GRA 19502

Master Thesis

Cognitive restrictions and leadership development

| Navn: | Helena Ruud Gundersen, Helene Frantzen |

Start: 01.01.2018 09.00

Finish: 15.01.2018 12.00

Cognitive restrictions and leadership development

Name of supervisor:
Jan Ketil Arnulf

Programme:
Master of Science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

Content

Summary

This dissertation seeks to develop the field of research on leadership development, and the reasons why long-term learning and generalization in some cases are non-existent.

Based on the theory of Baldwin and Ford (1988) on conditions of transfer, as well as mindset theory regarding how goals are implemented an enacted, we aim to broaden the understanding of how organizations might enhance the possible benefits of leadership development.

According to Baldwin and Ford (1988) the conditions of transfer is important in order to generalize and maintain learned material during the course of action in job context. However, such conditions are rarely assessed by the organization, nor the field of research.

We hope that Gollwitzer's (1990) theory of mindsets and action phases might help explain some of the cognitive restrictions that might create a gap in the transfer of learnt material, and want to investigate this assumption using a case study to help us create a multi-perspective on such restrictions.

1.   Introduction

McCauley and Van Velsor define leadership development as "the expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes" (McCauley & Van Velsor, 2004, p. 2). Annually, billions of US dollars are spent on both the design and implementation of training programs in organizations, which is typically aimed at developing long-term learning and transfer (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2010, p. 275). Most of the initiatives behind organizational training and development programs is conducted with the hope and expectation that the positive transfer back to the job will lead to meaningful changes and increases in job performance (Blume, Ford, Baldwin & Huang, 2010, p. 1066). This is what ultimately determine the effectiveness of various training and development programs (Blume et al., 2010, p. 1066), and is what researchers define as *transfer of training* (Spector, 2012, p. 164). Meaning that transfer of training occurs when trainees "effectively apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in a training context to the job" (Ladyshewsky, 2007, p. 427), and for it to be considered both effective and successful the trainees must apply their knowledge to the job context and maintain the knowledge over a period of time (Ladyshewsky, 2007, p. 427).

Significant resources are being invested by organizations on developing and training its leaders. However, it has been reported that long-term transfer of learning to the workplace only occurs in approximately 10 to 15 percent of the cases where employees undergo leadership development (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004, p. 450). Leadership development is suggested to be a multi-billion dollar business (Blume et al., 2010, p. 1066), but there is sufficient evidence pointing towards organizations receiving a minimal return on their investments made in training and development. Ladyshewsky (2007) therefore argues that if organizations desire a return on their training investments, strategies that transfers the learning made from leadership development back into the organization are needed (p. 426).

2.   Theory

In order to investigate why much of the leadership development programs that exist today is unsuccessful we will use theories on mindset theory, as these theories help explain how intention can form action. In the following we will first

present relevant literature regarding leadership development, before elaborating on mindset theory. This will form the basis for our problem formulation, and hypotheses.

2.1 Leadership development and conditions of transfer

The definition and understanding of what leadership development entails differ, and the term itself refers to a variety of different activities (Arnulf, Glasø, Andreassen & Martinsen, 2016). As such, it could seem as leadership development activities has no clear limits, and as a result much of the leadership development programs have unknown effects (Arnulf, 2014, p. 105). For simplicity we have chosen to adapt the definition of leadership development proposed by Brungardt (1996) which states that leadership development is "every form of growth or stage of development in the life cycles that promotes, encourages, and assists the expansion of knowledge and expertise required to optimize one´s leadership potential and performance" (p. 83). As leadership development does not refer to any specific activities it is rather defined by the end result, which presumably is better leadership (Arnulf, 2014, p. 105). This contradicts the mainstream marketing used for leadership development, which mainly emphasizes specific programs, techniques or business school qualities (Arnulf, 2014, p. 105). Generally, leadership development approaches developed in Western countries are being implemented globally, leading to only a small set of development practices and leadership theories being applied across different contexts, both national and organizational (Pinnington, 2011, p. 336).

