance both our awareness and agency toward a more holistic and harmonious identity.

My theory of cross-view perspectives and the potential effects of a non-linear path of leadership experience can be amplified with real examples, personal lessons, and insightful reflections. With an optimal combination of personal involvement and professional distance (Anteby, 2013), I present in this final chapter examples from my personal leadership journey: both of myself as a leader under development and as a leader participating in the development of others. I illuminate the value of cross-view perspectives I gained personally and in aiding or observing others, and I show how stepping into and out of leadership roles not only affects a leader's behaviors and beliefs about leadership, but also triggers reflection and redefinition of one's leader identity. With examples from my leadership experiences over the last twenty years, I also forecast a time-based element of development, suggesting variance and progress in identity development for early-stage, mid-career, and senior leaders.

THE VALUE OF MY PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES AND PROFESSIONAL DISTANCE

I approach this chapter from the perspective of adding value through rich illustrative examples, which come from a unique combination of personal involvement and professional

distance (Anteby, 2013). As outlined in his perspective article on encouraging the telling of our own stories in organizational research, Michel Anteby (2013) highlights the value of personal involvement as a way to capture otherwise unnoticed observations (Sanday, 1979), and suggests that involvement leads to more experiential data and sensations, and thus better theoretical insights. This involvement is most valuable, however, when combined with professional distance, reflecting the unique perspective of a scholar, which enables identification of patterns and contexts while maintaining a disciplined mind.

My personal involvement of leader identity development stems from a total and enduring integration into the role as a leader in the Army, serving formally in leadership positions, and informally through other administrative or operations-centric positions. I have personally experienced the development of my internal leadership standards and the enactment of external expectations while stepping into and out of leadership roles, and have aided others in navigating the same. Over twenty-five years of leadership experience – from my high school retreat, to cadet development at the United States Military Academy at West Point, to twenty years (this month) as an officer in the US Army enable me to see and experience the changes in my identity, to make connections over time, space, and relationships, and to describe a more comprehensive experience of personal development through socialization (van Maanen & Schein, 1977). I am a “researcher as an instrument of [my] craft” (Anteby, 2013, p. 1282).

The complement to my personal experience, however, is the professional distance I have cultivated over the last 15 years. I have taken two full-time academic sabbaticals from day-to-day military service, the first studying and researching Sociology for two years, and the second studying and researching Organizational Behavior for three years, which led to this dissertation. These activities, combined with teaching a core leadership course to West Point cadets for three years, have cultivated a state of mind (Elias, 1956) that enables me to relate to others and myself in a critical way, providing enough distance to acknowledge and resist normative social pressures that would bias my personal insights and degrade their research

value (Anteby, 2013). The combination of my personal involvement and professional distance has enabled me to construct general theoretical ideas from the context of leadership and identity development.

IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH SILOED AND CROSS-VIEW PERSPECTIVES

In my first chapter, I presented a theory to account for more holistic and harmonious development of leaders' identities through the use of cross-view perspectives. I first review the building blocks of this theory through a lens of application to frame the subsequent leadership examples.

What drives us: Both internal and external expectations and goals

As we navigate our lives and careers, we develop a sense of how we want to live and lead, what we are inspired or motivated by, and what goals or measures of success we focus on for our future. We develop these ideas by observing role models, learning through personal experiences, internalizing values from jobs or organizations we are part of, and investing in personal relationships. It's important – both personally, and in leadership – that we behave and select roles that validate our sense of self. Internal coherence is important for personal well-being, and identifying life purpose and meaning contribute to how much we enjoy our work, find happiness, and maintain our physical and mental health. Authentic leadership is crucial to healthy leader-subordinate relationships. And we must resist overidentifying with an organization to prevent impaired decision making, corruption, or weakened learning and adaptation.

In reality, however, we are selected, promoted, and retained based on our organizations' expectations and performance metrics (external to ourselves). We learn through formal onboarding how an organization operates, what values and goals drive their decisions, and how roles and responsibilities are distributed. We learn what is expected of us individually through

job descriptions and organization mission statements, and indirectly by observing who is hired, rewarded, and promoted. Meeting our company's external expectations is important to demonstrate we understand and honor the organization's expectations for our role.

Disconnected siloes: Why individual leaders struggle personally and professionally

Despite realizing both internal and external goals and expectations, we tend to compartmentalize this information in silos. As individuals, we struggle to make self-honoring career decisions because we lack internal clarity and perspective, and we receive impersonal external evaluations. These siloed perspectives – both internal and external – limit the accuracy of information we receive about ourselves, and we fail to integrate the two perspectives to create a more holistic identity with options and agency to take steps forward.

Early in our lives or careers, it is difficult for leaders to fully understand what drives our sense of ambition, joy, or purpose. As adolescents, and even into early adulthood, we naturally look to others – parents, mentors, or peers – to determine how we should lead and live (Kegan, 1994). As we begin to navigate a profession or leadership role, we mimic others to follow their successes or personal values. We also align with our organization's values and norms (Hogg & Terry, 2000), particularly within strong cultures. We may simply not have enough experience or insight into ourselves to have a clear sense of who we are, and how we want to lead, particularly without events to trigger an internal assessment.

Some struggle to discern why they want to pursue certain jobs, locations, or professions, or to act upon their desires. Ego and prestige can distract us from working toward purpose and life rewards for ourselves or our families. We can give more credit to others' evaluations of our performance and worth than we do for ourselves. Early in our careers, or in the midst of relationship struggles, some work excessively, searching for personal value from work when we're in a void from unsatisfied relationships. We may not have a solid grounding to keep us

from sacrificing ourselves – our physical, mental, social, or emotional well-being – for near-term professional success.

Even if we perceive a solid foundation, internal assessments can be difficult as leaders struggle to be honest with themselves. Leaders may deny the reality of their performance if they feel like they are failing to live up to their own expectations, values, or aspirations. They can also suffer from biases (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) and over- or underestimate their abilities and performance. Our understanding is ultimately limited when we only seek and receive internal feedback regarding our internal goals and expectations.

As members of particularly strong organizations, we also may not have space to explore or enact our internal sense of self. In large organizations that have seemingly endless options for hiring, or those with clearly documented and strongly reinforced expectations, we can feel the need to suppress or delay our internal goals – consciously or subconsciously – to remain competitive. Even though pursuing a relationship may be tremendously important to us, we may intentionally or unintentionally put it off by taking repeated time-consuming projects or relocating for a new position for the sake of continued career success and our external reputation.

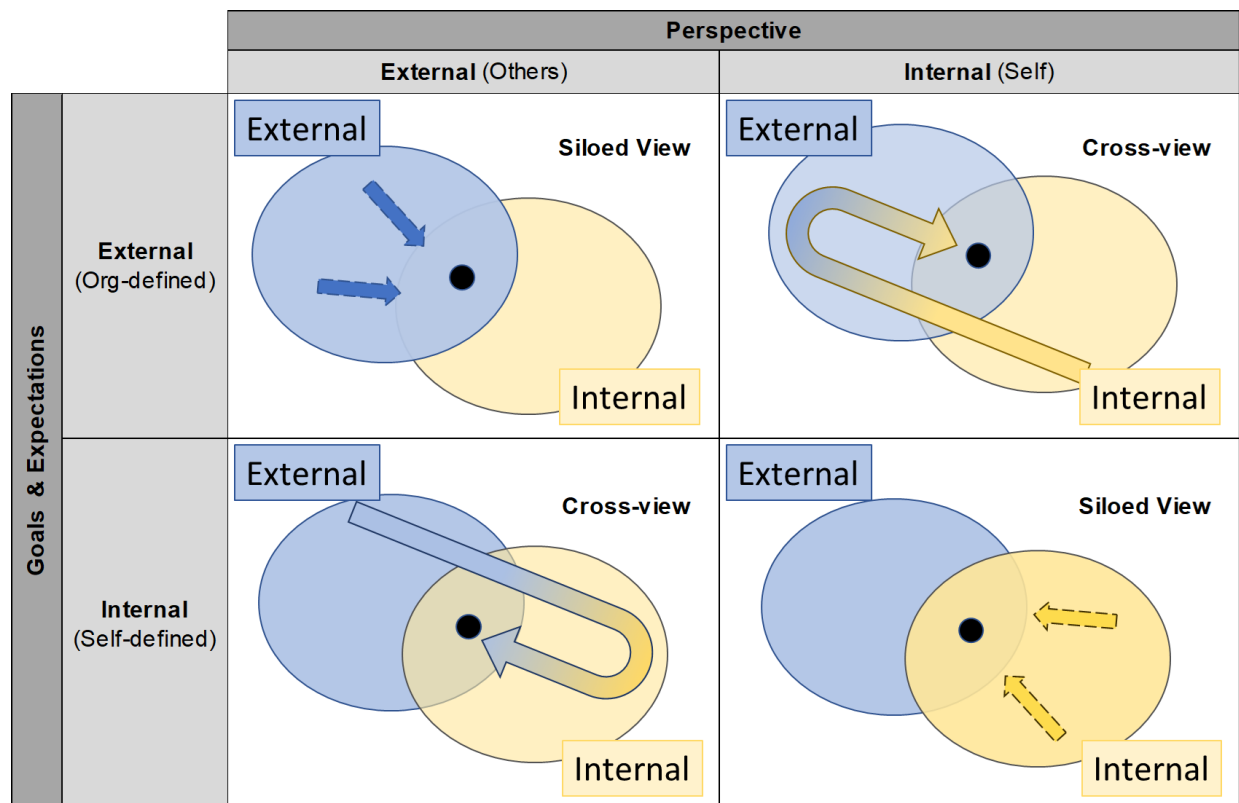
When internal and external perspectives remain in separate siloes, leaders stifle the development of more holistic and harmonious identities: they are unable to clarify and enact their internal priorities, and are unable to simultaneously consider the influence of internal and external standards or how they align. Internal values remain private and detached from the organization, and external expectations and evaluations are so loud and so constant, often discounting any individual considerations. This staunch compartmentalization inevitably leads to degraded personal well-being and unrealized professional potential.

