

JYU DISSERTATIONS 351

Sini Juuti

Current and Future Leadership Education in Finland

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ABSTRACT

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This research focuses on the leadership and leadership development discourses used in educational institutes. Educational institutes have a central role in socializing leaders and managers in their leadership roles. However, it is not known what kind of views persons developing leadership have adopted of leadership and leadership development.

The philosophical standpoint of this study is hermeneutics and social constructionism, which emphasizes the view that leadership, as well as leadership development, are produced in social interaction. Accordingly, it is not possible to find one best way of leadership. Instead, leadership, as well as leadership development, need to be seen from a contextual point of view.

This research is a qualitative, multiple case study. The data of the study was collected by interviewing 27 leaders and development specialists who are working in educational institutes. Preliminary materials were gathered from all the 37 major educational institutes operating in the field of management and leadership development. 25 institutes agreed to participate in the study. 8 of these institutes were universities and 17 other educational institutes.

Through content analysis, using, in particular, the Gioia-method, it was found that most educational institutes use interactional leadership views in leadership development. However, quite many educational institutes still use traditional leadership discourses in their leadership development. Contextual leadership discourses are often mentioned in a favorable tone but are still not used very often. It was also found that many educational institutes use traditional, class-room-based training methods in leadership education. None of the educational institutes which participated in the study has been able to transfer its leadership education to the workplace. So, none of the educational institutes are using truly contextual leadership development methods in their work.

When comparing educational institutes, it was found that those educational institutes that have adopted traditional leadership views also use traditional leadership development methods and those educational institutes that have adopted new leadership views also use new leadership development methods.

Keywords: leadership, leadership development, educational institutes, development methods

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TIIVISTELMÄ

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Nykyinen ja tuleva johtamiskoulutus

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Tutkimus käsittelee johtamiskoulutuslaitoksissa omaksuttuja diskursseja johtamisesta ja johtamisen kehittämistä. Johtamiskoulutuslaitoksilla on keskeinen rooli prosessissa, jonka tuloksena johtajat ja esimiehet omaksuvat esimiesroolinsa. Emme kuitenkaan tiedä millaisia näkemyksiä johtamiskoulutuslaitoksissa on omaksuttu johtamisesta ja johtamisen kehittämistä.

Tutkimuksen taustalla oleva tieteenfilosofinen näkemys on hermeneuttinen ja sosiaaliskonstruktivistinen. Sosiaalisen konstruktionismin ajatuksia mukaillen tässä tutkimuksessa ajatellaan, että johtaminen ja johtamisen kehittäminen ovat ihmisten välisen vuorovaikutuksen tuloksia, joten niitä ei ole mahdollista mallintaa eikä ole mahdollista löytää parasta johtamisnäkökulmaa tai tapaa kehittää johtamista. Johtaminen ja johtamisen kehittäminen ovat kontekstuaalisia ilmiöitä.

Tutkimus on useille tapauksille perustuva laadullinen tutkimus. Tutkimusaineisto on kerätty haastattelemalla 27 henkilöä, jotka työskentelevät johtamiskoulutuslaitoksien johtajina tai johtamisen asiantuntijoina. Internetistä kerättyjen alustavien tietojen perusteella maassamme on 37 suurehkoa johtamiskoulutuslaitosta, joista 25 koulutuslaitosta suostui tutkimuksen kohteeksi. 8 mukaan saatua koulutuslaitosta oli yliopistojen johtamiskoulutusyksiköitä ja 17 muita johtamiskoulutusinstituutteja.

Kerättyä haastatteluaineistoa analysoitiin sisällön analyysin, erityisesti ns. Gioia-menetelmän, avulla. Tulokset osoittivat, että useimmissa johtamiskoulutuslaitoksissa on omaksuttu vuorovaikutteinen näkemys johtamisesta. Melko moni johtamiskoulutuslaitos kuitenkin edelleen käyttää perinteisiä johtamisnäkökulmia johtamisen kehittämässä hyväksi. Kontekstuaalisista johtamisnäkemysistä puhutaan myönteiseen sävyyn, mutta sangen harvat johtamiskoulutuslaitokset käyttävät niitä johtamisen kehittämässä hyväkseen. Tulokset osoittivat myös, että johtamiskoulutus on varsin usein edelleen luonteeltaan luokkamuotoiselle opetukselle perustuvaa perinteistä johtamiskoulutusta. Yksikään mukana ollut johtamiskoulutuslaitos ei ollut siirtänyt johtamiskoulutusta työpaikalle, työn ohessa tehtäväksi toiminnaksi. Yksikään johtamiskoulutuslaitos ei käyttänyt todella kontekstuaalisia johtamisen kehittämisen menetelmiä kehittämistyössään hyväksi.

Johtamiskoulutuslaitoksia keskenään verrattaessa havaittiin, että ne johtamiskoulutuslaitokset, jotka olivat omaksuneet perinteisen johtamisnäkökulman johtamiskoulutuksensa taustaksi, käyttivät todennäköisesti myös perinteisi-

siä johtamisen kehittämisen näkökulmia kehittämistyössään hyväksi. Sen sijaan sellaiset johtamiskoulutuslaitokset, jotka olivat omaksuneet uudempia johtamisnäkemystyksiä johtamiskoulutuksensa taustalle, käyttivät myös todennäköisesti uudempia johtamisen kehittämismenetelmiä kehittämistyössään hyväksi.

Avainsanat: Johtaminen, johtamisen kehittäminen, johtamiskoulutuslaitokset, kehittämismenetelmät.

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I only became interested in leadership after having been working as a specialist of traffic issues for a couple of years. I had earlier thought that the knowledge of the substance of one's profession would be the most important thing in work. However, having been working long enough as a specialist of technical matters, I realized that I had been wrong. It was the leaders and managers at that workplace that mattered. Leaders and managers influenced both the content of the work and people's work experiences.

When I realized that it was leadership that mattered, I began to read books and articles on leadership. Some years later I dared to ask Aalto University for permission to continue my studies. I am deeply grateful to Professor Matti Vartiainen who encouraged me to do this dissertation and who led my steps through the many difficult questions of conducting this study.

However, it was only at the Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics that I found my true academic home. I am most grateful to the kind but assertive support that I have received from all persons working there and especially from my colleagues.

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Jyväskylä 29.1.2021

Sini Juuti

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Justification and the perspective of the study

It is commonly believed that organizations need good leaders, and that leadership can be taught. Behind these assumptions there is a common thought that teaching leadership matters because properly prepared leaders can contribute to the welfare of people and to the success of organizations. In fact, many leadership development researchers believe that it is worthwhile teaching leadership because it is assumed that good leaders strive to make a positive difference in the lives of others and in our world (Perruci & Warty Hall 2018, 1-3). The common acceptance of these assumptions grants a lot of power to educational institutes that develop and socialize leaders and managers. However, it is not at all clear that the above-mentioned assumptions are correct ones, because there are so many different leadership views and leadership discourses and because the leadership views and discourses are changing. Neither is it at all clear that we understand the concepts of leadership and leadership development properly.

When considering the importance of leadership for organizations and for people, it is surprising that the role of educational institutes in leadership development has not been studied, at least not in Finland. This is amazing as leadership has been studied a great deal from different perspectives. However, even though tens of thousands of research articles and books have been written about leadership, it is not at all clear what leadership is in the changing world of work (Kelly 2014). Accordingly, in leadership development educational institutes can use whatever leadership view is available. The situation becomes increasingly more blurred by the fact that leadership development can be done in many ways. Moreover, the typical focus of management and leadership development in many educational institutes is leader and manager development, which focuses on individual managers and leaders. However, nowadays we know that this individualistic and leader-centered way of viewing leadership development is outdated and has many limitations because it lacks the social

and contextual dimension which is emphasized in contemporary organizations (e.g. Day 2001).

Contemporary researchers have stressed that leadership development must focus on building social networks and relationships of trust and commitment and coordinating efforts within and across teams and organizations if it wants to get results. Accordingly, many contemporary researchers consider that leadership development is one way of developing organizational social capital (Olivares et al. 2007, 77-79).

Many organizations develop management and leadership competences as it is believed that management and leadership development have a major impact on the operations and results of organizations. Also, many organizations use management and leadership development in order to change the culture of an organization. Wilson (2016, 1) says that, nowadays, it is believed that leadership is the solution to every problem. It is also believed that with leadership everything becomes possible.

Management and leadership development are inevitably connected to how one defines the concept of leadership. Unfortunately, there are no generally agreed upon ways of understanding the abstract, polyphonic and multifaceted concepts of leadership. Bernard Bass says that "*there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept*" (Bass 1990, 11). In 2012, Kellerman said that there are more than 1500 definitions and more than 40 models of leadership (Kellerman 2012). In order to understand someone who speaks on leadership, one has to consider what the speaker eventually means by leadership. Even if one is reading leadership studies, one has to be careful, because the researchers have not even been able to agree on the question of how one should study leadership.

Ladkin says leadership is a social phenomenon. She says that most leadership texts have not realized this. So, most leadership researchers consider leadership to be a leader-centered individualistic phenomenon. These researchers forget the role of followers, goals and context in leadership. Ladkin says that leadership is created as a relationship of a leader, followers, goals and context (Ladkin 2010, viii, 4-5).

However, the concept of leadership is not a simple one, because leadership seems to fade away if one tries to locate it. Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) say that leadership is invisible and because it is invisible, it is almost impossible to perform proper research on leadership. However, because leadership has such a great impact on organizations and people, it is vital to perform research on leadership.

Because leadership is a polyphonic and multifaceted concept, which is largely invisible, it is no wonder that leadership development has mainly focused on individual leaders. Leadership development has been seen as a management education, and the aim of management education has been to improve an individual leader's capability for solving managerial problems (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly & Marks 2000, 156). In addition, in management develop-

ment, it is easier to concentrate on more concrete subject matters, such as business economy, than rather abstract and polyphonic concepts, such as leadership.

Management development has traditionally not considered the fact that many contemporary organizations are self-organized networks (Laloux 2016) and leadership, nowadays, faces mainly complex forms of social problems. These problems are novel, complex, and ill-defined. In addition, there are many people involved and they have conflicting views of the issues at hand. Contemporary leadership development is also a challenging task (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman 2000, 14–16).

1.2 Aim of the study and research questions

The aim of this study is to examine management and leadership development in Finland from the perspective of education institutes in private and public sectors that offer management and leadership education. At the same time, it would also be interesting to study what kind of management and leadership development is done in organizations and, especially, how the company strategy is related to leadership development. However, the latter approach might be extremely hard to accomplish because the companies use management and leadership development in different and a multitude of ways. It is anticipated that in this research, as it only concentrates on educational institutes, it is possible to see only one side of management and leadership development in Finland. However, this side has hitherto not been studied and seen. Consequently, this research will concentrate only on the supply side of management and leadership development market. The implication is also that through this study, it is not possible to view the whole picture of management and leadership development in Finland. This framing does not eliminate the need for other researchers to study the demand side of management and leadership education. In those studies, which focus on the demand side of the leadership market, it is, for example, possible to study the effectiveness of management and leadership development.

This research concentrates on the leadership concepts and on the management and leadership development provided by educational institutes. This research answers the question: *What kind of discourses are used of both leadership and leadership development in educational institutes?* This question is seen to be relevant because leadership is so important for the organizations, the quality of life of people and an organization's success. Leadership can shape the quality of working life of persons working in organizations in many ways (Perruci & Warty Hall 2018, 1–3 and Wilson 2016 ,1). Leadership can also have an impact on the quality of products and services delivered to the customers (Goodman 2009, 24–25).

The research problem is divided into research questions, as follows:

1. *What kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?*
2. *What kind of management and leadership development discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?*
3. *What kind of future visions of leadership and leadership development have educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses adopted?*

It is assumed that because there are many different leadership views and leadership discourses, educational institutes can carry out management and leadership development by using any one of them. It is also assumed that the leadership view adopted in an educational institution also has an impact on the management and leadership development. The views behind leadership and leadership development may also be reflected in the aims and objectives of educational institutes.

Because the participants of EMBA-courses and other management and leadership development courses are so dissimilar, it is also necessary to divide the analysis accordingly. The participants of EMBA-courses are mainly top management or persons who will in some later phase of their career be working in top management. The target groups of those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are mainly supervisors, foremen and middle managers. The training needs of top managers, and, on the other hand, supervisors, foremen and middle managers, are so different that the analysis of these two segments needs to be done separately. However, the methods used in management and leadership development might be similar enough in these two groups so that it is possible to analyze the development methods of management and leadership development together in both of these groups

1.3 Research design, and research process

This research focuses on management and leadership development seen from the viewpoint of public and private educational institutes, which are specialized in management and leadership development. This research focuses on the operations of educational institutes because leadership development is such a wide and multifaceted phenomenon that it is difficult to carry out research of this whole phenomenon. To include all angles of management and leadership development in one study might even be impossible. This means that in one study, it is better to only concentrate on carrying out the research of management and leadership development from one angle. A different picture of management and leadership development might be found if the research would concentrate on the point of view of the customer organizations or the participating managers. However, this does not mean that the views of organizations or

managers might be completely lacking in this study because organizations and managers are the clients of educational institutes and because educational institutes have to take into consideration the views of their clients.

Educational institutes operate in the management and leadership development market, and their success is tied to the changes of these markets. Their operations in that market may be rather different depending on what they are trying to do and what kind of educational institutes they are and what kind of assumptions about leadership and leadership development they have adopted.

First, there are public and private educational institutes. Public educational institutes may offer leadership courses to students as part of their curriculum for a master's degree or they can offer EMBA courses for managers. This research will focus only on those parts of the operations of educational institutes that are offering management and leadership development for organizations or to those persons who are working in organizations. So, the management and leadership teaching offered by universities and other public educational institutes are not included in the study. The private educational institutes arrange management and leadership development, either in open courses or in company development for organizations or for managers. This research will concentrate on both development forms.

The research design and process are presented in Figure 1. This research is a qualitative study, and the data were collected through interviews, records, and documents. Qualitative research gives the opportunity to focus on the complexity of phenomena in its context (Eriksson et al. 2010). Management and leadership development in educational institutes is a complex and socially constructed phenomenon.

When the research started, the main educational institutes that are operating in the management and leadership development field were contacted and asked for their interest in participating in the research. Some educational institutes agreed at once. However, many educational institutes had to be contacted several times before they agreed to participate. When educational institutes agreed to participate, their leaders and specialists were interviewed. In addition, documents and records of the operation of the educational institutes were collected from the Internet and by asking the interviewed persons to give them to the researcher.

My role as a researcher in the research process was to be a reflective and interested observer. I did not try to be a guru in the field of leadership or leadership development. Nor did I try to participate in the operations of the educational institutes which I studied. My role was nearly the same as the role of a process consultant. I tried to speak the same language as persons in the educational institute (Schein 1999, 43). I tried to reflect what they had told me and what I had read. But I did not try to help (Schein 2009) educational institutes, nor did I try to give any advice to the persons I met.

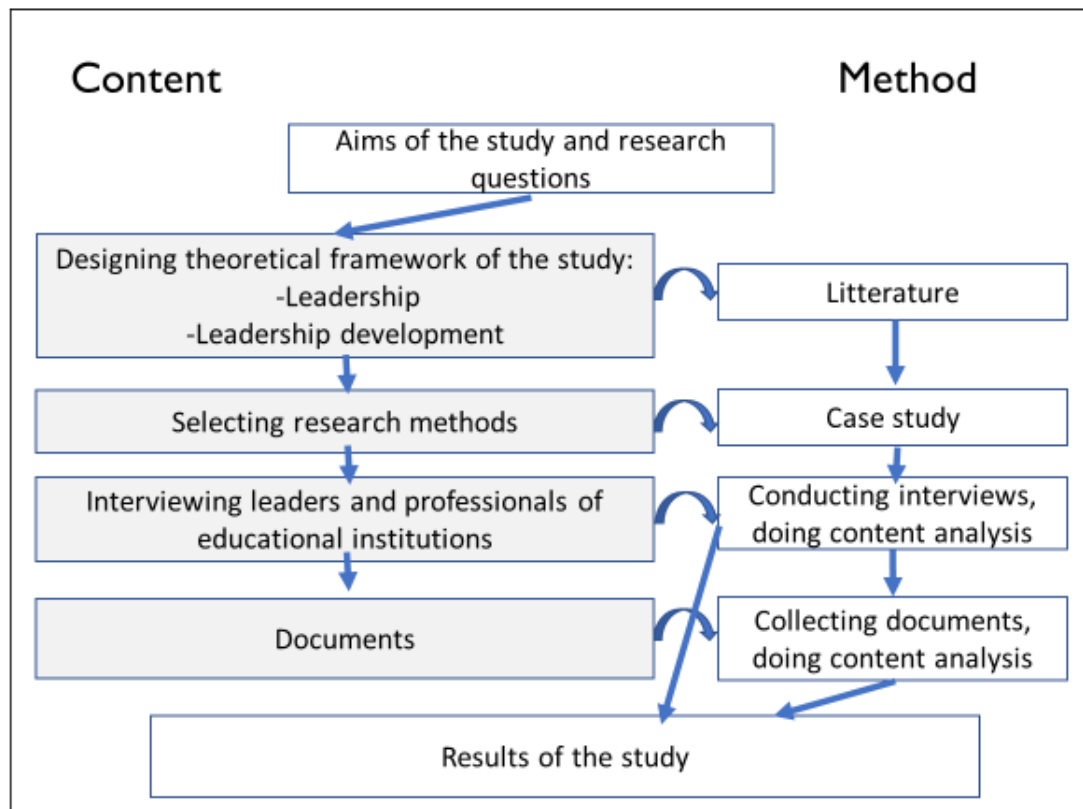


FIGURE 1 Research design and process.

1.4 Outline of the study

I begin the theoretical part of the dissertation by defining the concept of leadership. Because there are several ways to see leadership, and the meaning of leadership is different to those persons who work in different positions in the organization, it is important first to review the development of leadership discourses. This is also important because management and leadership development is inevitably connected to the leadership discourse that is used and because leadership and management development can be done by using different leadership discourses. So, this research begins with the theoretical part where the development of leadership discourses is reviewed.

In the second part of the theoretical framework, we focus on management and leadership development. Management and leadership development can also be seen from many perspectives. Management and leadership development are seen as one of many methods of organization development, or it can be seen as a part of human resource development, etc. Management and leadership development can also be seen as a method in which to introduce leaders to their leadership or management tasks. Even teaching leadership can be seen as teaching “about” leadership, teaching “for” leadership or teaching “practical wisdom”. Teaching “about” leadership deals leadership as an intellectual field

of study where students of the leadership courses should be able to test their ideas of leadership. Teaching “for” leadership strives to give students the possibility of building their competency so that they would better be able to do their leadership tasks. In teaching “practical wisdom”, attempts are made to combine both knowledges of leadership to the experience of leadership, which is supposed to lead to leadership wisdom (Perruci & Warty Hall 2018, 14–15).

After the theoretical framework, we will present the methodological choices of the research. In this part of the research, we will discuss the philosophical views behind the research and the data and methods used in the study. Method connects theoretical frameworks with the use of empirical material. So, method is a link between theoretical framework and the data.

Data were collected from 25 educational institutes providing management and leadership development or EMBA-courses. In the data there are 18 educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses and 7 educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses. The target groups of these two different types are different. The target groups of EMBA-courses are top management or persons who want to move to the top management level later in their career path. The target groups of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are middle managers, foremen and supervisors. That is why these two types of educational institutes will be analyzed separately whenever the subject matter, which we consider in the analysis, is not close enough for the simultaneous analysis of data.

The study is a qualitative case study in which the data were collected by interviewing managers and specialists who are working in educational institutes in Finland. In addition, document materials were collected that offered information about management and leadership development and education. The data consists of their own internet pages and marketing materials and course programs.

The analysis of the data was carried out through content analysis and especially through Gioia methodology (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton 2012). So, informant-centric concepts and themes of the analysis of interviews were used. Later in the analysis, these informant-centric themes were categorized to more theoretical concepts and themes. Finally, each educational institute was treated as a separate case, and case analysis was used to compare and classify educational institutes. The classifications formed in the theoretical part were used in the classification of cases (educational institutes).

Because the operations of educational institutes and, especially, the leadership development practices of these organizations are a complicated phenomenon, the data were interpreted from the viewpoint of critical management research. This means that the design of the research was not done solely in a highly rational way and that the nature of data was considered to have problematic and even contradictory information (Alvesson & Deetz 2009, 4).

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Leadership

2.1.1 What is leadership?

The concepts of leadership and leadership development are interrelated. It is also self-evident that leadership development can be done from several leadership theories. Leadership development activities require a profound review on leadership perspectives, leadership discourses. An attempt must also be made to find out which leadership discourses are used by the various institutes as a background for their leadership development.

But how many institutes that teach leadership have conscientiously chosen the views on which their leadership education is based, and how many educational institutes base their leadership education on the evidence-based management observations? These and similar questions need to be answered if one wishes to improve the quality of leadership education.