Sinclair (2009) argues that the ambiguousness of the concept often results in a development process which leads to conformity and the empowerment of only a few desired identities (p. 270). However, there are some common approaches to leadership development which can be distinguished into three separate categories; *leader education, strategic alignment* and *developing generic leadership skills* (Arnulf, 2014, p. 107-108). First, leader education refers to business development and organizational management skills, addressing both the steps to secure a competitive advantage and the necessary skills to manage an organization (Arnulf, 2014, p. 108). Second, strategic alignment includes efforts to help employees understand and align their thoughts regarding strategies and working methods,

often including so-called "kickoffs" (Arnulf, 2014, p. 108). Lastly, generic leadership development involves all efforts sought to improve an individual's capacity to act as a leader, e.g. the ability to communicate and motivate others (p. 108-109). Since leadership development activities can have many shapes and forms, the content of such programs typically varies from technological training, often conducted via internal seminars, to the development of personal abilities through tailored talks on reflection and guidance (also called 'coaching') (Arnulf, 2014, p. 112).

According to Arnulf (2014), in order for the leadership development program to be effective one should tailor the tasks to the fit the job, perform a needs assessment, create an arena for feedback, as well as enable reflection; either through the use of an external supervisor or peer tutoring (p.112). He argues that "despite the good intention behind teaching people to cooperate by climbing a glacier together, it turns out that it is hardly applicable to their daily job in the office" (Arnulf, 2014, p. 106).

Despite the good intentions underlying leadership development programs, long term transfer of knowledge is poor. Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2010) argues that it is important for both practitioners and researchers to understand the different factors that promote effective training initiatives, since the importance of training and development and the costs associated are significant (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2010, p. 261). Baldwin and Ford (1988) developed a framework examining training transfer, to understand the different factors that may affect the process of transfer of learning (p. 64). The framework is consistent of three levels, *training-input factors, outcomes,* and *conditions of transfer*. Accordingly, they found three specific training inputs that influences training transfer, including trainee characteristics, training design, and work-environment factors (Baldwin & Ford, 1988, p. 64). Training outcomes are according to Baldwin & Ford (1988) the "amount of original learning that occurs during the training program and the retention of that material" (p. 64). Conditions of transfer includes both the transfer of learned material to the job context (generalization), and the upkeep of said material over a longer period of time on the job (maintenance) (Baldwin & Ford, 1988, p. 64). They further argued that both the
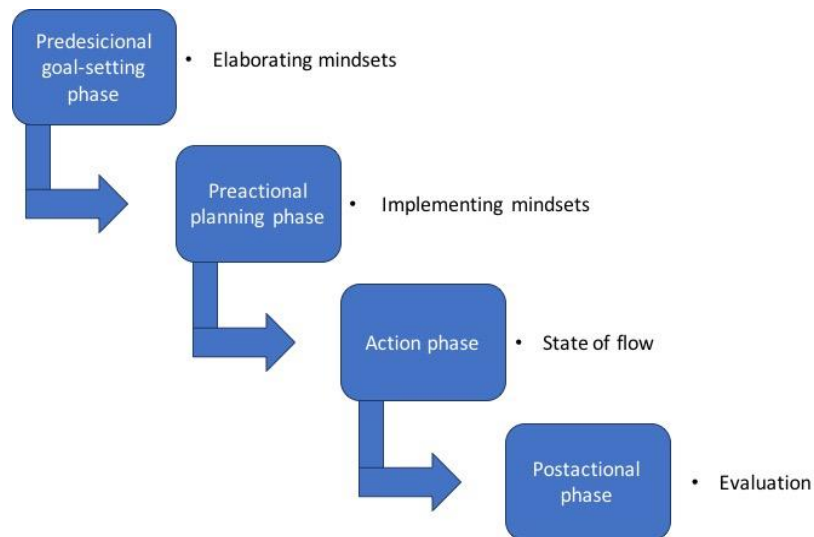
training input factors and training outcomes are said to have both a direct and indirect effect on the transfer of training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988, p. 65). We are however, in this dissertation, interested in looking at whether or not it is the *conditions of transfer* that results in the almost non-existing long-term transfer of leadership development.