Breaking out of siloes by integrating cross-view perspectives

As presented in depth in Chapter 1, I define cross-view perspectives as insights from opposite sources (internal or external). Specifically, we can leverage our internal perspectives of

the organization's external standards and external perspectives of our internal standards. Both provide opportunities for leaders to inventory the content and condition of their internal and external expectations, as well as the alignment between them. Figure 3.1Figure 3.1 illustrates the idea of cross-view perspectives.

Figure 3.1. Illustration of siloed and cross-view perspectives



Internal perspectives of external standards challenge individuals to understand and assess themselves against their organization or profession's standards in order to make sense of their current performance, how well they fit with an organization, and their future potential. Leaders can not only take more ownership of their tangible contributions, but they can combine this perspective with relevant personal information, such as life challenges, how they've grown from previous roles, and particular strengths they bring to the job. This can help them make

greater sense of external feedback and apply authentic strategies to meet these tangible expectations. This increased understanding will also build a leader's confidence in how to resolve conflict as they gain appreciation and understanding of how the organization interprets certain behaviors.

At a basic level, for example, a leader may be able to better meet the expectations of his position by adapting his time management to account for his family priorities, extracurricular activities, or health challenges. He may also recognize that his collaboration and team building are at their best when he works out in the morning rather than the evening. A leader can identify conditions that may influence his performance, and design a strategy to better align his behaviors to achieve greater success. Reflecting upon and personalizing the behaviors to achieve the organization's expectations increases a leader's awareness, ability, and confidence to work in a way that is both personally fulfilling and professionally successful.

External perspectives of internal standards can help both individuals and organizations understand what's important to a person, identify and take fulfilling and self-honoring steps in their career path, and make greater sense of both successes and failures along the way. Trusted others – friends, colleagues, family members, mentors, or coaches – can challenge a leader to clarify the definition or personal meaning behind personal values, leadership tenets, or goals. They can provide constructive and honest feedback about how well a leader's current behavior or future position aligns with the standards and values they've set for themselves. External investors can apply unique perspectives and experience to the individual leader's internal values and goals, broadening their ideas of future career opportunities, increasing confidence in their authentic self, and potentially gaining tangible support through personal advocacy for a new position or career change. In particular, external voices that are not tied to the organization can provide leaders personal feedback without any perceived risk to their professional relationships or future opportunities. Leaders may not be willing or able to be honest with their doubts or ideas for the future with mentors inside the organization, especially

those who have invested in their success, or who have narrow ideas of what their career path should look like.

Again at a basic level, a leader may have lunch with a close friend and share her short-term goal of connecting with each of her mentees. Through the conversation, the friend may contribute an observation about the leader's time and task management that isn't contributing to her goal, and recommend a software program that can aid in organizing her to do list. Before their lunch next month, the leader's friend checks in on the leader, asking about the progress she's made toward her internal goal. This accountability, support, and unbiased feedback is tremendously valuable to the leader in fulfilling what's uniquely important to her, which is not built into her performance evaluation or assessment for the next promotion.

Ultimately, cross-view perspectives consider the value of the alternate perspective – the individual and the organization – and make concerted efforts to understand and take them into consideration in how we live and lead. Expanding this concept to navigating our careers, individuals, mentors, and organizations each gain a more holistic understanding from both perspectives, allowing us to generate options that are more mutually beneficial.

Personal Examples of siloed and cross-view perspectives over a career

As a leader, I have undergone personal identity development throughout every stage of my career, but most noticeably in the recent years, as I gained greater maturity, self-awareness, and confidence in seeking feedback and declaring my professional decisions. I can see instances of siloed perspectives – both internal and external – and how they limited the maturation of the holistic and harmonious aspects of my identity. As I developed, my internal reflections remained riddled with underdeveloped self-awareness, personal biases, and blind spots. I resisted some external feedback as impersonal, and listened to other external perspectives and guidance without any scrutiny. The examples below illustrate the value I gained from seeking out and leveraging cross-view perspectives on the development of a more

holistic and harmonious leader identity. Additionally, I've had various opportunities to guide or encourage others in their own leader development journey and observe some detrimental outcomes from siloed or unrealized goals. These vicarious lessons further enhanced my understanding and insights of siloed and cross-view perspectives.

As I engaged in reflection, inventory, and analysis of these developmental experiences, unique and progressing developmental aspects emerged within three general seasons of a leader's career. Identity development and cross-view perspectives for early-stage, mid-career, and senior leaders present unique costs and benefits, likely impacted both by their personal – psychological, emotional, and social – development (Kegan, 1994) as well as the strength of the organizational socialization (van Maanen & Schein, 1977) and duration of organizational membership (Brown, 2017; Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Early-career identity exploration. Every new leader, particularly those also early in life, starts to navigate their new identity with a combination of their personal upbringing, internal values, and socialization. In my work with West Point cadets over the last decade, I had numerous conversations where these young adults and early-stage leaders were learning to navigate perceived tensions between their individual leadership pursuits and the expectations of their senior leaders and the Army. During one specific encounter, a senior cadet debated what job specialty he wanted to list first in his preferences. As a varsity athlete, there were strong expectations from former players and coaches that he would specialize a certain way. The external voices were loud: *"You will be good at this... this is the most exciting path... this is what everyone else expects of you... this will make others proud."* He honestly didn't know what was important to him, or how he would experience his future, and he didn't feel like he could share these doubts or ask questions of his mentors. He had some leadership experience during his time at West Point, but was still working to understand his passions and how he could best

contribute to the Army. The siloed internal and external perspectives left him in conflict, unsure of what path to choose.

Reflecting on my own navigation of this same decision 20 years earlier, I realize I had been taking inventory of many of the same voices, attempting to hear each of them more clearly, and trying to discern which was the most important. Leading into my last year at West Point, I had previous aspirations of attending medical school and becoming an Army doctor, but most recently had quite fulfilling first-hand experiences in cadet leadership positions and exposure to Army operations. In my 4-week summer internship with an Army unit, I explored a specialty that would provide logistics support to our Army medical operations. While I recognized the value of this specialty, I did not feel passionate about it, and thus had to decide which of the remaining specialties I would preference at the top of my list. A senior cadet asked me whether I was driven by a desire to lead, or to be a technical specialist. That simple question helped me reframe and categorize the 16 Army specialties to prioritize those that would give me the greatest opportunities to lead Soldiers at the core of my job. That prompt challenged me to identify the foundation of my approach to military service and leadership, and clarify the reasoning behind my first significant career decision.

A smaller example of external perspectives enabling the clarification of internal motivations came in my first semester as a junior instructor at the United States Military Academy. One of my students failed to turn in his end-of-course paper, which was an 8-10-page description of his leader philosophy and how the tenets were informed by our course content. When I explained that his grade would continue to decrease with each delay in submitting the paper, he replied that the thought of grades were not helping him overcome his anxiety about the daunting paper. Once I understood this about him, I sought to identify his unique motivators and goals. He was serving as a cadet leader over 6 junior cadets, and he admitted that he wanted to set a good example for them to follow. We were then able to reframe the alignment between his academic performance with the discipline and reliability he wanted to emulate for

his subordinates. Only by understanding his internal passions was I able to help him see the alignment between his internal identity and the completion of his external requirements, and spur action to honor both.

This assignment – the Leader Philosophy Paper – also included a requirement to discuss their personal leadership philosophy tenets with a self-selected mentor. In the hundreds of papers I reviewed over six semesters, a substantial pattern emerged where cadets explained how their mentors helped them clarify their own tenets of leadership, helping the cadets see how they also aligned with West Point's and the Army's values and mission. Because these mentors were focused on the individuals, they provided direct, external feedback tailored to the leader's internal strengths, weaknesses, personality, values, and goals. Some were also able to advise cadets on career paths and opportunities that best aligned with their passions, personalities, or technical strengths.

I also watched cadets observe and reflect upon others' examples to help them see alternate ways to demonstrate their personal tenets of leadership. As they explored early years of adulthood and formal leadership roles, they sought out on opportunities to refine their internal leadership philosophy, and explore how their behaviors and performance aligned with the metrics of success for military leadership. They took their self-assessments seriously, considering not just how they were communicating with and educating others, but how their subordinates, peers, and supervisors perceived them, their presence, and their competence. One cadet reflected upon and gained insight from her personal failures in creating a healthy culture within a sports team her senior year, gaining a salient sense of understanding, ownership, and commitment to adjusting her future behavior.

The benefits of cross-view perspectives in the early stages of a career allow leaders to gain more clarity around their internal values, goals, and priorities. They feel seen as individuals within an organization, but also build greater confidence as contributing members of the team with greater knowledge of and expectations for success.

Mid-career identity decisions: confirmation and redirection. In my professional experience engaging with mid-career Army officers, some have found themselves discouraged and unfulfilled by their jobs after 8-10 years, unable to see a viable alternative path within the Army to fulfill their internal goals. Some reach this impasse when they are faced with delaying having children or being separated from their spouse for a number of years. While they may have started their careers excited for the purpose of their specialty, as they progress to higher levels of responsibility and perspective, some find they no longer enjoy the ground-level operations and execution. Others aspire to new career paths and search for guidance and insight to both support their transition, and to navigate their future expectations. Sometimes when these mid-career leaders they look for support, their senior leaders, HR managers and even some mentors leave them feeling misunderstood and unsupported. They either walk away with residual resentment toward the organization, or they continue to succeed professionally at the cost of their personal life and mental or emotional well-being. Their siloed internal standards are unknown or unappreciated, and the external perspective seems rigid, with a pre-defined path of requirements.

A mid-level leader who recently joined the organization I was leading, communicated his strong desire to leave the Army. He had been asking to be assigned to a number of different jobs he would enjoy, and was not selected for any of them. Looking ahead within his career field, he had little desire for future jobs of higher responsibility, and was also discouraged by the effect on his spouse as they moved and she struggled to find work at each new location. He seemed to have a fairly accurate internal assessment of how he fit with the external expectations of his position, and in this case, leaving the organization appeared to be the best resolution for both himself and the organization of the misalignment between his internal and external goals and priorities. As in any career change, he will have to navigate the exploration of

his personal skills and aspirations, and determine how they align with a new organization, but the self-awareness he has gained will give him a solid place to start from.

