University of Reading

The leadership knowing-doing gap: a phenomenological exploration

Conference or Workshop Item

Accepted Version

It is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from the work. See Guidance on citing.

www.reading.ac.uk/centaur

CentAUR

Central Archive at the University of Reading

Reading's research outputs online

THE LEADERSHIP KNOWING-DOING GAP:

A PHENOMENOLOGICAL EXPLORATION

DR AMAL AHMADI

Henley Business School

University of Reading

DR BERND VOGEL

Henley Business School

University of Reading

ABSTRACT

Despite the rising interest in leadership development, building knowledge about leadership more often than not remains an end in itself, and little is known about how the transfer of leadership learning into leadership enactment is experienced by managers. This research phenomenologically explores the leadership knowing-doing gap, using semi-structured critical incident interviews with 22 managers in leadership roles across various industries and organizational levels in the United Kingdom. Findings offer a comprehensive understanding presenting the leadership knowing-doing gap as a multifaceted and dynamic experience involving cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements that interplay within the processes of creating or widening the gap on the one hand, or preventing or closing the gap on the other hand. Our proposed framework provides a conceptualization of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience that enhances the potential of identifying and operationalizing such an experience for future theory building and empirical research in both management learning and leadership development. We end with practical insights to address the leadership knowing-doing gap and highlight the importance of evaluating leadership development to evidence effective learning transfer and leadership enactment in organizations.

Organizations spend considerable resources to develop the leadership capacity of their managers through leadership development initiatives (BCG, 2015; CIPD, 2015; DeRue, Sitkin, & Podolny, 2011). However, despite the rising interest in leadership development (Day, 2000; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014), building knowledge about leadership often remains an end in itself, with comparably little attention paid to how managers experience transferring their leadership learning into leadership action in organizations (Blanchard, Meyer, & Ruhe, 2007; Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000). This may be aided by a general lack of follow-up to determine the

effectiveness of leadership development for the desired positive impacts on the attitudes, behaviors and performance of managers (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010; Collins & Holton, 2004) and the return on leadership development investment in organizations (Avolio et al., 2010; Richard, Holton Iii, & Katsioloudes, 2014).

The management learning literature suggests that what managers learn is not always fully utilized or turned into practice in real contexts (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Hoover, Giambatista, Sorenson, & Bommer, 2010), and that *knowing* (conceptual and/or procedural knowledge) may not necessarily predict *doing* (applied knowledge) (Baldwin, Pierce, Joines, & Farouk, 2011). The *transfer problem* occurs when the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes, or capabilities through a learning experience is not transferred back to the workplace (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010; Cheng & Hampson, 2008; Ford & Kraiger, 1995; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Hutchins, Burke, & Berthelsen, 2010; Wexley & Baldwin, 1986). The *knowing-doing gap* concept (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000) originally addressed a challenge in transferring management learning into practice. This research looks at the concept specifically in terms of leadership and thereby introduces the *leadership knowing-doing gap*. Managers may accumulate leadership knowledge, yet unless they transfer it into leadership action, this internalized potential may remain dormant or inactive and thus may create little benefits in organizations.

The general lack of enquiry on the leadership knowing-doing gap may be partly due to the traditional misconception that holding a formal leadership role or position within an organizational hierarchy prescribes or inherently conveys leadership (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Thus, it may be taken for granted that managers are willing and able to transfer what they know about leadership into real leadership action. While some research exists on evaluating standalone leadership development interventions (e.g. Avolio et al., 2010; Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang, & Avolio, 2011; Militello & Benham, 2010; Richard et al.,

2014), and on the transfer of leadership learning from episodic leadership training (e.g. Johnstal, 2013; McCall, 2010; Warhurst, 2012), the extant literature appears to overlook the experience of transferring ongoing leadership learning from various sources of leadership development (Day, 2011a). The literature on experience-based leadership development primarily focuses more on how and what to learn from developmental experiences, and less on to how to apply the lessons learned from such experiences (McCall, 2010). The gap in transferring leadership learning into leadership enactment has been referred to as the *transfer failure* (Warhurst, 2012) or the *application gap* (Conger, 2013). Yet, it appears that little is known about how this transfer or application process occurs and and how managers experience it. Hence, the purpose of this study is to better understand the leadership knowing-doing gap, by phenomenologically exploring how managers experience transferring their leadership knowledge into leadership enactment.

Our proposed framework is one of the first to put forward an understanding of managers' experiences of the knowing-doing gap (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000) in leadership with several theoretical contributions. First, we point to the impact of work events in shaping the cognition, affect, and behaviors of managers, thus complementing event-based literature (e.g. Morgeson & DeRue, 2006; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Second, we reveal that managers themselves may be unaware of a discrepancy between their leadership learning and actual leadership doing, building on the idea that leadership is an open and non-technical skill that can often be difficult to observe (Bryman, 2004). Third, our findings on how managers respond to their leadership knowing-doing gaps contradict motivational theories that view individuals as inherently active or proactive and innately development or growth oriented (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Whereas in some situations managers immediately enacted leadership behavior to close the gap, in other situations they do not, in line with previous studies on the psychology of doing nothing and people's preference for non-action (Anderson, 2003; Steel,

2007). In summary, new insights from this study form a conceptualization of the leadership knowing-doing gap that enhances the potential of identifying and operationalizing such an experience for future theory building and empirical research in both management learning and leadership development.

The remainder of the paper starts with a theoretical background, followed by an outline of the qualitative phenomenological methodology we pursued. Next are our findings and discussion to offer insights into managers' experiences and develop our proposed framework for the leadership knowing-doing gap. We end by highlighting our theoretical contributions, practical implications, future research opportunities and limitations.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Following the four levels of evaluating leadership development suggested by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006): reaction, learning, behavior and results, this research is focused on managers' experience of transferring their leadership *learning* (knowing) into leadership *behavior* (doing).

Leadership Knowing

Drawing on leadership development theory, we view the accumulation of leadership knowing as "the expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes" (Van Velsor, McCauley, & Ruderman, 2010: 2). Thus, leadership knowing may involve learning leadership knowledge, skills and abilities (Schippmann et al., 2000) and this capacity for leadership can incorporate both intrapersonal capabilities and interpersonal capabilities, in line with the distinction between leader development and leadership development (Day, 2000, 2011b; Day et al., 2014).

We view opportunities for leadership training such as short-term leadership development programs as one of many sources of leadership knowing (Day, 2000, 2011b). Thus, this research extends beyond investigating the transfer of leadership training (e.g.

Conger, 2013; Conger, 1992; Johnson, Garrison, Hernez-Broome, Fleenor, & Steed, 2012; Johnstal, 2013) to a broader transfer of ongoing leadership learning, deviating from the common tendency to take an episodic view of leadership development (Day, 2011a; Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola-Merlo, & Richver, 2004). Training typically involves linking certain personality traits or behaviors with leadership. Even if training allows time for reflection on how to implement learning back at work (Kark, 2011), the challenges that managers face in real contexts may be far more complex than those covered in short-term training practices (Day et al., 2014). Moreover, managers may learn leadership from experiences on the job (McCall, 2010; Tannenbaum, 1997; Van Velsor et al., 2010), or acquire leadership knowing through various types of leadership development practices (Conger, 1992; Hannah & Avolio, 2010; Kark, 2011; McCall, 2010), such as 360-degree feedback, coaching, mentoring and networking (Day, 2000). Drawing on notions of adult development and how leadership development may involve "a continuous process associated with the human development trajectory" (O'Connell, 2014: 185), and following the premise that continuous deliberate practice is necessary to develop expert performance in a given field (Ericsson & Charness, 1994), actual leadership development is more likely to occur through ongoing leadership experiences as well as on the job leadership learning opportunities than through merely participating in a series of short training initiatives (Day et al., 2014). Nevertheless, regardless of how managers accumulate leadership knowing, they may or may not always fully transfer that into leadership doing.

Leadership Doing

To explore how leadership knowing may actually be utilized by managers in their leadership roles, view leadership doing as leadership enactment, defined as a physical activity or behavior (Ford, Ford, & Polin, 2014; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010; Weischer, Weibler, & Petersen, 2013) that takes the individual from an inactive to an active or even proactive state

(Fondas & Stewart, 1994; Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012). Thus, a manager may bridge the discrepancy between knowing and doing through leadership enactment, by actively transferring their intrapersonal and interpersonal leadership knowledge, skills and abilities into leadership behavior.

This research is concerned with the manager's use of their leadership knowing as leadership enactment, rather than the effectiveness of leadership enactment (Blume et al., 2010), drawing on concepts such as knowledge-in-use (de Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1996) and applied management knowledge (Baldwin et al., 2011). Hence, we focus on the behavior rather than the results level of effective leadership development (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). As the leadership behavior that must be enacted for leadership effectiveness may vary in different operating environments (Orvis & Ratwani, 2010; Peus, Braun, & Frey, 2013; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002), and as we seek to understand the discrepancy between leadership knowing and leadership doing, we focus on the transfer process as opposed to the type of leadership behavior that is enacted. The former is more relevant to this research and relatively underexplored in the leadership literature in comparison with leadership effectiveness.