According to Baldwin and Ford (1998) more research and conceptualization of the conditions of transfer is needed (p. 94). Whereas generalization involves the extent to which trained behaviors and skills are present in the specific transfer setting, maintenance refers to the length of the time period trained behavior and skills are used in the job context (Baldwin & Ford, 1988, p. 95). However, this is rarely assessed by the organization (Arnulf et al., 2016).

Organizations take use of leadership development programs in the hope of achieving positive outcomes, and it can thus be argued that the goal of leadership development is to transfer relevant learning material to the job context. As such, leaders undertaking such programs should have an intention to transfer learned material to specific organizational actions.

2.2   Mindset theory

Gollwitzer (1990) describes the course of action as a "temporal, horizontal path starting with a person's desires and ending with the evaluation of the achieved action outcome" (p.53). Situated in between is, according to Gollwitzer (1990), the deciding upon an action goal, commencing suitable actions, and enacting these actions (p. 53). In this perspective the course of action is seen as distinct phases, which is executed consecutively, and it highlights important questions regarding "how people *choose* action goals, *plan* and *enact* their execution, and *evaluate* their efforts" (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 53). These four individual steps are depicted in the model below.

Model 1 (Mathisen, 2016)

In the following we will present the three first phases of the model: *Predecisional goal-setting phase, preactional planning phase* and *action phase*.

2.2.1 *Pre-decisional goal-setting phase*

The first phase the predecisional goal-setting phase, where one argues that wishes are produced by people's motives (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 56). These wishes are also called goals, and, in this phase, individuals seek to deliberate and decide upon which goals to pursue (Mathisen, 2016, p. 14). Gollwitzer (1990) argues that some goals may be contradicting, and others can be difficult to carry out or strive towards, and it is thus difficult for people to act on all their wishes (p. 56). As such, individuals must choose between the goals they want to pursue (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 56).

In order to decide upon which goals to pursue individuals typically try to take into consideration the desirability and feasibility of the different goals (Mathisen, 2016, p. 14). Desirability can be understood as the motives and incentives an individual possesses, and is said to be determined by a reflection of the expected value (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 56). Reflecting on the expected value can be done by estimating the positive or negative short-term and long-term consequences, and by evaluating the likelihood that these consequences will be caused by the desired outcome (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 56). Feasibility, on the other hand, refers to the

individuals or organizations understanding of "whether the outcome implied by a given wish can be obtained by one's own activities and whether the situational context is facilitating or impeding insofar as one having the necessary resources, skills and knowledge to bring about the end state" (Mathisen, 2016, p. 14 - 15).

Individuals engaged in the predecisional goal-setting phase typically develop an elaborating mindset, seeking to answer the "why" question. As in "Why should I become more cost effective?" (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15). Accordingly, when elaborating mindsets are activated, the individuals often start with an open-minded state, impartially weighing the advantages and disadvantages of deciding upon a specific goal (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15). Here, it is assumed that all available information relevant to the feasibility and desirability of the goal is processed in an 'objective' way, and individuals in this state "typically consider multiple perspectives" (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15).

However, this suggests that one is able to objectively consider all relevant information available to oneself and rationally choose the most desired and feasible goal. According to Habermas (1984) when referring to the concept of rationality, it is often presumed that there is a close connection between knowledge and rationality (p. 8). Our knowledge is said to have a *propositional structure*, where "beliefs can be represented in the form of statements" (Habermas, 1984, p. 8). However, it is difficult to understand what it really implies to argue that people's expressions can count as rational or to say that people behave 'rationally' in specific situations. Habermas (1984) argues that this is because an individual's knowledge is unreliable, suggesting that "the rationality of an expression depends on the reliability of the knowledge embodied in it" (Habermas, 1984, p. 8).

In addition, elaborating mindsets are often associated with a fluid state of "should I or should I not" (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15), in other words, related to procrastination, uncertainty and doubt. Nevertheless, the outcome of this phase might be a purpose leading to determination and/or an intention to act (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15).