In order to be able to critically evaluate the views of leadership adopted in educational institutes, it is necessary to understand, what is leadership and to know what kind of assumptions there are behind different leadership discourses. The definition of leadership must be done before one can look at the concepts of leadership development.

Defining leadership is challenging because leadership is not a timeless and universal 'fact', as it is often considered to be. Instead, leadership is a context-dependent social innovation, and it has been re-invented many times and has had many different shapes along years (Wilson 2016, 2). Of course, also organizations and the environments where they operate have changed and this fact has created a demand for new ways to understand leadership. Leadership is also an abstract and complex concept. The result of all of this is that it is challenging to define leadership.

The fact is that similar terms and words can be seen differently in leadership studies, depending on the leadership discourse in use, which makes it even harder to try to get to know what leadership really is. For example, Kort (2008, 410–411) studied Rost's compilation of 221 definitions of leadership. Kort found that different researchers made different conclusions from the same definitions of leadership. Similar results were also found by Lee, Chen and Su (2019). This finding has been interpreted from different perspectives. On the one hand Ciulla (2002) concluded that different definitions of leadership have common characteristics and she concluded that *"leadership is about one person (the leader) getting other people (the followers) to do something"*. On the other hand, Carroll (2005), and also Washburn (2005) concluded, rather cynically, that if almost everything can be called leadership, then logically nothing is leadership.

In spite of the pessimistic views expressed by Carroll on the one hand and Washburn on the other hand, there are several other ways in which to define and study leadership. For example, leadership can be researched through the factors that are related to leadership. Ladkin (2010, 28) says that there is a certain kind of "leadership moment" which is the relation of context, leader, followers, and purpose. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2011, 473) claims that leadership is generated in the interconnected actions of individuals who are engaged with one another through dialogue.

Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor and McGuire (2008, 635) claim that *"further development of leadership theory and practice calls for more integrative ontology"*. Drath et al. call the relationship between a leader, followers and goals as the tripod wanting to change this tripod. They replace a leader, followers, and goals with 1) direction, 2) alignment, and 3) commitment. By direction, they mean goals, aims, and missions. By alignment, they mean *"the organization and coordination of knowledge and work in collective"* and by commitment, *"the willingness of members of a collective to subsume their own interests and benefit within the collective interest and benefit"* (Draft et al. 2008, 636).

Crevani, Lindgren and Packendorff (2010) have criticized the direction-alignment-commitment (or DAC) model of being an outcome-oriented perspective. Crevani et al. claim that such a view of leadership undermines the very collaborative and distributed nature of leadership. Crevani et al. emphasize the open ended and plural nature of the process and the social embeddedness of leadership.

There almost exists a universal consensus that leadership matters because it is so important for the society and organizations, as well as individuals (Perucci & Warty Hall 2018, 1–3, Wilson 2016, 11). Leadership is pivotal for organizations when they try to reach their goals. Leadership also has a central role for the productivity of organizations, as well as for the wellbeing of the working population.

In a study that aims to explore the views of leadership and leadership development that educational institutes have adopted, it is vital to understand the multiple leadership discourses that have been born along the years, because leadership development can be done from any of these leadership views. Also,

organizations may use different leadership discourses in their operations, and managers who participate in leadership development may use different leadership discourses in their managerial work. So, we will shortly explore the development of leadership discourses so that we can understand what kind of views in them have been adopted. It is also assumed here that even if some leadership discourses are old, it may still prevail both in some organizations or in some educational institutes when they develop leadership.

2.1.2 The history of leadership discourses

People have been interested in leadership for thousands of years. For example, ancient Egyptians, Confucius, Plato and Aristoteles have written of leadership (Wilson 2016, 17 and Bass 1990, 3–4). Sun Tzu (400–320 BC) in ancient China, and Plato (429–347) in ancient Greece were the first to write about leadership (Sunzi 2005 & Grint 2011, 4–5). Sun Tzu wrote about strategic management and Plato originated three types of leadership which he specified as the rule of reason, the rule of desire and the rule of spirit. The rule of reason makes philosophers to be kings because they are righteous. Plato denies the rule of desire, which is behind political rule because, in his mind, it often leads to tyranny, despotism or totalitarianism. Plato saw the reason of spirit as being behind military leadership, and it illustrated for him courage, loyalty and honor (Ronald 2014, 52).

In Renaissance Machiavelli wrote about politics as it was. He tried to teach leaders how to hold on to power. He wrote, among other things, that *"the (leader) ought to examine closely all those injuries which it is necessary for him to inflict, and to do them all at one stroke so as not to have repeat them daily... For injuries ought to be done at one time... benefits ought to be given little by little, so that the flavor of them may last longer"* (Machiavelli 2018, 57).

Nowadays, leadership is seen from the so-called scientific perspective. Leadership is studied in psychology, sociology, social psychology, communication studies, education and political science. Leadership research is done from different ontological and epistemological orientations and through several paradigms.

Traditionally, realistic views have predominated leadership research. However, interpretivist views have also been common in the leadership field. Structuralist views began to influence leadership studies at the beginning of the 1980s and poststructuralist views from the 1990s onwards. Nowadays social constructivism and narrative studies are common in the field of leadership studies (Juuti 2001 and 2006). In social constructivist and narrative studies leadership views are seen to be leadership discourses. Discourses are not only seen to describe social reality but to actively construct it (Nikander 1997, 408). The discourse produces its own truth effects. This means that discourse constitutes the problems for which it claims to be a solution (Knights and Morgan 1991, 253–255).

There are several major theoretical paradigms or leadership discourses in leadership research. Each leadership discourse has its historical roots. However,

the timelines between these leadership discourses are not clear cut. For example, Lowe and Gardner (2000, 476-482) showed that during the first ten years of its existence from 1989 to 1999, *The Leadership Quarterly* published articles about many different leadership discourses: 8 % (17 articles) of all published articles were written about the trait theories point of view, 2.5 % (5 articles) about behavioral theories, 12 % (25 articles) from situational or contingency theories point of view, and 14 % (29 articles) from the 'new leadership' theories point of view. Lowe's and Gardner's research shows that once a leadership discourse is born and grown successfully, it prevails for a long time and may influence the field of leadership research.

Another feature of leadership thinking is that almost all leadership researchers agree with Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio & Eagly (2017, 436) who reviewed the articles published in *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, that major leadership discourses are: 1) trait theories, 2) behavioral theories, 3) contingency/ situational approaches and social cognitive theories and gender and leadership, and 4) transformational and charismatic leadership, LMX, team leadership and trust. However, not all leadership theorists consider the contextual leadership views as a leadership discourse. This may be due to the fact, that the writers themselves favor some other leadership discourse, such as, for example, transformational leadership or authentic leadership.

Some researchers, like Wilson (2016, 103) and Grint (2011, 8), write that leadership research began in mid-19th-century England. Carlyle (1993) presents a romantic view of leadership idealizing leaders. He identified six types of hero leaders: gods, prophets, poets, priests, men of letters and kings. Carlyle's theory is commonly known as the 'Great man' thesis.

The 'Great man' thesis was also the background from which the trait theories were born. However, Stogdill (1948 and 1968) criticized trait theories and showed that they had failed. Later, leadership researchers tried to find common attitudes or styles behind leadership. The most famous behavioral theory of leadership was Lewin's, Lippitt's and White's theory of democratic versus autocratic leadership (Lewin & Lippitt 1938, White & Lippitt 1960).

After the Second World War, both the Ohio-State University (Fleishman, Harris, Burt 1955) and University of Michigan (Likert 1961) began their own leadership studies. In the Ohio-State University studies, a two-factor model was found: 1) Initiating structure and 2) Consideration. These two factors were later used in Blake's and Mouton's (1977) 'Managerial Grid'-model, in the Reddin's (1970) 3-D theory, and in the Hersey's and Blanchard's (1972) situational leadership theory. In the University of Michigan, Likert (1961) formulated his leadership system which has four levels. Likert's leadership system moved from autocratic leadership to participative leadership (Katz, Maccoby & Morse 1950).

These studies on leadership styles, in which the best leadership style was attempted to be identified, are commonly referred to as 'Behavioral theories.' Behavioral theories met with heavy criticism in the 1970s. Later, researchers turned their views to the contingency theory, which had growing importance in organizational studies in the 1960s (Burns & Stalker 1961, Woodward 1965,

Lawrence & Lorsch 1967). The most famous situational theories in leadership studies are Fiedler's (1967) theory, Hersey's and Blanchard's (1972) situational leadership theory and House's (1971) path-goal theory.

In the 1980s, there was a "qualitative turn" in leadership studies. This "qualitative turn" concentrated at first on discussing the difference between the English words 'management' and 'leadership'. This discussion also echoed popular culture-views in organizational studies at that time.

Researchers, like Kotter (1989), Bennis (1989), Zaleznik (1989), Kets de Vries (1989) and Hickman (1990), wrote against management in favor of leadership. Bennis said that management preserves stability, whereas leadership is well suited for changing situations. Zaleznik said that managers comply to outer requirements and leaders are inner directed. Hickman claimed that managers emphasize straight forward, linear thinking and leaders emphasize participation, creativity, and empowerment. Kets de Vries said that managers identify early in their career to the 'source of aggression'. That is why they also demand loyalty and obedience when they are in charge. Psychologists spoke of organizational subconscious and argued that managers fell into the trap of "suggestibility", while they were blindly walking along the path of their corporate career and that is why they used irrational methods in leadership. Psychologists also talked of the dark side of leadership (Zaleznik 1989).

In the 1980s realistic leadership discourse, which had prevailed until then changed when cultural studies became popular in the leadership field. Organizations were seen as having cultures and not having cultures. Organization cultures were considered to be partly overt and mostly covert. Researchers spoke of the rites, rituals, myths, stories, symbols, and basic assumptions of culture (Juuti 1992). A cultural understanding of leadership calls for appreciating local and shared meanings associated with the context of leadership relations and acts (Alvesson 2011, 161).

Cultural studies had a strong impact on leadership research. Organization culture researchers saw leadership as a framing process, and they spoke about the management of meaning (Smircich & Morgan 1982). Organizational culture researchers saw that leadership was a process by which leaders tried to frame the experiences of their followers. Leaders tried to frame all the things that happened in organizations to be favorable from the organizational point of view. Leaders tried to connect things together so that the outcome might be favorable for them (Culbert & McDonough 1990, 58). Cultural researchers saw that in the framing process rites, rituals, myths and stories had a pivotal role. Organizational culture researchers saw that if the leader was able to offer emotional relief to the inner and outer conflicts that an organization faced, he or she might be successful (Eoyang 1983, 115-117).

Transformational and authentic leadership, which Bryman (1996) called 'new leadership' models, also appeared in the 1980s (Wilson 2016, 132-134). The background of the transformational leadership and authentic leadership was James MacGregor Burns' book *Leadership* (1978). In this book, Burns described the difference between transactional and transformative leaderships. Transac-

tional leadership is based on rewards and punishments. On the contrary, transformative leadership had a morally uplifting effect on its followers. Burns saw that new social movements, crises, and revolutions were situations that were favorable for the birth of transformational leadership. Later Bass (1985) made his own model of transformational leadership. In this model, Bass demystified transformational leadership and brought it inside organizations (Diaz-Sáenz 2011, 300). Later, Avolio & Luthans (2003) developed the model further and began to call it 'authentic leadership'.

From the 1990s onwards, the 'linguistic turn' has influenced leadership studies in two different yet interrelated ways. Leadership research has gained a great deal of influence from social constructionism (Berger & Luckmann 1991, Grint 2005) and also from poststructuralist views (Rosenau 1992).

The 'linguistic turn' in leadership studies indicates, for example, that leadership has been researched from the discursive approach (Fairhurst 2011, 495) and narrative paradigm (Auvinen 2013). In the narrative leadership studies, researchers try to reveal the processes that give birth to leadership. Narrative leadership research does not try to fade the role of the leader. On the contrary, narrative leadership research gives the leader a central role. Narrative leadership research considers humans as storytelling animals and such animals do not make numerical calculations. Humans see meanings and live inside socially constructed and socially meaningful contexts (Gabriel 2000).

From the 1990s onwards, the post-structuralist views have influenced leadership research. A post-structuralist researcher believes that all texts are multifaceted. Post-structuralist researchers think that 'the death of writer gives birth to reader' (Barthes 1967). Each reading is considered to be unique, and it is done from a certain perspective. They see that the subject is a position in the text, which means that saying is always an answer to something previously said. Also, they see that it is not possible to give an answer to something previously said in any other way than by following the given rules of language games (Rosenau 1992, 34-56).

The post-structuralist view owes much to Michel Foucault and Jacques Derrida, even though neither of these thinkers considered themselves to be post-structuralists. Foucault thought that each discourse is always formed of conflicts. Foucault saw that discourse was a way of violence and strive for power (Foucault 2003). Foucault thought that discourse determined what one could say, how it could be said and what was the legitimacy behind the speaker (Foucault 1998 and Husa 1995). By deconstructing texts, Derrida attempted to show that there are no simple truths. Derrida considered that the truth claims were constructed by using similar words and synonyms over and over again for so long that it seemed that there were no other ways of seeing things. For Derrida, there were, however, no closures or truths, only claims of truth. Derrida thought that these claims of truth were born because thinking had ended and that is why no alternatives were seen (Derrida 1997, 38).

Post-structuralist leadership researchers see leadership models and leadership paradigms as forms of leadership discourses. The leadership discourses

are born as social constructions when some leadership guru like Tom Peters begins to talk favorably of some leadership methods that are used in some organization. These leadership discourses compete with each other and they have their own life span- just like any other product in the market. At first the leadership discourses are rather vague. They try to appeal to as many readers as possible. Later-on, they gain a more concrete focus and begin to compete with the traditional views that predominated the field. When some leadership discourse becomes popular, it gives rather practical advices and rules to managers. When there is more and more competition among leadership discourses that have roughly the same focus, some of the 'old' leadership discourses may lose their popularity (Juuti 2001).

2.1.3 Contemporary leadership discourses

Education institutes that carry out leadership development often claim in their advertisements that they use the latest leadership theories. However, this is a rather ambiguous statement because there are several contemporary leadership theories, and no-one can say which of them is the most valid. So, the situation in the market of leadership development is such that the customer organizations must choose which leadership view they want to have. So, leadership discourses compete in the leadership development market in the same way as any other product in the market (Juuti 2001).

The situation in the leadership development market is such that different education institutes use different leadership discourses in their leadership education. Some of these leadership 'theories' have been formulated as leadership models and some of them are more loosely structured. Some leadership discourses are more theoretical, and some are more practical. In this chapter, we will briefly discuss some of the contemporary leadership theories and models.

Bryman (1996) named transformational leadership, authentic leadership as 'new leadership' views in his famous article and still many leadership researchers follow this 'habit' (for example, Wilson 2016, 132-132). What is common to these leadership discourses is that they focus on the relationship between leaders and subordinates.

James MacGregor Burns (1978) developed distinction between transactional and transformational leadership in his famous book *Leadership*. Bernard Bass (1985, 98-111) developed Burns' theory to a leadership model of transformational leadership. This leadership theory is one of the most famous contemporary leadership theories. In Finland, Vesa Nissinen (2001 and 2004) developed his Deep Lead model from this theory.

Transformational leadership is the opposite to the traditional transactional approach. Transactional leadership is based on give-and-take relationships and extrinsic incentives. Transactional leaders base their behavior on rewards, incentives and promotions, whereas transformational leaders believe that people are not only interested in extrinsic rewards but also in many other aspects, such as possibilities to learn and grow at work. Bass claimed that the moral awakening, which was the basis of Burn's concept of transformational leadership, could

also happen in normal organizations if the leaders would use the leadership methods described in his model (Bass 1985, 98–111). Burns (1978) had originally said that transformational leadership could only appear in some social movements inspired by a new philosophical view or a new religion or in a crisis situation that could lead to an awakening of a group of people. So, Bass changed the originally pessimistic view of leadership, which Burns had adopted, and created a new positive view of leadership in his model. At the same time, Bass claimed that transformational leadership could also be used in organizations and that it could be taught and learned.

In Finland, transformational leadership is better known as the deep-lead method (Nissinen 2001 and 2004). In the deep-lead method, the word “deep” comes from the field of education as the opposite of surface learning. In the deep-lead method, it is taken as self-evident that transformational leadership can be taught and learned in such organizations as military forces, as well as in other organizations. Accordingly, the basic belief behind the deep-lead model is that there does not need to be a crisis situation in organizations, nor is there a need for any new philosophical beliefs in a social group in order for transformational leadership to exist. So, there are basic differences between Burn’s original thoughts of transformational leadership and Nissinen’s deep lead model. The critical thing is whether the moral uplifting change that Burns had meant could happen in normal everyday situations or not. In addition to this, Wilson’s critique of transformational leadership may also be valid when one looks at the deep lead model. Wilson criticizes the transformational leadership model by saying that *“the self of the ‘new leader’ is also one which can never be satisfied with what exists outside itself, because change is rendered a compulsive requirement for the new leader. There is always to be something in the new leader’s environment needing improvement or change”* (Wilson 2016, 140).

In the 1980s, the transformational leadership model was the dominant leadership discourse, but in the 1990s onwards, the transformational leadership concept began to shift towards authentic leadership. Authentic leadership was based on the research done in transformational leadership and on positive psychology. Transformational leadership had provided a clear message; be inspirational and charismatic; provide intellectual stimulation; offer individualized consideration and contingent rewards. With authentic leadership the emphasis had shifted markedly: know yourself and use your own moral compass (Wilson 2013, 55).

Avolio, who has been a key person in developing the theory of authentic leadership, has said that *“authentic leaders act in accordance with deep personal values and convictions, to build credibility and win the respect and trust of followers by encouraging diverse viewpoints and building networks of collaborative relationships with followers, and thereby lead in a manner that followers recognize as authentic”* (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May 2004, 802).

The basic idea behind authentic leadership is rather simple. Authentic leaders must 1) practice solid values, 2) lead with heart, 3) establish connected relationships and 4) demonstrate self-discipline (George 2003, 18). Kernis (2003,

13) says that authenticity is based on 1) awareness, 2) unbiased information processing and 3) relational orientation.

There are some common characteristics in most articles and books on authentic leadership. Ladkin and Taylor (2010) have identified three such characteristics: 1) being true to yourself, 2) being self-aware of this true self and 3) this true self being morally good. Avolio, who has been a key person in developing the theory of authentic leadership, says that authentic leadership is based on four parts: 1) on the internalizing of the moral principles, 2) on the openness of human relations, 3) on a balanced way of processing knowledge and 4) on a high self-esteem (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber 2009, 424; Luthans & Avolio 2009, 292).

Alvesson and Sveningsson (2013) have criticized authentic leadership as follows: 1) authentic leadership re-emphasizes the classic leader-centrism, 2) the theory is elitist. i.e., authentic leaders are framed as moral giants, and 3) much of what has been written on authentic leadership has strong ideological (manageristic) rather than intellectual concerns. Alvesson and Sveningsson say that authentic leadership characterizes leaders as saints whom the ordinary people should listen to and obey (Alvesson & Sveningsson 2013, 44, 51).

So far, all the leadership theories that have been presented here have considered leadership as an individualized, leader-centered phenomenon. For example, Cunliffe (2009, 91) says that transformationalist (and authentic) versions of leadership operate from managerialist and often ego-centric assumptions. In addition, Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011, 1434) claim that *"heroic models of leadership are mainly grounded in monolog: based on single authority who is unresponsive to how his/her voice is being received... Dialogism means talking with people not to them"*. Consequently, many contemporary leadership researchers consider leadership to be a relational, processual, and contextual phenomenon. Researchers that emphasize these views have also seen leadership as a role or as a series of many roles that a person takes when she or he begins to lead (Ladkin & Spiller 2013, 1, 4).

Some researchers have tried to mitigate the difference of leader-centered theories and relational theories. They have, for example, added to transactional and transformational leadership a third leadership model which is called transcendental leadership. By transcendental leadership they mean a leadership model that is based on a relationship. They claim that transcendental leadership seeks to engage employees who commit themselves to pursue a mission that appears worthy for both the company and the person (Heras & Chinchilla 2011, 245).

However, most contemporary researchers have adopted the relational, processual, or contextual leadership views. The most famous relational theory is called LMX-theory (Leader-Member Exchange theory). LMX-theory was originally created in the 1970s (Graen & Cashman 1975), but it has changed a great deal since then. LMX-theory has always been based on the relationship between leaders and members of the group (Bower, Schoorman & Tan 2000; Yukl 2010).

In the LMX-theory, it is assumed that a leader, a member of the group and their relationships are the three domains of leadership that form leadership. Researchers who have adopted the LMX-theory claim that other leadership theories focus only on one of these at a time (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995, 221–223).

According to the LMX-theory, leaders use different leadership styles to different members of the group and leaders develop closer relationships with some followers. Those followers, who are allowed to get close to the leader, form the in-group and the rest of the followers belong to the out-group (Linden & Maslyn 1998, 43).