The Leadership Knowing-Doing Gap

This research responds to the call for investigating the process by which managers transfer their learned leadership into actual leadership behavior (Hirst et al., 2004). The transfer process to turn leadership knowing into leadership doing may revolve around applying lessons learned from a developmental experience to other similar or different experiences, or from the experience of the individual to the organizational context (Johnstal, 2013; McCall, 2010). Previous reviews of the management training literature (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010) provide frameworks for understanding the transfer of training from a training context back to the work context, revealing that the training literature

generally focused on studying training input factors (e.g. trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment), paying relatively little attention to the conditions of training transfer: (a) generalization: the degree to which learning from a training experience is generalized back to work and applied in different contexts and situations; and (b) maintenance: the extent to which the use of learning is maintained, and the resulting changes from learning continue over time (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010).

As a starting point, we look at the process of transferring leadership knowing into leadership doing as dynamic and complex. It is *dynamic* because the conditions of transfer, namely generalization and maintenance, indicate that the degree of transfer may change in different settings or at different times. It is *complex* because it may be influenced by a range of inputs at various levels. For instance, while Blume et al. (2010) suggest that for leadership as an open, interpersonal skill, managers may have more freedom in terms of whether, how and when to transfer the learned skill to the job, Hirst et al. (2004) argue that managers may face pressing work demands that could take priority over applying newly acquired knowledge and skills. Thus, at a given point in time, a manager's knowing-doing gap might reflect the extent to which there is a discrepancy in the transfer of their leadership knowing into leadership doing. For instance, in a particular situation, a manager might have a wide gap between what they know about leadership and what they actually do in terms of leadership enactment at work. In another situation, they might tap further into their leadership knowledge and more actively transfer that into real leadership action, thereby bridging their leadership knowing-doing gap. It follows from this that the state of the knowing-doing gap may vary amongst different managers, and the extent of the knowing-doing gap for an individual manager may also be dynamic, changing in different situations, or in similar situations at different points in time.

In summary, this research looks at the gap between knowing leadership on the one hand, through various forms of leadership learning and knowledge acquisition, and doing leadership on the other hand, in the form of actively enacting leadership behavior in the workplace. Building on previous definitions of transfer from the leadership and management learning literatures, the leadership knowing-doing gap may be described as a state in which managers know what leadership entails, as well as how to engage in leadership and in what situations, yet do not fully transfer their leadership knowing into leadership doing.

Despite the importance of the enactment of leadership from leadership development (Day, 2000), little is known about what the process of transferring leadership knowledge into leadership enactment may look like (Hirst et al., 2004). Thus, as a starting point toward a deeper understanding of the leadership knowing-doing gap phenomenon, this research explores managers' experience of transferring leadership knowing into leadership doing.

METHODOLOGY

This research employs an inductive qualitative strategy (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Silverman, 2010) and a phenomenological approach (Gill, 2014; Moustakas, 1994). The study obtains knowledge from "phenomenological insight" or "revelation" gained from humans who are seen as "conscious beings" (Morgan & Smircich, 1980: 492). Phenomenology does not dispute the reality of the fact-world, but justifies it through "a phenomenological analysis of actual experiences" (Pivčević, 1970: 14). The phenomenological research approach pursued here thus looks at lived experiences and how individuals describe and interpret the world around them (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Klenke, 2008; Moran, 2000), aimed at understanding the experiences of managers in transferring their leadership learning into leadership action. We adapted the steps of phenomenological research as suggested by Moustakas (1994) which reflect Husserl's transcendental and descriptive phenomenology (Gill, 2014). This involved the process of *epoche*, i.e. setting

aside our biases and prejudgments (Moustakas, 1994) around the leadership knowing-doing gap as far as possible, in order to be open to new ideas as participants describe their experiences of the phenomenon (Crotty, 1996). Epoche does not necessitate standing completely outside of the phenomenon in study, but being aware of and critical about our involvement within it (Gibson, 2004), to maintain openness that allows the phenomenon to present itself as it really is. To see the leadership knowing-doing gap through the eyes of managers, the study followed the phenomenological research tradition (Crotty, 1996; Moustakas, 1994) and used in-depth qualitative interviewing for data collection (Cassell & Symon, 1994; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The strategy for data analysis was analytic induction with the aim of theory building (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995).

Sample

The study utilized purposive sampling in the form of criterion sampling (Patton, 2002), choosing participants because they carry features, knowledge, or experience in which the research is interested (Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Silverman, 2010), as commonly done in phenomenology (Klenke, 2008; Kuzel, 1999). We approached managers who have a people responsibility in organizations, for instance, within a project, team, department or division, and as such would have an expectation that their roles would involve elements of leadership. While leadership is not necessarily defined as a formal supervisory or managerial position, and not all managers are leaders, and not all subordinates are followers (Bedeian & Hunt, 2006), our sampling approach was useful to identify managers who were information-rich in terms of reflecting on leadership experiences. They were approached with the assumption that they have had some form(s) of leadership learning and may have experienced a discrepancy between their knowledge and action within their leadership contexts.

We interviewed 22 managers in the United Kingdom, at the higher end of guidelines on sample size for a phenomenological study of this kind (Creswell, 2012; Klenke, 2008;

Kuzel, 1999). The sample aimed for participants from diverse leadership roles and contexts to provide a greater breadth of understanding and a diversity of perspectives and experiences. Participants were drawn from a variety of industries including financial services, automotive and construction. They held leadership roles (i.e. people responsibility) ranging from middle management (12 participants) to senior management (10 participants). As some participants were both managers and subordinates at the same time, we asked them to think of their roles as leaders when responding to interview questions. We also asked about the nature and degree of their leadership experience within their current roles, to focus on those in the interview. The number of individuals the participants were responsible for ranged between 1 and 80 people (averaging 16 people). The amount of time they spent engaging in leadership with these people ranged between 5 and 40 hours per week (averaging 19 hours per week). The average leadership experience among participants in leadership positions overall was 11 years (with a range between 1.5 years and 20 years) and in their current positions was approximately 3 years (with a range between 1 month and 4 years). The sample consisted of 12 male and 10 female participants, and the age ranged from 35 to 55 years. The interviews were 60 to 90 minutes in length and were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Data Collection

The interviews were semi-structured (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Klenke, 2008) and used critical incident questions to focus on events related to the research topic (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Chell, 2004). Interview questions were mostly open-ended involving probes and prompts, encouraging interviewees to answer descriptively (Crotty, 1996; Patton, 2002).

Leadership definitions and conceptualizations differ widely (Dansereau, Seitz, Chiu, Shaughnessy, & Yammarino, 2013; Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011) and thus instead of imposing a leadership definition onto all interviewees we aimed to view the research topic from the perspective of

those involved in the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994; Rubin & Rubin, 2005) and elicited the participants understanding of leadership (Bryman, 1995) as a backdrop to guide each interview. The interviews commenced with broad questions about leadership, aimed at setting the scene for the participants' understandings of leadership knowing and leadership doing (e.g. asking, "thinking of your role as a leader, how did you learn leadership?", "if you were to sum up ideal leadership, could you please think of five leadership behaviors that you think are important for effective leadership in organizations?"). The main body of questions discerned participants' experiences of discrepancies between leadership knowing and doing (Moustakas, 1994) (e.g. asking "how does the knowing-doing gap manifest itself in the context of leadership?"). Critical incident questions (Chell, 2004) probed interviewees to recount incidents of the leadership knowing-doing gap that they may have experienced (e.g. asking, "please tell me about a time when you feel you experienced a leadership knowing-doing gap", and "please tell me about a time when you feel you may have experienced a knowing-doing gap, but were successful at enacting leadership behavior").

Data Analysis

Data analysis generally followed the outline provided by Moustakas (1994) for phenomenological research, drawing on ideas for code development (Boyatzis, 1998), first and second coding cycles (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and phenomenological thematic analysis (Crotty, 1996; Parameshwar, 2005) for the coding process. The first stage involved horizonalisation, bracketing and phenomenological reduction, eliminating any repetitive, overlapping or unclear statements from the interview transcripts. The remaining statements or invariant constituents of the experience (Moustakas, 1994) were at this point the relevant units of meaning that may be dressed into the language of leadership (Klenke, 2008). The second stage revolved around thematizing and clustering the invariant constituents, which began with thematizing the invariant constituents for each interview, looking at the

particularistic aspects of the leadership knowing-doing gap experiences, which resembles first cycle data coding and within-case analysis (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014) or vertical analysis (Parameshwar, 2005). The next step involved identifying and clustering themes across all the interviews, looking at the universalistic aspects of the leadership knowing-doing gap experiences, which to some extent reflects second cycle pattern coding and cross-case analysis (Miles et al., 2014) or horizontal analysis (Parameshwar, 2005).