2.2.2   *Pre-actional planning phase*

According to Gollwitzer (1990) the model of action phases presume that fulfillment of a wish high in desirability and feasibility further demands the transformation of the chosen goal into an intention (p. 57). Such a transformation is assumed to result in a feeling of determination towards achievement of the goal, and the focus here is on desired goal states (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 57). Once an individual feels committed and determined to reach a desired goal state, he/she move onward to the next phase: the *pre-actional phase* (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15). In this phase planning goal-oriented behavior is essential, and this 'planning-phase' is more proximal to action and more specific than the elaborating phase (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15). According to Gollwitzer (1990) planning goal-directed behavior is usually necessary as individuals cannot implement a newly formed goal immediately, especially if alternative activities need to be completed first or the availability of relevant opportunities to act are not present (p. 57).

The pre-actional planning phase is according to Mathisen (2016) named implemental intention (p. 15). This phase is concerned with thoughts regarding when, where and how to implement a plan, ultimately transforming a goal into a readiness for action (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15). It is important to stress the difference between goal intentions and implemental intention in this context. The former focus on desired goal states (i.e. I want a raise), whereas the latter concerns establishing a specific behavior "one will perform in the service of the goal and the situational context in which one will enact it" (Sheeran, Webb & Gollwitzer, 2005, p. 87). In other words, implementation intentions is when individuals commits themselves to a particular implementation course, and it is assumed that behavioral intentions support the continuous initiation, execution, and halt of action in the pursuit of an individual's goal intentions (Gollwitzer, 1990, p.57)

People engaging in planning for goal-oriented behavior, often move towards an implemental mindset. Implemental mindset, on the contrary to elaborating mindsets, typically give rise to close-mindedness towards stored and incoming information, which again leads to processing and emphasis only on information closely related to the achievement of the set goal (Mathisen, 2016, p. 15).

Mathisen (2016) argues that this state seeks to provide an answer to the 'how' question, in example "how can I save more money?" (p. 15).

2.3.2.1   How well do intentions predict behavior

Intentions have for a long time been used to predict different forms of behaviors, including e.g. consumer decision, dieting, physical activity, weight loss, gambling, voting, illicit drug use and smoking (Sheeran, 2007, p. 3). Intentions can be defined as self-instructions to elicit and perform particular desired behaviours or obtain specific outcomes (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 249). The deliberation regarding what one will do in order to reach desired outcomes is assumed to end once individuals have formed a behavioral or goal intention, which again signals how hard one are willing to work to achieve a goal (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 249). Intentions are therefore often assumed to capture different motivational factors that ultimately influence a behavior. Numerous theories, such as theories of attitude-behavior relations, goal theories and models of health behavior, believe that intentions is a key determinant of behavior (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 249).

Sheeran et al. (2005) advocates for evidence showing that action initiation may proceed in an automated manner, this despite that implementation intentions typically are formed through a conscious act of will (p. 87). Further, Wegner and Wheatley (1999) argues that "the real causal mechanisms underlying behavior are never present in consciousness" (p. 490). Rather, what drives causation are the unconscious mechanisms situated within the individual mind (Sheeran, 2007, p. 24). Accordingly, based on this analysis the notion that intentions motivate behaviors is regarded as an illusion (Sheeran, 2007, p. 24).

2.3.3   Action phase

Having a strong desire to reach a goal (a strong goal intention), does not necessarily guarantee goal achievement. This mainly because individuals during goal striving may be unsuccessful to deal with self-regulatory problems effectively (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 69). Framing the goals in a convenient manner and forming strong goal commitments does not secure goal attainment (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 69). People may still encounter problems when

implementing a goal, which is often referred to as implementation issues. Gollwitzer, Parks-Stamm and Oettingen (2009) argues that some of the problems that characterize goal implementation involves starting the goal pursuit, not derailing and not overextending oneself (p. 604). Seen from a cognitive social learning perspective, individuals can overcome these problems by engaging in conscious self-regulatory thought (Gollwitzer et al, 2009, p. 605). Nevertheless, in recent times within the psychology of goals, both conscious and unconscious goal striving is believed to affect people's thoughts, feelings and actions (Gollwitzer et al, 2009, p. 605).