In the LMX-theory, it is claimed that leaders categorize their followers as in-group and out-group ones on the basis of follower characteristics. Usually, those members who have positive characteristics like cooperativeness, honesty and trustworthiness form the in-group (Häkkinen 2012, 53). Also, leaders who have a lot of emotional intelligence are likely to form better relationships with their subordinates than leaders who have lesser emotional intelligence. Similarly, also members of the group who have a lot of emotional intelligence are likely to form better relationships with their leaders than members who have a lesser amount of emotional intelligence (Uhl-Bien 2006, 656–657).

The LMX-theory is closely related to the complexity theory. In the complexity theory, it is claimed that the success of an organization will depend on the balance between organizational structures and self-organization. In the complexity theory, the balance is called the “edge” (Uhl-Bien, Marion, McKelvey 2007, 301; Uhl-Bien & Marion 2009, 633–635).

2.1.4 Contextual leadership discourses

Contextual leadership discourse is a rather recent phenomenon and, presently, contextual leadership is one of the most trending topics in leadership research (Oc 2018, 218). Fairhurst (2011, 495) note that contextual leadership views are an outcome of the linguistic turn within social and organizational sciences. It is also a reaction to individualistic leadership views where the socio-historical and local situatedness of leadership is treated seriously. Contextual leadership study leadership as a discourse. Contextual leadership views do not try to find out the essence of leadership as other leadership theories do. While other leadership theories try to fix leadership in the person or person-situation combinations, contextual leadership views prefer to focus on the situated and linguistic, cultural construction of leadership. Contextual leadership theory does not see organizations as already formed etiquettes, instead of being in a state of becoming: *“Leadership actors are knowledgeable agents reflexively monitoring the ongoing character of social life as they continuously orient to and position themselves with respect to others in interaction”* (Fairhurst 2011, 500).

In traditional leadership studies, speaking of context has referred either to the situation at hand or to the culture of the organization. Traditional leadership views are based on picking up some variable of the context, for example, the maturity of the follower, and building a leadership model on different levels of this variable. In contextual leadership views, speaking of context means that

leadership and related phenomena are intricately connected to the context where they happen. In these views the context is not reduced to some variables. Instead, context is thickly described textually and, at the same time, the interaction of context and organizations are highlighted. In contextual leadership views, leadership is seen as a relational and socially constructed phenomenon. One can say that social constructionism has influenced the birth of the so-called "relational perspective of leadership" and the contextual view of leadership. The relational perspective views knowledge as socially constructed and socially distributed. From this perspective, knowing is always a process of relating. So, from this perspective leadership can be seen as a two-way influence relationship between a leader and a follower aimed primarily at attaining mutual goals. The contextual view of leadership considers leaders' voice as one among many other voices in the process of work (Uhl-Bien 2006, 654–656, 662).

In the contextual and relational views of leadership, leadership is not seen from an individualistic, leader-centered angle. In this view, the leader and the leadership are seen as two dissimilar phenomena. The contextual leadership views consider leadership as a social process that is not solely related to individuals as the supervisor or the leader is (Hosking 1988). In contextual leadership research, the researcher has to study those multi-voiced emerging social processes that are constantly changing (Hosking 1999). A researcher can use such concepts as culture, identity, story and discourse to help in identifying the moves of social interaction where leadership is shaped and where it is hiding (Porter & McLaughlin 2006, 564). Of course, concepts such as culture, identity, story and discourse have their own history, and this history is woven together with leadership in the contextual leadership views.

Culture was taken to organizational science from anthropology in the 1980s. Already in the 1950s, there had been some pioneers of cultural studies, such as Gouldner (1954), Selznick (1957) and Mentzies (1959). However, the cultural studies were only accepted in organization science after Pettigrew (1979) succeeded in publishing an article on organization culture in *Administrative Science Quarterly*.

At first culture was a metaphor that captured the organization as a whole. It was thought that organizations were cultures, and culture was the sum of commonly accepted ways of behaving and thinking. Culture was thought to be bound by symbols that would enable the creation of a collective meaning structure around shared basic assumptions in the organization (Morgan 1986). Organization culture was also seen as having an overt and covert side. The deep structure of organization was borrowed from structuralist views (Levi-Strauss 1968). However, in the middle of the 1980s, some researchers adopted a more symbolic perspective of organization cultures. They did not focus on the culture of organizations, but on the study of symbolic phenomena (Eyoang 1983). So, these researchers rejected the use of culture as a metaphor and began to use symbolism as a perspective. Still later in the 1990s, some researchers began to adopt post-structuralist views of culture and see cultures as discourse (Alvesson & Berg 1992, 200–217). The post-structuralist or postmodern view of culture

emphasized reading and made the concept of culture ambiguous and unstable (Payne 2001, 107). Symbolic and postmodern cultural views are especially helpful in formulating the contextual and relational leadership views.

Also, some views of collective identity can be used in formulating contextual leadership views. Originally, the idea of collective identity was grounded in a variety of sociological concepts, such as Durkheim's collective conscious and Marx's class consciousness. By collective identity, it usually means beliefs about the central attributes of their organization. It is assumed that these beliefs have an influence on how the members of an organization interpret and react to issues facing the organization. Identity answers the questions: "Who am I? Who are we? How should I act? How should we act? Contemporary researchers often consider that discursive practices produce collective identity (Hardy, Lawrence & Grant 2005, 61).

Researchers who have based their research on the concept of collective identity often consider leadership too be greatly shaped by the collective identity (Fenton-O'Creevy, Dimitriadis & Scobie 2015). These researchers do not consider the level of collective identity adopted by members of a group, nor do they consider whether the members of a group have a common notion of a collective identity or not. It is also assumed that a leader has a great deal of power in forming a collective identity to the group (Haslam & Reicher 2007, 125).

Organizational researchers have been interested in issues concerning the durability of collective identity. Researchers have also been interested in the regularities of the collective identity and whether the collective identity is integrated or fragmented. Researchers have found that people engage in identity work when the routinized reproduction of self-identity is discontinued and may be triggered by uncertainty, anxiety and self-doubt. Researchers have also found that identity work is the result of becoming, rather than being (Alvesson, Ashcraft & Thomas 2008, 6 and 15).

Researchers of contextual leadership have claimed that organizations are becoming involved in a variety of collaborative agreements in order to promote innovations. Also, researchers of collective identity have found that organizations need to develop innovative solutions to complex problems. Researchers of the collective identity claim that discursive processes in organizations can create both collective identity and effective cooperation. Some researchers even claim that discursive conceptualization of the collective identity provides a powerful basis for understanding the dynamics of collaboration. It seems that the production of the collective identity helps people to understand themselves as being tied to one other. The production of the collective identity can help people to create resources on which participants can draw to make sense of the situation and to create a course of action (Hardy et al. 2005, 59-66).

The collective identity is also a form of normative control that seeks to manage the thinking and behavior of workers so that they are committed to the organization because they identify with it. It is thought that managing the insides of people is more important than external managerial control in net-

worked and knowledge-intensive contemporary organizations (Beech 2008, 51–52).

In contemporary organizations, organizational control is accomplished through the self-positioning of employees within managerially inspired discourses with which they are identified: *“The modern business of management is often managing the ‘insides’ – the hopes, fears, and aspirations – of workers, rather than their behavior directly.”* (Deetz 1995, 87).

However, identities are often comparatively open, fragmented, and conflicting. In organizations, there may be counter-discourses to the managerial discourse. Also, the professional identification may be in conflict with the organizational identification. Sometimes the aspirations of a person may be in conflict with the managerial discourse. In traditional Fordist organizations, which operated in stable environments, the identities did not change much but in contemporary networked and knowledge-intensive organizations, there may be several conflicting identities that also change rapidly (Alvesson & Willmott 2002, 620–625).

In complex and rapidly changing organizations, workers have to negotiate and renegotiate their identity in organizations. The lives of people in organizations are filled with contradictions and tensions. Also, identities are open, negotiable, shifting and ambiguous so that selves are never fixed, coherent, bounded, and whole. This can create conflicts and irony (Collinson 2003, 534), even svejkism (Fleming & Sewell 2002) and cynicism at workers. This may also cause difficulties in leadership even to such an extent that some leaders may neglect their leadership duty or create a default identity (Carroll, Levy & Richmond 2008).

The popularity of social constructivist views of leadership has been growing over the last two or three decades among researchers of cultural studies and collective identity. Originally, social constructivist ideas were generated in Berger’s and Luckmann’s project of sociology of knowledge. Berger and Luckmann showed how subjective opinions were gradually objectified in everyday action. Berger and Luckmann showed how the classifications of habituated actions eventually led to the constitution of institutes and how the segments of human life that had already been institutionalized were subsumed under social control. They also showed how the institutional world was transmitted by most parents and educational institutes as an objective reality. Berger and Luckmann claimed that language provided the fundamental superimposition of logic on the objectified social world. Berger and Luckmann also claimed that constructed classifications and habituated behavior, which was expected in performing roles in them, acted as the normative control of behavior (Berger & Luckmann 1991, 72–83).

In the last three decades, such researchers as Harré (1985), Gergen (1991) and Shotter (1993) have moved the individualized view of human research to the social field and, by so doing, they have made it possible to see leadership from the relational and contextual perspective.

Shotter says that the use of words must be understood as a means in social meaning making. Shotter also says that interaction is an intertextual joint action. Shotter claims that part taking is crucial to interaction and that it is not possible to understand completely what the other has said. In spite of this, a person must be able to respond to the other. Shotter also claims that a person must also be able to explain why they have made their statements and if asked, they must also be able to try to justify what they have said. Others can demand that a person should explain why he/she has said what he/she has said and also what is the justification of his/her words. If asked, a person has to explain what he/she has meant in spite of the ambiguity and insecurity included in the speech acts. Shotter says that what is said cannot be understood solely by itself but must be understood as a part of an interaction. Each utterance is an answer to what has been said before (Shotter 1993, 21–44).

Researchers who have adopted social constructivist views speak of positions rather than roles. These researchers say that “*discourses make available positions for subjects to take up. These positions are in relation to other people.*” (Langhove & Harre 1999, 16). Positioning is a moral act. It is also possible to position others in a discussion (van Langhove & Harré 1999, 24).

According to Gergen, the modern and romantic view of self are falling into disuse. From the 19th century, we have inherited a romantic view of self, which believes that each person has characteristics of a personal depth. From the 20th century onwards, we have thought that self is a rational and predictable whole. The contemporary postmodern condition is marked by a plurality of voices, and we have become aware that that the self is a collection of voices and each reality of self gives way to reflexive questioning. The unitary notion of self is being deconstructed in this process to an array of selves. In this process, the reality is transformed to the construction of the reality, and the self is transformed in the construction of selves in new and different relationships. In this process, self becomes relational, a pastiche or a social chameleon. People who live in the global information economy are part of a huge social network and in order to be successful they need a capacity to communicate in polyphonic ways (Gergen 1991, 6, 147–150). In such a society, people learn to change their frame constantly in different situations (Harre, Clarke & de Carlo 1985, 75–89).

The contextual and relational leadership view transforms leadership away from individualistic and leader-centered notions which have been prevailing in the leadership field. Leaders are positioned as one voice among many other voices in the workgroup. The relational and contextual leadership has been researched from many perspectives, such as shared leadership, narrative leadership and as leadership discourse.

Researchers who write on shared or distributed leadership criticize the leader-centrism of traditional leadership views. They claim that in individualistic leadership views, there are many normative aspects. They also claim that the leader-centered views promote learned helplessness in followers. In individualistic leadership views, it is emphasized that a leader needs to inspire followers.

However, the research shows that leader-centric practices make followers passive rather than inspired.

Some researchers claim that organizations benefit from shared leadership. These researchers say that they have noticed that people often work better when nobody leads them. The researchers who favor shared or distributed leadership say that some leadership functions may be shared by several members of a group and some leadership functions can be performed by different people at different times. The researchers who favor shared leadership claim that many benefits can be gained from spontaneous cooperation of people at work. These benefits are due to a seamless coordination of tasks and shared responsibility (Gronn 2002, 423–431).

There are many ways in which to conceptualize shared leadership or collective leadership as it is sometimes called. Ospina, Foldy, Fairhurst and Jackson (2020, 443) have created a map of collective leadership. They claim that collective leadership can be seen either as a type or as a lens. They also claim that leadership can either be seen as residing in the group or in the system. Sklaveniti says that shared leadership is a kind of collective imagining of reality together and he says that this process leads to co-action which is a continuous process where leadership relations are continuously (re)constructed (Sklaveniti 2020, 547–548). Shared leadership can also be seen to be born from the interplay of formal and informal leadership (Mieroop, Clifton and Verhelst 2020). Gibeau, Langley, Denis and Schendel (2020, 464–465) claim that, in many professional organizations, there is a continuous interplay between professionalism and managerialism. If this tension is successfully met at different organizational levels, it is possible to create shared objectives and successful co-action.

As we can see from the discussion above, there are many ways of seeing shared leadership. However what is common to them is a view that shared leadership involves horizontal, lateral influence among team members (Zhu, Liao, Yam & Johnson 2018) and it is "naturally occurring" in complex organizations where it is based on "advice seeking" in social networks (White, Currie & Lockett 2016). Some researchers like Pieterse, Hollenbeck, Knippenberg, Spitzmüller, Dimotakis, Karam and Slesman (2019) claim that in teams where team members share the same goals self-management is a more productive way of organizing than a formal leader led way of operating. Still others like Drescher and Garbers (2016) claim that shared leadership is based on communality, the feeling of similarity, which explains why team members often hold the same attitudes, feelings, or beliefs.

Shared leadership seems to increase team performance. For example, Drescher and Garbers (2016) found in their study that people working in teams that had shared leadership were more satisfied with their work and that they were also more productive than members of other teams. Results like this may be due to the communality and communication inside the teams. Researchers have noticed how much people discuss the ways that work should be done while they are working. People also accept what others say if what is said is relevant to the work performance. Researchers who have observed work pro-

cesses in work groups have noticed that leadership is not an objective phenomenon that can easily be found and classified. They have noticed that those things that observers classify as leadership are mainly things that they consider themselves to be leadership and often the observers find it hard to explain why they have classified a certain behavior as leadership (Gronn 2010, 319–320). Many researchers claim that shared leadership is especially well suited to knowledge intensive organizations (Bouwen 2001) like orchestras (Boerner, Krause & Gebert 2004) and schools (Camburn et al. 2003).

Researchers have found that if one wants to change leader-centered work habits to more subtle ways of seeing the leadership, one has to pay attention to the work processes. One should look, especially, at how people work together in coordinated ways. One should also pay attention to the meaning making processes that people create when carrying out coordinated work. Researchers have claimed that the traditional relationship between a leader, a member and a goal can be replaced with the relation between a direction, an alignment, and a commitment (Crevani et al. 2010, 78–81).

Some researchers claim that shared leadership can be researched if leadership is considered as practice. They have claimed that concepts like ‘individual’, ‘causally’, ‘superior’, and ‘performance’ constitute the premises of ‘methodological individualism’. Methodological individualism gives credit to individual agents in performing in a manner that is governed by a purpose. These researchers claim that methodological individualism reduces leadership to objective, measurable and tangible. So, a great deal of leadership is left out of such models. These researchers claim that a new kind of view, which they call practice methodology, offers a different kind of approach. These researchers say that practice theory unites the micro (situated doings of individuals) and the macro (different social practices) into a complex relationship. This relationship represents the commitment to understanding individuals and collectives as a field of bundles of practices (Carroll et al. 2008, 364–366).

Leadership can also be seen from the textual perspective, as has been done in the narrative and discursive leadership views. Narrative and discursive views are also contextual leadership views because they see leadership as taking place in a certain situation and in a certain time and place. The narrative and discursive leadership views also emphasize the processual nature of leadership (Gabriel 2000).

Narrative views were adopted already in the 1990s in organizational and leadership studies. Boje (1991) considers leadership as a skill to tell stories. However, Boje does not consider that leaders could control whose or which story is told in an organization and in which way it is told. There is always an ongoing competition between people on whose story is being narrated in organizations. Boje says that it is not indifferent whose story is being told in a credible way in an organization. Often, in organizations, there are many different stories told at the same time, and those stories that leaders tell also meet resistance.

Boje (2001) also spoke on deconstructing stories, ante narratives, Tamara land and theatrics of leadership. By ante narrative, he meant a story that has not

yet gained a storyline or a plot. By Tamara Land, Boje referred to a play in Hollywood which was acted in several rooms at the same time. In each room, the play received different interpretations so that different angles of the story were revealed (Boje 1995). Theatrics of leadership means both how leaders tell the story and also what kind of theatrics leaders perform. Boje says that stories make the organization and that is why it is important to have leaders' stories told there. So, he considered leadership to be a storytelling art. However, there are multiple voices at the stage of organizations at the same time. Boje (2003) says that if we could unmask the theatrics of leadership, we would find Machiavellian Princes pretending to be heroes.

Mishler (1995, 93) claims that narratives consist of six components: "*Abstract, Orientation, Complicating Action, Evaluation, Result or Resolution, and Coda.*" Narrative is a method of recapitulating past experiences verbally to the sequence of events that have actually happened. Stories are dynamic because every present moment is always colored by past moments and all that has taken place before. Narratives are also dynamic because each person interprets the story from his / her own life world. Stories and life are related in a complicated and multilayered way: Stories are told to people so that they could learn how to live, and life is lived to be told as stories (Hyvärinen 2004, 299–300). According to hermeneutics, it is impossible to make a clear distinction between stories and experiences. Present experiences have no form and appear to be chaotic, and it is only possible to give a storied form to these experiences afterwards. The story form of experiences does not include all that has happened, and it also includes something that has not at all happened. So, stories told always give a somewhat distorted picture of things (Hyvärinen 2007, 130).

Researchers who have adopted narrative leadership views often criticize leader-centered views, which tell the story as if leaders were heroes who know better. These researchers say that in leader-centered views, it is claimed that leaders possess supernatural skills to cure organizations and transform them into a more successful form (Clark & Salaman 1998, 138–140).

In the narrative leadership research, researchers have been studying how leaders use stories in the meaning-making process. The researchers have also been interested in how leadership is construed through storytelling. It has been found that sometimes stories have a stronger influence on the organization than the actual leader him or herself (Auvinen 2013, 23–29). In their study Auvinen, Aaltio and Blomqvist (2013) identified six storytelling areas (motivation, inspiration, defusing conflict, influencing superiors, discovering a focus and constructing trust) to evoke leadership influence. Boje (1991; 1995) has addressed the meaning of context in leader's storytelling: The managers themselves are intertwined in the complex network of organizational stories. Thus, both the followers and leaders are influenced embedded and deeply involved narrative meaning-making processes.

Narrative leadership research is closely related to social constructivist views. In both views, it is considered that the social reality is constructed in interaction. Both of these views also claim that knowing is relational. It depends

on the time, place and position in which the knower is (Heikkinen 2000, 50). Structuralists say that narratives can be interpreted in multiple ways. They attempt to uncover suppressed or hidden stories in order to provide an alternative interpretation to the common storyline (O'Connor 2002, 38).

Leadership can also be seen as a leadership discourse, as we in this study have done. Leadership discourse is constructed by those who create, disseminate and consume leadership texts. The so-called leadership gurus have a special role in creating leadership discourses because they often tell a story of a successful company in their books and in their lectures. They often tell a story so that the special kind of leadership model used in a supposedly successful company gains mythical and magical dimensions. They also tell a story so that everyone reading the book or hearing the lecture should use the same kind of leadership model as in the story, even if it is not at all sure if this kind of behavior could be generalized. If the readers of the book and participants of the seminars like this story they may even apply this kind of leadership model. The new leadership gradually gains a more structured form, and this model is sold and bought as if it was a 'product'. Later, the new leadership model has to compete with other leadership theories and leadership models in the leadership markets (Furusten 1995, 3-32).

Collins (2007) gives an example of how a new leadership discourse (a leadership model) is born. Collins describes how Peters and Waterman developed the 7-S model, which they presented in their famous Book *In Search of Excellence* (1982). Peters and Waterman claimed that the 7-S model was used in so-called successful organizations. Peters and Waterman claimed that their model could be used successfully in all organizations. Collins says that later it was found that the successful organizations that Peters and Waterman used in formulating the model were in fact not as successful as Peters and Waterman had claimed.

Researchers who have adopted the discursive view of leadership claim that discourses are not only speech but also a way of thought. These researchers believe that discourses lead people to see, think and act in certain ways. Researchers who have adopted discursive views of leadership acknowledge their debt to such postmodern thinkers like Foucault, Derrida, Baudillard and Lyotard (Grant et al. 1998, 2-9).