These same conflicts have been resolved by others who leverage the value of cross-view perspectives to navigate decisions both large and small. On a small scale, I personally navigated a decision about where to live for a new leadership position, as I thought it could have – arguably – signaled my commitment to the job and connection to the team of fellow leaders. In this case, a long-time friend knew my propensity to stay late at work and self-sabotage my social life, which was personally important for my well-being. My friend was able to remind me of my life outside of the job, and how important it would be for my long-term personal and professional success, as well as my short-term recovery to enable me to bring my best self to my subordinates every day. While I had developed an understanding of my internal priorities and habits, this cross-view perspectives aided in a sense of identity maintenance or sustainment, recalibrating the behaviors and perspectives with new positions, and reengaging to remind myself of what is important for my well-being, and potentially less important of an unwritten external expectation.

In another case, a much larger geographic decision occurred when a mid-level leader colleague was encouraged by a mentor to request a position change to another region of the country in order to connect with his estranged children. The individual leader believed his unique and two decades-developed skill set was most valued in his current region, but he knew his family was more important than the next 10-15 years of professional success. He had occasional doubts about his professional prospects – indicators of strong socialization about a strict path to success – but he benefited from both mentors and friends who gave him strength to make a decision that supported his long-term well-being. They also reminded him that the leadership he provided to a different type of organization would also be fulfilling and meaningful, although the specific mission was different.

Another mid-career leader – a close mentee and former student – chose to pursue a specialty change, but was not selected for the Army's Fully-funded Legal Education Program (FLEP). As I had personally navigated overcoming the disappointment of not being accepted to a doctoral program in my first year of applications, I had some personal insights and strategies to share when she asked. I coached her through an internal reflection on how she was demonstrating her potential according to the program's metrics, rather than those of her previous and current organizations. As I had worked through, it would take her getting to know the program's expectations as well as the strengths it valued in its members and both translating her previous experiences into their "language" and further developing her capabilities and knowledge into what they would value and ultimately accept into their program. I told her with this reframing, she needed to fight and work hard to communicate why she would be successful and of value to their program. I then wrote a letter of recommendation highlighting her resilience, passion for military law, and leadership skills that any law school and military law office would be lucky to have.

My final example illustrates a devastating outcome to what could be oversimplified as the inability of external measures of success to overcome a leader's overwhelming unfulfillment of a strong internal source of motivation and purpose. In my most recent formal leadership position, I lost one of my mid-level leaders to suicide. While we can only speculate about the thoughts that ultimately overwhelmed him past the point he could bear, the pieces we put together suggested that he felt a sense of failure in his personal relationships and did not have confidence in his upcoming reassignment prospects. It is possible that he truly could not hear the external feedback of his current success and future potential as a leader. In the last several years, he had taken back-to-back challenging positions that left little opportunity for his relationships. It's possible that the severity of the strain he felt from his unfulfilled personal life left him unable to see in that moment the value he added and the purpose he served as a formal leader for hundreds of Soldiers and junior leaders. As his leader, I could not see the

detriment these siloed perspectives were having on his well-being, or that his personal definitions of success had gone unfulfilled to such a crippling extent.

Cross-view perspectives for mid-career leaders can be particularly important as external expectations and measures of professional success can become overwhelming or start to generate conflict with their internal sense of purpose or priorities. Those who are able to leverage mentors or colleagues as an external perspective on their internal goals and priorities benefit both from the validation and support for their personal aspirations, as well as information about less-known positions or opportunities that could fulfill their pursuits. Beyond information and support, they can also enable a leader through networking and personal advocacy. Less tangibly, external influencers can help reframe a leader's sense of purpose and worth beyond external evaluations or reputations, or help them see potential alignment or steps to reconcile tensions or a lack of fulfillment.

Senior leader opportunities and solidified priorities. In recent years, I've had a number of conversations with senior leaders facing a substantial decision regarding a senior leadership position, where they had input into the type and location of the position. With 18-20 years in the organization, most had gained insight about their goals and ideas of success. But at this point, most had also become more in tune with their family and personal well-being, as well as a real understanding of their strengths and weaknesses at work. Many leaders debate between two or three types of jobs with noticeably different levels of prestige, workload, and time for family. That was true for both myself and one of my close friends.

A close friend and colleague – a very successful leader – reached out to his long-time mentor to ask for advice and support regarding his decision on what type of leadership role he should preference. He was considering two very different positions: one was a highly sought-after operational position that was bound to support future promotions and opportunities, but that would also put significant strain on his wife and young children with late nights at work and

a lengthy deployment away from home. The second was a training position that was seemingly less prestigious and competitive, but that would have more reliable work hours and would minimize long-term work trips away from home. While he valued both opportunities for the privilege of leadership and mentoring young leaders, his mentor seemed to only reinforce the prestige hierarchy, and suggested his previous success and support somewhat obligated him to continue, as the organization was depending on him as one of the best. The conversation consisted of his mentor projecting a seemingly narrow-minded definition of success and opportunity for leader impact, and left my colleague frustrated and his personal priorities dismissed.

I was able to appreciate my colleague's situation and challenges, as I had faced a similar situation a year prior, and benefited from deliberate cross-view perspectives from some (not all) mentors who complimented my personal, deliberate evaluation of my own performance and potential in terms of the organization's needs and priorities. Of my top two desired senior leader positions, one was a traditional, operational unit within my specialty that carried an element of prestige and a traditional, hierarchical structure. The other was less traditional, overseeing a variety of specialties in a larger organization, with a more robust mission for the Army. The first consisted of more formal leadership and mentorship opportunities of junior leaders, and the second would thrive on informal leadership, as well as indirect influence on the success of the organization.

As I sought advice, some mentors pushed me toward the traditional route, based on their experiences and knowledge of the organization. They suggested it was the more competitive track, the position that might lead to greater professional success. I appreciated their insights. Several other mentors, however, affirmed my unique skills and shared their knowledge of the options to forecast how well I would fit with and be fulfilled by each position. They could hear my passion and recognize how valuable my personal perspective was to drive my commitment.

In addition to this mentor feedback, I engaged a professional coach who helped illuminate and honor my internal goals and motivations as a leader. She validated my internal standards and motivations as valuable metrics to consider in my next career steps. The coach asked two questions that enabled me to make the most personally-honoring and professionally successful decision: What can you only do in each job you are considering? How will each job affect your personal well-being? These questions personally targeted my internal values and perspectives. No one had ever asked how a job, a pursuit, would impact me personally.

As I thought about it, I realized that the first position would be quite isolating, as I would be the only leader of my rank in the area, with my peers scattered across a quarter of the US. The second position, on the other hand, would connect me to a large number of peer commanders, as well as staff officers, providing a stronger peer and team network. I also recognized that the second position would put me in a position as a senior female leader in an organization that was still very early in its gender integration. Lastly, the diversity of specialties I would be working with would give me an opportunity to build a network that I could leverage on behalf of future mentee leaders in their career progression, rather than limiting my exposure to my singular specialty.

After this engagement and subsequent reflection, I knew how I would decide. This external validation of my internal identity gave me strength to pursue the position that I knew would bring me the most fulfillment while also contributing the best of my skills and passion to the organization. Similarly, one of my best friends helped me frame the decision, asking whether I actually wanted to do the first job, or if I would just like to be selected for it. My coach also helped me gain clarity on my genuine internal drivers and passions and strengthen my agency to act upon what was most important to me. This external feedback on my internal standards helped me realize that I could resolve the impending conflict between external expectations of a battalion commander focused on a narrow specialty on their own and my internal desire to be part of a team focused on a larger mission scope.

One year into this leadership job, I know every day that I made the right choice. The affirmations came when I lost a junior leader to suicide and had a dozen peer leaders help me personally and professionally carry the weight of the loss. I value the many opportunities to learn from our most junior members, most senior leaders, and all those in between in terms of their specialties, and to cultivate a culture that appreciates and leverages the diverse perspectives to lead the organization to greater success and individual professional growth. Finally, numerous conversations affirmed the modeling I am providing as a senior female leader – to our most junior Soldiers as HR clerks, religious affairs specialists, junior leaders, as well as young daughters of our Soldiers and leaders. One young officer who was new to our unit told me that – as a 25-year old – she had been the most senior female in her unit of 600. Now in our unit, she was able to both be poured into, and invest in others.

Following the input of my preferences – about 18 years into my career – I participated in the assessment program for selection to the role of Battalion Commander, a significant responsibility and privilege of leadership. Looking back, this illustrates a key opportunity for an internal assessment of how I was fulfilling the external expectations of a senior Army leader. Part of the assessment solicited anonymous feedback from peers and subordinates over the past several years, who assessed my strengths and weaknesses in a variety of characteristics and effects on people and the organization. Armed with this feedback, a panel of senior leaders asked me a variety of questions, aiming to gain insight on my own self-awareness, empathy, and growth. I had received feedback in the past, but I knew I needed to seek out some potentially uncomfortable insights to stretch me beyond the flowery accolades that left me in my comfort zone and allowed my blind spots to remain.

I reached out to a former supervisor, peer, and subordinate whom I respected, and asked each about my weaknesses, with which I might struggle in a senior leadership position. It was uncomfortable to hear some of it, but they gave me the feedback I needed. From there, it was up to me to hear it, digest it, and think about I could work to improve, improving my

awareness of the impacts and perceptions of my actions on others. I had to do the work see how my behaviors and beliefs were meeting the Army's and its members' expectations of a leader. This internal reflection on external measures and expectations helped me overcome my initial resistance and see my leader identity and future potential more clearly.