The interviews yielded 65 incidents that expressed a discrepancy between leadership knowing and leadership doing. While each incident was unique, a broad distinction emerged from the critical incident responses, allowing to differentiate between different stages in the knowing-doing gap experience, with 34 incidents expressing how the gap was created or widened, and 31 incidents revolving around how the gap was prevented or closed.

The thematized and clustered data was used to write, for each participant, an individual textural description of *what* was experienced, and a structural description of *how* it was experienced and in what contexts. The textural and structural descriptions of all 22 participants were then synthesized into a composite description, presenting similarities as well as nuanced differences to capture the individual, typical and universal understandings of the leadership knowing-doing gap phenomenon for this sample. The final step involved sorting the descriptive clusters of data into analytic categories to form the proposed framework. A simplified illustration of this process is presented in Figure 1.

- Insert Figure 1 about here -

FINDINGS

This section presents the description and interpretation of key findings that emerged from the data in building the proposed framework to conceptualize managers' experience of the leadership knowing-doing gap. Our proposed framework suggests that the leadership

knowing-doing gap experience is complex and multifaceted, resembled by the tripartite model of cognition, affect and behavior, as presented in Figure 2.

- Insert Figure 2 about here -

Awareness of the Leadership Knowing-Doing Gap

When asked how the leadership knowing-doing gap presents itself in the context of leadership (e.g. asking, "how does it manifest?", and "in what kind of work situations does it present itself?"), almost all participants (20 of 22) described the leadership knowing-doing gap as a phenomenon that they are conscious and aware of. These descriptions involved knowing what to do in terms of leadership behavior, but consciously not doing it. As one participant put it: "In some cases, it is a conscious decision… I would consciously decide not to do it [leadership behavior]" (Interview 11). Another participant said: "You know what you should be doing, but for whatever the situation is that you're in the moment, you make a different choice and don't follow what you know…" (Interview 08). On the other hand, half of the participants (11 of 22) revealed that the leadership knowing-doing gap sometimes could be sub-conscious. Thus, even when the leadership knowing-doing gap may exist, a manager may not identify it or immediately be aware of it.

Sub-conscious Gap

This theme emerged when participants talked about knowing what should be done, but sub-consciously acting differently. This notion is conveyed in the following comment:

"You know how something should be done, and do it in a different way, or you don't do as much of it… We would know in our own minds that there's an ideal way of behaving, but I don't think anyone on this earth would probably say they actually behave in an ideal way all the time… sub-conscious decision to do something or not to do something" (Interview 21).

Some participants were explicit in describing the gap as a "mix between the conscious and sub-conscious" (Interview 02). This idea is illustrated by a participant who said:

"I'll probably go through a sort of sub-conscious period of denial, but once I acknowledge the knowing-doing gap, I always feel like I'm challenging myself to do something about it. So the fault for me I guess is more when I don't' see it, rather than when I see it and don't do something about it" (Interview 02).

This unawareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap may involve "forgetting" to apply leadership learning. As one participant stated: "Just ignorance, I just forget it [leadership doing]" (Interview 11). Another participant expressed this view when they said:

"[Leadership] courses at [organization name], lots I can't even remember over the years… unless you put it into practice immediately… we'll spend a couple of days doing it… and then you don't really get much else from it… great methods and tools to use, but then coming out and not really remembering anything" (Interview 13).

Some participants described their unawareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap in relation to a sub-conscious "knowledge gap", whereby leadership knowing may not entirely be clear and therefore the gap between knowing and doing may not come to light. One participant mentioned a knowledge gap around new unfamiliar experiences, saying: "Sometimes I don't know everything that I should be doing… because I haven't encountered them yet" (Interview 07). Other participants framed the knowledge gap in terms of being unclear about their leadership roles, either ineffectively enacting leadership, or not enacting leadership when they should. This notion is illustrated in the following comments:

"Are we clear it is our responsibility to be doing it [leadership behavior]? Or do we think someone else is going to pick it up?" (Interview 14).

Becoming Aware of the Gap

When asked how they become conscious of their leadership knowing-doing gaps (e.g. asking, "how did you notice it [the gap]?"), participants pointed to nuanced differences in terms of how they became aware of the gap. Many participants (14 of 22) mentioned that they realized its existence through their own reflection and self-awareness. For instance, one participant commented: "Sometimes the gap is often there and I might not notice it till the end of the day, when I'm reflecting on my way home thinking, "yeah, I avoided that" or "I walked away from that"" (Interview 03). Another participant explained:

"I would notice because it [the leadership knowing-doing gap] would niggle at me…
I know when I've dodged a [leadership] situation because I don't really want to
confront it, and I know when I've acted in a way that probably wasn't particularly
good… I'm aware of my own [leadership] actions and their effects on other people. I
would know if I had not behaved in a way that I think I ought to" (Interview 01).

On the other hand, just under half of the participants (10 of 22) revealed that they were made aware of their leadership knowing-doing gap through feedback from others. For example, one participant recalled feedback from their team that helped them notice a gap they were initially unaware of, describing it as "feedback that has woken me up" (Interview 19). Another participant said: "360 [feedback] was blunt, it was brilliant and done in such a constructive way… helped me know that I was doing it…" (Interview 14). Another participant expressed this idea in the following way:

"They [team members] gave me some really good feedback… which did make me
reflect back and go "mmm, actually I haven't done them any favors at all, have I?"…
I'm very pleased that they did… It [the leadership knowing-doing gap] was
unconscious… It was my first leadership role… I just so desperately wanted to
succeed and be all "our trackers are all green and we're all great" I'd put no thought

into how I went about doing that... until I took time to stop and reflect, and with that

feedback think "no, I need to do things differently here"" (Interview 02).

Affective States in Experiences of the Leadership Knowing-Doing Gap

When asked how they felt about the leadership knowing-doing gap incidents, (e.g. asking, "how did you feel about the incident at the time?"), different negative and positive affective states emerged.

Negative Affect

Nearly three quarters of the participants (16 of 22) expressed negative affective states in incidents of the leadership knowing-doing gap. Several participants (14 of 22) expressed "frustration", describing feeling "frustrated", "irritated", and "annoyed" for instance. As one participant put it: "A bit of frustration… Annoyed with myself when I know I should actually be acting in one way or doing something in a certain way and I don't" (Interview 21). Similarly, another participant stated: "Very frustrated… You knew that you weren't doing the job that you really want to be able to do…" (Interview 05). Furthermore, two participants (2 of 22) mentioned feelings of "guilt". One participant described a leadership knowing-doing gap around not spending enough time with a team member who needed support, stating: "I felt guilty… I felt as though I'd let him [team member] down…" (Interview 02).

On the other hand, two participants (2 of 22) revealed negative affect related to incidents of a prevented or closed leadership knowing-doing gap. One participant mentioned feeling "nervous" when closing a leadership knowing-doing gap involving being more proactive in stakeholder engagement. Following feedback about the need to communicate more proactively with stakeholders, the participant tried to close this gap despite the fact that they felt nervous about it. The participant commented:

"[I felt] Very, very nervous. I didn't like the idea of it [leadership behavior to close the gap] but it was the right thing to do. The right thing to do as a leader, the right thing to do for the organization" (Interview 06).

Similarly, the other participant described feeling "uncomfortable" when enacting leadership to close a leadership knowing-doing gap that involved communicating with team members more often. The participant stated: "I'm not really somebody that's comfortable just making small talk for the sake of it" (Interview 17). The participant was made conscious about this knowing-doing gap through feedback from team members. The participant described the incident as follows:

"I think I felt a little uncomfortable about it [communicating with team more often] at first… I felt like I was forcing it… When it comes to my team, I want the right atmosphere… I don't want to not have a good team environment. If that means me having to come out of my shell a little bit in a different way, then I'll do that if I think it's appropriate. I don't necessarily think I would always completely adapt to the way someone wants me to, but I take on board feedback…" (Interview 17).

Positive Affect

Only one participant (1 of 22) expressed positive affect in an incident of the leadership knowing-doing gap. This participant mentioned feeling "great" despite recognizing a leadership knowing-doing gap around delegating less motivating tasks to others, stating "… You deliberately find other people around you who like doing that [the less motivating task] and ask them to do it for you" (Interview 10). While delegating such tasks to others felt great at the time, the participant suggested it was not always in favor of efficiency and empowerment of the team.