Researchers who have adopted the discursive view of leadership try to understand the confusing and multifaceted phenomena that are happening in organizations through analyzing speech and language. They understand that people who speak are not only expressing their intentions, but, at the same time, are "imprisoned" by the language because language begins to "speak them" as Heidegger expressed (Grant et al. 1998). If one sees language as a social practice, as it is done in critical discourse analysis, one can see that discourse is formed partly of social structures that prevail in organizations (and in society) and partly of the everyday discussions that members in organizations are involved in. So, the micro-scale of everyday language use and the macro-scale of social structure are methodologically linked in the critical discourse analysis (Fair-

clough 1992, 2005). *"Discourse is shaped and constrained by social structures, whereas discursive practice will simultaneously shape the social structures that constrain it."* (Phillips, Sewell, Jaynes 2008, 771).

2.1.5 Summary of leadership discourses

In Table 1, the summary of the leadership discourses is shown. Table 1 is based on the previous review where traditional leadership theories, 'new leadership' theories and contextual leadership views were discussed in detail. The summary bears a resemblance to many other overviews of leadership development.

Bryman (1996) divided leadership theories into four contents and stages: 1) Trait approach, 2) Style approach, 3) Contingency approach, and 4) 'The new leadership' approach. Bryman was the first to use the notion of 'New leadership' theories, and he considered that the transformational theory, the authentic leadership theory, and the dispersed leadership theory belong to this 'New leadership' theory. The difference between the classification used in the summary and shown in Table 1 and Bryman's classification is that Bryman's trait approach, style approach and contingency approach are put together, and this category is called, in Table 1, 'Traditional leadership' discourse. Another difference is that what Bryman in 1996 called 'dispersed leadership' is, in Table 1, placed under contextual leadership discourse. By the time Bryman wrote his article, dispersed or shared or distributed leadership theories were only emerging.

The classification shown in Table 1 is also quite similar to the classification that Ronald (2014) used. Ronald divided leadership discourses as follows: 1) Trait theories, 2) Behavioral theories, 3) Contingency theories, 4) Relational theories and 5) Transformational theory. Shafique and Beh (2017) divided leadership discourses almost similarly: 1) Trait theories, 2) Behavioral theories, 3) Power and influence theories, 4) Contingency theories, 5) Integrative theories and 6) 'New leadership' theories. For Safique and Beh the 'new leadership' theories are transformational leadership theories.

Lee, Chen and Su reviewed leadership discourses by analyzing articles in *The Leadership Quarterly* between 2008 and 2012. Their data consists of 696 articles showing - based on the factor analysis of the core research themes - the following factors: 1) Transformational leadership, 2) LMX-theory, 3) Implicit leadership theories, 4) Authentic leadership, 5) Charismatic leadership and 6) Complexity leadership (Lee et al. 2020, 88, 98-99). This shows, first, that most articles focused on 'new leadership' theories (transformational leadership, authentic leadership and charismatic leadership) and, secondly, that the journal did not publish articles, which dealt with trait theories or behavioral theories or contingency theories of leadership.

In some contemporary reviews of leadership discourses, a multitude of leadership theories have been found. Dionne, Gupta, Sotak, Sirreffs, Sherbam, Hao, Kim and Yammarino (2014) studied over 800 leadership articles that were published for over 25 years in the *Leadership Quarterly* and they found that these articles could be classified under 29 leadership approaches/theories.

Meuser, Gardner, Dinh and Hu (2016) reviewed leadership articles published between 2000 and 2013 in 10 top journals (864) articles. They found that leadership discourses could be classified in 49 approaches/theories and they concluded that the integrative work of leadership discourses is in its infancy.

However, Zhu, Song, Zhu and Johnson (2019), who reviewed leadership research from 1990 to 2017 in 10 influential leadership journals, found through bibliometric mapping that several leadership theories are linked with each other. They divided leadership theories into 22 classes, such as transformational and charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, leader-member exchange, ethical/moral leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, trait theory, shared leadership and empowering leadership. In their data almost one third (32 %) of all articles (82 articles out of 254 articles) were written about transformational and charismatic leadership. Similarly, Dinh, Lord, Garner, Meuser, Linden and Hu (2014) reviewed 752 articles that had been published in 10 top leadership journals from 2000 to 2012 and they found that these journals could be classified into 16 classes, but some of these classes were rather familiar. The classes included trait theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, social exchange/relationship leadership theories, neo-charismatic theories (such as transformational theories) and contextual theories.

So, in Table 1, one way to integrate leadership discourses is shown. It is evident that the leadership field needs an integration of the multitude of leadership theories. In addition to this, the comparison of leadership theories published in the leadership journals and the classification depicted in Table 1 shows mainly two differences: 1) relational theories and 'new leadership' theories are in the same category in Table 1, and 2) Table 1 shows contextual leadership views, which are only rarely mentioned in the articles that classify leadership theories on the pages of leadership journals.

The reason why in Table 1 'new leadership' theories and relational leadership theories, for example LMX-theory, are put together is based on the finding that a significant overlap exists between these two leadership theories exists. In a meta-study, which was based on a literature search, the correlation between transformational leadership and LMX-theory was .69 in a data that consisted of 269 articles, which had studied the relationship between these two leadership theories (Borgmann, Rowold, and Bormann 2014, 1341).

Table 1 also shows contextual leadership discourses as their own category, because, in some leadership articles and books, these views are thought to present the latest contemporary leadership views, for example, by Day and Antonakis (2012, 4). It is also claimed that contextual leadership views emphasize social and cultural factors and local situated-ness of leadership. Because contextual leadership views are based on the discourse approach, leadership is often seen as distributed. In the organizational discourse, there are a large number of actors participating, and it is often difficult to track all those acts that are contributing to the leadership process (Fairhurst 2011, 503).

Table 1 divides leadership discourses into three groups: 1) Traditional leadership discourses, 2) 'New leadership' discourses and, 3) Contextual lead-

ership discourses. This classification is based, on one hand, on the classifications used in several articles that have reviewed the history and development of leadership discourses. On the other hand, the classification in Table 1 is based on the need to help in the empirical analysis of this study. In many leadership articles, there are more categories than in the classification shown in Table 1. However, too many categories do not give a good aid for classifying leadership assumptions, which educational institutes in this study have adopted. That is why a simple but comprehensive categorization is used in this study. The categories used in this study are such that there are no difficulties in finding the right category where each educational institute should be placed.

Traditional leadership discourse attempted to find out basic scientific laws of leadership. The methodology used was mainly borrowed from the natural sciences. Questionnaires were most often the method used to collect data in these studies. Traditional leadership research did not, however, find any lawful relationships in leadership. However, traditional leadership research made some progress by being able to falsify some theories. First, it was proved that there are no specific individual traits related to leadership. Then it was shown that there are no specific best leadership styles or attitudes that leaders should always possess. Traditional leadership discourses ended in a lively debate between management and leadership. It was discussed which of these two methods would be better.

Traditional leadership discourse	'New leadership' discourse	Contextual leadership discourse
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Trait theories - Behavioral theories - Situational theories - Management versus leadership debate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transformational leadership - Authentic leadership - LMX-theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Management of meaning and collective identity - Leadership discourse - Narrative leadership - Shared or distributed leadership

TABLE 1 Summary of leadership discourses.

Traditional leadership discourses are leader-centered leadership views. However, some of the 'new leadership' theories, mainly transformational leadership and authentic leadership, are also leader-centered models. In the LMX-theory, leader-centered views are complemented by adding a new dyadic aspect between a leader and members in the theories. The common attribute of all these three theories, that is transformational leadership, authentic leadership and LMX-theory, is their emphasis on interaction and communication, even if transformational and authentic leadership theories are mainly leader-centered, and LMX-theory is based on the relation between a leader and a member.

Alvesson and Kärreman (2015) claim that the transformational leadership theory and the authentic leadership theory are based on manageristic, leader-centric ideology. They claim that *"the literature is full of strong claims about grandiose accomplishments of transformational leadership... Often transformational – and other leadership theories – embrace what could be referred to as a sheep view of managing. The leader leads, the others follow almost mindlessly and without much will or ability."* Alvesson and Kärreman remark that the transformational and authentic leadership theories lead to hero-worship.

In contextual leadership discourses, the views of a leader as a hero are abandoned. Instead, organizations are seen as dynamic living systems where people form networks of influence, and leadership is seen as a relational process. Post heroic leadership is seen as a social process or collective activity where followers are understood to play a significant role in creating leadership (Fletcher 2004). In the contextual leadership discourses, leadership is seen to be constituted within both coordinated and random conversations. Raelin (2011) concludes that in shared leadership, work organizations are not leaderless, but leaderful. By leaderful, he means that everyone is participating in the leadership of the entity. Raelin claims that leaderful practice is based on a democratic ideology.

The contextual leadership discourses consist of many background theories. However, common to the contextual leadership discourses is that social constructionist accounts are used in all of them. Researchers who use social constructionist accounts see that reality is constructed through language (Grint 2005, 1471). From this perspective, a person and an organization are mutually interdependent, and they constitute each other. Language is the carrier of the ongoing process of interaction and the quality of interaction and dialogue is shaping the qualities of social reality (Bouwen 1998, 305). Second, in social constructionist accounts emphasis is given to leadership as a co-constructed reality in the process of interaction between and among social actors (Fairhurst and Grant 2010).

The social constructionist perspective criticizes the leader-follower dualism and creates a new way of seeing leadership as a distributed feature (Bolden 2011). Seen from the distributed leadership perspective, there are many situations in organizations that do not require anybody's leadership at all. When looking at the operation of an organization, it seems that most employees, for most of the time, appear to know what to do and how to do it (Gronn 2000, 320).

It is also evident that in many organizations, leadership is provided by teams rather than by a single person (Camburn, Rowan & Taylor 2003, 366). And when one looks closer at the operation of a group or a team, it is evident that leadership practices take shape in the interaction of a leader, followers, and the situation (Gronn 2002).

The social constructionist perspective of leadership is contextual, because leadership must be constructed in human interaction. So, leadership and the meaning making process behind it is bound to time, people, and context (Uhl-Bien 2006, 655, 662). This means that there cannot be one best leadership model for every context. Kelly (2014) concludes that leadership is an outcome of a collaborative and distributed process. That is why leadership as an on-going process of becoming can take on multiple forms (Collin, Auvinen, Herranen, Paloniemi, Riivari, Sintonen, Lemmetty 2017, 70).

In this research, the model that is presented in Table 1 will be used in evaluating the leadership development in educational institutes. (The evaluation process will be discussed in chapter 3.4 Data analysis). In this evaluation the story of the study of leadership discourse is compared to the story of leadership practices in Finnish educational institutes. However, when doing the comparison, it might be better to use the model in Table 1 as follows: 1) leader-centered views of leadership, 2) leadership views that emphasize communication between leaders and subordinates and 3) contextual views of leadership.

One cannot assume that educational institutes that give leadership education would do it by using the same or even similar leadership views. It is supposed that different educational institutes that do management and leadership development probably use different leadership discourses and claim that the leadership discourse that they are using is the best leadership model there is.

2.2 Management and leadership development

2.2.1 Multifaceted management and leadership development

Many organizations consider leadership to be a competitive advantage and try to develop management and leadership accordingly. In doing so, organizations are devoting considerable energy and a great deal of money to building their management and leadership capacity. However, this effort does not always bring results (McCallum and O'Connell 2009, 152).

There seems to be a conceptual confusion around the concept 'leadership development'. Leadership development and leader development are often mixed. That is why leadership development is often considered to be synonymous to leader development. Even the literature of the two subject areas is overlapping. However, leadership development and leader development are two quite different areas (Day 2000, 581–582).

Leader development refers to developing individuals to fit with the managerial roles where they work or will be working. Leader development focuses

on developing leaders so that they can accumulate their leadership competencies and skills. In leader development, individual-based knowledge and skills are usually emphasized as they are considered to be vital in leadership roles. Instead, leadership development is concentrating on expanding the collective capacity of organization members to enhance cooperation and resource exchange in creating organizational value. Leadership development is based on developing social capital. Social capital is based on networked relationships among individuals. Social capital is based on trust. It is also based on building shared representations and collective meanings among people (Day 2000, 582–585; Probert and James 2011, 141–142; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm and McKee 2014, 64).

Management and leadership development can be considered to be a strategic question to organizations, as is seen in the resource-based view of strategy. In the resource-based view human resource management and, in particular, human resource development has a central position.

Although the leadership literature is voluminous, scant attention has been paid to understanding leadership development. Moreover, only recently has there been a serious attempt to formulate theories of management and leadership development. As was mentioned before in the introduction, the management and leadership development have, for the most part, focused on leader development and there has only recently been a distinction of leader and leadership development taken place. Leader development focuses on the individual and seeks to build personal and intrapersonal competences, such as skills, abilities and other characteristics. In contrast, leadership development realizes that leadership is constructed within a social context where there are leaders and others, social systems, and organizational strategies, missions, visions and goals (Olivares 2008, 530–531).

It is commonly thought that leadership can be learned. Factors that support the development of leadership include the challenges of the job, the person's own attitude towards learning and the support provided by the organization. Management and leadership development can come in the form of traditional classroom training sessions, as well as interventions such as mentoring, coaching, feedback programs, job challenges, reassignments and social networking. Management and leadership development can increase both the level of human capital (individual competencies, such as skills, abilities and knowledge) and social capital (relational competencies, such as networking and co-operation). Both human capital and social capital can build a competitive advantage and advance the organizational performance (McCallum and O'Connell 2009, 154–156).

Management and leadership development should provide possibilities for learning. This would mean that participants of the management and leadership development courses could reflect their experiences and would be able to construct new, appropriate or revised interpretations of their experience. The benefits of management and leadership development can be such as improved leadership skills, better communication strategies, broadened perspectives and im-

proved psychological empowerment. Valuable leadership education should provide both the theoretical underpinnings of leadership concepts, as well as practical knowledge (Solansky 2014, 639–640).

Management and leadership development should also be adequately evaluated. Currently, the most common practices used in evaluation use evaluation models which are based on the Kirkpatrick Evaluation Model. These models primarily measure the transfer of training to individual participants of courses. These evaluation models do not measure such intangible outcomes as tacit knowledge and the change of leadership culture sought by the leadership development programs (King and Nesbit 2015, 135–137).

Management and leadership development should be tailored to fit each context, because context is a critical component of successful leadership. A brilliant leader in one situation does not necessarily perform well in another. However, management and leadership development programs rest too often on the assumption that ‘one size fits all’. Leadership programs should be based on real on-the-job projects that have business impact (Gurdjan, Halbeisen and Lane 2014, 2–3).

Management and leadership development should be based on the organizations strategy, a through needs assessment, selecting candidates, the design and implementing appropriate learning system, and corresponding actions to reward success. Organizations should define clear objectives for the program and implement an assessment process to ensure that the management and leadership development system is supporting the overall business strategy (Leskiw and Singh 2007, 446–447).

It is often asserted that leadership development plays a critical role in determining how people are led in organizations (Higgs 2012). According to this view leaders learn how to lead in organizations and that is why many of the roots of both ‘good’ and ‘bad’ leadership are learned in educational institutes (Furnham 2010). Most notably, some researchers claim that management and leadership development does not provide leaders with the tools and knowledge to operate in today’s complex environment and to adapt to environment variation. These researchers claim that educational institutes view management and leadership development in a linear way and offer only ‘cook-book’ solutions to the participants. They claim that new leadership development interventions need to be non-linear and help participants of management and leadership development courses to solve complex problems and to think critically (Turner, Baker, Schroeder, Johnson and Chung 2018, 539–540).

There are also many other problems associated with management and leadership development in educational institutes. The main weakness of management and leadership development in educational institutes is that educational institutes rely too much on the classroom as the primary method of developing leaders. A second limitation of management and leadership development in educational institutes is that educational institutes overemphasize, in leadership training, the value of generic leadership models. Many of these models provide valuable insights, but participants of the courses typically find

them to be too theoretical and often disconnected from day-to-day realities of the jobs and the problems that participants face in their leadership work (Weiss and Molinaro 2006, 4).

Some researchers have challenged the prevailing wisdom behind leadership education by claiming that educational institutes have adopted the economic values behind their leadership education and, in doing this, they have abandoned the wise and intrinsic goals, such as human welfare, and have replaced them with instrumental goals, such as financial goals. So, many educational institutes measure their success with financial measures and define their management and leadership development as teaching 'expert' knowledge. However, at the same time, many educational institutes still use the 'heroic model' of leadership in their management and leadership development (Badem & Higgs 2015, 539–541).

The aims of management and leadership development are dominated by financial calculations. Educational institutes are deeply influenced by economic standards, such as the participants' career advancement and salaries for assessing their success. Educational institutes also tend to focus their efforts on helping participants to become better achievers (Garcia 2008, 115–116). These kinds of aims reflect the instrumental orientation of educational institutes and this has also turned academic work into academic labor (Alajoutsijärvi, Juusola, Siltaoja 2015, 285). Alongside the instrumental approach, many educational institutes have elevated leadership to an idealized position as an unattainable virtue (Cox & Hassad 2018, 533). However, some researchers have attempted to change the teaching of educational institutes to be more critically oriented, but they have failed to do so, and, as a consequence of this, they have had to modify their teaching, and, in some cases, also leave their teaching positions (see for example Sinclair, 2007).

Badem and Higgs (2015) propose that educational institutes should replace instrumental financial goals to social welfare, and they should acknowledge that profit maximization is subordinate with societal welfare. This could be done because leadership development, as well as leadership too, are socially constructed and contextual concepts. Accordingly, Mabey has proposed that there are 4 different types of leadership development discourses: 1) the functionalist, 2) the interpretive, 3) the dialogic and 4) the critical (Mabey 2013, 360).

So far in this essay we have been dealing only with functionalist discourse of management and leadership development. This is not surprising because most of the research done of management and leadership development is conducted from this paradigm as is shown by the survey which Mabey conducted. Mabey analyzed all articles which were published in more than 2200 business and management and organization behavior journals and found that 188 articles (about 82 % of all the articles) were written from a functionalist perspective (Mabey 2013, 360–361).

According to Mabey the overriding consideration of the functionalist discourse is organizational performance. So, the key theoretical concern of func-

tionalist discourse of management and leadership development is how to maximize the productivity of the organization. In the interpretive leadership discourse, it is sought to interpret and understand the lived experience of leaders and leadership teams in their everyday work environments. In the dialogic (or poststructuralist) management and leadership development discourse, attempts are made to deconstruct management and leadership development so that it would yield a quite different understanding of the activities associated with management and leadership development. Management and leadership development can be seen as a form among other 'technologies of the self'. Management and leadership development can be seen as a means to exercise discipline and to create subject positions. In critical management and leadership development discourse, management and leadership development is seen to try to socialize participants to a certain ideology. It is tried to convince participants that economically instrumental reasoning and existing social arrangements (division into managers and employees) are naturally ordained and self-evidently true (Mabey 2013, 361–368).

So far, we have been dealing with the management and leadership development from its present. However, the review needs to be extended to include future prospects for leadership development. Accordingly, it is often claimed that organizations live in today's volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous environment. It is also commonly thought that, in the future, the environment will be even more complex, rapidly changing and ambiguous than today. Accordingly, it is concluded that organizations need leadership skills different from those which helped them to succeed in the past (Moldoveanu and Narayandas 2019, 4).

Moldoveanu and Narayandas are forecasting the decline of the traditional classroom-based programs. They claim that online courses, a social and interactive platform will be used more and more in management and leadership development in the future. They say that learning becomes personalized, socialized, and adaptive in the future. They call these kinds of environments "personal leadership clouds". They claim that learning is personalized because leaders can pursue the skills development program that is right for them. They also claim that learning is contextualized because leaders get the opportunity of leadership development on the job (Moldoveanu and Narayandas 2019, 4–8).

Auvinen and Lämsä (2020) say that because digitalization is growing fast, it will also have an impact on human resource management and leadership. That is why they have made a survey among human resource managers on digitalization. Based on the results of the study, they divided digital personnel management systems into three waves: 1) electrification of personnel systems, 2) development of personnel systems and the advent of cloud services, and 3) artificial intelligence and automation. The research showed that all organizations which participated in the study had encountered the first wave many years ago. Most of the organizations that participated in the study are still living the second wave of the digitalization. Only a few organizations are moving to the third wave on digitalization (Auvinen and Lämsä 2020, 14–20).

After researching leaderless organizations, Auvinen has considered whether a robot could lead in the future. He asks whether there may be an independent intelligent application that learns human activities and develops as a digital supervisor in the future (Auvinen 2017, 37–38). Even if these kinds of ponderings may seem to be too futuristic, we need to develop the way in which leadership education is carried out in educational institutes today.

From the point of view of this research, it is good to delimit a wide area of management and leadership development. This need also becomes apparent when looking at the fact that different organizations in different parts of the world use different kinds of leadership development methods. This means that it is difficult to speak of leadership development as a unified concept. The fact that there are several other concepts, such as management education and organizational development (OD), that are closely related to leadership development increases the multifaceted and polyphonic nature of leadership development. To complicate the picture even more, it can be claimed that most leadership development takes place in the workplace when members of the work group meet a challenge that they have to solve. This means that, in many cases, it might be better to talk of leadership learning than leadership development.