While I received this feedback years ago, I find myself needing to return to it as I navigate new responsibilities and relationships. Those blind spots planted some negative tendencies and areas of weakness that I must continue ask for accountability to recognize and combat in my leadership. Just declaring changes to my leader philosophy and personal goals for developing a healthy climate of encouragement and personal engagement is not strong enough alone to pull me out of my tendency to be overly focused on task completion and excellence. But vulnerably declaring my desired behaviors to peers and colleagues has helped them remain more at the forefront of my mind and encourage others to help me see when I unconsciously stray away from my intentions.

These examples highlight the challenges of siloed perspectives on leaders' identities as well as the benefits of both forms of cross-view perspectives throughout a leader's career. Early-stage leaders are working to discover and clarify the internal drivers of their leader identity while also learning the expectations and measures of success defined by their new organization. Mid-career leaders continue to assess how well they are aligned with both internal and external expectations of them as leaders, sometimes responding to catalysts to reevaluate their priorities and navigating potential career transitions. Senior leaders – at the height of responsibility, influence, and potential for success – are often faced with questions of alignment between their internal and external values and priorities, and benefit from deliberate cross-view perspectives for critical career decisions and continued success.

STEPPING INTO AND OUT OF LEADERSHIP ROLES

My second chapter illustrated the dynamic path of leader development by stepping into and out of leadership roles and the inherently non-linear path of behavior and belief changes as leaders navigate their identities. Direct leadership experience provides leaders opportunities to consider both external expectations of the role and organization, as well as their own internal values and perspectives. First-hand roles allow leaders to experiment with the intersection of those expectations and – upon stepping out of the role – consider how they will lead in future positions, whether they consist of formal or informal leadership.

Personal Examples of Stepping Into and Out of Leadership Roles

In this section, I present first and second-hand experiences that illuminate the core ideas of responding to temporary role expectations and – through an experimental process of trial and error (Ibarra, 1999) – integrate some of those into my personal leader identity and subsequent behaviors. Insights from transitions into and out of leadership roles and changes to my own and others' leader identities again reveal career-stage developmental patterns, generally categorized as early-stage, mid-career, and senior leadership. An additional pattern emerged regarding changes in behaviors and thought processes when transitioning from a leader to non-leadership role within the same organization, and when transitioning out of the organizational context all together.

Early-Stage Leaders: Responding and Adapting. My first formal leadership position in my Army career came six months into a deployment to Iraq, as I assumed leadership of a platoon of 42 Soldiers responsible for patrolling highways for roadside bombs, responding to attacks on our logistics convoys, and securing polling sites for Iraq's first free elections. Just before turning 24 years old, I was suddenly the official leader of this team who had already served in their roles for six months, together. I had graduated from the United States Military

Academy 15 months before, with leadership and technical training, but no direct experience for what I would be walking into.

I found myself falling in line with the broad institutional expectations of a junior Army officer: learn the mission, provide purpose, direction, and motivation to my Soldiers, and listen to my well-seasoned subordinate team leaders. Though I didn't have the nuanced skills and knowledge of the roads we were patrolling or the dynamics of the area, I had general leadership, organization, and communication skills that I believed could be of value to my new team. In this case, my internal and external expectations for leadership seemed to align, as I listened and got to know my team members, serving alongside them on numerous missions and gleaning their knowledge as I gained confidence and perspective of my own.

One supplementary task I assumed was that of overseeing the maintenance of the vehicles within mine and three other same-size platoons. I had previously held a similar role in terms of the technical requirements, so I fell back on my previous experiences and expectations, which included strong organization and demands of timely vehicle repairs. Not until I was approached by a slightly senior peer leader did I realize the different context and requirements of my new unit, and the effect my strong maintenance policies were having on our Soldiers. I did not yet fully appreciate the long hours and continuous days our Soldiers were patrolling, and the unique schedule of support they required to be most successful. My internal and external standards for leadership of our maintenance team clashed, but the resolution occurred relatively quickly as I gained new information and re-validated my internal purpose and expectations. The first-hand experience directly molded how I wanted and needed to lead. I developed by gaining new knowledge and insights from my own reflections and from teammates that socialized me into the new team.

My first transition out of a direct leadership role occurred following my time as a platoon leader, just over two years into my Army career. I moved from direct leadership of 42 Soldiers as a platoon leader to a staff position responsible for the logistics and maintenance coordination

for a battalion of over 600 Soldiers spread across the western part of Germany. I completed the final six months of the deployment with the platoon, and was in the midst of planning their training and preparation for another upcoming deployment. The job transition did not come with a monetary raise, but it was an increase in responsibility and indicator of potential for future promotions.

Stepping out of this leadership role, I went from being responsible for *people* to being responsible for *ideas* and *processes*. My focus and external expectations changed from ensuring the well-being, job proficiency and training readiness, team culture, discipline, and leader development of my platoon to facilitating official travel, maintenance of vehicles, and transportation of people and equipment to and from deployments. The former required and expected me to be present with my team; the latter required me to produce tangible results.

I adapted to these new role expectations, and externally-dictated standards of performance, but what I brought forward from my previous role was the inspiration for who I was serving. Coordinating rail transportation of vehicles to the port for a deployment was important because the Soldiers who would be using that equipment used to be my “Black sheep”. Even though I was no longer their formal leader, they – and the 550 other Soldiers across the Battalion – provided me a great sense of purpose, energy, and drive.

I also recognized a behavioral change in myself after the transition that didn’t quite fit the new context. Having gone from a leadership position with a requirement for developing and teaching junior leaders, I was now in a more technical position with a mid-level logistics specialist. I was used to being engaged with the daily activities of my team and its junior leaders, and in my new role, I fell into micromanagement of my partner. I took forward the personal sense of pride and excellence in my team’s work, as well as my hyper-detail orientation, and it caused some strain in the work relationship until I was able to receive feedback about the impact I was having.

While I did not have this critical perspective in the moment – either during or immediately following the transition out of my leadership role – I can help others recognize their own transitions as trigger points to evaluate aspects of their leader identity. As an instructor at West Point, I had a cadet in her junior year decide to step down from the varsity volleyball team at the end of the year, where she had been one of the co-captains. I was able to facilitate her reflection on who she would be outside of this leadership role, and which aspects of her time as a co-captain she would carry forward into her leadership and staff positions as a cadet and future officer. Her immediate behaviors changed based on relief from the practices and travel requirements; her network of social and leader influence also expanded as she gained the capacity to invest in other areas than just the team. I believe she was able to explore herself as a leader more once she transitioned out of the very specific and structured role of captainship.

In the early stage of leadership, transitions may yield more behavioral adaptations in line with the changes in external expectations and standards than conscious analysis and projection of one's future self as a leader. I started to recognize some of the internal drivers that developed during my previous leadership role, but even in retrospect, did not consider how I would sustain and honor those aspects of my identities going forward. My identity at the time seemed to be related and responsive to my immediate context.

Mid-career Leaders: Finding Purpose and Application. Another significant transition occurred eight years into my military career as I relinquished command of a company in route to study Sociology full time for two years. My first transition out of a formal leadership role also entailed a geographical move (approximately 40 miles), but it paled in comparison to the move from Missouri to North Carolina, and changing contexts from wearing a uniform each day and being responsible for 172 Soldiers to wearing college attire and being responsible for only myself. The external expectations had few similarities, and I believe this facilitated, even required, a deliberate internal assessment of who I was as a leader.

For almost the full two years, I struggled with feeling a sense of purpose. I departed my previous unit just 90 days prior to their upcoming deployment, and the work they were doing and the danger they encountered made my class schedule and homework requirements feel inconsequential. I anticipated feeling this way before I left, to which one of my colleagues responded that I was investing in myself in a way that would have exponential effects on the next generation of Army officers, as well as their future Soldiers. I internalized that as a foundational source of motivation to give me the purpose I could not draw from my external surroundings. I leveraged this aspect of my leader identity to envision my future self, and search for opportunities to invest in myself and others in order to arrive at my next role best prepared.

While looking ahead, I responded to immediate opportunities to share insights and invest in others in line with who I was and who I wanted to be as a leader. I gave two guest lectures on war in an undergraduate Social Problems course to challenge my own expression and explanation of the human nature of leadership and the impacts of the strains of combat, and to enlighten a small group of young adults on the complex personal and social challenges their peers were navigating. I applied for and was accepted as a visiting instructor for the Reserve Officer Training Course (ROTC) program, and instructed the sophomore-year Military Science course. Throughout that semester I channeled my internal passion for leader development and experimented with techniques and my communication style for this new instructor – and informal leadership – role.

I also leveraged this time away from the demands and responsibilities of formal leadership to change aspects of my personal life that brought me more joy and balance. I capitalized on this privileged opportunity to breathe, to enjoy life at a slower pace, to prioritize more time with friends, family, fitness, community, and sports. I wasn't necessarily looking ahead and thinking about wanting to maintain these work-life balance activities in my next assignment; the thoughts were more about immediate gratification. Looking back from an analytical perspective, however, I can see that I gave myself positive feedback to that

experimentation and internalized it as a part of who I wanted to be as leader and mentor in my future leadership roles.

A second mid-career leader role transition reveals similar patterns of reflecting on purpose and finding immediate opportunities to apply that purpose while looking forward to the next leadership role. Through this transition, I stayed within the same organizational context and geographical location, and again increased in responsibility, task complexity, and future promotion potential. I transitioned from a role where I directly led a number of specialist junior leaders in charge of human resources, logistics, maintenance, and communications for a battalion of over 700 Soldiers. I stepped out of this leadership position into one where I had no direct reports, and aided in overseeing the operations and staff organization for an Army Division of approximately 15,000.

I immediately recognized the void of formal leadership and mentorship expectations in this new role, but felt strongly about expressing that part of my internal leader identity. Since teaching leadership at West Point for three years shortly before, I was more passionate about leader development and sharing my experiences and lessons learned to aid junior leaders in their own development and professional success. Within my new non-leadership position, I found a way to redefine what influence and mentorship looked like for me: previously it had focused on direct reports and early-stage leaders. Now I had the chance to share lessons and products with those just one to two years my junior, empowering and encouraging them as they prepared to step into their next formal leadership role. I again started to see how my core leader identity was manifesting in even non-leader jobs and honoring the purpose and values I held as a leader.