On the other hand, over three quarters of participants (17 of 22) pointed to positive affect in incidents of a prevented or closed gap. Half of the participants (11 of 22) spoke

about "happiness" and "satisfaction". For instance, one participant commented: "When it [the gap incident] had all finished, I felt really great" (Interview 04). Another participant conveyed this idea in describing closing a leadership knowing-doing gap that revolved around giving team members negative feedback in front of others. The participant tried to prevent this gap by giving team members feedback individually as opposed to in an open environment, and felt good about the change, commenting:

"It [closing the knowing-doing gap] makes me know that I'm doing things right… gives you self-satisfaction to that you've changed something for the better… inner belief that you're prepared to do something differently…" (Interview 02).

Furthermore, some participants (6 of 22) mentioned feelings of "comfort" and "relief" for closing the gap, with comments like "I feel really comfortable about it" (Interview 09), and "it felt so relaxed and calm" (Interview 11). One participant illustrated this notion when describing addressing a leadership knowing-doing gap that involved changing the way they viewed leadership, towards understanding differences in people's perceptions and needs. Making this change was "a release of frustration" for this participant, who commented:

"It [closing the knowing-doing gap] has been a long journey… I feel very comfortable in my own leadership skin… really rewarding… when you actually see people, who you have enabled to perform excellently and things just working… I find seeing people flourish more exciting than seeing a business flourish" (Interview 10).

Moreover, two participants (2 of 22) pointed to "pride" for closing the gap, with descriptions of feeling "strong" and "proud" for instance. This idea was illustrated in an example of a leadership knowing-doing gap incident that one participant was able to address, which required taking action beyond the realm of their responsibility. The participant said:

"I felt quite strong… I felt quite proud because I felt I'd challenged it [the knowing-doing gap] in a really constructive and effective way. I know that I did it for the right

reasons… so I felt that I came from a position of strength because I understood what the problem was and I was able to help…" (Interview 08).

Responses to Address the Leadership Knowing-Doing Gap

When asked how they respond to address the leadership knowing-doing gap (e.g. asking, "when you notice it, how do you respond to it?"), participants reported determining a future response to the gap, or immediately enacting a response to the gap.

Determining a Future Response to Address the Gap

The majority of participants (19 of 22) indicated determining a future response to address the gap in similar situations in the future, with comments like: "I have to really think through the route to get it there [closing the gap]… that might take a month" (Interview 03), and "I always take time to reflect on situations… make a note like "next time, be careful of this [the gap]" (Interview 18). As one participant illustrated:

"I would know if I had not behaved in a way that I think I ought to, and then I would probably just go away and ponder on it quietly and make amends next time… I wouldn't like to think I'm the sort of leader or person that would just keep making the same mistakes again and again…" (Interview 21).

Participants spoke about reflecting to think of the course of action to close the leadership knowing-doing gap. Participants mentioned that they "retract and think", "reflect afterwards", and "go back and reflect". As one participant commented: "What I try to do is work out what is the gap? And try and think of a solution… Propose it and see what happens" (Interview 14). They described how reflection can help in determining an appropriate future course of action, with comments like: "think about what I need to do differently" and determining "the right way to go" or "the right thing to do" and "address it at the right time". One participant illustrated this idea as follows:

"I go for a run and reflect and think about it, and make a decision on "yeah, this is definitely the right thing" so there's also a soul searching…" (Interview 11).

Enacting a Present Response to Address the Gap

Just under half of the participants (10 of 22) reported immediately enacting a response to address the gap in the present situation, with comments like "I wouldn't hold back on doing any of that [leadership behaviour]", and "I will confront the thing that is troubling me". Three participants (3 of 22) pointed to the importance of prioritizing leadership in order to close the gap, mentioning, "prioritizing" and "focus" on leadership, for instance. Comments include: "I try to focus on it [enacting leadership] for the value it can add" (Interview 01). One participant gave an example of prioritizing leadership in the following comment:

"I write a list… it feels so nice to cross it off… That's me closing the gap down… That I know it's [leadership doing to close the gap] got to be done, so it comes to the top of the list rather than not being on the list" (Interview 07).

Furthermore, three participants (3 of 22) indicated that they informed others about their course of action to close the gap in order to carry it through. One participant said: "I will vocally tell them [team members] what I'm not good at, I will show them my 360 [feedback], I don't hide anything" (Interview 15). Another participant commented:

"Sometimes I solidify the determination to do it [closing the gap] by telling others. So I'll tell some of my peers, if I'm really scared then I'll tell my boss. If I tell him that I have to do it… it sort of piles a bit of pressure on" (Interview 11).

DISCUSSION AND PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

This section synthesizes the findings and interpretations into a higher level of abstraction to build the proposed framework on the leadership knowing-doing gap. In summary, findings illuminate the leadership knowing-doing gap in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects of the experience, as presented in Figure 2.

First, findings on the awareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap indicate that the gap may manifest itself as a phenomenon that managers may be conscious of and able to identify. However, there may be instances in which managers may be unaware of the gap's existence. Findings show different mechanisms to becoming aware of the gap, such as intrapersonal reflection and interpersonal feedback. These may be interrelated in bringing awareness of the gap for managers. For instance, external feedback from others may encourage a manager to look more closely at their behavior and internally reflect on and be more aware of areas requiring development or behavioral change. Informal learning that involves feedback and social processes in the workplace has been found to contribute towards the development of leadership identity (Warhurst, 2012), and the transfer of learning in organizations (Enos, Kehrhahn, & Bell, 2003). Similarly, 360-feedback allows tracking the application of leadership learning and development over a period of time (Conger, 2013). On the other hand, reflective tools such as managers keeping reflective learning journals may enhance their transfer of leadership development in organizations (Brown, McCracken, & O'Kane, 2011). Overall, findings on the awareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap point to a cognitive aspect of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience, as presented in Figure 1. The study of leader cognition within the leadership literature looks at how leaders think in general (e.g. Lord & Hall, 2005), and how they think about certain events or challenges (e.g. Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron, & Byrne, 2007). In this research, cognition is reflected in the possibilities of being aware or unaware of the leadership knowing-doing gap's existence, and the different ways of becoming cognitively aware of the gap.

Second, findings on the affective states in experiences of the leadership knowing-doing gap point to a range of negative and positive affective states. While it is possible that the affect traits or affective dispositions of a participant, i.e. the individual's tendency to frequently experience a specific emotion or mood, may have impacted how they felt in the

described incidents, the examples of affect described by participants related to specific incidents of the leadership knowing-doing gap and thus demonstrated affective states (Izard, 1977). The range of affective states that emerged reflects the diversity of negative and positive emotions and moods found in workplace emotions research (Grandey, 2008). Emotion regulation may enable individuals to consciously or unconsciously influence which emotions they experience, in which situations and at which points in time (Bargh & Williams, 2007; Gross, 1998). Thus, it is possible that the participant who "felt great" despite a widening gap, and participants who experienced negative emotions like feeling "nervous" or "uncomfortable" when closing the gap, were able to regulate their emotions in these situations through cognitive reappraisal (Gross & John, 2003) to change the way they thought about the situations. Overall, findings on the affective states in experiences of the gap are represented in the affective aspect of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience, as presented in Figure 1, with a range of negative and positive affective states experienced by managers across different forms of the leadership knowing-doing gap incidents.

Third, findings on the responses to address the leadership knowing-doing gap point to either reflecting to determine a future response to the gap, or immediately enacting leadership behavior to bridge the gap, both of which may represent problem-solving coping approaches. Reflection appears to be an important process for planning how to address the leadership knowing-doing gap, demonstrating that leaders' sense-making can be complex and take time, involving leaders to think and search for answers to solve a challenge (Combe & Carrington, 2015). On the other hand, enactment behavior can be viewed as a problem-solving coping strategy in the face of anxiety or stress (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012). The training transfer literature suggests that the theory of planned behavior may explain how trainees make decisions in the transfer process by clarifying the trainees' transfer behavioral intentions (Cheng & Hampson, 2008). Thus, whether managers choose to immediately enact

a response to the gap, or defer a response to the near or far future, may reflect different behavioral intentions. According to the theory of planned behavior, intentions coupled with perceived behavioral control can influence the variance in behavior (Ajzen, 1991). As leadership may be seen as an open or interpersonal skill, as opposed to a closed or technical skill, a manager may have more freedom in making a decision on whether, how and when to transfer leadership learning (Blume et al., 2010). Thus, the choice between immediately enacting leadership or delaying leadership behavior may also be related the individual's motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Overall, findings on the responses to address the leadership knowing-doing gap point to both a cognitive aspect and a behavioral aspect of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience, as presented in Figure 1. Cognition is indicated by reflection and thinking to determine future responses to the gap, whereas behavior is represented in the immediate behavioral responses to the gap.