What is said above means that it is difficult to study the entire leadership development and leadership learning process. This means that a research like this has to concentrate on some part of the phenomenon of leadership development. Of course, it is difficult to choose what parts of the phenomenon one should concentrate on so that one would not lose relevant information.

Luckily one can make the situation around leadership development a little bit simpler if one decides to concentrate on those parts of leadership development that are usually thought to be connected to leadership development. Perhaps the most striking of these common features is that there are some institutes, i.e., universities and private institutes, which are called business schools, specialized in leadership development. These institutes are called educational institutes in this research. In this research, we concentrate on the leadership development that these educational institutes (or business schools) offer in Finland. The focus of this research does not include leadership learning in the workplaces, neither does it include the experiences of the participants in leadership courses. This does not mean that we would not try to study what kinds of methods business schools try to use in order to increase the probability of learning leadership skills at work. So, we also focus on those methods that business schools and educational institutes use in order to help participants of their courses to learn leadership or improve leadership at their workplaces.

2.2.2 Management and leadership development in educational institutes

In this chapter, the history of both management and leadership development is briefly reviewed. However, it is clear that the history of leadership development is only a very recent phenomenon as most of the educational institutes have so far concentrated on management development.

The first recorded teaching in higher education, Plato's Academy, took place in about 300 BC giving an idealistic model to the later educational institutes (Gutherie & Jenkins 2018, 6). The history of educational institutes in modern times is closely related to the growth and development of organizations in the industrial era. The growth of the industrial age increased the need for providing technical training for adults (Gutherie & Jenkins 2018, 81). The industrial age increased the number and the size of organizations and, accordingly, increased the number of managers.

The development of educational institutes and leadership notions are intertwined. Leadership is a major innovation in the modern era, and educational institutes have spread the leadership notions to managers and supervisors. At the same time, educational institutes have also contributed in creating new models and theories of leadership.

Khurana (2007, 1) writes that *"modern management has long been one of the most powerful but invisible of American institutes – invisible not in the sense of being out of the public eye but in the sense that its control of many society's most powerful organizations has become so taken for granted, and its influence so pervasive, that it has evaded searching scrutiny"*.

The strong position of modern management cannot be understood if one does not connect the rise of modern management to the development of business schools. Because the rising number of managers at the beginning of the industrial era lacked the legitimate authority, they had to prove their social worth both to others and to themselves. Managers claimed that the authority should be based on an ability rather than on the tradition or the inherited position of achieved wealth. Khurana claims that science, the profession, and research university represented legitimate institutes, which management used in order to legitimate their authority (Khurana 2007, 3, 41, 87).

Also, the first management theories such as Taylorism helped management to legitimize their authority. Even if the first management theories were not invented in universities, they were adopted early to the university curriculum. The appearance of Taylor's scientific management claimed that management could be, at least potentially, a science and Taylor's writings justified management's authority because this theory was taught in universities. The appearance of business schools inside universities helped to establish management as a profession in the eyes of society (Khurana 2007, 92-111). So, it can be said that management needed both business schools and management science in order to establish its legitimate authority. Management also tried to claim that it was a profession, but this claim was not accepted by many because it soon became evident that management science did not consist of a unified field of knowledge, but was a fragmented set of competing views that were in conflict with each other. In spite of this, business schools have always claimed that they use the latest and most relevant management theories in their teaching.

The first business schools were born in Europe. Kaplan writes that *"the history of business schools in Europe can be broadly divided into two periods: The first, spanning the years 1819-1944, is referred as Founding Period. In this period, two types of schools were established: the 'Southern' model, led by France and Belgium, and the*

'Northern' model led by Germany. The second period, the Assimilation Period, started after World War II and continues to this day. The year 1945 marks the beginning of Americanization of European Business schools" (Kaplan 2014, 529–530).

The first business school was founded in Paris in 1819 and the second in Belgium in 1852. The first German business school was founded in 1898 in Leipzig. The French business schools used overly theoretical views in teaching business. However, it was the German business schools that rapidly academized the teaching of business. The German way of teaching business led to a completely new academic field 'Betriebswirtschaftslehre' which is called business administration in English (Kaplan 2014, 530).

The first business school in the US was founded at the University of Pennsylvania in 1881 thanks to the efforts of businessman Joseph Wharton. It was known as the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. Wharton could speak German, and he visited Prussia and brought the ideas developed in the Prussian school of bureaucratic statecraft to the USA (Mintzberg 2004, 26–27). Later the ideas of 'scientific management' influenced heavily on the teaching of business schools so that the development of management was thought to be true science and was considered to rest on rules and principles (Kaplan 2014, 530).

The Harvard Business School was established in 1908, and it pioneered the MBA degree and case study approach (Kaplan 2014, 530). Case study method was born out of a debate between those who favored general knowledge of business conduct and those who wanted specialized knowledge about operations of specific industries. Cases were used in the teaching of commercial law, and this method was also gradually expanded in other areas of teaching in Harvard Business School (Mintzberg 2004, 29–30).

After the Second World War, Western Europe was characterized by the fast-economic recovery. Organizations grew rapidly and, accordingly, the need for top managers also increased quickly. Because of the war, there was a lack of experienced managers. So, management development programs were created to satisfy organizational needs (Vloeberghs 1998, 644).

The Ford Foundation promoted US-style management development to Western Europe. The first MBA degree in Europe was offered by INSEAD, which was founded in 1958 in France with help from the Ford Foundation. Also, the rapid economic recovery after the Second World War in Germany, the 'economic miracle', was much aided by the adoption of American management techniques (Kaplan 2014, 531). The academic support from the US and imitating US models helped to establish the first management development institutes in Europe IMEDE in Switzerland, INSEAD in France, the London Business School in the UK, and IESE in Spain (Nueno 2011, 110–111).

In the 1960s and early 1970s, organizations were growing explosively and accordingly the interest in management development increased. During the late 1970s and 1980s, the attention to management development continued to increase because the large and middle-sized companies were interested in developing their managers. At that time, the management development gained new aims and methods. Management development did not merely include the tradi-

tional methods like succession planning and training, but gained new instruments; performance assessment and management development were seen as methods to develop people management, that is leadership (Vloeberghs 1998, 644–645). During the 1970s and 1980s, many European universities created management departments and established MBA programs (Nueno 2011, 111).

Many researchers consider management development to be in many respects a success story because of the rapid growth in the field. However, while the field has grown rapidly, it has also changed a great deal. American business schools and their MBA programs were rather similar in their content and structure compared to one another at the end of the Second World War. Later, business schools have attempted to find a way to academic rigor, and this has led them to take different roads. Today, the field of management development has become highly fragmented. There are now one-year MBA programs, two-year programs, 15-month programs and 27-month programs. There are evening and weekend programs, part time programs and full-time programs. There are programs that focus on some specialties and there are programs for general management (Light 2011, 104–105).

Today, many educational institutes have realized that the concepts of management and management development are culturally specific. Although, the concept of management is essentially of US origin, because much of the theory of management is from the US, the same principles of management and leadership cannot be transferred across cultures and applied universally (Woodall & Winstanley 2001, 241).

Although management development is nowadays an international phenomenon and although many researchers consider it to be a success story, management development has also been heavily criticized. Mintzberg (2004) says that management development does not teach the right people because MBA students do not have practical experience of management. Mintzberg also says that students of MBA courses are trained in the wrong ways with the wrong consequences. Mintzberg claims that MBA programs give students a false impression of management that is undermining organizations and the society. Mintzberg also claims that business schools operate on the level of specialized functions and do not teach the whole picture of organizations to students. Mintzberg says that business is not marketing, accounting and so on, it may be about these things but not these things, and management is not another specialty. Mintzberg says that one cannot learn management by merely analyzing things and decision making cannot be reduced to analysis and by reducing analysis to a technique. Mintzberg also says that management education has led to a glorification of self-interest and this has led to a cynical and corrupt society.

Some years earlier Mintzberg and Gosling wrote: *"Management is a practice, comprising a great deal of art and craft as well as some science. That is why managers cannot be created in a classroom, the way, for example physicians or accountants are, at least initially. Management education means little to those who have not experienced the practice"* (Mintzberg & Gosling 2002, 65).

Even if Mintzberg's critique to the functionality of management education is appealing, some researchers have found in their empirical studies that training leaders in functional leadership is a useful tool to the performance of leadership functions and team effectiveness (Santos, Caetano, Tavares 2015). These kinds of findings do not, however, diminish the value of Mintzberg's critique, but these kinds of research results show that organizations are functional social constructions and that is why organizations may benefit from training that emphasizes hierarchical and functional operations.

Locke and Spender (2011) have criticized business schools for helping managers consider themselves to be a professional caste. Locke and Spender claim that managers have taken the decision-making power out of the hands of owners and employees. Locke and Spender claim further that managers justify this seized power by claiming that they have special kinds of education to make decisions which the business schools have furnished for them. Locke and Spender say that the rise of managerialism and greed has thrown today's world out of balance. Locke and Spender say that business schools have reduced managerial work to mathematical models, and they have failed to see the human side of management. Locke and Spender claim that this has been an immoral deed, which led to the economic crisis in 2008.

Sinclair (2009) says that leadership development is a process of seduction where highly valued leadership teaching sweeps audiences off their feet. Sinclair claims that leadership teaching has largely ignored the psychodynamic processes that are part of education. These processes include the desire to idealize the teacher as the authority figure. Sinclair notes that concepts of 'seduction' and 'leadership' have common origins because the Latin root of seduction is *seducere*, which means to lead. Sinclair claims that teaching leadership relies more on seduction, whereas other kinds of teaching and leadership teaching often works to the extent that it satisfies audience desires to be entertained and transformed. Sinclair says that behind the commonly held belief that management development is objective knowledge-building, there are many emotional and political relations in management development (Sinclair 2009, 266–271).

Gabriel (2005) claims that MBA-courses may be seen to educate followers rather than leaders. Gabriel sees leadership development as an extension of Spartan education (*agôgê*), which was directly aimed at discipline and obedience. He also sees that school discipline becomes the basis of work discipline. However, he states that blind obedience is not desirable for today's organizations. Instead, one should develop such qualities as creative imagination and flexible thinking, which are the very opposite characteristics of authoritarian and narcissistic personalities (Gabriel 2005, 148–151).

2.2.3 Management and leadership development as part of strategic human resource management

Management development is intricately linked to the strategic human resource management (SHRM) in organizations. However, the level of the connection between management development and SHRM may vary considerably. Part of

this variation can be explained by the fact that SHRM has changed considerably through the years and organizations may have organized their HR-function according to a specific SHRM paradigm. Even if organizations may follow the same SHRM-paradigm, they may have different HR-practices as they may use a different kind of SHRM strategy (Miles & Snow 1984, 38). Also, the connection between business schools and their client organizations depends largely on the SHRM strategies and practices and HR paradigms applied in organizations. So, it is relevant to consider HR paradigms and SHRM strategies and practices from the point of view of management development.

In Finland, personnel management (*henkilöstöhallinto*) was born out of the patriarchal management (Haggren, Laento, Laine, Malin, Mansukoski, Rautiainen, Ritala & Sipola 2000, 15). During the first part of the twentieth century, there were either some social functions or personnel development operations or both in some large organizations. By the end of the 1960s in Finland, personnel management as a systematic practice was established (Lilja 1987). It cannot be said that management development would have had a central part in the personnel management in the 1960s and 1970s, but it would have had some role in it. Personnel development was one of the 8 major parts of personnel management, and management development was considered to be one of the key areas of personnel development (Palm & Voutilainen 1970 and 1972). In the 1960s and -70s, personnel development focused on training and succession planning (Aura, Koskimies, Mononen, Olkinuora, Palm & Saarikko 1971, 32), and training needs were evaluated through various kinds of training needs assessment methods (Attwood 1985, 91).

In the 1980s, personnel management was replaced by human resource management (HRM) and strategic human resource management (SHRM). In Harvard's SHRM model, personnel were considered to be human resources (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills & Walton 1984 and 1985), and in Michigan University's model personnel development was considered to be one of the four major elements that could increase the operational capacity of organizations (Fombrun, Tichy & Devanna 1984, 51). In these models, human resources were seen as important resources for an organization's performance and results.

From these days on, many SHRM theories have tried to locate SHRM to the strategic management field (Ulrich 2007, Ulrich, Allen, Brockbank, Younger & Nyman 2009, Luoma 2009). However, in these theories, personnel and management development have not had a major role per se. This does not mean that personnel development and management development do not have a role in contemporary SHRM, even if the resource-based view of strategy has attempted to elevate HRM to the strategic level in many companies. The resource-based view claims that organizations can gain a lasting competitive advantage if they possess special knowledge that other companies do not have. It is believed that a company which possesses special knowledge has a competitive advantage since this kind of knowledge is hard to copy (Barney 1991, 91-108), and because this kind of knowledge is tacit knowledge. Accordingly, many contemporary organizations have paid a great deal of attention to such intangible assets as

human resources and networks, and to organizational assets such as values, culture, and systems (Puusa & Reijonen 2011, 10–15).

The resource-based view in strategic management has not been the only paradigm that has attempted to emphasize the importance of knowledge in organizations. Discussion on the learning organizations and knowledge management have tried to stress the importance of knowledge and learning in organizations. This discussion began in the 1940s, when Bateson (1972) wrote of human ecology. Also, organizational theorists Cyert and March (1963) used the concept of organizational learning early in their writings. In the 1970s, Argyris and Schön (1977, 1978) made a distinction between system I and system II. Argyris and Schön stated that system I could correct its behavior only on the basis of the consequences that followed from its actions. System II was, in their view, a learning system since it changed its values and norms if its action did not provide the needed results.

However, the concept of a learning organization did not gain popularity until Senge wrote his famous book *The fifth discipline* (1990). Senge based his thinking of learning organizations on the systems view, and he wrote of how to solve problems by considering the feedback. Some years later, Nonaka and Takeuchi wrote their book *Knowledge Creating Company* (1995). All of these discourses created a new view of knowledge management to organization science and SHRM (Viitala 2007, 14–16).

Some researchers have claimed that in knowledge management different SHRM paradigms were integrated as one paradigm (Sädevirta 2004, 118). This fusion can be seen in Prahalad's and Hamel's (1990) theory of core competencies. Here competencies were seen to be much more important than skills to the success of a company, because competences were considered to be directly related to the company's business and its capacity to produce added value to the customers. So, competences are related to the co-operation of several workers and also to their relation to the technology and systems (Hamel & Prahalad 1994).

The discussion of competencies has led to new kinds of concepts of knowledge. For example, Davenport and Prusak (1998, 2–8) made a distinction between data, information, and knowledge. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) spoke of explicit and tacit knowledge. Researchers have criticized these classifications, stating that the distinction between tacit and explicit knowledge is artificial because they are always interrelated and because they are social constructions (Tsoukas 1996, 14). Researchers have also said that data, information, and knowledge are situated in doing and are constructed in interaction during the work process (Gherardi 2000, 16). It is very difficult to conclude what is the impact of all these theories to the management development of organizations because some of these theories have mechanistic assumptions, other theories are grounded on cognitive views and still others are based on social constructionism (Bouwen & Hosking 2000).

It can be claimed that Management development does not play a central role, neither in the general models of SHRM nor in the theories of learning or-

ganization or knowledge management. Management development may have a supportive role in theories and models like this, however, it does not play a central role in these theories. Nevertheless, there are some SHRM theories where management development does hold a central role.

According to Burgoyne (2010), the level of management development in organizations may vary as follows:

Level 1: In the organization, there is no systematic management development

Level 2: In the organization, there are some measures of management development, but these measures are not coordinated

Level 3: Management development is done in a coordinated and systematic way in the organization

Level 4: In the organization, there is a management development strategy that directs the management development

Level 5: The management development strategy is helping to achieve the goals of the organization

Level 6: The management development strategy is a strategic tool in directing the organization

(Burgoyne 2010, 51).

The basic assumption in Burgoyne's theory is that in management development and education, it is necessary to integrate the goals of the organization to the needs of the individual manager. If management development is done systematically and if management development is intricately linked to the strategy of the organization, it is probable that organizational goals and individual needs are well integrated (Burgoyne 1988). Of course, it is easier to involve individual managers in management development than to develop a management development system which is well integrated in the goals of the organization. However, one central point in the management development system will always be, how to deal successfully with the question of integrating each manager and leader to the organization. It seems that the easiest way with which the HR function can handle this question is to create a career system that is well integrated in management development.

Systematic management development has traditionally included career planning. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was common that management development included succession planning and training. Later-on, performance assessment, potential assessment and career development were added. Nowadays, management development is an essential part of HRM as a whole and management development and career planning are seen as a long-term process which has a strategic importance to the success of the organization (Vloeberghs 1998, 645-646). That is why it is necessary to consider the questions of management development and career planning in more detail.

The individuals participating in management development have different needs, depending on which career phase they are in. At the beginning of a management career, managers need to learn basic concepts of management and

leadership, learn what is expected from them and learn how to deal with well-structured problems. Next, acquired skills must be elaborated. Still later in their career, managers need to learn how to deal with conflicting issues. Directors need to learn principle-based knowledge skills. Senior executives need to learn complex organizational skills and mental models (Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro & Reiter-Palmon 2000, 89–91). In Mumford's et al. model, it is assumed that knowledge drawn from multiple sources and practice allows managers and directors to address complex and rapidly changing problems (Table 2).

In the beginning of management career	In the middle of management career	Being promoted to higher management	Highest management
Socialization, Initial technical training	Coherent knowledge structures	Principle-based knowledge skills	Complex organizational skills
Basic concepts, Implementation skills	Basic problem-solving skills	Creative problem-solving skills, Problems with multiple components	Novel challenging problems
Direction by others, Working with structured problems	Developing others	Networking	System maintenance and direction

TABLE 2 Management development in different career phases (Mumford et al. 2000, 91).

Even if Mumford et al. made the model of management development for different management career phases, they warn against applying it too mechanically. They claim that learning management skills may take a long time. For example, the skills needed to solve novel ill-defined organizational problems may take more than 20 years. So, they say that it is easy to fall into the trap of assuming that management development always follows the same course when it obviously does not do so. They say that the environment and the assignments, which managers have, will have a great impact on the management development process. They also conclude that *“training can be viewed as an attempt to provide a set of systematic experiences to promote the development of certain knowledge and skills”* (Mumford et al. 2000, 92).

2.2.4 Management and leadership development among other development methods in organizations

Management and leadership development are by no means the only methods by which organizations are developed. There are many other development methods, and all of these also have some kind of relation to management and leadership development. Some of the other development methods may have had an impact on management and leadership development and some may use the same kind of methods as leadership development. Even if this research focuses on management and leadership development in educational institutes, it is useful to keep in mind other development methods and their possible connections to management and leadership development.

Luoma (2011, 41) has proposed that there are seven major development methods as presented in Figure 2.



FIGURE 2 Different development methods in organizations (Luoma 2011, 41).

Luoma (2011, 32–41) claims that all development methods and practices in an organization are integrated in human resource development (HRD) and strategic human resource management (SHRM). In the original Luoma's model, management development includes leadership development. However, in Figure 2 management development and leadership development are presented as separate entities. Management development focuses in particular on managers,

supervisors, and foremen. Leadership development focuses on all persons who are working in the organization.

Organization development is an application of organization behavior. The aim of organization development is to improve the performance of organizations (Cummings and Worley 2008, 1-3). Change management has evolved from organization development (Porras and Robertson 1987, 5). Continuous development or Kaizen is usually considered to be part of quality management, but can also be seen as an independent development method (Bhasim 2015).

Vocational training, which is mostly done outside organizations and before persons are hired to work in an organization, is one form of operational development in organizations (Euler 2013).

The relations of development methods with management and leadership development are not considered in Figure 2, and that is why it is relevant to elaborate the model further. The idea behind relating development methods to each other is based, first, on the realization that organizations operating in contemporary complex surroundings need to change constantly and, secondly, that change, and leadership are the two greatest challenges facing contemporary organizations. Shanley claims that many change efforts fail because of poor leadership (Shanley 2007, 962-964). If this is true, it is of vital importance to consider the relationship of management and leadership development to other development methods.

It is commonly believed that organizations are nowadays changing faster than ever before. Also, many researchers believe that the main task of leaders and managers is to bring about change (Burnes 2003, 627-628). If it is indeed true that the main task of leaders and managers is to bring about change in organizations, it should be obvious that management and leadership development should also train leaders to carry out the changes successfully.

Out of the development methods present in Figure 2, the nearest relation with management and leadership development have HRD, organization development and change management. We have reviewed HRD's relation to management and leadership development in the previous chapter. That is why we will concentrate here on the relation of management and leadership development and organization development.