Senior Leaders: Charting a Self-Honoring Future. At the tail end of this last non-leadership role, I recognize a shift toward a senior leader mentality and long-term career crafting in tune with a clear leader identity. In the midst of a tremendously busy year, I navigated the

application process for management doctoral programs, committing to a career transition to informal leadership through research and undergraduate and graduate education. Though I did not step out of a formal leadership role, this transition – again out of my operational context, and again moving across the country – provided a significant catalyst to assess my leader identity and respond in my behaviors. I had time, and I took the time (to include many months of COVID isolation) reflecting on who I was at my core, and what environment I want to be in going forward. Some new behaviors included expanding my academic network in organizational behavior, and exploring research that would be both immediately relevant to the military as well as to the broader field of management.

As in my previous academic sabbatical, I continued most important self-honoring leadership behavior – investing in people – but this time with greater resources, a more expansive network of mentors and mentees, and confidence in the value of my insights. I was drawn to and encouraged young adults in my church. I co-hosted an on-line information session about career opportunities for junior Army officers. I shared my doctoral application journey for a friend's blog, and talked about self-development on a former student's podcast. Each of these activities – even in the midst of doctoral coursework – were energy-giving, consistent with my leader identity and life purpose.

A new realization during this transition, however, was feeling a void of being part of a team responsible for complex and rewarding projects. A friend made this suggestion as I volunteered for a number of leadership teams at my local church while undertaking a doctoral program. I not only participated in my school's a cappella group as a creative and social source of joy, but also volunteered as the treasurer. Similar to my previous non-leadership context, I sought out immediate opportunities to embody / apply aspects of my internal leader identity. But I was also aware of my capacity to contribute more in acts of service that contributed to a fuller and more rewarding life.

My most recent transition, just a year before the publication of this dissertation, is one where I stepped back into a formal leadership role. My mental preparation including learning about the unit and its upcoming missions, but also focused on trying to generate a guiding vision that my team could revise and collectively own. My personal preparation focused on previous feedback about my strengths and areas to improve, who I wanted to be as a senior leader, and what behaviors would contribute to a culture of teamwork, collaboration, personal fulfillment, and belonging. I wanted to be a vessel to teach, strengthen, and empower my team. And though I had these strong perspectives and an idea of the necessary behaviors to demonstrate them, as time has gone on, there has little time to reflect and recalibrate. At times, my weaknesses resurface, and I must seek out accountability and feedback to be the leader I want to be. While transitions provide us a catalyst to reassess our leader identities, we may also need to proactively engage in our own reset to ensure our behaviors reflect how we desire to lead.

LESSONS LEARNED IN LEADING MYSELF AND OTHERS

Thus far, I have reviewed the concept of cross-view perspectives and revealed a number of nuances from experiences and observations during transitions and across the career and life span. I conclude this chapter by sharing a summary of lessons I've learned around leader identity development to encourage myself in continuous personal development and investment in others, and for leaders to consider for themselves and on behalf of those they lead.

Leaders as Individuals

My findings, as well as literature suggest we have a responsibility to get to know ourselves, explore where we best fit, and ask others to partner in the process. Benefits can come from leveraging internal and external perspectives of our internal standards, and looking internally at how we are meeting external standards. We can recognize and leverage transitions

– within and between leadership and non-leadership roles – as triggers and reminders to engage in deliberate identity work.

1. Get to know myself. While this sounds simple, it can be quite difficult, and can take a significant amount of time to discern what values and goals are most important in life. Taking time to reflect upon different positions, interactions, and seasons of life can enable us to better understand what work elements bring each of us the greatest sense of fulfillment, what goals we want to achieve, as well as what we want to intentionally exclude from our professional life to make room for what is most important. Looking critically at the root of these components can enable leaders to look beyond a particular position, location, or organization as a false goal.

Guiding questions: Why do I want to pursue that job? Why did a previous position significantly drain my energy? Do I actually want to perform that job, or just be selected for that job? What behaviors and sources of motivation from this leadership role do I want to internalize as part of my identity? Answers to these questions will help you make more self-honoring career choices in the future.

2. Discern how well I fit with an organization. Engaging in an internal perspective of external expectations can help leaders account for individual circumstances and passions, as well as performance and potential. One of our most valuable contributions to organization is providing an honest assessment and level of commitment; this can help shape a leader's expectation as well as that of the organization. Our ownership in this part of talent management is an investment in our own career progression, and might also aid organizations in their deliberate and individual investment in us.

Guiding questions: How does my organization assess my performance? How well am I fulfilling their expectations of behavior and performance? Are my strengths valued, and do they contribute to the goals of the organization? Am I fulfilled by the work I do here? How can I add value to this team? Are there opportunities within my current position that can prepare me for my next role and my long-term career?

3. *Enlist trusted agents to support you.* My findings suggest the value of inviting a few specific friends, mentors, or coaches to help refine our goals, support us with accountability, and advocate for us in new opportunities. It takes vulnerability to share our internal thoughts and doubts with others, but trusted others can help hold us accountable to our true selves, aiding the decision process, and helping recognize and avoid regrets.

Guiding questions: Who have I shared my short and long-term goals with recently? Who have I talked to about what's missing in my current job, and how I might pursue it within or outside this organization? Who do I talk to about my leadership successes or failures, and about how I want to grow? Who do you allow to hold you accountable to who you want to be, and what goals you want to pursue?

Mentors and Leaders of others

When afforded with the privilege to mentor, advise, or supervise others, I aim to apply a number of lessons learned and approach the role with an open mind and empathetic mentality. Logically, each person only thoroughly experiences one career path: our own. Subsequently, we can often mentor and guide subordinates and mentees toward the known experiences that have led to our own success. As we move toward senior leadership, we don't want to discount the value of unique opportunities because they are personally unfamiliar, undermining and depriving others of the opportunities through personal discouragement. We want to recognize the potential detriment of guiding and encouraging in particular directions without asking about or acknowledging personal differences in what will bring personal fulfillment or relational well-being to a subordinate or mentee. We may also unintentionally fail to acknowledge the importance of personal life factors from different cultures, or see the impact of societal differences since their time in the same role. Our disconnected and outdated perspective may preclude subordinates from considering or supporting a path that differs from our own. I share these lessons,

highlighting the important supporting role of encouraging subordinates toward and providing cross-view perspectives.

1. Mentor based on my subordinates' passions and goals, not my own. This approach reflects engaged leadership, rather than rigid recruitment, as we advocate for both the organization and our subordinates to benefit from their next steps. My findings suggest the importance of keeping an open mind about the importance of their personal goals, and the impact on their personal well-being. The content and salience of their goals may be very different than our own. Even if our subordinates move on from our team or organization, they will leave with a positive experience and example of engaged leadership, and will likely be an advocate for our team or broader organization. In the day-to-day engagements, we can ask about what beliefs or behaviors are most important to them as leaders, and how they assess themselves against those metrics. We can aid in their development by giving them specific feedback about what they see as important to their sense of self.

Guiding questions: How much of my conversations with mentees include me sharing and encouraging toward my path, versus asking about their interests, passions, and personal needs? Have I asked my mentees *why* they want to pursue particular roles (or why not) to get at the root understanding of their motivation? How would I respond if my mentee said they did not want to pursue the same professional roles or achievements as I have?

2. Educate yourself beyond your own experiences. An opportunity to aid others in cross-view perspectives can come by expanding our knowledge about diverse opportunities within our organizations and broader profession. Exploring options that may be well-suited for direct-reports with different skill sets or goals can better enable us to partner in their personal and professional exploration.

Guiding questions: How much do I know about adjacent career paths or positions to my own? When is the last time I researched information on a position for my mentees? Do I ask my network contacts about their experiences to build my awareness?

3. *Use my power for good.* Leaders have a resource and opportunity to leverage the power that comes from our position and network to advocate for your direct-report's promotions or new positions, whether inside or outside the organization. Especially if someone is changing career fields or geographic locations, they may not have connections within that sphere, and our insights into their performance and contribution to a new team may contribute greatly to their long-term success. Both understanding a leader's personal motivations and having the power to enable the leader to take steps toward those aims has the potential to add tremendous value to their success and personal fulfillment.

Guiding questions: Would I be willing to write a letter of recommendation for a mentee to pursue a job outside of my organization? When is the last time I connected a mentee to someone outside my organization or career field? Do I offer endorsement to my mentees who want to pursue position or career changes? Do they know I would provide tangible support for their pursuits?

CONCLUSION

Leader identity development is inherently dynamic. It is a dynamic process, it follows a dynamic path, it yields dynamic results, and it varies across the career and life-span. The examples in this chapter from the last twenty years of my ongoing leadership career have illustrated aspects of both cross-view perspectives as well as the effects of stepping into and out of leadership roles. Their value stems from both personal experiences in my development as a leader, and in leading and observing others, with unique insights from my personal involvement strengthened by my professional distance from a critical academic mind.

From these examples, I suggest the variance and progression of identity development over one's career and life, building upon previous experiences and personal insights, and eventually looking toward the future version of oneself as a leader. The value of cross-view perspectives, and the changes in behaviors and beliefs from role transitions vary for early-stage,

mid-career, and senior leaders; I also expect the season of retirement to present additional unique dynamics. But while the emphasis is on the development of a leader's identity, the concepts and theoretical propositions expand beyond leadership to general identity and seasons of life. Ultimately, a leader – or a person – who is aware of and engaged in their identity development is one who will enjoy the greatest personal well-being and professional success.