In summary, the synthesis of findings suggests that the leadership knowing-doing gap experience can be multifaceted, resembling the tripartite model of cognition, affect and behavior, which dates as far back as Greek philosophers and is often drawn upon without reference to its original sources (Breckler, 1984). The facets of the leadership knowing-doing gap that this research highlights exemplify the three components of the model. First, affect involves an emotional response to a stimulus and can be measured through reports of emotions or moods felt (Breckler, 1984). The affective aspect of the leadership knowing-doing gap is represented by the range of positive and negative affective states that emerged in managers' experiences of the leadership knowing-doing gap. Second, behavior involves actions, intentions, and verbal statements concerning behavior (Breckler, 1984). The behavioral aspect of the leadership knowing-doing gap is reflected in the various behavioral responses to the gap incidents, either enacting behaviors immediately or at least reporting behavioral intentions in determining future behavioral responses to the gap. Third, cognition

revolves around thoughts and perceptual responses (Breckler, 1984). The awareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap reflects the cognitive aspect, as the gap can be conscious or sub-conscious for managers. Another cognitive facet of the leadership knowing-doing gap is also reflected in the intrapersonal and/or interpersonal mechanisms to becoming aware of the gap. Moreover, reflection to determine a future response to the gap further draws on a cognitive feature of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience.

Overall, the discussion of findings demonstrates the links between the trichotomy of thinking, feeling, and acting that come together in the leadership knowing-doing gap experience. The order in which the three facets of the leadership knowing-doing gap occur may take different sequences. Some incidents followed a cognition-affect-behavior sequence, whereby an awareness that the leadership knowing-doing gap exists (i.e. cognition) appears to be the first step in the experience, followed by feelings about the gap's incident (i.e. affect), which then preceded the behavioral response to the gap (i.e. behavior). On the other hand, in some instances managers experienced various emotions before realising that a gap (e.g. feeling frustrated without realising the frustration was related to the lack of leadership doing). Alternatively, feelings about the gap in some situations followed the behavioral response (e.g. enacting leadership to close the gap and then feeling good or feeling nervous about it). Thus, the three facets of the leadership knowing-doing are interrelated but may not necessarily follow a clear-cut sequence. Figure 2 presents the proposed framework of this research, showing the gap's cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects, integrated with the representative findings for each aspect. It illuminates what the experience of the leadership knowing-doing is like for managers, and provides an understanding of how the leadership knowing-doing gap can be conceptually described.

CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND OPPORTUNITIES

Despite the rising interest in leadership development in academia and practice, building knowledge about leadership more often than not remains an end in itself, and little is known about what the transfer of leadership knowledge into leadership enactment by managers may look like. This research serves as a starting point toward advancing our understanding of the leadership knowing-doing gap experience. It demonstrates that the leadership knowing-doing gap is a multifaceted and dynamic phenomenon involving cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects. Following our proposed framework, we present the theoretical contributions and practical implications of this research, discuss limitations, and suggest future research directions.

Theoretical Contributions

New insights from this study form a conceptualization of the leadership knowing-doing gap that enhances the potential of identifying and operationalizing such an experience for future theory building and empirical research.

Contributions to Management Learning

This exploration of the leadership knowing-doing gap offers insights that shed light on managers' experiences of the transfer problem (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Hutchins et al., 2010) and the discrepancy between conceptual and procedural knowledge that managers might hold, and the application of that knowledge (Baldwin et al., 2011). More specifically, this study responds to the call in the management training literature (Blume et al., 2010) to explore the transfer problem when individuals do not to transfer learning of open or interpersonal skills (such as leadership) into actual practice. To this end, our proposed framework is the first to put forward an understanding of how managers experience different cognitive, affective and behavioral elements in the learning transfer process. As leadership is an open and non-technical skill that can often be difficult to observe (Bryman, 2004), a key finding of this study highlights that

managers themselves may be unaware of a discrepancy between their leadership learning and actual leadership doing.

Our study provides insight into potential influences of managers' learning transfer decisions, as discussed above. Interestingly, our findings on how managers respond to their leadership knowing-doing gaps contradict motivational theories that view individuals as inherently active or proactive and innately development or growth oriented (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Whereas in some situations managers immediately enacted leadership behavior to close the gap, in many situations they did not, in line with previous studies on the psychology of doing nothing and people's preference for non-action (Anderson, 2003; Steel, 2007). By illuminating the influence of various critical incidents on leadership enactment, this study complements event-based literature that points to the impact of work events in shaping the cognition, affect, attitudes, behaviors and performance of individuals in organizations (e.g. Morgeson & DeRue, 2006; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Future research could investigate the effect of contextual influences on management learning transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Barnett & Ceci, 2002; Blume et al., 2010) and the transfer of leadership learning into practice (Avolio et al., 2010). For instance, future work could focus on the motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) in environments where urgent work demands might be prioritized over leadership learning transfer (Hirst et al., 2004). An alternative research direction is to explore the knowing-doing gap in other open skills such as entrepreneurship. The transfer problem has been referred to in the entrepreneurship literature as the intention-to-behaviour transition gap, with calls to further investigate this transition process whereby learners may have the intention to translate their knowledge of entrepreneurship into entrepreneurial behavior to actually start-up businesses, yet do not necessarily follow their intentions with actions to make that transition (Nabi, LiÑÁN, Fayolle, Krueger, & Walmsley, 2017).

Contributions to Leadership Development

This research is one of the first to study the knowing-doing gap (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000) specifically from a leadership perspective, attempting to uncover the gap between learning leadership and enacting leadership. The work that does exist around the knowing-doing gap in leadership appears to be dominated by publications for practice audiences (e.g. De Vita, 2009; Jensen, 2011; Raynor, 2010; Weber, 2011; Zenger, Folkman, & Edinger, 2011), which are largely based on anecdotal evidence. In theory and research, little is known about how managers apply leadership lessons learned from experiences (McCall, 2010) or leadership development programs (Collins & Holton, 2004). This research responds to the call for investigating the process by which leaders transfer their learned leadership into actual leadership behavior (Hirst et al., 2004). Our findings shed light on the experience of the transfer failure (Warhurst, 2012) or application gap (Conger, 2013) from the perspective of leaders who have lived it. A striking revelation was finding that leaders may be totally unaware of their knowing-doing gaps, and thus may have a knowledge gap about their knowing-doing gap. This insight highlights the importance of examining the links between leadership development and leadership emergence, which is often neglected in leadership research (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

Uncovering what the leadership knowing-doing gap experiences are like for managers could be useful for future intervention studies to investigate the leadership knowing-doing gap following particular leadership development programs or practices. While this research looked at the transfer of ongoing leadership learning from various sources of knowledge acquisition, future research could assess the transfer of learning outcomes from a learning episode by asking participants to rate their 'knowing' against the intended learning outcomes of a leadership development program that they attend for instance, and then rate their 'doing' according to the extent to which they enact each of the learning outcomes following the

program. Longitudinal follow up exercises may be utilized, whereby participants rate their 'doing' at different points in time following the program to assess maintenance of enactment over time. These rating activities could be combined with interviews to enrich our understanding of the generalization and maintenance conditions of transfer suggested in the management training literature (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010). Such studies would also respond to calls for more longitudinal designs in studying leadership development (Riggio & Mumford, 2011), as well as calls for examining the effectiveness of leadership development for the desired positive impacts on the attitudes, behaviors and performance of leaders (Avolio et al., 2010; Collins & Holton, 2004).

Practical Implications

The leadership knowing-doing gap remains a pressing challenge that is largely neglected or overlooked in practice (CIPD, 2015; Saks, 2013; Weber, 2011). This research serves as a reminder of the importance of assessing managers' transfer of their leadership knowledge into leadership behaviour, and offers insights into what the experience of the leadership knowing-doing gap may look like. This could benefit managers and management educators in identifying learning transfer challenges as well as promoting more effective leadership development and practice in organizations.

This research raises awareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap for managers, organizations and management educators. It may be taken for granted that leaders are willing and able to translate what they know about leadership into real leadership action. Demonstrating the existence of the leadership knowing-doing gap in real contexts, this research complements existing approaches that challenge the view that holding a formal leadership position in an organization inherently conveys leadership (e.g. Bedeian & Hunt, 2006; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). By exploring the knowing-doing gap in leadership with a sample of managers in formal leadership positions, the leadership knowing-doing gap

incidents discussed in this research highlight the perspective that attending leadership development programs and accumulating other forms of leadership knowledge over time does not necessarily prescribe leadership enactment (Blanchard et al., 2007; Johnstal, 2013; McCall, 2010; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000; Warhurst, 2012). Findings indicate that not all managers in leadership positions actually lead all the time, and that not all leaders consistently apply their leadership learning into leadership practice.