Traditionally the main aim of management and leadership development was not related to changes. Management development's role was considered to be mostly connected to succession planning and career management (Sturges 2016, 161). Change management was traditionally considered to need some kind of intervention which was often organized by organization development specialists. The roots of organization development come from Kurt Lewin's seminars which he held in the 1940s. In these seminars, Lewin used special kinds of feedback sessions, and out of these sessions T-groups (training-groups) were born. Later in the 1950s, T-groups were used in teaching, and in the 1960s the feedback sessions were brought inside organizations and to actual work groups (Marguelis & Raia 1990, 30-31). Feedback sessions were also used in the 1940s at Michigan University, where Mann and Likert used feedback sessions in

publishing the results of their survey results to those who had been the target groups of the survey and who were working in the organizations where the survey was conducted (Nadler, Mirvis & Cammann 1976, 64).

A special kind of feedback either from surveys (survey-feedback method) or from the behavior of the persons involved (for example, in T-groups) was used in organization development (OD). The reason behind feedback sessions and the survey-feedback method was that it was thought that this kind of feedback could help to discuss such matters that had hitherto not been allowed to discuss or that had otherwise been impossible to discuss in the organization (Honkanen 1989, 30). Feedback sessions became part of management and leadership development, at least in the form of 360-degree evaluations, because after the evaluations the participants of the training tried to make a development plan for themselves in feedback sessions.

Opening up the communication process in organizations can be seen as one of the major strengths of organization development. However, organization development was, for the most part, an analytical problem-solving process which started from the top levels of an organization and gradually went downwards in organizations, layer by layer. The substance of organization development could be a human system, structure or systems of the organization (French & Bell 1973, introduction and Brown & Covey 1987, 61-79). Even if the process might mostly have been rather slow, it was never a straightforward one because it was based on the knowhow of behavioral science. The OD-consultants used survey feedback methods and interventions in the process (Porras & Robertson 1987, 1-26).

Traditional organization development methods have been criticized as being too specialist centered. Behind the method was an assumption that the OD-consultants could give some information or expert service which the client could not provide for themselves. The clients expected that the OD-consultant could diagnose the problems in organizations and could solve the diagnosed problems (Schein 2009, 54-57). The reflexive process behind the organization development is based on using Bouwen's first knowing mode, implicit mode: The OD-consultants and clients talk of the development issues, but they do not talk about their relationship (Bouwen 2001, 364). The development process is sometimes directly related to leadership, but more often this relation is indirect because the development process often concentrates on the work process, cooperation and work climate in the workplace and human relations.

However, organization development is not just one school of thought. It has several approaches. Attempts were made to renew traditional organization development in the mid-1980s through organization transformation (OT). Organization transformation concentrated on changing the whole belief system and culture of organizations (Levy & Merry 1986, Porras & Silvers 1991). Sometimes the models of organization transformation were thought to have different levels of culture, as in Nelson's and Burn's model (1984). The organization transformation paradigm was criticized for believing that organization culture could be changed dramatically and either in a linear or stepwise way. Research-

ers claimed that it was not possible to totally renew the culture of an organization. Even if the organization transformation paradigm brought some new ideas to the field of organization development, it did not change the implicit nature of reflexivity behind the development. Nor did it change the relationship between organizational development and leadership development.

Edgar Schein renewed the reflexivity of organization development by bringing the methods of training-groups (T-groups) into an organizational development setting (Schein 1969 and 1999). Schein called this method process consultation. In the process consultation, the reflection of an ongoing social process is generated by the participants themselves (Bouwen 2001, 364–365). In the process consultation, the helper focuses primarily on how the interaction is occurring and creates a helping position by putting himself/herself humbly in the “one down”-position. A process consultant’s ultimate function is to pass on diagnostic and intervention skills to the client (Schein 2009, 31, 61–64).

The process consultation has some similarities with the contemporary leadership development methods, like coaching and mentoring. In all of these methods, the consultant does not take an expert role. Instead, the consultant tries to form a helping relationship to the client. Process consultants using coaching or mentoring methods adopt Bouwen’s second mode of knowing, explicit mode: They reflect with the clients the ongoing social process. Compared to traditional teaching methods, the difference in training managers to use coaching or mentoring skills is thus huge. When consultants acknowledge the importance of reflecting the social processes inside which clients find themselves now, they, at the same time, acknowledge that social learning is context bounded (Bouwen 2001, 365). In traditional management development, the participating managers may change their beliefs in the seminar situations, but it is probable that they will return to the formerly held one-sided control assumptions when they return to their workplace because so many others in the workplace expect them to behave so. In leadership development, which focuses mainly on the work processes done by the leaders who are being trained, the probability of achieving permanent behavioral changes is much bigger than in traditional management development.

In Bouwen’s model, there is a third possible knowing mode: Dialogical knowing. In dialogical knowing, both implicit knowing and explicit knowing are integrated. The problem here is that the integration can only take place in the context where the interaction happens: In the workplace, where the reflective practice can be both participative and context bounded (Bouwen 2001, 365). This means that dialogical knowing is not possible to teach in class-room settings because a classroom setting forms its own context, which is vastly different from the context in the workplace. Besides, it is not enough to try to simulate the work environment in a classroom because each workplace has its own unique history-bound context.

The need for dialogue in workplaces has increased because jobs are more and more knowledge-intensive and self-directed, and because the work processes are more and more interrelated in contemporary network organizations

that are temporary and that change constantly (Iedema & Sheers 2003, 317–318). In such contexts, a dialogic development method is needed.

Gustavsen developed a dialogical development method for organizations which he called the democratic dialogic method (Gustavsen 1990). Gustavsen's democratic dialogue is a form of action research. Action research can be traced to John Dewey's pragmatism, even if many consider that Kurt Lewin was the father of action research (Aaltola & Syrjälä 1999, 13). Action research was first used in the study of industry by Tavistock Institute (Jaques 1951) and in the field of education at Columbia Teachers' College (Corey 1953). From the 1970s onwards, more and more researchers have been using it (Heikkinen & Jyrkämä 1999, 27–28). Gustavsen says that democratic dialogue is a method of building bridges between different working habits and views (Gustavsen 1996, 8). The aim of democratic dialogue is to change the culture of the workplace, which in Gustavsen's terms is "the local theory" (Engelstadt 1996, 105). It is obvious that democratic dialogue tries to move the "local theory" of the workplace to a more democratic direction which is the same direction where leadership development that tries to promote shared leadership attempts to move organizations.

Table 3 summarizes different organization development methods. In the Table, the different organization development methods are divided into three levels depending on what type of knowledge modes (see Bouwen 2001, 364–365) is mainly used. The role of a person who consults the change process can also be seen to represent what kind of leadership is wished to be developed in the development process. Traditional organization development tries to open up the leadership methods, as well as other processes in the workplace. Mid-level organization development is trying to develop managers to use coaching and mentoring roles. Advanced organization development process tries to develop the use of shared leadership and dialogue between people who work in an organization.

The level of organization developmet	Methods used	The role of the person(s) who lead the development
Basic level	Organization development (OD), Intervention, Survey-feedback	Expert who gives advice and "cures" the clients situation
Mid-level	Process consultation	Coach who is in helping relationship with the client
Advanced level	Action research	Facilitator who is in two-sided interaction (dialogue) with others

TABLE 3 The levels of organization development.

Unfortunately, many change processes do not use proper organization development methods because about 70 percent of all change processes fail (Oxtoby, McGuinness & Morgan 2002, 310). Also, about 2/3 of all reorganizations and mergers and acquisitions fail. This failure may be due to the fact that a change process has somehow damaged the core competences of the organization. The change process may also have diminished the work commitment of personnel and damaged the organization culture (Nutt 2004, 1088).

Some years ago, a major research of the results of change processes in Finland was conducted (Ramstad 2008). The research focused on 409 development projects in different organizations. The results showed that the development projects could be divided into three groups as follows:

- "Successful group" where both the financial results and quality of work life improved (N=152 development projects),
 - "Middle group" where either the financial results or the quality of work life improved (N=226 development projects)
 - "Failures" where both the financial results and quality of work life decreased (N=31 development projects).
- (Ramstad 2008, 35-36).

2.2.5 Management and leadership development methods

The traditional method of management and leadership development is to send leaders and managers to leadership courses. The methods used in these courses are often quite similar. However, each educational institute tries to use these methods so that the participants of their courses would be as pleased as possible. This is important for educational institutes because they want to have as good a public image as management and leadership developers as possible in order to also attract participants for their courses in the future.

There are several possible ways to classify the methods used in management and leadership development. First, one divides management and leadership development into open and in-company courses. However, this division does not give a particularly good basis for further classification of management and leadership development methods, because similar methods are used in both types of courses.

The second possible way divides the methods into either management development or leadership development methods. Even though many methods can be placed in both of these categories, this gives a slightly more promising way to classify management and leadership development methods.

Several practices are commonly used in management development. The most common of these are lectures and discussions in the class. Also, group-work and solving can be classified to management development because these methods do not place the participant's own work at the center of the reflection process. Some individualistic development methods can be classified to belong to leadership development because they focus mainly on the participant's own work. The most common of these practices are 360-degree feedback, coaching, mentoring and job assignments. Some forms of action learning are mainly focusing on the growth of social capital and, accordingly, these methods belong to leadership development (Day 2001, 588).

It is common to these leadership development practices that they try to help managers to reflect their experiences through discussions and feedback sessions. They also try to help managers to network with other managers and to share their experiences with them (Boyatzis 2001, 237).

Commonly management and leadership development programs use several management and leadership development practices. The skill of constituting a successful learning experience for the participants depends a great deal on how well these practices are used to support the development of individual participants. Table 4 shows a summary of selected leadership development practices.

Practice	Description	Development target
360-degree feedback	Multi-source evaluations of behavior of some manager	Self-knowledge, Behavioral change
Coaching	Practical, goal oriented form of one-to-one learning	Self-knowledge, Behavioral change, Career development
Mentoring	Advising/developmental relationship with a more senior manager	Broader understanding, Advancement catalyst, Lessons learned / avoid mistakes
Networks	Connecting to others in different functions and areas	Better problem-solving, Getting help from others
Job assignments	Providing "stretch" assignments in terms of role, function or geography	Skills development, Broader understanding of the business
Action learning	Project-based learning directed at important business problems	Action-oriented problem solving

TABLE 4 Selected leadership development practices (Day 2001, 588).

Each leadership development practice has its own strengths and weaknesses. According to Day (2001, 588), 360-degree feedback gives a good picture of how others see his/her behavior in the workplace and gives the manager in question the possibility to change. However, after the 360-degree feedback the manager in question needs guidance and help to implement the changes that are suggested to him/her. Day claims that coaching is an effective learning method, but, at the same time, it is expensive method. Mentoring builds strong personal ties between a mentor and an actor, but it may also create jealousy among other managers.

Management development program may consist of a combination of several management and leadership development practices, such as lectures, groupworks, discussions, exercises, 360-degree evaluations, feedback sessions and coaching. Between the seminar days, there may be special exercises for the participants and the participants may have to read books or articles. The exercises can be online exercises on the internet. Also, it is common that participants need to perform certain development exercises during the management development program (McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty 2010, 45).

The central issue in management and leadership development is that all parts of the development program, both theoretical and practical, need to be closely enough related to the work experiences of the participants. This means that there is no room for long lectures, and even after the theoretical parts of the

program, there needs to be a lot of discussions. All parts of the program must be planned so that they give a lot of room for the participants to reflect their work experiences with the lecturers and other participants of the program (King & Santana 2010, 98).

In leadership development programs, the link between the teaching methods and teaching materials and the work of the participants need to be even closer than in management development programs. In leadership development programs, the main focus of all teaching must concern the participant's work. That is why many leadership development programs are based or at least are somehow connected to coaching. Coaching can be seen as a process where participants can reflect their work experiences with a coach. A coach is a trained person who can support the person(s) who they are coaching. Coaches need to have a high-level of emotional intelligence. Coaches help managers to reflect and change their own beliefs and behavioral models (Francovelgia & Riddle 2010, 130-131).

The journey from management development to leadership development has been rather long, and it is far from complete. In the 1980s, it was questioned for the first time, whether it is possible to teach leadership skills in a classroom. It is not easy to train leadership skills in the classroom, because it is not possible to simulate work related problems fully in the classroom surroundings. Cases, videos, movie segments, student-created role plays, actors playing role plays and live modeling by the instructor and participants are used to simulate work related situations. Usually when one is trying to teach leadership skills in the classroom, the following procedure is used: First the teacher tells the principles on which one should behave in the situation in question. Then the teacher demonstrates how these principles can be applied and asks the participants to try themselves. At the end of the session, the teacher gives feedback to the students on how well they succeeded in the exercise. However, it is not possible after training to see if the participants have successfully used the new skills in their workplaces or not (Paglis 2012, 475- 478).

Also, experiential methods have been used in management development. The most famous theoretical model used in experiential learning is Kolb's model (Kolb 1984, 41) where learning is seen to be a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and which requires an individual to resolve opposed demands. Kolb's model consists of the interplay of 1) concrete experience (experience), 2) reflective observation (reflection), 3) abstract conceptualizations (cognition) and 4) active experimentation (action).

In using experiential learning, the goal is not to transfer knowledge. Instead the goal is to create environments that allow students to discover and construct knowledge and, at the same time, solve problems of their own (Hornyak, Green and Heppard 2013, 140). Experiential learning may involve the use of the body as an investigative tool (Colquhoun, Cornelius, Elliot, Mistry & Smith 2013, 106). Experiential learning is often based on learner involvement, learner participation and on practical application (Chamboux 2013, 124).

As an example of experiential learning, in many EMBA-courses, the live in-class CEO intervention method has been used. In this method, a CEO brings to the classroom a yet unresolved problem that is being dealt with in his or her organization. After the presentation, the CEO then asks the participants of the program to work in groups and try to solve this problem. Later, the CEO will listen to all the suggestions made by different groups, and he/she will discuss with the class the possible pathways. If the problem is real and if it is a problem that the protagonist is currently working on, the participants can be highly committed to solving it. At the same time, the class should also be able to provide the CEO with added value (Rashford & Figueiredo 2011, 621–622). The live in-class CEO intervention bridges the gap between theory and practice. However, even this method does not reach the level of leadership development since it does not mainly focus on the work of the participants.

Another example of experiential learning, which is used in some university's management development programs, is the so-called service-learning method. The service learning-method is an approach where students participate in community service and try to accomplish learning objectives. This method has also been used in some EMBA programs where the participants of the program worked in local organizations during the second year of their studies (Rhee & Singler 2010, 165–167). The service-learning method gives the participants possibilities to collect new experiences, but these experiences are not similar to their own work.

Study trips are often offered as a part or as an option of EMBA-programs. These trips can give significant learning experiences to the participants of EMBA-courses. However, learning can also take place informally and incidentally. Informal and incidental learning is typically neither classroom based or highly structured. An example of informal and incidental learning is a trip (Johan, Sadler-Smith, and Tribe 2019).

Also, on-line environments can offer many possibilities to learn formally, informally, or experientially. Applications of online delivered management development programs have rapidly increased over the last 10 to 15 years. In the year 2007, about half of the educational institutes in USA offered courses that blended online and classroom-based courses for management. Some researches show that blended courses had better learning outcomes than traditional classroom-based courses (Arbaugh 2014, 786–788). It seems that online environments may be friendlier to introverted participants, rather than those who are more extroverted (Arbaugh 2010, 130). Online courses can be informative, but they do not reach the level of leadership development, because they do not focus on the work process of the participants.

2.2.6 Evidence-based management development

Evidence-based research and practices have their origins in the medical science in the late 1960s and early 1970s and has since expanded to various scientific fields (Kepes, Bennett & McDaniel 2014, 446), including education and management. Rousseau (2006) introduced evidence-based management to the disci-

pline of management. Currently, there has also been a lot of debate on evidence-based management and evidence-based HR (Pfeffer & Sutton 2006b, Briner & Barends 2016). Also, there has been many approaches to teach systematic review skills to business school students (Briner & Walshe 2014).

The emergence of an evidence-based management movement comes at a time when there is a great deal of criticism of management education (Trank 2014, 381). That is why it is valuable to know what kind of theories are behind evidence-based management and try to evaluate how well educational institutes utilize the ideas of evidence-based management in their teaching.

Evidence-based management means that managers should act and make decisions based on the best evidence about what actually works. This means that managers should make decisions based on facts, and they should be committed to hearing the truth and trying to find out the best available data and acting upon it (Pfeffer & Shutton 2006b, 26–27). Evidence-based management would mean that managerial competence would increase and that managers would not base their decisions on fads or false conclusions (Rousseau 2006, 261).

Evidence-based management means that managers need to ask the right questions and systematically search for evidence. Managers need also to evaluate and judge the relevance and trustworthiness of the evidence. Managers also need to pull together the evidence, even if it is conflicting and they need to make decisions based on the best evidence (Briner & Barends 2016, 18).

Evidence-based management would mean that management science could provide facts on the field in a cumulative and progressive way. However, there is a positive bias in the field of management science. In this field of research, it is customary to write on success stories rather than failures (Pfeffer & Sutton 2007, 154).

The solution that evidence-based management offers to the question of what kind of knowledge is trustworthy is to build a hierarchy of evidence. At the top of the hierarchy, there are meta-analytic reviews which are considered to be the most trustworthy. On the second level, there are randomized and controlled studies. On the third level, there are primary studies with quasi-experimental or longitudinal design. On the fourth level, there are studies with survey design. On the fifth level, there are case studies and narrative reviews. On the sixth level, there are expert opinions and editorials (Kepes et al. 2014, 454).

In spite of the use of the hierarchy of evidence, there remains the problem of facts in evidence-based management. In management science, it is often difficult to say what is a fact, because the research results are conflicting and because there is so much evidence. So, it is often difficult for managers to decide what is good evidence. Besides, most managers learn best from their own experience, and they ignore evidence that is in conflict with their own beliefs. Their observations are also contaminated by what they expect to see (Pfeffer & Sutton 2006c, 30–49).

Evidence-based management is also difficult to apply because there is a gap between research and practice. Decision makers are often not so well aware

of the results of the research because they live in the world of practice. Even if decision makers would know the results of the research, they may not use these results because they rely on their own experience (Lawler 2007, 1033).

The problem of the large gap between academic research and managerial practice has long been noted and some have accused researchers of being over-specialized or that they are obsessed with theory. Others have accused practitioners of being anti-intellectual and that practitioners are only keen on unproven fads and fashions. However, some acknowledge that there is no need to blame either the researchers or the practitioners because the research results are so conflicting, and the research results only rarely seem to accumulate. Fortunately, in the field of management research more meta-analyses are currently done that can be used (Rynes & Bartunek 2017, 236–237).

The application of evidence-based management is also difficult because there are differences in the research paradigms between medical research and social sciences. The methods of natural science only produce reduced views in social science. In social science, it is not possible to create experimental closures. Research and education in social sciences take place in open conditions. Evidence in social sciences is a social construction, which is in constant state of becoming (Clegg 2005, 421–425).

Evidence-based practice relies on the causal model of professional actions. In the evidence-based research, it is supposed that managers are professionals and that their actions bring certain effects. However, the participants of a management course are not sick, and the teaching is not a cure. Teaching is more than just a technological process where it is thought that teaching is a means to an ends of learning and an application of new managerial knowledge in organizations. Teaching is moral rather than technical and teaching has also a cultural dimension (Biesta 2007, 7–11).

Last but not least a difficulty in applying evidence-based management is that educational institutes and commercial life are two different worlds. Educational institutes are often part of universities or they otherwise, more or less, lean on the research done in the academic world. The academic world is a quiet retreat where knowledge is created. On the contrary, managers live in a commercial world which is noisy and fast-paced (Baskerville 2009, 523).

In evidence-based management, there is some sort of idealism. It points toward a more technocratic than professional practice. In evidence-based management, scientific research is translated through narrow action rules (Trank 2014, 384).

Morrell and Learmonth (2015) argue against evidence-based management. They claim that evidence-based management movement defines evidence narrowly and inflexibly, whereas problems in management can always be understood from different perspectives. They also claim that the evidence-based management approach has a selective view of evidence. For example, evidence-based management devaluates stories and narratives, even if the whole evidence-based management approach is a story itself. Besides, they claim that evidence-based management approach is managerialist in its orientation.

2.2.7 Contextual leadership development

The contextual views of management and leadership development complicate the development views, because today it is understood that the challenge of learning to lead is contextual and temporal. It must change from situation to situation and from group to group. At the same time, the world has become even smaller and more complex and global challenges have become more inter-related and unpredictable. This means that the needs for leadership development have become increasingly complex (O'Connell 2014, 183).

Traditionally, management development has meant that managers and leaders need to take part in a seminar or a management development program which is held outside the workplace. In these courses, attempts have been made to develop the leadership skills of individual participants. However, this notion of management development is increasingly seen as being outdated. Nowadays, management development is moving to a new phase where leadership development is seen to take place in the work context, and leadership development is quite often seen as a continuous process that can take place anywhere (Fulmer 1997). A new way to view leadership development is to help managers to learn from their work rather than sending managers away from the workplace to learn (Moxley & O'Connor Wilson 1998).