Gollwitzer et al (2009) advocates that "goal representations should also be capable of automatic activation through contact with features of the contexts in which those goals have been pursued often and consistently in the past" (p. 605). They argue that this is because goals become activated automatically, and are represented mentally, by the same principles (Gollwitzer et al., 2009, p. 605).

It is said that whether a goal intention lead to an initiation of action depends on how committed an individual is towards implementing the chosen goal, also referred to as the goal intentions volitional strength (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 58). The desirability and feasibility perceived prior to choosing a goal might be positively influenced by the amount of volitional strength. However, the volitional strength typically varies, mainly depending on the individual's experiences with the initiation of relevant action. Volitional strength may decrease over time if good opportunities to initiate action is ignored by the individual. On the contrary, volitional strength may increase momentarily or spontaneously when obstacles are encountered (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 58).
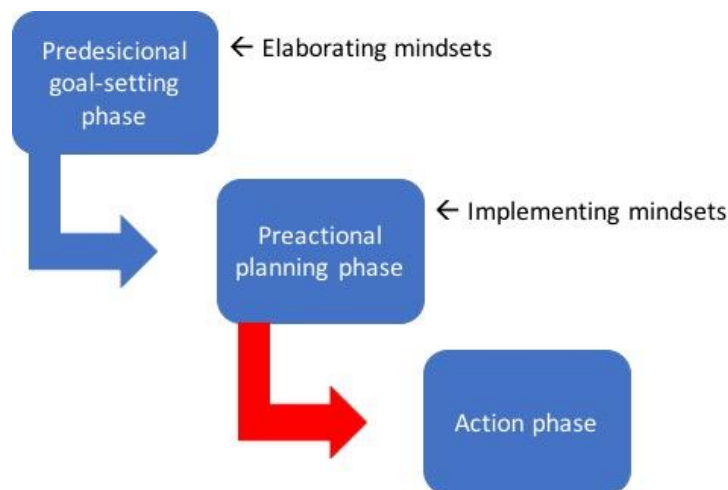
3.   Problem Formulation

Studies have found that changes in goal intention strength generate only a modest change in goal achievement, indicating a gap between goal intentions and the subsequent attainment (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 72). According to Webb and Sheeran (2006) several studies conducted within the field of social and health psychology suspect that intentions cause behavior (p. 249). Yet, "most tests of the intention-behaviour relation involve correlational studies that preclude causal

inferences" (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 249). Sheeran (2007) found in his/her study that inclined abstainers, in other words participants who intended to act but did not act, were ultimately responsible for an intention-behavior gap (p. 7), and the people who successfully translated their intentions into action only accounted for half of the people who originally intended to act (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 73).

Setting goals and forming good intentions is often understood as the commitment towards a particular desired outcome, or a desired behavior. However, the distance between goal setting and the attainment of a goal is often long, even though an individual make goal commitments (Gollwitzer, 1999, p. 493). Traditional models of goal pursuit are typically concerned with the implicit assumption that the intensity of goal striving is dependent on the formation on goal intentions from appropriate evaluation of desirability and feasibility considerations (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 73). However, this is not strongly supported (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 73).

Based on the literature review above, we have developed our own understanding of where the cognitive gap might be located and what we wish to examine further, in the form of a model, which is based on the model presented in Mathisen (2016):

Model 2

Note: Illustration of three of the four action phases (on the left) and the ensuing mindsets (on the right).