The interviews in this study raised awareness of the leadership knowing-doing gap by offering participants an opportunity to think about the gap, and reflect on incidents in which it may have presented itself in their work contexts. Several participants emphasized the impact of the interviews on encouraging reflection and enhancing their self-awareness. For instance, some managers were able to notice a sub-conscious leadership knowing-doing gap that they did not realize they had prior to the interview. This demonstrates how self-narrative may be a process for leadership development, gaining self-knowledge through self-stories from past experiences (Day et al., 2014). Furthermore, in rating their statements of ideal leadership behavior according to the extent to which they reflect their actual leadership enactment in their contexts, some participants gained a sense of relief in highlighting their strengths in leadership enactment, whilst others realized areas of weaknesses, which encouraged them to reflect on how to bridge their knowing-doing gaps in these areas. Perhaps a similar reflection exercise on the leadership knowing-doing gap could be used by management educators to assess learning transfer, as well as in organizations, incorporated into existing personal development plans or 360-degree feedback activities, for instance, in order to raise the awareness of the knowing-doing gap.

This research highlights the significance of assessing the transfer of leadership knowledge in terms of actual leadership enactment in organizations. As leadership effectiveness may take different forms in diverse contexts, and since existing theories of

leadership effectiveness largely imply development implications, assessing leadership learning transfer is necessary to fully understand and examine leadership effectiveness (Hannum & Craig, 2010). The rising scholarly interest in studying management learning transfer (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Hutchins et al., 2010) and evaluating leadership development initiatives (e.g. Avolio et al., 2010; Militello & Benham, 2010; Richard et al., 2014) offers promising advances to the fields. By exploring what the leadership knowing-doing gap experience is like for leaders and how incidents of the gap may stand in the way of leadership action, this study further emphasizes the need for follow up on leadership development (Day, 2000; Day et al., 2014) particularly in terms of examining how it translates into real practice in organizations.

Our findings provide a conceptualization of the leadership knowing-doing gap, which could make it more detectable by managers and resolvable in organizations. While considerable time and resources is expended in developing leadership (ASTD, 2014; CIPD, 2015; Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000; Saks, 2013), it remains an end in itself. Organizations could perhaps use the conceptualization of the leadership knowing-doing gap when assessing the effectiveness of leadership development activities (CIPD, 2015), the transfer of learning into action on the job (Saks, 2013; Weber, 2011), and the return on development investment (Avolio et al., 2010) against broader organizational objectives and outcomes (Johnstal, 2013; Saks, 2013). Insights on the cognitive, affective and behavioral elements of the experience can provide indicators in organizations to ask, for instance, whether managers are aware of their knowing-doing gaps, how they feel about their knowing and doing, and what could be implemented to facilitate and maintain the transfer of knowing into doing. These questions are also useful for management educators to raise when teaching leadership or other relevant topics, to promote learning transfer in real settings.

Limitations

The first limitation revolves around the scope of this research. First, this study focuses on the transfer of knowing into doing. Thus, learning processes and other possible antecedents to knowing form some background, but remain broadly outside the scope of this research. Additionally, by focusing on the transfer of knowing into doing, contexts in which doing leads to knowing are excluded from this investigation. Future research could extend this work by looking whether aspects of learning processes may influence the transfer of learning into practice. An additional area for future research could be to explore whether the knowing-doing gap could occur in contexts where knowing and doing are intertwined, such as enacting leadership as a form of tacit knowledge (Hedlund et al., 2003), knowing through practice (Nicolini, 2011), action learning (Pedler, 2008), and experiential learning (Hoover et al., 2010), although it may be difficult to understand how individuals could *know* and not *do* in contexts where knowledge is a product of actual doing on the job (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000).

Second, in exploring the leadership knowing-doing gap experience, we do not comprehensively cover potential influences on the phenomenon in this study. Future research could further investigate potential influences on the leadership knowing-doing gap, such as the motivation to lead (e.g. Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Kessler, Radosevich, Jeewon, & Kim, 2008), leader self-efficacy (e.g. Hannah et al., 2008; Hendricks & Payne, 2007; Lei, 2007; Lester et al., 2011), leader identity (e.g. Day & Harrison, 2007; Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2008; Day & Sin, 2011; Lord & Hall, 2005), the motivation to develop (e.g. Boyce, Zaccaro, & Wisecarver, 2010; Reichard & Johnson, 2011), and the developmental readiness of leaders (e.g. Ely et al., 2010; Guillén & Ibarra, 2010; Hannah & Avolio, 2010; Jensen, 2011).

In terms of limitations inherent in the methodology, this phenomenological exploration looked at the phenomenon primarily from the individual managers' standpoint. Relational and collective dimensions may also influence the knowing-doing gap at the

individual level, involving leader-follower relationships (e.g. Valcea, Hamdani, Buckley, & Novicevic, 2011) and the development of leadership capacity in teams (e.g. Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004). One way to prevent a leader-centric bias is to take into account external influences in recognizing the complexity of leadership involving leaders, followers, dyads, and collectives (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Hernandez et al., 2011; Yukl, 2010). This pluralistic standpoint on leadership informs our research, yet we also located the vantage point for discussing the leadership knowing-doing gap toward the individual managers within their leadership contexts. Future research could use 360-degree assessments of leadership enactment (Johnson et al., 2012) to triangulate multiple viewpoints on the phenomenon, for instance comparing the perspectives of leaders, peers and followers on the same leadership knowing-doing gap incidents.

Finally, the reliance on interview self-reports may be vulnerable to retroactive recall and social desirability bias. Nevertheless, the interviews allowed delving deep into participants' cognition, affect, behaviors and contexts, and phenomenological reduction suggests that the descriptions of the phenomenon offered refers to how the participants reported the experience of the phenomenon, which may be their experience of the phenomenon but not the phenomenon itself (Giorgi, 1997). Thus, our phenomenological interviews in this research provided rich insights from the perspective of participants, reaching a conceptualization of the experience that is generalizable to this particular sample. Future research could take an ethnomethodological approach (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995), for instance, to triangulate interview findings with additional methods (such as combining observations of the leadership knowing-doing gap in different contexts with the interview findings). It would have been difficult at this early stage of research on the leadership knowing-doing gap phenomenon to use observation. Without a clear understanding of how the leadership knowing-doing gap may manifest itself, trying to

observe it would have been a challenge. Observing leadership may pose a difficulty in knowing exactly what the researcher is supposed to observe (Bryman, 2004). As this study shows, not all managers with leadership roles actually always enact leadership. Nonetheless, in terms of transferability of the conclusions of this research beyond the sample studied (Bryman & Bell, 2007), the intent of a phenomenological approach is to provide a rich description of the shared experience as opposed to generalizing findings to the entire population across all contexts, which is not possible particularly as different contexts may relativize findings (Giorgi, 1997). Generalizability in phenomenological research is usually limited to the specific sample studied (Gill, 2014).

Conclusion

This research phenomenologically explores the leadership knowing-doing gap experience from the perspective of 22 managers. Findings highlight situations in which the leadership knowing-doing gap manifested in the experiences of participants, providing insights into the leadership knowing-doing gap phenomenon. The leadership knowing-doing gap is conceptualized in terms of cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects, describing how these interplay along the dynamics of the leadership knowing-doing gap, creating or widening the gap on the one hand, or preventing or closing it on the other hand. The proposed framework enhances our understanding of the leadership knowing-doing gap for future research in management learning and leadership development. However, Pfeffer and Sutton (2000: 263) state that "knowing about the knowing-doing gap is not enough… knowing about the knowing-doing gap is different from doing something about it". Indeed, Blanchard et al. (2007) highlight that bridging the knowing-doing gap requires more actions than words. It is hoped that managers and management educators would use insights from this research to encourage more effective learning transfer and leadership enactment in organizations.

Figure 1: Thematic Analysis

Themes	Clusters	Categories	
Forgetting to apply knowledge	Sub-conscious gap		
Knowledge gap			
Reflection, self-awareness	Becoming aware of the gap	Awareness of the gap	**Cognition**
Feedback			
Frustration	Negative affect		
Guilt			
Nervousness			
Discomfort			
Feeling great	Positive affect	Affective states in experiences of the gap	**Affect**
Comfort, relief			
Happiness, satisfaction			
Pride			
Reflection and thinking	Determining a future response		
Prioritizing leadership	Enacting a present response	Responses to address the gap	**Behavior**
Involving others			

Figure 2: The Experience of the Leadership Knowing-Doing Gap
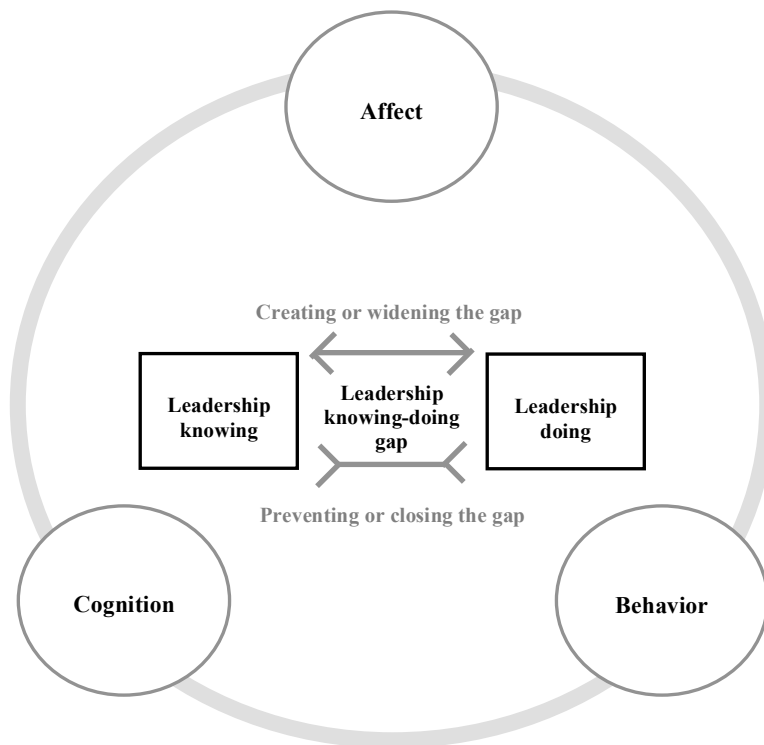
REFERENCES

Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2): 179-211.