CONCLUSION

This dissertation originated from a quest to better understand and articulate the complex content and naturally dynamic path of identity development. Rooted in research and personal experience, I recognize the inherent need for people to discover and truly understand themselves and what values, goals, and priorities drive them as leaders, but also to learn the demands of the organization and their definitions of success and how to achieve them. Both personal well-being and professional success are critical for leaders in their responsibility to influence and develop others, but also as they care for themselves and their families. This multi-layered composition of one's identity does not evolve naturally or come into harmony without deliberate and intentional awareness and development. While we often see identity work and leader development in siloes of internal and external influence, my work intentionally brings them together and explores the impacts on leader behaviors and beliefs from this collaborative approach. My work has both practical and theoretical importance to understand how leaders foster personal well-being through awareness and self-honoring, how they develop – in immediate and delayed, non-linear, non-uniform ways – from personal experience and with the help of others, and how to apply this knowledge and agency at various stages of personal and professional life.

I set out to answer how we can identify, understand, cultivate, and leverage the complex and dynamic nature of leader identity development. I started with a theory of how leaders develop more holistic and harmonious identities, focused on the individual level, proposing cross-view perspectives as a way to leverage others to aid in the process, and also take personal agency in understanding their performance and fit with the organization. Building upon this theory, I then explored two smaller segments of leader identity. I focused on experience as one tangible step in development, exploring how its non-continuous path affects the leader behavior of developing others through feedback and also reveals non-uniform changes in perceptions of self and others from these transitions into and out of formal leadership roles. I

then layered these concepts over personal experiences, providing insights about opportunities as well as challenges of identity development, and how the process and outcomes can vary and build upon each other across the span of one's professional career.

My collective work contributes to theory, research methodology, and practice around identity and leader development. I add a more nuanced understanding of leader identity development beyond the often-siloed approach of internal identity work versus external feedback and role expectations, drawing attention to the dynamic aspects of one's identity content, the path of development, and impacts on leaders' behaviors, perspectives, and career decisions. I contribute the novel idea of looking at the feedback leaders provide, as the ability to develop others reflects their own development toward effective leaders. Practically, my work has implications especially for early-stage leaders and professionals in general, informing and inspiring them to agency and intentionality in their identity development throughout their careers.

Each aspect of dynamism around a leader's identity development presents opportunities for further research, some of which I have already begun to navigate. The necessary continuation of my theory of dynamic identity development is a series of research steps to validate the proposed process model. I plan to conduct qualitative exploration to further craft the constructs of cross-view perspectives, as well as definitions and indicators of holistic and harmonious leader identities as leaders manage the intersection of external drivers and internal motivations. From this, both laboratory and field experiments would help validate the impacts of cross-view perspectives, along with potential moderators or boundary conditions such as personality characteristics or contextual factors.

I call on the field of leader development scholars to further explore non-continuous leader experience, expanding the focus to broader populations and considering moderators of time on how this aspect of dynamism impacts leader behaviors and beliefs. I encourage replication of my field study including both leader and non-leader populations in comparable settings and experiences to support causal claims of resulting effects. I challenge us to take a

holistic, yet detailed look at specific changes – those that are immediate, and those that develop over time – in both leader behaviors and beliefs, and how they interact. A multi-methods, longitudinal approach, consisting of both self-reported measures, semi-structured interviews, and external assessments can uncover both behavioral changes in conjunction with internal meaning-making. An expansion of this work to more diverse populations could also the unique effects of non-continuous experience as moderated by career stage.

Last, I challenge those in the field of leader development to engage with feedback provision as a meaningful leadership behavior. Text and sentiment analysis of written feedback over time, as well as recipient or third-party assessments of its clear, personal, and developmental nature would be helpful to identify indicators of leader effectiveness and growth. These results can also be beneficial to organizations in their efforts to develop leaders into those who develop others well. Each of these paths of exploration are ripe with opportunities to better understand and leverage the dynamic nature of leader identity development.

Despite the opportunity for further research, there is immediate action to be taken as a result of my dissertation findings. With an understanding of how cross-view perspectives contribute to more holistic and harmonious identities, organizations should design and require more dynamic feedback sessions, providing a template with questions targeting an internal perspective on external standards, and an external perspective on internal standards. Second, leaders should model and communicate their integration of cross-view perspectives into their own development, demonstrating the value of their increased awareness and agency to their identities. Last, organizations should communicate the value and intention of the feedback they require from their employees, whether they are in formal leadership positions or not. An assessment of the feedback they provide should be added to feedback they *receive* as an indicator of how well they develop others.

The weight of responsibility leaders carry to develop and inspire their people toward action continues to grow heavier as they navigate more complex mission sets, aim to provide a

greater sense of belonging for every member of their team, and sustain their own resilience and long-term well-being. But along with their responsibility comes a responsibility for us as researchers and practitioners to better understand and arm both leaders and organizations with knowledge of how to cultivate and leverage their dynamic identities. Leaders will continue to learn about themselves from direct experience, partnered feedback, and reflection, doing well to acknowledge the dynamic nature of their own identity, and the process of how it develops. It is only appropriate for the burden of leadership they accept.

Appendix A. 360-feedback form as seen by West Point cadets.

132

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alvesson, M., & Willmott, H. (2002). Identity regulation as organizational control: Producing the appropriate individual. *Journal of Management Studies*, 39(5), 619–644.
- Anteby, M. (2013). Relaxing the taboo on telling our own stories: Upholding professional distance and personal involvement. *Organization Science*, 24(4), 1277–1290.
- Ashford, S. J. (1989). Self-assessments in organizations-a literature-review and integrative model. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 11, 133–174.
- Ashford, S. J., & Cummings, L. L. (1983). Feedback as an individual resource: Personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32(3), 370–398.
- Ashforth, B. E. (2001). *Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management*, 34(325), 325–374.
- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(3), 472–491.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1), 20–39.
- Atwater, L. E., & Brett, J. F. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of reactions to developmental 360° feedback. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(3), 532–548.
- Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1992). Does self-other agreement on leadership perceptions moderate the validity of leadership and performance predictions? *Personnel Psychology*, 45(1), 141.
- Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1997). Self-other rating agreement: A review and model. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 15). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 315–338.
- Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 801–823.
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. (1977). *Social Learning Theory* (Vol. 1). Prentice Hall.

- Baron, R. A. (1988). Negative effects of destructive criticism: Impact on conflict, self-efficacy, and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(2), 199–207.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. In *Free Press ; Collier Macmillan*. Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1996). Multifactor leadership questionnaire. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*.
- Bem, D. J. (1972). Self-Perception Theory. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 6(C), 1–62.
- Berdahl, J., & Martorana, P. (2006). Effects of power on emotion and expression during a controversial group discussion. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(4), 497–509.
- Bettin, P. J., & Kennedy, J. K. (1990). Leadership experience and leader performance: Some empirical support at last. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(4), 219–228.
- Biddle, B. J. (1986). Recent developments in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 67–92.
- Bradford, D. L., & Cohen, A. R. (1984). *Managing for Excellence: The Guide to Developing High Performance in Contemporary Organizations*. Wiley.
- Brescoll, V. L. (2016). Leading with their hearts? How gender stereotypes of emotion lead to biased evaluations of female leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27(3), 415–428.
- Brewer, M. B. (1991). The social self: On being the same and different at the same time. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17(5), 475–482.
- Brown, A. D. (2017). Identity work and organizational identification. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 19(3), 296–317.
- Burk, C. L., & Wiese, B. S. (2021). How to alleviate the agony of providing negative feedback: Emotion regulation strategies affect hormonal stress responses to a managerial task. *Hormones and Behavior*, 127, 104868.
- Burson, K. A., Larrick, R. P., & Klayman, J. (2006). Skilled or unskilled, but still unaware of it: How perceptions of difficulty drive miscalibration in relative comparisons. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(1), 60–77.
- Cable, D. M., Gino, F., & Staats, B. R. (2013). Breaking them in or eliciting their best? Reframing socialization around newcomers' authentic self-expression. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 58(1), 1–36.
- Cable, D. M., & Kay, V. S. (2011). Striving for self-verification during organizational entry. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(2), 360–380.
- Caprar, D. V., Walker, B. W., & Ashforth, B. E. (2022). The dark side of strong identification in organizations: A conceptual review. *Academy of Management Annals*, 16(2), 759–805.

- Carroll, B., & Levy, L. (2010). Leadership development as identity construction. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 24(2), 211–231.
- Caza, B. B., Moss, S., & Vough, H. (2018). From Synchronizing to Harmonizing: The Process of Authenticating Multiple Work Identities. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 63(4), 703–745.
- Caza, B. B., Vough, H., & Puranik, H. (2018). Identity work in organizations and occupations: Definitions, theories, and pathways forward. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(7), 889–910.
- Charon, Drotter, S. J., & Noel J.L. (2001). *The Leadership Pipeline: How to Build the Leadership-Powered Company* (1st ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Cha, S. E., Hewlin, P. F., Roberts, L. M., Buckman, B. R., Leroy, H., Steckler, E. L., Ostermeier, K., & Cooper, D. (2019). Being your true self at work: Integrating the fragmented research on authenticity in organizations. *Academy of Management Annals*, 13(2), 633–671.
- Collins, N. L. (1994). Self-disclosure and liking. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(3), 457–475.
- Collinson, D. L. (2003). Identities and insecurities: Selves at work. *Organization*, 10(3), 527–547.
- Conkey, N. (2023). *Email Correspondence - USMA Regimental Tactical Officer*.
- Cooper, D., & Thatcher, S. M. B. (2010). Identification in organizations: The role of self-concept orientations and identification motives. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 516–538.
- Cummings, C. L., & Connelly, L. K. (2016). Can nursing students' confidence levels increase with repeated simulation activities? *Nurse Education Today*, 36, 419–421.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., Harris, A., Leithwood, K., Gu, Q., Brown, E., Ahtaridou, E., & Kington, A. (2009). The impact of school leadership on pupil outcomes. In *Citeseer*.
- Day, D. (2010). The difficulties of learning from experience and the need for deliberate practice. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3(1), 41–44.
- Day, D., & Dragoni, L. (2015). Leadership development: An outcome-oriented review based on time and levels of analyses. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychological and Organizational Behavior*, 2(1), 133–156.
- Day, D., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., & McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(1), 63–82.
- Day, D., & Harrison, M. (2007). A multilevel, identity-based approach to leadership development. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(4), 360–373.
- Day, D., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. (2008). *An Integrative Approach to Leader Development: Connecting Adult Development, Identity and Expertise*. Routledge.