Research results support contextual leadership development practices because it has been shown that managers have mostly learned leadership during their career through their own experiences. In an international survey (Yip & Wilson 2010, 63-69), about half of the managers studied said that they had learned leadership skills mainly from work assignments and through their own experiences. About 20 % of managers said that they had learned leadership skills from mentoring or coaching sessions. About 20 % of managers evaluated that they had mainly learned leadership skills from courses and seminars. These recent results are in accordance with earlier research in which it was found that managers usually recall having learnt more from their experiences at work than from any training (Marsick & Watkins 1990).

The history of contextual leadership development and management learning began in the mid-70s. Then, attempts were made to create a rational framework of understanding the purposes and processes of management development. This research was interested in the distance learning of management. Later research was also interested in the context of the management learning (Burgoyne & Reynolds 1997, 6-8).

Fox (1997, 21-22) claims that management learning began by seeking a bridge between more practically oriented, HRD led management development and more theoretically oriented management education. Fox says that management learning applies learning theory, psychology, sociology, and educational research.

The contextual leadership development research does not seek to find permanent interferences behind the leadership development. Instead, the contextual leadership development research views reality as a process, which is

constantly changing. In the processual epistemology, it is considered that the universe is made of an endless web of happenings so that the world is always unfinished and reaching towards the unknown. Accordingly, in the process view intuitive knowing is emphasized (Chia 1997, 71, 78–81).

Contextual leadership development research also recognizes political struggles in organizations where such subgroups as state, customers, suppliers, and labor unions try to win in order to gain their own interests. So, in contextual leadership development research organizations are seen to be in constant struggle between the conflicting interests of different groups (Burgoyne & Jackson 1997, 57–60). It is obvious that the kind of leadership which is seen from the contextual view is quite different from the leadership offered by management education given in classrooms. In leadership development, it is emphasized that organizations should expand the collective capacity of organization members to engage effectively in leadership roles in order to be able to anticipate unforeseen challenges and in order to be able to cooperate and work more effectively (Day 2000, 582).

The most famous theory of contextual leadership is Lave's and Wenger's situated learning theory. In the situated learning theory, learning is seen as a local process going on in-practice. In the situated learning theory, it is claimed that people who work belong to a community of practice where people learn 'naturally' in their work. The community of practice socially reproduces itself through an informal apprenticeship system where the old-timers teach work practices to the newcomers. At the same time the old-timers have a high status and a lot of power compared to newcomers. Communities of practice depend on other communities of practice (Fox 1997, 27–29).

Lave and Wenger locate learning in the processes of co-participation, not in the heads and in the individuals. Lave and Wenger view learning as a social process that takes place in participation (Hanks 2011, 13–15).

Lave and Wenger say that the situatedness of activity is by no means a simple attribute. It rests on the relational character of knowledge and learning and on the negotiated character of meaning. Lave and Wenger claim that learning is an integral part of social practice in the everyday life of people and that in the work process people are located in the social world where they develop identities and form membership. Lave and Wenger conclude that learning is a social practice (Lave & Wenger 2011, 33–47).

The development of practice takes time and, sometimes, some communities of practice exist over centuries. In such cases, the practices may be reified. Wenger claims that participation in a community of practice is inevitably connected to the reification. Wenger says that processes of participation and reification are interrelated because the negotiation of meaning weaves participation and reification seamlessly together. Wenger says that negotiation of a joint enterprise forms relations of accountability to those involved. These relations of accountability tell what is important and what is not so important, what to do and what not to do (Wenger 2008, 62–63, 81, 86).

Communities of practice form a complex landscape of different communities of practice, and all these practices have their own histories and regimes of competence. The competencies related to these practices are taught, managed, and regulated in associations, educational institutes etc. The landscape of practice is political so that various groups try to influence with various discourses to these practices. So, the landscape of communities of practice consists of competing voices and competing claims to knowledge (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner 2015, 14–16).

If leadership is viewed from the situated learning point of view, both leadership and leadership development can be seen to form a community of practice. Then leadership learning is a process where managers and supervisors apply the work practices of the leadership community of practice in the organization where they are working. The leadership community of practice introduces the right working behaviors to the new managers and supervisors. At the same time, the HR practices of the organization try to prepare a planned leadership program for the new manager and supervisor through training needs analyses, competence assessments and other performance management methods (Boyatzis 2001, 237). It is hard to say which has more influence on a new manager, the informal leadership community of practice or the formal HR- and HRD-methods of the organization.

According to a qualitative research conducted in Finland, the importance of experiences in learning leadership skills was great (Tökkäri & Perttula 2010, 122–126). The research revealed three kinds of stories of the trajectories in the narratives that managers told of their work. In the survivors-story, the manager had met some crises and problems in his/her work and solved these crises successfully, and in the process he/she had developed both as a leader and as a person. Managers who had been supported by other managers in the organization had learned leadership in the interaction, and they thought that they had gained from the support they had received from others. Managers who had done their choices in the workplace independently had learned from the consequences of the choices that they had made.

2.2.8 Effectiveness of management and leadership development

This research does not directly focus on the issues of training effectiveness. However, this issue also needs to be considered here because the questions concerning training effectiveness have a huge impact on everything that is done in educational institutes. Educational institutes have to market their courses and other development processes and, in doing so, they have to convince the buyers of their services that their development efforts lead to the results that the clients expect.

Accordingly, there has been a great deal of discussion on the effectiveness of management and leadership development. However, this discussion has been mostly concentrated on management development which is done in classrooms. The researchers that favor management development claim that in order to effectively manage and lead in times of crisis and in complex environments,

leaders require multiple ways of development. At the same time, it has been argued that many failures in organizations are at least in part attributable to ineffective leadership, poor decision making and lapses in ethics. Finally, it has been argued that good management and leadership development leads to organizational success (Martineau, Hoole, & Patterson 2009, 44–45). No wonder that managers have high expectations of management and leadership development. The achievement level of these expectations is traditionally evaluated through training effectiveness measurements.

The most famous models of training evaluation are the models of Kirkpatrick and Hamblin. In Kirkpatrick's model, there are four levels: Reaction, learning, job behavior and organizational performance (Kirkpatrick 1983). Hamblin's model adds the 5th Ultimate level (Hamblin 1974). Although both Kirkpatrick's and Hamblin's models are rather old, the thinking behind these models remains relevant.

It is relatively easy to measure participants' reactions after the training, but it takes a lot more to measure the learning during and after the training. It is still more difficult to measure if there have been any behavioral changes in the workplace. The most difficult task is to measure if the performance of the organization has changed due to the training. Even if it might be possible to measure the behavioral changes and the performance of the organization somehow, one can never be sure if the measurements are valid, because there are so many other things that might have an impact on participants' behavior at work and the performance of the organization where the training has taken place.

One of the most comprehensive efforts to analyze leadership training effectiveness has been carried out in the US Army where the effectiveness of Reserve Officer Training Corps leadership assessment and development course was evaluated. This analysis consisted of 47000 individual Cadet leadership assessment records collected from 1999 to 2009. The evaluations were performed several times by using 16 leadership dimensions while the evaluated persons were leading their peers. The research showed that the most effective courses were rather long courses, because, in these courses, the participants could form good relationships with the other cadets and the training staff (Baker 2015, 3, 15).

Research that is based on using assessment centers in data gathering shows that the skills and abilities that best predict advancement from a foreman's or first-degree supervisor's position to middle management include decision making, creativity, human relations skills, communication skills, resistance to stress, organizing skills and energy. In particular, creativity, social skills and problem-solving skills proved to be important predictors in promotions to middle management (Connelly, Gilbert, Zaccaro, Threlfall, Marks & Mumford 2000, 66–84).

Because management and leadership development is multilevel and longitudinal in its nature, one should bring rigorous evaluation methods to understanding content, process, and outcome issues in development. Evaluations of

leadership development efforts vary much because the contexts, in which they occur are so different (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm & McKee 2014, 77).

In some studies, performed in Finland, a positive relationship has been found between leadership training and the performance of the organizational unit where the participants of the leadership training were working. Kantanen (1996) studied the effectiveness of leadership courses in one forest industry organization. Kantanen compared similar members of middle managers in this organization. One group of these managers had taken part in a rather long leadership training course, and the other group of middle managers had not participated in this course. Kantanen found that the financial results of those middle managers who had participated in the leadership training course were better than the financial results of those who had not taken part in the course. However, Kantanen could not control other factors that might have had an impact on this result.

In spite of all the research results that point in the direction that management and leadership development might have a positive impact on leadership behavior and on the performance of organizations, we cannot conclude that management and leadership development has been shown to have these kinds of positive results. In fact, there are a lot of criticism that question the role and importance of management and leadership development.

The most famous criticism of management and leadership development and management education comes from Mintzberg (1975, 61) who claimed that “our management schools have done an admirable job of training the organization’s specialists – management scientists, marketing researchers, accountants, and organization development specialists. But for the most part they have not trained managers”. He later argued that “business schools are teaching the wrong people in the wrong way” (Mintzberg 2004, 258).

Sinclair has been even more radical. He has argued that management development is a process of seduction. Sinclair claims that leadership literature has largely ignored such processes as the idealization of teacher authority figures. Sinclair gives two cases where she shows how teachers in leadership classes try to seduce the audience by a certain kind of dressing and presentation techniques, for example, by moving and speaking (Sinclair 2009, 270–280).

It seems that most of the criticism towards management and leadership development is mainly directed towards the methods used in management and leadership development. The criticism does not claim that the leadership would not have any effect on the success of organizations. Because the latest research has shown that the level of leadership is important for the financial success of organizations (Aura, Ahonen, Hussi & Ilmarinen 2018), it seems relevant to conclude that management and leadership development should concentrate on improving the quality of leadership in organizations.

2.2.9 Management and leadership development in Finland

In Finland, management development has historically been the development of individual managers and leaders. Finnish management development followed,

during its early stages, the example of other Scandinavian countries. Scandinavian countries, in turn, adopted the German business school model and considered business administration to be an academic field. In Scandinavia, the first business school was founded in Stockholm in 1909 (Kaplan 2014, 529–531).

Also, in Finland, management development began as an academic field in universities. In Finland, the first two business schools, Helsinki School of Economics and Swedish School of Economics, were founded in 1911. German independent business schools were also the indirect model for business schools in Finland (Michelsen 2001).

The first management theory, Taylorism, was adopted early in Finland. Taylor's writings were noticed here as early as 1902, and industrial organizations began to follow Taylor's footsteps early on despite the small size of factories and the relatively low level of capital invested in them. However, it was only after the Second World War that the methods and techniques of scientific management were trained and adopted in a large scale in Finland (Seeck 2015, 75–77). Taylor's ideas were taught in Finland during the war when the Finnish Army and Finnish industrial union (Puolustusvoimat ja Suomen teollisuusliitto) established the Union of Industrial Efficiency (Työteholiitto) to increase the level of rationalization in the industry. The name of this institution was changed to Rastor (RAtionalisointi, STandardisointi ja ORganisointi) in 1948 (Rastor – Wikipedia).

Also, university-level management education began early in Finland, and the education level of managers has been relatively high compared to other European countries. Researchers claim that after the 1960s, it has been rather common for people working as managers that they have had university degrees tailored especially towards business life (Seeck & Laakso 2010, 38).

Leadership and management education for supervisors and middle managers began in Finland after the Second World War when the Management Institute of Finland (called at that time Teollisuuden työjohto-opisto and later Johtamistaidon opisto) was founded in 1946 (Johtamistaidon opisto JTO 1986). The Finnish Employer's Confederation (Suomen Työnantajain Keskusliitto STK) was behind the new institute and owned it. The institute gave courses lasting four weeks for supervisors. The prominent subject areas were organizations, work psychology, leadership and labor law. The leadership views emphasized trust and co-operation, discipline and rationalization (JTO 2006, 29 and Rautavaara 1959). The training of this institute (Teollisuuden työjohto opisto) during the early years of its existence followed the principles of scientific management and also the psychological views of early work psychology (Pirnes 2007, 10–11).

Management education for highest management in Finland began in 1958 when Liikkeenjohdon instituutti was established (Kässi 1978). Although many other business schools were established quite soon after that, the EMBA courses did not gain popularity in Finland until in the 1980s. Nowadays, there are about 15 EMBA-programs in Finland. There are also several public and private institutes operating in the field of management and leadership development. Unfor-

tunately, it is not known what kinds of leadership theories and training methods are used in contemporary management and leadership development in Finland, which is the focus of this study.

2.2.10 Summary of management and leadership development

Many organizations invest large amounts of economic resources each year to develop their managers and leaders. This investment is based on the idea that organizations have various reasons for leadership development. First, it is thought that contemporary organizations operate in environments characterized by rapid change and increasing complexity, which increase the need for leadership development. Second, it is thought that operating in the global economy and facing such factors as environmental and ethical crises increase the need for effective leadership and also increase the need for leadership development (DeRue & Myers 2014, 832). Last, but not least, many organizations view leadership development as the major source of the sustainable competitive advantage (Kark 2011, 507). Because leadership and leadership development are so important for organizations and for people working there, it is important to study, critically, what kinds of assumptions have leadership institutes adopted of leadership development.

Critical study, like this study, needs to address at least some questions concerning leadership development. First, one has to focus on the distinction between leader development and leadership development. Secondly, one has to consider the question of methods used in the leadership development. Third, one has to consider the relationship between leadership and leadership development in contemporary organizations where the work culture is changing. Of course, there are many other issues that need to be addressed, but in one study it is better to concentrate only on a few well selected issues.

In this study, leader development is called management development. Leader development (or management development) focuses on individual based knowledge, skills and abilities associated with formal leadership roles. Leadership development focuses on building and using interpersonal competences and social capabilities (Day 2011, 38). Leadership development also include the development of group-level competencies of relational and shared leadership (Kark 2011, 509).

The leadership development literature has traditionally mainly concentrated on individual leader development (DeRue & Myers 2014, 833). However, there are good grounds to claim that one should focus on leadership development in an age of knowledge work. Knowledge work relies on the voluntary contributions of skilled professionals, who can withhold their intellectual capital, taking it with them if they choose to leave (Pearce 2007, 355). In many organizations, the work culture is changing, and this means that the traditional leader development methods need to be replaced by leadership development methods.

Table 5 summarizes different management and leadership development discourses. The traditional management development took place in classrooms

and was held by either educational institutes or organizations themselves (O'Connell 2014). The traditional management development most often had a direct connection to the career of the participating managers. However, the traditional management development discourse was not well integrated to the work situations of participating managers and leaders. Accordingly, many business schools have tried to fill the gap between managers work and classroom teaching by using cases and exercises. Business schools have also divided the courses into short segments and tried to get the participating managers to use their newly applied knowledge in work situations. However, the problem of transference is always there in the traditional classroom teaching. Accordingly, the discussion of training effectiveness is very valid in this kind of situation.

Organizations have for a quite long time attempted to bind management development closer to the organization and to the job contents of managers working there in several ways. Organizations have tried to tie management development to the strategy of the organization. Organizations have also attempted to tie management development to the HR-practices of the organization. However, the efforts to bind management development to SHRM can be criticized because these measures have most often been done by using traditional management development methods that are based on classroom teaching.

The concept of a learning organization is based on the assumption that an organization could learn. In order that some organization could learn, the members of an organization should be able to learn as a collective. But this is just the opposite to what the concept of management development represents because it concentrates on the development of individual managers.

A slightly more critical question is whether it is possible to create a learning organization through management and leadership practices, because some critical researchers claim that working which is led by someone causes easily functional stupidity (Alvesson & Spicer 2013, 184). Functional stupidity or learned helplessness is caused by the fact that workers lean too much on their supervisor and, accordingly, they do not think independently themselves. Developing only individuals effectively prevents the possibility of a learning organization.

Traditional management development discourse	Strategy-related leadership development discourse	Contextual leadership development discourse
Training and development methods that aim to the development and growth of the individual participants of seminars and courses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strategy-related leadership development - Leadership development which is related to organization development or change management - Learning organization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learning in the workplace - Situated learning and communities of practice

TABLE 5 Summary of management and leadership development discourses

Another critical thing is that research shows that managers learn most of their leadership skills in the workplace when they meet difficult work situations, such as conflicts between persons or groups (Yip & Wilson 2010, 63–69). These kinds of research results stress the importance of contextual leadership development. However, it is valid to ask if leadership development can be done systematically by using the methods of this discourse? If it is true that inside each organization the leadership is developed to a specific kind of practice during the history of the organization and if the managers of the organization should be treated as a community of practice, then leadership development should somehow be based on these historical roots and to the social practices of the members of specific community of practice. This would mean a radical change to the prevailing business school management and leadership development practices. This would also mean that educational institutes which try to accomplish leadership development should teach persons to develop their own views and practices. That could help the communities of leadership practice inside the organization to develop their own practices that the communities of leadership practice as a group is using.

The above discussion shows that the situation of leadership development in contemporary organizations is complicated and the situation of leadership development is further mixed by the fact that leadership development should be able to change the leadership discourse applied in organizations, so that or-

ganizations could be better adapted to the competitive environment of global economy. The question is whether educational institutes can develop leadership to the level which global economy requires? One must further ask whether the models of shared leadership and learning organization are the answers to the challenges that a global economy requires? Questions like these must be asked because business schools have traditionally been teaching practices that are no longer productive. In fact, they may be counterproductive as Ghoshal so provocatively claims (Ghoshal 2005, 76). That is why we need to critically consider the relationship between management and leadership development and leadership practices in organizations. In this study we will compare the story of the study of leadership and leadership development discourse and the story of practices in Finnish educational institutes.

Day and Harrison (2007) claim that the leadership discourse, which is used in an organization, has a great impact on the methods used in leadership development. According to Day and Harrison, the most basic level of leadership is connected to the development of individual managers and the most advanced level of leadership is connected to the view that leadership development is an important and shared effort of all working in the organization. The model which Day and Harrison have developed is presented in Table 6.

Level of complexity and inclusiveness	Definition of leadership	Illustrative theories of leadership	Management and leadership development focus
Most basic, least complex	Leadership is role-based authority	Trait theory, Behavioral theory	Individual skills development
Mid-level	Leadership is an influence process between individuals	Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory	Including both individual skill development and relationship building
Most advanced, complex and inclusive conceptualization of leadership	Leadership is a shared property of a social system	Shared leadership	Includes all above mentioned + empowerment, collaboration and working across boundaries

TABLE 6 The evolution of both leadership and leadership development discourses (Day & Harrison 2007, 361).

Ghoshal (2005, 77) claims that theories in social science tend to be self-fulfilling. This means that leadership views that are taught in business schools tend to have both positive and negative impacts on organizations. Traditional management and leadership theories such as scientific management, trait theory, behavioral theory, management by objectives etc. may have increased orderly behavior in organizations. But, at the same time, these theories may have also increased the functional stupidity and learned helplessness in organizations (Alvesson & Spicer 2013, 184).

'New leadership' theories, such as transformational leadership and authentic leadership, may have helped the organizations to change, but they may, at the same time, have increased the false assumption that managers and leaders know, what is the end result of the change. This might have led to the side-effect of undermining the knowledge of people, as well as to exaggerated measures carried out by management. This vicious circle may have led to severe losses in organizations.

Nowadays many organizations view leadership as a source of competitive advantage and are investing in leadership development accordingly (Day 2001, 581). However, it is not at all certain that educational institutes and business schools can develop contextual leadership, shared leadership and the use of such work practices that communities of leadership practices inside organizations would find to be best when considering the context in which the work is done. This may lead to severe setbacks in many organizations that are operating in contemporary global markets.

The question of how to challenge the leader-centric theories, which are based on assumptions about 'heroic' leader figures, and how to challenge the hierarchical structures supporting these kinds of assumptions, must be considered seriously if one intends to develop shared leadership in organizations. Based on her studies, Anderson (2013, 261) claims that coaching presents a challenge to the leader-centric leadership models and hierarchical work structures. These kinds of research results point in the direction that coaching and mentoring could be considered to belong to contextual management and leadership development methods.

Besides coaching and mentoring, action learning projects can also challenge the leader-centric views of leadership. Raelin (2006, 152-165) claims that action learning produces a different style of leadership than conventional classroom methods. Raelin says that, in an action learning project, participants can test theories and make them actionable through real experiences. In action learning, participants are asked to apply their prior and new knowledge to a real-life project. Action learning emphasizes the learning of participants in the midst of their activity and learning is a by-product of practice.

The classifications presented in Tables 5 and 6 will be used in this study to classify the empirical data of management and leadership development. The empirical data consists of case organizations which are educational institutes. This means that the case in this study is an educational institute. Educational institutes will not be seen from positivistic or quantitative perspectives, because

it is considered that educational institutes arrange management and leadership courses that have an impact on how we see leadership. It is also considered here that leadership discourse in use organizes and determines our experience of social reality and our experience of ourselves (Kelly 2014, 908). In this study, it is considered that the views of leadership and practices of leadership development influence people and organizations. That is why, this study uses qualitative methods to find out the meanings and meaning making processes through which views of leadership are taught to managers and leaders (Varto 1992, 10-15).