As seen in the model above, as well as presented in the theory of mindsets, one first needs to decide upon which goals it is desirable and feasible to pursue. Once a goal is decided upon, the preactional planning phase begins where it is decided how, when and where the enactment of goal achievement should commence. Once the opportunity to begin goal achievement has presented itself the action phase should begin, and here the 'how, when and where' should guide action. However, various research within the field of contemporary psychology argues that much of human functioning is rooted in unconscious mental processes, in the sense that these processes do not require conscious control (Bargh, Gollwitzer, Chai, Barndollar & Trötschel, 2001, p. 1014). It is thus reasonable to believe that the plans (how, when and where) created in the preactional planning phase would also be influenced by nonconscious processes. Presented by the red arrow in the model, we propose that a cognitive gap exists between the preactional planning phase and the action phase, which is influenced by nonconscious processes.

3.1   Research Question

Thus, we wish to examine whether a cognitive gap exists between the behavioural action plan to transfer learning back to the organization and the enactment of those plans, and whether it is this cognitive gap that hinders leadership development from reaching its full potential. To shed light on this subject, we have chosen the following research question:

An implemental mindset can cause/be influenced by cognitive restrictions, which can affect the enactment of goal achievement.

These cognitive restrictions causes a gap between the espoused plans and the enactment of these plans, and we believe that it is this cognitive gap that makes leadership development fail.

4.   Hypotheses

A study conducted by Webb and Sheeran (2006) revealed that behavior was less impacted by intentions when there is potential for social reactions, a lack of participant control, and "when circumstances of the performance are conducive to

habit formation" (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 262). In the following we will present some of the assumptions we have developed in the form of hypotheses.

4.1 Hypothesis 1

In relation to Baldwin and Ford's (1988) framework, transfer of training is affected by several components, including input factors regarding work-environment factors such as supervisory and peer support, as well as opportunities and constraints to performed learned behavior on the job (p. 65). Meaning that work-environmental factors could be detrimental and/or crucial for the transfer of learning. Webb and Sheeran (2006) argues that social pressure from others could inhibit the translation of intention into action, thus an intention to act might not trigger the favorable action if subjective norms not to perform the behavior is present (p. 249). Accordingly, perceived peer and supervisory support (in the form of subjective norms supporting the use of learned material) is important to enact upon the goal to transfer learning back to the job context.

Seen that environmental cues are crucial for the activation of implementation intentions (Sheeran, 2007, p. 14), hence transforming intentions into action we have deducted the following hypothesis:

H1: Perceived supervisory and peer support affects the conditions of learning transfer

4.2 Hypothesis 2

Generally, it is not possible to determine the degree of actual control participants have over the performance of certain behavior (Sheeran, 2007, p. 11). Thus, several researchers have relied on the construct of perceived behavioral control, which is participants' own thoughts of how much control they possess over the performance of behavior (Sheeran, 2007, p. 11). This with the belief that "perceptions of control are reasonably accurate reflections of actual control" (Sheeran, 2007, p. 11).

The theory of planned behavior proposes that perceived behavioral control is an additional predictor of intention, and assumes that the most important determinant

of behavior is intention (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 250). Nevertheless, it also suggests that perceived behavioral control can moderate and/or directly predict the relationship between behavior and intention when perceived behavioral control is accurately reflected by the degree of actual control in a specific situation (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 250). However, Mathisen (2016) argues that individuals who lack control, may become too obsessed with the outcome of the performance of a certain behavior, rather than the necessary steps to reach their goals (p. 106). Gollwitzer (1990) assumes that such illusions of control might be dependent upon an implemental mindset, as individuals with a implemental mindset often experience inaccurate, optimistic assessments (p. 75).

In relation to behavioral control, Webb and Sheeran (2006) argues that perceived behavioral control may affect the intention to perform a behavior, in example unless the performance of a behavior is perceived as under personal control the intention to act is reduced (p. 249). As well as the degree of actual control over the behavior affects the successful enactment of the behavioral intention (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 249). Thus, hypothesis 2 is as follows:

H2: Perceived behavioral control will influence the intention to generalize and maintain learned material to the job context

4.3 Hypothesis 3

When individuals encounter situations that can be perceived as helpful in implementing the goal intention, the goal intention should become activated, despite the fact that chances of implementation are slim (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 60). As activation of goal intention occupies an individual's cognitive capacity, Gollwitzer (1990) argues that this ultimately may hinder implementation of competing goal intentions, and thus leading the individual to procrastinate as he or she is not able to act as intended (p. 60). Often, goals are activated by the situational context in which behavior is conducted, which is often an unconscious process which people are unaware of (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 79). Such an auto-motive theory assumes that in particular situations, goals that have a custom of being acted upon can become activated directly without the requirement of conscious intent (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006, p. 79).