- Day, D., & Sin, H. P. (2011). Longitudinal tests of an integrative model of leader development: Charting and understanding developmental trajectories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3), 545–560.
- Day, D., Sin, H. P., & Chen, T. T. (2004). Assessing the burdens of leadership: Effects of formal leadership roles on individual performance over time. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(3), 573–605.
- Dechant, K. (1989). *Managing Change in the Workplace: Learning Strategies of Managers*. Columbia University.
- DeRue, D. S., & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 627–647.
- DeRue, D. S., & Wellman, N. (2009). Developing leaders via experience: The role of developmental challenge, learning orientation, and feedback availability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 859–875.
- De Vries, M. F. K. (2006). *The Leader on the Couch: A Clinical Approach to Changing People and Organizations*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Dukerich, J. M., Kramer, R., & McLean Parks, J. (1998). The dark side of organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in Organizations: Building Theory Through Conversations* (Issue 3, pp. 245–256). Sage.
- Dunning, D., Johnson, K., Ehrlinger, J., & Kruger, J. (2003). Why people fail to recognize their own incompetence. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12(3), 83–87.
- Dunning, D., Meyerowitz, J. A., & Holzberg, A. D. (1989). Ambiguity and self-evaluation: The role of idiosyncratic trait definitions in self-serving assessments of ability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1082–1090.
- Duval, T. S., Duval, V. H., & Mulilis, J.-P. (1992). Effects of self-focus, discrepancy between self and standard, and outcome expectancy favorability on the tendency to match self to standard or to withdraw. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(2), 340.
- Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist*, 41(10), 1040.
- Dweck, C. S. (2016). *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success* (Updated ed). Random House.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3), 573–598.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In *Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology* (Vol. 2).

- Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(4), 1155–1179.
- Eich, D. (2008). A grounded theory of high-quality leadership programs: Perspectives from student leadership development programs in higher education. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 15(2), 176–187.
- Elias, N. (1956). Problems of involvement and detachment. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 7(3), 226–252.
- Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosje, B. (2002). Self and social identity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 161–186.
- Ely, R. J., Ibarra, H., & Kolb, D. M. (2011). Taking gender into account: Theory and design for women's leadership development programs. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(3), 474–493.
- Emmons, R. A. (1986). Personal strivings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(5), 1058–1068.
- Epstein, S. (1973). The self-concept revisited: Or a theory of a theory. *American Psychologist*, 28(5), 404.
- Ericsson, K., Krampe, R., & Tesch-Römer, C. (1993). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of expert performance. *Psychological Review*, 100, 363–406.
- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis* (Issue 7). WW Norton & Company.
- Fleenor, J. W., Smither, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Braddy, P. W., & Sturm, R. E. (2010). Self–other rating agreement in leadership: A review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(6), 1005–1034.
- French, J., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. *Classics of Organization Theory*, 7, 311–320.
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). “Can you see the real me?” A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 343–372.
- Gecas, V. (1982). The self-concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 8(1), 1–33.
- George, M. M., Wittman, S., & Rockmann, K. W. (2021). Transitioning the study of role transitions: From an attribute-based to an experience-based approach. *Academy of Management Annals*.
- Gjerde, S., & Ladegård, G. (2018). Leader role crafting and the functions of leader role identities. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 26(1), 44–59.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Aldine.

- Goffman, E. (1978). *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. Harmondsworth London.
- Goldstein, H. (1986). Multilevel mixed linear model analysis using iterative generalized least squares. *Biometrika*, 73(1), 43–56.
- Hill, L. A. (2003). *Becoming a Manager: How New Managers Master the Challenges of Leadership*. Harvard Business Press.
- Hirst, G., Mann, L., Bain, P., Pirola-Merlo, A., & Richver, A. (2004). Learning to lead: the development and testing of a model of leadership learning. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 311–327.
- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3), 184–200.
- Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 121–140.
- HQDA. (2019). *ADP 6-22 Army Leadership and the Profession*.
- Hu, J., & Hirsh, J. (2017). The benefits of meaningful work: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2017(1), 13866.
- Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(4), 764–791.
- Ibarra, H., & Barbulescu, R. (2010). Identity as narrative: Prevalence, effectiveness, and consequences of narrative identity work in macro work role transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(1), 135–154.
- Ibarra, H., & Petriglieri, J. L. (2010). Identity work and play. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 23(1), 10–25.
- Ibarra, H., Snook, S., & Guillen Ramo, L. (2010). Identity-based leader development. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.), *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice* (pp. 657–678). Harvard Business Press.
- Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D., & Taylor, M. S. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(4), 349–371.
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist*, 63(2), 96.
- Kardas, M., & O'Brien, E. (2018). Easier seen than done: Merely watching others perform can foster an illusion of skill acquisition. *Psychological Science*, 29(4), 521–536.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1966). *Social Psychology of Organizations*. John Wiley.

- Kegan, R. (1994). *In Over Our Heads: The Mental Demands of Modern Life*. Harvard University Press.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, 110(2), 265–284.
- Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, 14(1), 1–26.
- Klar, Y., & Giladi, E. E. (1997). No one in my group can be below the group's average: A robust positivity bias in favor of anonymous peers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(5), 885–901.
- Ko, E., & Kim, H. Y. (2014). Effects of multi-mode simulation learning on nursing students' critical thinking disposition, problem solving process, and clinical competence. *Korean Journal of Adult Nursing*, 26(1), 107–116.
- Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4), 616–642.
- Kolb, A., Kolb, D., Passarelli, A., & Sharma, G. (2014). On becoming an experiential educator: The educator role profile. *Simulation & Gaming*, 45(2), 204–234.
- Komives, S. R., Owen, J. E., Longerbeam, S. D., Mainella, F. C., & Osteen, L. (2005). Developing a leadership identity: A grounded theory. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(6), 593–611.
- Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2006). Where is the “me” among the “we”? Identity work and the search for optimal balance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5), 1031–1057.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 281–342.
- Krueger, J., & Mueller, R. A. (2002). Unskilled, unaware, or both? The better-than-average heuristic and statistical regression predict errors in estimates of own performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(2), 180–188.
- Kruger, J. (1999). Lake Wobegon be gone! The “below-average effect” and the egocentric nature of comparative ability judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(2), 221–232.
- Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: How difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(6), 1121–1134.

- Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (2002). Unskilled and unaware--but why? A reply to Krueger and Mueller (2002). *Article in Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(2), 189–192.
- Lanka, E. (2020). Becoming a leader: catalysts and barriers to leader identity construction. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29(3), 377–390.
- Larson Jr, James. R. (1984). The performance feedback process: A preliminary model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33(1), 42–76.
- Laske, O. (2003). An integrated model of developmental coaching: Researching new ways of coaching and coach education. *Proceedings of the First ICF Coaching Research Symposium*, 52–61.
- Levinson, D. J. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. Random House Digital, Inc.
- Lewin, K. (2016). Frontiers in group dynamics: Concept, method and reality in social science; social equilibria and social change. *Human Relations*, 5–41.
- Lichtenstein, S., & Fischhoff, B. (1977). Do those who know more also know more about how much they know? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 20(2), 159–183.
- Lieberman, S. (1956). The effects of changes in role on the attitudes of role occupants. *Human Relations*, 9, 385–402.
- Liu, Z., Venkatesh, S., Murphy, S. E., & Riggio, R. E. (2021). Leader development across the lifespan: A dynamic experiences-grounded approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 32(5).
- London, M. (1995). Giving feedback: Source-centered antecedents and consequences of constructive and destructive feedback. *Human Resource Management Review*, 5(3), 159–188.
- London, M. (2003). Job feedback: Giving, seeking, and using feedback for performance improvement: Second edition. In *Job Feedback: Giving, Seeking, and Using Feedback for Performance Improvement: Second Edition* (2nd ed.). Psychology Press.
- London, M., & Smither, J. (1995). Can multi-source feedback change perceptions of goal accomplishment, self-evaluations, and performance-related outcomes? Theory-based applications and directions for research. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 803–839.
- London, M., & Smither, J. W. (2002). Feedback orientation, feedback culture, and the longitudinal performance management process. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(1), 81–100.
- Longenecker, C. O., Sims, H. P., & Gioia, D. A. (1987). Behind the mask: The politics of employee appraisal. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 1(3), 183–193.
- Long, J. (2012). *Longitudinal Data Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences Using R*. Sage.

- Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2001). Leadership, value, and subordinate self-concepts. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(2), 133–152.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78(3), 167–203.
- Lord, R. G., Gatti, P., & Chui, S. L. (2016). Social-cognitive, relational, and identity-based approaches to leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Decision Processes*, 136, 119–132.
- Lord, R. G., & Hall, R. J. (2005). Identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skill. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4), 591–615.
- Lowy, A., Kelleher, D., & Finestone, P. (1986). Management learning: Beyond program design. *Training & Development Journal*, 40(6), 34–37.
- Luthans, F., & Lockwood, D. L. (1984). Toward an observation system for measuring leader behavior in natural settings. *Leaders and Managers*, 117–141.
- March, J., & Olsen, J. (2004). *The Logic of Appropriateness*. Arena.
- Markus, H. (1977). Self-schemata and processing information about the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35(2), 63–78.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *The American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954–969.
- Markus, H., & Wurf, E. (1987). The dynamic self-concept: a social psychological perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 38(1), 299–337.
- McCall Jr, M. W. (2004). Leadership development through experience. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 18(3), 127–130.
- McCall, M. W. Jr., Lombardo, M. M., & Morrison, A. M. (1988). *The Lessons of Experience: How Successful Executives Develop on the Job*. Lexington Books.
- McCauley, C. D. (2001). Leader training and development. In S. J. Zaccaro & R. J. Klimonski (Eds.), *The Nature of Organizational Leadership: Understanding the Performance Imperatives Confronting Today's Leaders* (Vol. 12, pp. 347–383). John Wiley & Sons.
- McKee, R. A., Lee, Y., Atwater, L., & Antonakis, J. (2018). Effects of personality and gender on self-other agreement in ratings of leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 91(2), 285–315.
- Middleton, E. D., Walker, D. O., & Reichard, R. J. (2018). Developmental trajectories of leader identity: Role of learning goal orientation. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(4), 495–509.