Anderson, C. J. 2003. The psychology of doing nothing: Forms of decision avoidance result from reason and emotion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(1): 139-167.

ASTD. 2014. ASTD 2014 State of the Industry.

Avolio, Avey, J. B., & Quisenberry, D. 2010. Estimating return on leadership development investment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4): 633-644.

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.

Baldwin, T. T., & Ford, J. K. 1988. Transfer of training: A review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(1): 63-105.

Baldwin, T. T., Pierce, J. R., Joines, R. C., & Farouk, S. 2011. The elusiveness of applied management knowledge: A critical challenge for management educators. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(4): 583-605.

Bargh, J. A., & Williams, L. E. 2007. The nonconscious regulation of emotion. In J. J. Gross (Ed.), *Handbook of Emotion Regulation*: 429-446. New York: Guilford Publication.

Barnett, S. M., & Ceci, S. J. 2002. When and Where Do We Apply What We Learn? A Taxonomy for Far Transfer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(4): 612-637.

BCG. 2015. Creating people advantage 2014-2015: How to set up great HR functions.

Bedeian, A. G., & Hunt, J. G. 2006. Academic amnesia and vestigial assumptions of our forefathers. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(2): 190-205.

Bennis, W. G., & O'Toole, J. 2005. How business schools lost their way. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(5): 96-104.

Blanchard, K., Meyer, P. J., & Ruhe, D. 2007. *Know can do: Put your know-how into action*. San Fransisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

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.

Bogdan, R., & Taylor, S. J. 1975. *Introduction to qualitative research methods: a phenomenological approach to the social sciences*. London: Wiley.

Boyatzis, R. E. 1998. *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. California: Sage Publications.

Boyce, L. A., Zaccaro, S. J., & Wisecarver, M. Z. 2010. Propensity for self-development of leadership attributes: Understanding, predicting, and supporting performance of leader self-development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1): 159-178.

Breckler, S. J. 1984. Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 47(6): 1191-1205.

Brown, T., McCracken, M., & O'Kane, P. 2011. 'Don't forget to write': how reflective learning journals can help to facilitate, assess and evaluate training transfer. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(4): 465-481.

Bryman, A. 1995. Qualitative methods in leadership research: Introduction. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(4): 491-493.

Bryman, A. 2004. Qualitative research on leadership: A critical but appreciative review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6): 729-769.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. 2007. *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. 2007. Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5): 1217-1234.

Cassell, C., & Symon, G. 1994. *Qualitative methods in organizational research: a practical guide*: Sage.

Chan, K. Y., & Drasgow, F. 2001. Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3): 481-498.

Chell, E. 2004. Critical Incident Technique. In C. Cassell, & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*, 1st ed.: 45-60. London: Sage Publications.

Cheng, E. W. L., & Hampson, I. 2008. Transfer of training: A review and new insights. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 10(4): 327-341.

CIPD. 2015. 2015 Learning and Development Annual Survey Report.

Collins, D. B., & Holton, E. F. 2004. The effectiveness of managerial leadership development programs: A meta-analysis of studies from 1982 to 2001. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(2): 217-248.

Combe, I. A., & Carrington, D. J. 2015. Leaders' sensemaking under crises: Emerging cognitive consensus over time within management teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(3): 307-322.

Conger, J. 2013. Mind the Gaps: What Limits the Impact of Leadership Education. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 6(4): 77-83.

Conger, J. A. 1992. *Learning to lead: the art of transforming managers into leaders*. California: Jossey-Bass.

Creswell, J. W. 2012. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Crotty, M. 1996. *Phenomenology and Nursing Research*. Melbourne: Churchill Livingstone.

Dansereau, F., Seitz, S. R., Chiu, C.-Y., Shaughnessy, B., & Yammarino, F. J. 2013. What makes leadership, leadership? Using self-expansion theory to integrate traditional and contemporary approaches. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(6): 798-821.

Day, D. V. 2000. Leadership development: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4): 581-613.

Day, D. V. 2011a. Integrative perspectives on longitudinal investigations of leader development: From childhood through adulthood. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3): 561-571.

Day, D. V. 2011b. Leadership development. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Leadership*, 1 ed.: 37-50. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Day, D. V., 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. V., Gronn, P., & Salas, E. 2004. Leadership capacity in teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6): 857-880.

Day, D. V., & Harrison, M. M. 2007. A multilevel, identity-based approach to leadership development. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(4): 360-373.

Day, D. V., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. 2008. *An integrative approach to leader development: connecting adult development, identity, and expertise*. New York: Routledge.

Day, D. V., & 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.

de Jong, T., & Ferguson-Hessler, M. G. M. 1996. Types and qualities of knowledge. *Educational Psychologist*, 31(2): 105-113.

De Vita, E. 2009. The knowing-doing gap. *Third Sector*: 21.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. 2002. *Handbook of Self-determination Research*. New York: University of Rochester Press.

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., Sitkin, S. B., & Podolny, J. M. 2011. From the Guest Editors: Teaching Leadership--Issues and Insights. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(3): 369-372.

Ely, K., Boyce, L. A., Nelson, J. K., Zaccaro, S. J., Hernez-Broome, G., & Whyman, W. 2010. Evaluating leadership coaching: A review and integrated framework. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4): 585-599.

Enos, M. D., Kehrhahn, M. T., & Bell, A. 2003. Informal Learning and the Transfer of Learning: How Managers Develop Proficiency. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 14(4): 369-387.

Ericsson, K. A., & Charness, N. 1994. Expert Performance: Its Structure and Acquisition. *American Psychologist*, 49(8): 725-747.

Fondas, N., & Stewart, R. 1994. Enactment in Managerial Jobs: A Role Analysis. *Journal of Management Studies*, 31(1): 83-103.

Ford, J. D., Ford, L. W., & Polin, B. 2014. *Leadership in the Conduct of Organization Change: An Integrative View* Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings.

Ford, J. K., & Kraiger, K. 1995. The application of cognitive constructs and principles to the instructional systems model of training: Implications for needs assessment, design, and transfer. In C. I. Cooper, & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 10: 1-48. New York: Wiley.

Gardner, W. L., Lowe, K. B., Moss, T. W., Mahoney, K. T., & Cogliser, C. C. 2010. Scholarly leadership of the study of leadership: A review of The Leadership Quarterly's second decade, 2000–2009. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(6): 922-958.

Gibson, S. K. 2004. Being Mentored: The Experience of Women Faculty. *Journal of Career Development (Springer Science & Business Media B.V.)*, 30(3): 173-188.

Gill, M. J. 2014. The Possibilities of Phenomenology for Organizational Research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 17(2): 118-137.

Giorgi, A. 1997. The Theory, Practice, and Evaluation of the Phenomenological Method as a Qualitative Research Procedure. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 28(2): 235-260.

Goldstein, I. L., & Ford, J. K. 2002. *Training in Organizations: Needs Assessment, Development, and Evaluation* (4 ed.). California: Wadsworth.

Grandey, A. A. 2008. Emotions at Work: A Review and Research Agenda. In J. Barling, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Behavior - Volume One: Micro Approaches*: 234-261. London: Sage Publications.

Gross, J. J. 1998. The Emerging Field of Emotion Regulation: An Integrative Review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3): 271-299.

Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. 2003. Individual Differences in Two Emotion Regulation Processes: Implications for Affect, Relationships, and Well-Being. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 85(2): 348-362.

Guillén, L., & Ibarra, H. 2010. Seasons of a leader's development: Beyond a one-size fits all approach to designing interventions. *INSEAD Working Papers Collection*(14): 1-14.

Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. 1995. *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Hannah, S. T., & Avolio, B. J. 2010. Ready or not: How do we accelerate the developmental readiness of leaders? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(8): 1181-1187.

Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Harms, P. D. 2008. Leadership efficacy: Review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6): 669-692.

Hannum, K. M., & Craig, S. B. 2010. Introduction to special issue on leadership development evaluation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4): 581-582.

Hedlund, J., Forsythe, G. B., Horvath, J. A., Williams, W. M., Snook, S., & Sternberg, R. J. 2003. Identifying and assessing tacit knowledge: understanding the practical intelligence of military leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(2): 117-140.

Hendricks, J. W., & Payne, S. C. 2007. Beyond the big five: Leader goal orientation as a predictor of leadership effectiveness. *Human Performance*, 20(4): 317-343.

Hernandez, M., Eberly, M. B., Avolio, B. J., & Johnson, M. D. 2011. The loci and mechanisms of leadership: Exploring a more comprehensive view of leadership theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6): 1165-1185.

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.

Hochwarter, W. A., & Thompson, K. W. 2012. Mirror, mirror on my boss's wall: Engaged enactment's moderating role on the relationship between perceived narcissistic supervision and work outcomes. *Human Relations*, 65(3): 335-366.

Hoover, J. D., Giambatista, R. C., Sorenson, R. L., & Bommer, W. H. 2010. Assessing the effectiveness of whole person learning pedagogy in skill acquisition. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 9(2): 192-203.

Hutchins, H. M., Burke, L. A., & Berthelsen, A. M. 2010. A missing link in the transfer problem? Examining how trainers learn about training transfer. *Human Resource Management*, 49(4): 599-618.

Izard, C. E. 1977. *Human Emotions*. New York: Springer.

Jensen, M. L. 2011. Nurturing self-knowledge: the impact of a leadership development program. *OD Practitioner*, 43(3): 30-35.

Johnson, S. K., Garrison, L. L., Hernez-Broome, G., Fleenor, J. W., & Steed, J. L. 2012. Go For the Goal(s): Relationship Between Goal Setting and Transfer of Training Following Leadership Development. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 11(4): 555-569.

Johnstal, S. P. 2013. Successful Strategies for Transfer of Learned Leadership. *Performance Improvement*, 52(7): 5-12.

Kark, R. 2011. Games managers play: Play as a form of leadership development. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(3): 507-527.

Kessler, S. R., Radosevich, D. J., Jeewon, C., & Kim, S. K. 2008. An examination of the antecedents of motivation to lead. *International Journal of Business Research*, 8(5): 113-119.

Kirkpatrick, D., & Kirkpatrick, J. 2006. *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels*. California: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Klenke, K. 2008. *Qualitative research in the study of leadership* (1st ed.). Bingley: Emerald.

Kuzel, A. J. 1999. Sampling in Qualitative Inquiry. In B. F. Crabtree, & W. L. Miller (Eds.), *Doing Qualitative Research*, 2nd ed.: 33-46. London: Sage Publications.

Ladkin, D., & Taylor, S. S. 2010. Enacting the 'true self': Towards a theory of embodied authentic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1): 64-74.

Lei, W. 2007. Sources of leadership self-efficacy: Follower feedback and group performance outcomes. *International Journal of Business Research*, 7(6): 140-148.

Lester, P. B., Hannah, S. T., Harms, P. D., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avolio, B. J. 2011. Mentoring impact on leader efficacy development: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(3): 409-429.

Lord, R. G., & Hall, R. J. 2005. Identity, deep structure and the development of leadership skill. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4): 591-615.

McCall, M. W. 2010. Peeling the Onion: Getting Inside Experience-Based Leadership Development. *Industrial & Organizational Psychology*, 3(1): 61-68.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. 2014. *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Methods Sourcebook* (3 ed.). California: Sage Publications.

Militello, M., & Benham, M. K. P. 2010. "Sorting Out" collective leadership: How Q-methodology can be used to evaluate leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4): 620-632.

Moran, D. 2000. *Introduction to phenomenology* (1st ed.). New York: Routledge.

Morgan, G., & Smircich, L. 1980. The Case for Qualitative Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 5(4): 491-500.

Morgeson, F. P., & DeRue, D. S. 2006. Event criticality, urgency, and duration: Understanding how events disrupt teams and influence team leader intervention. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(3): 271-287.

Moustakas, C. 1994. *Phenomenological research methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Mumford, M. D., Friedrich, T. L., Caughron, J. J., & Byrne, C. L. 2007. Leader cognition in real-world settings: How do leaders think about crises? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(6): 515-543.

Nabi, G., LiÑÁN, F., Fayolle, A., Krueger, N., & Walmsley, A. 2017. The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education in Higher Education: A Systematic Review and Research Agenda. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 16(2): 277-299.

Nicolini, D. 2011. Practice as the site of knowing: Insights from the field of telemedicine. *Organization Science*, 22(3): 602-620.

O'Connell, P. K. 2014. A simplified framework for 21st century leader development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(2): 183-203.

Orvis, K. A., & Ratwani, K. L. 2010. Leader self-development: A contemporary context for leader development evaluation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4): 657-674.

Parameshwar, S. 2005. Spiritual leadership through ego-transcendence: Exceptional responses to challenging circumstances. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(5): 689-722.

Patton, M. Q. 2002. *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). London Sage Publications.

Pedler, M. 2008. *Action learning for managers*. Hampshire: Gower Publishing Ltd.

Peus, C., Braun, S., & Frey, D. 2013. Situation-based measurement of the full range of leadership model — Development and validation of a situational judgment test. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(5): 777-795.

Pfeffer, J., & Sutton, R. 2000. *The knowing-doing gap: How smart companies turn knowledge into action*. Boston: Harvard Business Press.

Pivčević, E. 1970. *Husserl and Phenomenology*. London: Hutchinson University Library.

Raynor, M. E. 2010. What's wrong with what is that it's not how. ***Conference Board Review***, 47(2): 66-67.

Reichard, R. J., & Johnson, S. K. 2011. Leader self-development as organizational strategy. ***The Leadership Quarterly***, 22(1): 33-42.

Richard, B. W., Holton Iii, E. F., & Katsioloudes, V. 2014. The use of discrete computer simulation modeling to estimate return on leadership development investment. ***The Leadership Quarterly***, 25(5): 1054-1068.

Riggio, R. E., & Mumford, M. D. 2011. Introduction to the special issue: Longitudinal studies of leadership development. ***The Leadership Quarterly***, 22(3): 453-456.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. 2005. ***Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*** (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Saks, A. M. 2013. The Learning Transfer Problem: Barriers and Solutions. ***Canadian Learning Journal***, 17(1): 10-23.

Schippmann, J. S., Ash, R. A., Battista, M., Carr, L., Eyde, L. D., Hesketh, B., Kehoe, J., Pearlman, K., Prien, E. P., & Sanchez, J. I. 2000. The practice of competency modeling ***Personnel Psychology***, 53(3): 703-740.

Silverman, D. 2010. ***Doing qualitative research*** (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Steel, P. 2007. The nature of procrastination: A meta-analytic and theoretical review of quintessential self-regulatory failure. ***Psychological Bulletin***, 133(1): 65-94.

Tannenbaum, S. I. 1997. Enhancing continuous learning: Diagnostic findings from multiple companies. ***Human Resource Management***, 36(4): 437-452.

Valcea, S., Hamdani, M. R., Buckley, M. R., & Novicevic, M. M. 2011. Exploring the developmental potential of leader-follower interactions: A constructive-developmental approach. ***The Leadership Quarterly***, 22(4): 604-615.

Van Velsor, E., McCauley, C. D., & Ruderman, M. N. (Eds.). 2010. ***The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development*** (3 ed.). San Francisco: Wiley.

Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. 2007. The Role of the Situation in Leadership. ***American Psychologist***, 62(1): 17-24.

Warhurst, R. P. 2012. Leadership development as identity formation: middle managers' leadership learning from MBA study. ***Human Resource Development International***, 15(4): 471-487.

Weber, E. 2011. Learning is the lever for change: Making the leap to effective learning transfer. ***Training & Development in Australia***, 38(3): 04-05.

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.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. 1996. Affective Events Theory: A Theoretical Discussion of the Structure, Causes and Consequences of Affective Experiences at Work. ***Research in Organizational Behavior***, 18: 1-74.

Wexley, K. N., & Baldwin, T. T. 1986. Posttraining strategies for facilitating positive transfer: an empirical exploration. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 29(3): 503-520.

Yukl, G., 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. 2010. ***Leadership in organizations*** (7th ed.). London: Pearson.

Zenger, J. H., Folkman, J. R., & Edinger, S. K. 2011. Making yourself indispensable. ***Harvard Business Review***, 89(10): 84-92.