The model of interpersonal behavior advocates for a third possible moderator of the enactment of the intention to perform a behavior, particularly, the degree to which behavior may be habitual (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 250). The impact of intention on behavior is assumed to be reduced when behaviors are frequently performed, and thus "come under the control of habits" (Webb & Sheeran, 2006, p. 250). Oullette and Wood (1998) found that future responses is guided through two processes (p. 54): (1) the frequency of past behavior is reflected in habit strength, as such well-practised behaviors become automatic, and (2) in difficult and unstable contexts conscious decision making is usually necessary, and past behavior may contribute to intentions which guides behavior (p. 54).

Based on this research, we propose that habits will affect how well new knowledge and material are generalized and maintenanced, and hypothesis 3 is as follows:

H3: Prior behaviors affects the conditions of learning transfer negatively

5 Method

In this assignment we will perform what is called basic business research, also known as pure research (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013, p. 5). Meaning that we will seek to "expand the limits of knowledge in general" (Zikmund et al., 2013, p. 5), and not address the needs or problems of a specific organization, which is often the case for pure business research (Zikmund et al., 2013, p. 5). We will in the following present the choice of method and participants further.

5.1 Choice of method

In order to investigate our research question, and the formulated hypotheses above, we plan to conduct a case analysis, which is situated in the field of qualitative research method. According to Rossman and Rallis (2003) "case studies seek to understand a larger phenomenon through intensive examination of one specific instance" (p. 103), and we believe that this is a good way to develop a broad understanding of which factors that can contribute to the unsuccessful generalization and maintenance of learned material. The benefits of using case

studies is the use of various sources to acquire multiple perspectives, and the strength here lies in the complexity and detail (Rossman & Rallis, 2003 p. 104).

During our case study we wish to perform in-depth interviews with several participants who have been through a leadership development program. A depth interview can be explained as "a one-on-one interview between a professional researcher and a research respondent conducted about some relevant business or social topic" (Zikmund et al., 2013, p. 149). We hope that such an interview can provide important knowledge of the multiple restrictions leaders may face when trying to implement learnt material back to the organization.

To examine the perceived behavioral control we envision our self facilitating a survey using questions to be answered on a 7-point likert-scale. The questions would be developed as "For me to do X would be easy/difficult" in order to rate how much perceived control participants possess.

5.2   *Participants*

We are in the process of finding participants for this study, and we are mainly looking for participants who have recently participated in leadership development programs, as well as participants who have participated in leadership development programs during the last two years in order to explore the generalization and maintenance of learnt material used in the job context.

6.   Tentative plan for completion of thesis

Deadline	Activity
Due within the end of January	Schedule a meeting with our supervisor to establish the best way to proceed with the development of our research method, including help with an interview guide as well as the questionnaire.
Due within the end of February	We should have found participants and started with data collection
Due within the end of March	Finish the data collection and start analyzing the data Plan and schedule a new meeting with supervisor in relation to data analysis.
Due within the end of April	Analyze the data, and incorporate the data and findings into the thesis.
Due within the first two weeks of May	Finish a complete first draft of the whole thesis. Send the first draft to our supervisor for feedback
Due within May/Start of June	Revide based on feedback from supervisor, and implement changes into the dissertation. Deliver second draft to supervisor

7. Bibliography:

Arnulf, K. J., Glasø, L., Andreassen, A. K. B., & Martinsen, Ø. L. (2016, Dec. 2). The dark side of leadership development: An exploration of the possible downsides of leadership development. Derived from: https://psykologisk.no/sp/2016/12/e18/

Arnulf, J. K. (2014). A brief introduction to leadership. *Oslo, Norway: Universitetsforlaget.*

Baldwin, T. and Ford, J. (1988), "Transfer of training: a review and directions for future research", Personnel Psychology, Vol. 41 No. 1, pp. 63-5.