- Miscenko, D., & Day, D. (2016). Identity and identification at work. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 6(3), 215–247.
- Miscenko, D., Guenter, H., & Day, D. (2017). Am I a leader? Examining leader identity development over time. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28(5), 605–620.
- Moore, D. A., & Schatz, D. (2017). The three faces of overconfidence. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 11(8), 1–12.
- Moskal, B. M. (2010). Self-assessments: What are their valid uses? *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 9(2), 314–320.
- Mould, J., White, H., & Gallagher, R. (2011). Evaluation of a critical care simulation series for undergraduate nursing students. *Contemporary Nurse*, 38(1–2), 180–190.
- Mumford, T. v., Campion, M. A., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). The leadership skills strataplex: Leadership skill requirements across organizational levels. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(2), 154–166.
- Nohria, N., & Khurana, R. (2010). *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice* (N. Nohria & R. Khurana, Eds.). Harvard Business Press.
- Oyserman, D. (2001). Self-concept and Identity. In A. Tesser & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp. 499–517). Blackwell Publishing.
- Peiperl, M. A. (2001). Getting 360-degree feedback right of American prosperity. *Harvard Business Review*, January, 3–7.
- Pellegrini, V., de Cristofaro, V., Giacomantonio, M., & Salvati, M. (2020). Why are gay leaders perceived as ineffective? The role of the type of organization, sexual prejudice and gender stereotypes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 157.
- Petriglieri, G., & Stein, M. (2012). The unwanted self: Projective identification in leaders' identity Work. *Organization Studies*, 33(9), 1217–1235.
- Pierro, A., Cicero, L., Bonaiuto, M., van Knippenberg, D., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2005). Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness: The moderating role of need for cognitive closure. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4), 503–516.
- Postmes, T., & Jetten, J. (2006). Reconciling individuality and the group. In T. Postmes & J. Jetten (Eds.), *Individuality and the group: Advances in social identity* (pp. 258–269). Sage.
- Pratt, M. G. (2001). Social identity dynamics in modern organizations: An organizational psychology / organizational behavior perspective. In M. A. Hogg & D. J. Terry (Eds.), *Social Identity Processes in Organizational Contexts*. Psychology Press.
- Pratt, M. G., & Ashforth, Blake, E. (2003). Fostering meaningfulness in working and at work. *Positive Organizational Scholarship: Foundations of a New Discipline*, January 2003, 309–327.

- Pratt, M. G., Rockmann, K. W., & Kaufmann, J. B. (2006). Constructing professional identity: The role of work and identity learning cycles in the customization of identity among medical residents. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 235–262.
- Ramarajan, L. (2014). Past, present and future research on multiple identities: Toward an intrapersonal network approach. *Academy of Management Annals*, 8(1), 589–659.
- Rego, A., Owens, B., Yam, K. C., Bluhm, D., Cunha, M. P. e., Silard, A., Gonçalves, L., Martins, M., Simpson, A. V., & Liu, W. (2019). Leader humility and team performance: Exploring the mediating mechanisms of team PsyCap and task allocation effectiveness. *Journal of Management*, 45(3), 1009–1033.
- Robinson, G. S., & Wick, C. W. (1992). Executive development that makes a business difference. *Human Resource Planning*, 15(1), 63–76.
- Rosette, A. S., Leonardelli, G. J., & Phillips, K. W. (2008). The White standard: Racial bias in leader categorization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 758–777.
- Rynne, S. (2014). “Fast track” and “traditional path” coaches: Affordances, agency and social capital. *Sport, Education, and Society*, 19(3), 299–313.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185–211.
- Sanday, P. R. (1979). The ethnographic paradigm (s). *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 527–538.
- Schafer, R. (1968). *Aspects of Internalization*. International Universities Press, Inc.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychology*, 48(1), 23–47.
- Senge, P. M. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization. In *Measuring Business Excellence* (Vol. 1, Issue 3). Currency Doubleday.
- Shivers-Blackwell, S. L. (2004). Using role theory to examine determinants of transformational and transactional leader behavior. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 10(3), 41–50.
- Simon, B. (2004). *Identity in Modern Society: A Social Psychological Perspective*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Sitkin, S. B. (2008). Learning through failure. In *Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management; Vol. 2: Learning by Organizations* (pp. 385–420).
- Smither, J. W., Brett, J. F., & Atwater, L. E. (2008). What do leaders recall about their multisource feedback? *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14(3), 202–218.

- Smither, J. W., London, M., & Reilly, R. R. (2005). Does performance improve following multisource feedback? A theoretical model, meta-analysis, and review of empirical findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 33–66.
- Sosik, J. J. (1998). Self-concept based aspects of the charismatic leader: More than meets the eye. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(4), 503–526.
- Sosik, J. J. (2001). Self-other agreement on charismatic leadership: Relationships with work attitudes and managerial performance. *Group and Organization Management*, 26(4), 484–511.
- Stets, J. E., & Burke, P. J. (2000). Identity theory and social identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 63(3), 224–237.
- Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques* (J. M. Corbin, Ed.). Sage Publications.
- Stryker, S., & Burke, P. J. (2000). The past, present, and future of an identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 284–297.
- Sveningsson, S., & Alvesson, M. (2003). Managing managerial identities: Organizational fragmentation, discourse and identity struggle. *Human Relations*, 56(10), 1163–1193.
- Svenson, O. (1981). Are we all less risky and more skillful than our fellow drivers? *Acta Psychologica*, 47(2), 143–148.
- Swann, W. B. (1990). To be adored or to be known? The interplay of self-enhancement and self-verification. In E. T. Higgins & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation and Cognition: Foundations of Social Behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 408–448). The Guilford Press.
- Swann, W. B., Griffin, J. J., & Predmore, S. C. (1987). The cognitive-affective crossfire: When self-consistency confronts self-enhancement. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 52(5), 881–889.
- Swann, W. B., Rentfrow, P., & Sellers, J. G. (2003). Self-verification: The search for coherence. In *Handbook of Self and Identity* (pp. 367–383).
- Tajfel, H. (1974). Social identity and intergroup behaviour. *Social Science Information*, 13(2), 65–93.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & A. W.G. (Eds.), *Psychology of Intergroup Relations*. Nelson-Hall.
- Thach, E. C. (2002). The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(4), 205–214.
- Thatcher, S. M. B., & Zhu, X. (2006). Changing identities in a changing workplace: Identification, identity enactment, self-verification, and telecommuting. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(4), 1076–1088.

- Tice, D. M. (1992). Self-concept change and self-presentation: The looking glass self is also a magnifying glass. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(3), 435–451.
- Toegel, G., & Conger, J. A. (2003). 360-degree assessment: Time for reinvention. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(3), 297–311.
- Tonello, M. (2020). Corporate Board Practices in the Russell 3000 and S&P 500. *The Conference Board*, April 24.
- Turner, R. H. (1978). The role and the person. *American Journal of Sociology*, 84(1), 1–23.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1974). Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases. *Science*, 185(4157), 1124–1131.
- USMA. (2023). *United States Military Academy - West Point*. <https://www.westpoint.edu/about>.
- van Knippenberg, D. (1999). Group norms, prototypicality, and persuasion. In *Attitudes, behavior, and social context* (pp. 157–170). Psychology Press.
- van Knippenberg, D. (2011). Embodying who we are: Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), 1078–1091.
- van Knippenberg, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2003). A social identity model of leadership effectiveness in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 25, 243–295.
- van Knippenberg, D., & van Kleef, G. A. (2016). Leadership and affect: Moving the hearts and minds of followers. *Academy of Management Annals*, 10(1), 799–840.
- van Knippenberg, D., van Knippenberg, B., de Cremer, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2004). Leadership, self, and identity: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 825–856.
- van Maanen, J. E., & Schein, E. H. (1977). *Toward a Theory of Organizational Socialization*.
- Waldman, D. A., Galvin, B. M., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2013). The development of motivation to lead and leader role identity. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 20(2), 156–168.
- Weischer, A. E., Weibler, J., & Petersen, M. (2013). “To thine own self be true”: The effects of enactment and life storytelling on perceived leader authenticity. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(4), 477–495.
- Werbelt, J. D., & Gilliland, S. W. (1999). The use of person-environment fit in the selection process. In G. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 17). JAI Press.
- Wittman, S. (2019). Lingering identities. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(4), 724–745.

- Wood, A. M., Linley, P. A., Maltby, J., Baliousis, M., & Joseph, S. (2008). The authentic personality: A theoretical and empirical conceptualization and the development of the authenticity Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 55(3), 385–399.
- Wrzesniewski, A., Dutton, J. E., & Debebe, G. (2003). Interpersonal sensemaking and the meaning of work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 25, 93–135.
- Wrzesniewski, A., McCauley, C., Rozin, P., & Schwartz, B. (1997). Jobs, careers, and callings: People's relations to their work. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 31, 21–33.
- Yip, J., Trainor, L. L., Black, H., Soto-torres, L., & Reichard, R. J. (2019). Coaching new leaders: A relational process of integrating multiple identities. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*.
- Yost, J. H., Strube, M. J., & Bailey, J. R. (1992). The construction of the self: An evolutionary view. *Current Psychology*, 11(2), 110–121.
- Yukl, G. A., & Falbe, C. M. (1990). Influence tactics and objectives in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(2), 132–140.
- Yukl, G. A., Gordon, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: Integrating a half century of behavior research. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9(1), 15–32.
- Yukl, G. A., & Nemeroff, W. (1979). Identification and measurement of specific categories of leadership behavior: A progress report. *Crosscurrents in Leadership*, 164–200.