Bargh, J. A., Gollwitzer, P. M., Lee-Chai, A., Barndollar, K., & Trötschel. (2001). The Automated Will: Nonconscious Activation and Pursuit of Behavioral Goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81* (6), 1014-1027.

Blume, B. D., Ford. J. K., Baldwin, T. T., & Huang, J. L. (2010). Transfer of Training: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Journal of Management, 36* (4), 1065-1105.

Brungardt, C. (1997). The making of leaders: A review of the research in leadership development and education. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *3*(3), 81-95.

Cromwell, S. and Kolb, J. (2004). An examination of work-environment support factors affecting transfer of supervisory skills training to the work place. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *15* (4), 449-71.

Gollwitzer, O. M. (1990). Action phases and mind-sets. In E. T. H. R. M. Sorrentino (ed.), *The handbook of motivation and cognition:Foundations of social behaviour* (Vol. 2, pp. 53-92): New York: Guilford Press.

Gollwitzer, P.M., (1999). Implementation Intentions. *American Psychologist*, 54 (7). 493 - 503.

Gollwitzer, P. M., Parks-Stamm, E. J., & Oettingen, G. (2009). Living on the Edge: Shifting Between Unconscious and Conscious Goal Pursuit. In Morsella, E., Bargh, J. A., & Gollwitzer, P. M. (Eds.) *Oxford Handbook of Human Action* (pp. 603 - 624). New York: Oxford University Press

Gollwitzer, P. M., & Sheeran, P. (2006). Implementation Intentions and Goal Achievement: A Meta-Analysis of Effects and Processes. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 38.* pp - 69 - 119

Habermas, J. (1984). The theory of communicative action, volume I. *Boston: Beacon*.

Ladyshewsky, R.K. (2007). A strategic approach for integrating theory to practice in leadership development. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 28* (5), 426-443

Mathisen, J. (2016). *Elaborating and Implemental Mindsets in Business-related Behavior:An investigation of the interface between Cognition and Action - How goals and plans emerge and relate to cognition and action in business* (Dissertation for the degree of PhD). BI Norwegian Business School, Oslo.

McCauley, C. D., & Van Velsor, E. (2004). Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of leadership Development (2.ed.). San Francisco: Wiley Imprint.

Mesmer-Magnus, J., & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). The role of pre-training interventions in learning: A meta-analysis and integrative review. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*, 261-281.

Ouellette, J. A., & Wood, W. (1998). Habit and Intention in Everyday Life: The Multiple Processes by Which Past Behavior Predicts Future Behavior. *Psychological Bulletin, 124* (1), 54-74.

Pinnington, A.H. (2011). Leadership development: Applying the same leadership theories and development practices to different contexts?. *Leadership, 7* (3), 335–365

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (2003). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Sage.

Sheeran, P. (2007). Intention - Behavior Relations: A Conceptual and Empirical Review. *European Review of Social Psychology, 12*, 1-36. Doi: 10.11080/14792882143000003

Sheeran, P., Webb, T. L., & Gollwitzer, P. M. (2005). The Interplay Between Goal Intentions and Implementation Intentions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 31* (1), 87-98.

Sinclair A (2009) Seducing leadership: Stories of leadership development. *Gender, Work and Organization 16,* (2). 266–284.

Spector, P. (2012). Chapter 7: Training. In P. E. Spector (Ed), *Industrial and Organizational psychology: research and practice* (p. 161-183). Hoboken, N.J.:Wiley

Webb, T. L., & Sheeran, P. (2006). Does Changing Behavioral Intentions Engender Behavior Change? A Met-Analysis of the Experimental Evidence. *Psychological Bulletin, 132* (2), 249-265.

Wegner, D. M., & Wheatley, T. (1999). Apparent mental causation: Sources of the experience of the will. *American Psychologist, 54,* 480-492

Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2013). *Business research methods*. Cengage Learning:South Western.