3 RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Philosophical choices and research strategy

Each research has to consider what its ontological and epistemological position is. Ontology refers to the nature around us. Ontology can vary between realism and instrumentalism. Realists believe that the universe is objectively given and consists of immutable objects and structures. Instrumentalists believe that reality is a subjective construction of the mind and that socially constructed names and words direct how reality is perceived (Goles & Hirschheim 2000, 250–252).

One of the best-known ontological theories is Popper's view of three worlds. Popper split the world into three categories: 1) the world of physical objects and events, including biological entities, 2) the world of mental processes and 3) the cultural and social world (Popper 1972). Popper considered theories to be authentic guesses and claimed that even if we could not show that a theory is true, we could perhaps falsify it (Popper 1995, 114–116).

The ontological position that the researcher selects implies different epistemological views or different grounds for knowledge. Episteme refers to 'that what is known' and epistemology considers the problems of knowledge. The realistic or objectivistic view implies the need to understand the social structure and gives rise to the epistemology of positivism. The subjectivist view of reality favors an epistemology that emphasizes the importance of understanding the processes through which humans construct the social world. The subjectivist perspective is phenomenologically oriented (Morgan & Smircich 1980, 493).

Burrell and Morgan (1979) made a famous model of different paradigms in the field of organization sciences (in Table 7). This model was based on ontological and epistemological considerations. In the model of Burrell and Morgan, there are two axes: 1) objective vs subjective and 2) the sociology of regulation vs the sociology of radical change.

The sociology of radical change

<i>Subjective</i>	Radical humanist	Radical structuralist	<i>Objective</i>
	Interpretivist	Functionalist	

The sociology of regulation

TABLE 7 Burrell's and Morgan's four paradigms (Burrell & Morgan 1979, 24).

Burrell and Morgan write that the functionalist paradigm is rooted in the sociology of regulation and approaches its subject matter from an objectivist point of view. Burrell and Morgan say that the functionalist paradigm tries to give a rational explanation of social affairs by applying the models and methods of natural sciences to the study of human affairs. The functionalist paradigm attempts to give explanations of social order, social integration, consensus and rational choice. The interpretivist paradigm tries to find explanations from the subjective and socially constructed world, from the meanings that men attach to their world. The interpretivist paradigm sees the social world as an emergent social process which is created by men. The radical structuralist paradigm focuses mainly on the social structure and the analysis of economic power relationships. The radical humanist approach has much in common with the interpretivist paradigm. However, the radical humanist approach is committed to radical change and emancipation from 'false consciousness' which inhibits the true human fulfilment (Burrell & Morgan 1979, 27-36).

Because the aim of this study is to explore what kinds leadership and leadership development views educational institutes and business schools have adopted, it is vital to be aware of the ontological and epistemological views that are adopted in different leadership theories. Chapters 2.1.2 and 2.1.5 show clearly that trait theories, behavioral theories, situational leadership theories and the so-called 'new leadership theories' have mainly adopted a functionalist paradigm. However, the contextual leadership theories use an interpretivist

paradigm (paradigmatic change see Kuhn 1970). This rough classification can be refined further by using the model that Morgan and Smircich (1980) have developed (Table 8).

Leadership theory	Ontological assumptions: Reality as...	Favored metaphors
Trait theory, Behavioral theory, Situational theory	Concrete entity	Machine
'New leadership'	Concrete process	Organism
Management of meaning	Symbolic discourse	Theatre
Contextual theory, Narrative leadership research Poststructuralistic leadership views	Social construction	Language game, text

TABLE 8 Ontological views of leadership theories (Adopted from Morgan & Smircich 1980, 492).

Morgan and Smircich claim that when one passes from one assumption to another along the objective-subjective continuum (described in Table 8), the nature of what constitutes adequate knowledge changes. The objectivist view considers knowledge of the social world as concrete phenomena or relationships in an external world. It searches the objective form of knowledge and tries to find laws and regularities on the factual basis. At the other end of the continuum, the phenomenologically oriented subjectivist view challenges the idea that there would be any 'objective knowledge' and emphasizes the importance of understanding processes through which human beings form their relationships in the world (Morgan & Smircich 1980, 493).

Traditionally, the leadership research has been performed from the objectivist view. So, in the trait and behavioral leadership theories, it was sought to find regularities and laws behind leadership. In the situational leadership models, the search for the one best leadership style was abandoned. The situational theories and contingency theories of leadership adopted systems analytical views. Culture studies established a new view of leadership- that is the management of meaning (Smircich & Morgan 1982). In this leadership view, the same assumptions that were behind cultural studies in general were also

adopted. Behind contextual, narrative and poststructuralist leadership theories, it was adopted from the social constructionist views.

Also, the views behind management and leadership development can be analyzed through the model of Morgan and Smircich. In the traditional management development (or leader development), it is assumed that educational institutes are considered to be concrete substances that lead seminars where participants of these seminars and courses learn concrete leadership practices. From this point of view, educational institutes create social regulation and integration. From the researcher's viewpoint, the operations of educational institutes should be analyzed from the objectivist view as an impartial observer and the researcher should use positivistic research methods. From the subjective, interpretivist view, educational institutes are seen as social constructions which need to be understood contextually from the participants point of view. Also, the methods used in leadership development should be seen as textual achievements. Subjective views of leadership development have been adopted in the situated learning theory and in other contextual leadership development (Burrell 1988).

The model of Burrell and Morgan, as well as the model of Morgan and Smircich, have been criticized, firstly, because these models reduce conceptions to categories. Critical theorists such as Deetz have wanted to fight against all categorizations because categorizations like these invite reifications (Deetz 1996, 191). Secondly, the model of Burrell and Morgan has been criticized because it produces too clear distinctions. Tang says that *"human society is made of both material forces and ideational forces. Thus, any social science must be based on both materialism and ideationalism"* (Tang 2011, 219). It is probably true that any classification of the views behind leadership theories and leadership development is erroneous because both leadership, leadership development and the classifications of them are social constructions. However, in this research the classifications of these phenomena are relied on, which are based on the objective-subjective dichotomy elaborated by Morgan and Smircich (1980) in Table 8.

This research aims to interpret and understand the assumptions, which educational institutes or business schools have adopted on leadership and leadership development. In order to do so, we must be open to different ontological and epistemological paradigms. However, we must also be clear of the ontological and epistemological choices behind our own study.

From the Burrell's & Morgan's (1979) discussion on the nature of knowledge, which is divided into positivism and interpretivism, we have selected the interpretive paradigm for this research. The collected data is of qualitative nature as interview transcriptions and other literary material, which are evidently constructed by various subjects. In addition, we want to understand from the insiders' views of leadership and leadership development, which the educational institutes have adopted. The views adopted in this study are close to those in critical studies, as it is assumed that the social reality is shaped by social, political, cultural and economic factors and the social reality is then crystallized into structures, which are taken as 'real' (Cuba & Lincoln 1994, 109-110).

This means that in this study, leadership and leadership development are considered to exist in the social world of people. It is also seen that leadership and leadership development in each educational institute has evolved through its historical and social processes, and these processes are going to continue in the future depending on what kind of opinions and aims different persons and groups and stakeholders have.

The above said means that this study is a qualitative study. The field of qualitative research is wide, and there are many paradigms and views in it. Qualitative research can use the approaches and methods of phenomenology, hermeneutics, deconstructionism, psychoanalysis, cultural studies, feminism etc. Qualitative research is also inherently multi-methodological. The use of multiple methods and triangulation aims at gaining an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question (Denzin & Lincoln 1994, 2-4).

Denzin and Lincoln suggest five moments of qualitative research. They say that in the "traditional period", the researchers tried to write objective accounts of the culture they studied. In the "modernist phase", realism was still valued. In the moment of the "blurred genres" (1970-1985), qualitative researchers used many different paradigms and views. In the moment of the "crisis of representation", researchers called into question the issues of gender, class, and race. In the moment of the "double crisis", the qualitative research faces both the crisis of representation and legitimation and the research texts are now read as "tales of the field" (Denzin & Lincoln 1994, 10-15).

The crisis of representation and legitimation must be taken seriously in qualitative research as in any other research. In this research, it is assumed that the data gathering process, as well as the data analyzing process and writing the research, are value laden even if the researcher has in every step of the study tried to search the objective truth as well as he/she has been able to. In this research, it is assumed that human institutes and human behavior cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes attached by human actors to the institutes and activities. It is also assumed that facts are only facts in the theoretical framework where they are presented. So, depending on the views of leadership and leadership development, each educational institute has adopted the facts that they present to the researcher in the interview and that are printed in their internet pages and documents. It is assumed that facts are value laden, as are the leadership and leadership development views. Also, the observations of the educational institutes and analyses of the interviews, which the researcher has done, are considered to contain values (Cuba & Lincoln 1994, 106-107; Holstein & Gubrium 1994, 264-265).

The views of human nature in this study is voluntarist. This means that a human actor is regarded as the creator of his/her environment rather than being determined by his/her environment (Burrell & Morgan 1979, 2). Accordingly, it is thought that leadership development is a concept that has evolved through the prevailing cultural meaning systems rather than an outside frame that determines the behavior of people.

Methodologically this research is ideographic. The ideographic approach is based on the view that one can only understand the social world by obtaining first-hand knowledge of the subjects under investigation (Burrell & Morgan 1979, 5–6). This research is aimed to find out what kind of views of leadership and leadership development are held in educational institutes in Finland. However, this is not done in a generic manner, but attempts are made to find out what kinds of views are held in the local culture of each educational institute as subjects of the study. This implicates that the knowledge is tied to its context by considering each education institute as a unique case.

The philosophical background of this study is hermeneutics. It states that understanding the phenomenon is based on pre-understanding. When a researcher is reflecting this pre-understanding, on the one hand, on leadership development tradition and, on the other hand, on data collected from business schools, the understanding increases step by step. Hermeneutics is close to life because a person understands each situation as reflecting the situation to his/her experiences (Gadamer 1996, 47–88). Understanding is a dialectic process between tradition and the object of study. But at the same time, understanding is a dialectic process between each detail of the situation and the situation as a whole (Gadamer 2004, 24–29). So, the hermeneutic circle is not a straightforwardly expanding model, but a complex result of an interaction of many different forces (Gadamer 1989, 266–269). Language has a special role in understanding, because we humans live surrounded by language (Gadamer 2004, 82–87).

This research is an interpretative qualitative research because people socially and symbolically construct and maintain their organizational realities (Burrell et al. 1979), such as management and leadership development. However, this research uses mainly abductive reasoning where the interpretative part is subjected to abduction. The aim of qualitative research is to understand the subjective meanings of socially constructed phenomena, such as management and leadership development in a particular educational institute. The dominant form of interpretative research is social construction (Eriksson et al. 2010). In interpretivism, the theory helps the researcher to understand the meanings, and, hence, interpretations of the people involved (Myers 2009) in leadership development. Abduction, in turn, is the search for the best theory to describe and explain the phenomenon. The best then means a simple, generalizable and coherent perspective (Paavola 2006, 50).

3.2 Case study

The suitability of the research method derives from the social phenomena to be explored. Basically, there are two traditions. Positivism, which emphasizes the model of natural sciences and interpretivism, which studies reality that is socially constructed rather than objectively determined. Interpretivism deals with the understanding and subjectivity of social phenomena and requires a qualita-

tive approach (Mohd Noor 2008, 1602). Because leadership development in educational institutes is a socially constructed phenomenon, interpretivism suits its study. When studying leadership development in educational institutes, one has to appreciate the different constructions and meanings that people place upon their experience.

In order to understand leadership development in educational institutes one has to be interested particularly in the operations concerning leadership development in each educational institute and look at them as a whole. This kind of situation suits a case study (Thomas 2016, 3–4).

Cresswell (2013, 97) defines a case study as follows: *“The case study method explores real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information... and reports a case description and case themes”*.

The roots of case studies can be traced to France. In the United States, case study was used in the studies of Chicago School in the beginning of 1900’s. After 1935 in sociology attempts were made to find more scientific methods, meaning more quantified methods, and so the use of case study declined. However, in the 1960s researchers were becoming concerned about the limitations of quantitative methods and, hence, the interest in case studies increased (Tellis 1997).

Case studies are widely used, for example, in organizational studies. Case studies are well suited for exploring processes or behaviors that are little understood. The approach is particularly useful for responding to how and why questions about a contemporary set of events, such as leadership development in educational institutes. The case study method enables one to study many different aspects of a phenomenon and examine them in relation to each other (Meyer 2001, 329–330).

A case study is an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context by using a variety of data sources. One of the main questions when using a case study is to describe, what is the case. A case can be defined as a phenomenon that occurs in a bounded context. Leadership development in an educational institute can be considered to form a case because it is a phenomenon that is bounded in a particular context and in a particular time and place (Baxter and Jack 2008, 545–546).

A good case is generally taken from real life and includes a) setting, b) individuals involved, c) the events, d) the problems and e) the conflicts. Because cases reflect real-life situations, cases must represent good and bad practices, failures as well as successes (Dooley 2002, 337). Leadership development in educational institutes is a special kind of activity that differs somewhat from educational institute to educational institute. There are more successful and less successful leadership development practices, as well as educational institutes.

There are different types of case studies. According to Yin (2003), case studies can be used to explain, describe or explore events or phenomena in contexts where they occur. Explanatory case studies attempt to find out causal links in real-life phenomena. Descriptive case studies are used to describe the phe-

nomena. Exploratory case studies are used to explore those situations where the phenomena occur. This study is mainly a descriptive case study because it aims to describe leadership development in educational institutes through the views told of the leaders and development specialists working in these institutes.

There are single case studies and multiple case studies. In multiple case studies, like in this study, the researcher is studying multiple cases in order to understand the differences and the similarities between the cases. There are some advantages in using multiple case studies. The evidence created from a multiple case study is strong and reliable, because the suggestions are more intensely grounded in several empirical evidence. There are also some difficulties in using multiple case studies. Multiple case studies are more expensive and time consuming to implement (Baxter and Jack 2008; Eisenhardt and Grabner 2007).

There are several phases in conducting a case study. The first phase is to identify the research as a problem or issue (Bassegy 1999). In this research it is attempted to describe and explore what kind of leadership and leadership development views are adopted in educational institutes. This topic was chosen because this issue has not been researched, at least in Finland, and because it is a remarkably interesting topic.

The second phase in a case study is to determine the research questions. The research questions raise a question about something that perplexes and challenges the mind. A literature review is also conducted in this step (Dooley 2002, 339). A case study is open to the use of theory and conceptual categories that guide the research and analysis. Without a theoretical framework the study is in severe danger of providing description without meaning and gathering only basic information that is already known (Meyer 2001, 331).

The third phase of conducting a case study is to select cases and determine the data gathering and analysis techniques (Dooley 2002, 339). These will be explained later in chapters 3.3 and 3.4.

3.3 Data

The data of this research was gathered from 25 educational institutes or business schools. Out of these institutes, seven were arranging EMBA-courses for managers and 18 were arranging leadership and management courses and seminars for managers and organizations. These 18 educational institutes were arranging both open courses and in-company training of management and leadership. Out of these 25 educational institutes, nine were public institutes, mainly subsidiaries of universities, and 16 were private business schools.

The data gathering started in January 2018 by searching for possible educational institutes from the internet. At the same time, some preliminary materials were gathered from all the 37 major educational institutes that announced on the internet that they operated in the field of management and leadership development. After that the researcher asked to meet a representative from

each of them to carry out interviews of their operations. Out of these 37 educational institutes, 25 (68 %) agreed to the request. Three educational institutes who did not agree to participate in the research announced that they do not have anything significant to say about the management and leadership development because they concentrated on other things in their operations. The remaining nine institutes who dropped out of the research either did not respond at all to the several requests of the researcher or ended communication when the researcher asked the permission to meet a representative of the organization. So, originally permission was asked to collect data from 11 universities and 26 other educational institutes. Finally, 8 universities (72 %) and 17 other educational institutes (65 %) agreed to participate in the study.

From the participating 25 educational institutes, 27 persons were interviewed. Interviews were conducted between February 2018 and October 2018. Out of these 27 persons, 16 persons (59 %) were CEOs, five persons (19 %) were directors, and six persons (22 %) were professionals of the educational institution. The professionals who were interviewed were mainly specialists (four persons) who led the EMBA courses of a university. Out of the 27 interviewees seven were women (26 %) and 20 were men (74 %). The interviews lasted from between 55 minutes to 2 hours 11 minutes and, on average, the interviews lasted 1 hour and 21 minutes.

This research concentrates on the management and leadership development, which is done in educational institutes. So, the educational institute is the unit of analysis in this research. It is also presupposed that the interviewed CEOs, managers and specialists represent validly the views adopted in the educational institutes. The views of the interviewed persons are considered to be subjective. However, the views are also considered to represent the views adopted in the educational institutes because the interviewees are in such high positions and are the key decision makers or specialists in their institutes in matters concerning the management and leadership development practices offered. In addition, the public material about the leadership training of institutes was used to validate the interview views.

3.3.1 Interviews

Interviews are widely applied in qualitative research and also used in this study. Interviews were used because the researcher could choose those persons to the interview who have relevant experiences and knowledge of management and leadership development. Interviews were also used because interviewing is a rather flexible method. The researcher can, during the interview, ask detailed questions that are relevant for the study (Puusa 2011, 73–77).

The purpose of interviewing was to find out what is in and on someone's mind. Because the interviewed persons had been working in the field of management and leadership development, their views and perspectives are meaningful. The task of an interviewer in this study was to make it possible for the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into her or his world (Patton 1990, 278–279).

Before conducting the interviews, it had to be decided what kind of interviews would be used in this study. There are three kinds of interviews: 1) structured, 2) semi-structured (focused or thematic) and 3) open interviews. In the structured interview, the questions are always asked in a similar form and order. In the semi-structured interview, the researcher has chosen the themes which she or he asks in questions. The open interview is close to a discussion between persons in everyday situations. Open interviews are mainly used as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork in ethnographic studies (Hirsjärvi et al. 2001, 195–196). In this study, it was decided to use semi-structured interviews, because we wanted to compare the cases and because it was realized that each educational institute has its own peculiarities. In semi-structured interviews, there are some common themes that enable the comparison of cases. At the same time, the interviewer can ask other questions that can reveal the peculiarities of each educational institute.

Before conducting the interviews, it was necessary to decide what would be the role of the interviewer. Kvale (1996, 43-45) speaks of 'InterViews', and, so saying, he tries to emphasize the fact that interviews are an interchange of views between two persons conversing on leadership development. Kvale says that the medium of interview is language and the knowledge produced is linguistic. His ontological view is poststructuralist, and he considers that language constitutes reality. Because the interviews in this study were used mainly to collect data on the same themes relevant to this study it was decided that here the interaction between an interviewer and an interviewed person would not be emphasized. However, at this same time it was realized that the interviewer had to focus on acting in each interview situation in a similar manner. Dingwall (1997, 56-59) stresses that it is important to notice that the interviews are a special kind of roleplay where respondents are required to demonstrate the role in which the interview casts them. The consequence is that the data produced in interviews are social constructions created by the researcher and the respondent, and all the cues that respondents get before and during interviews have an effect on what the respondents will tell.

So, in this study, semi-structured or thematic interviews were used, and attempts were made to keep the role of the interviewer as much the same as possible from one interview to another. The advantage in using semi-structured interviews is that all respondents answer the same questions, and the interviewing situation is flexible and open for more detailed questions and open conversation about management and leadership development. All of the interviews were recorded. Afterwards the conversations during interviews were transcribed. The themes and main questions used in the interviews are attached (Appendix I).

The interviews began by asking the interviewed person some questions about the history and background of the educational institute and what kind of leadership views had been adopted in the institute at the time when the educational institute had been established. For most persons who were interviewed, this was an easy task, because they themselves had been key persons who had

established the leadership institute. However, two persons had some difficulty in telling about the history of the leadership institute. One of them (case A) gave a little booklet on the history of the educational institute. In the booklet, there was also valuable information about the history of leadership education in Finland in general. The other person (case E) said that he had not been in the organization when the leadership institute had been established, but that he had asked another person who had been involved in establishing the educational institute to participate in the interview for a short period of time. This person told how the educational institute had been established and what kind of leadership views they had had when this institute was established. Also, persons working in universities had not been working in the educational institute, but they had rather good knowledge of the history of the organization.

One of the main themes in the interview was, what kind of leadership views are used in the leadership education in the institute. In order to gain a good picture of this question, the values behind leadership education in the institute were asked, in addition to the targets and motives behind leadership education. Another main theme in the interview was what kinds of management and leadership development methods are used in leadership development. Also, this theme was mapped with several questions to get as much information about the subject matter as possible. The third main theme of the interview was the future visions of the leadership development in the institute.

In the interviews, the laddering technique was used to ensure the interviewees' views of leadership and leadership development. Laddering refers to an in-depth technique to understand how the interviewed persons translate the attributes of leadership and leadership development into meaningful parts of the person's belief systems (Reynolds & Gutman 1988, 12). For example, it was first asked "what are the leadership views that are used in leadership education in the institute nowadays?" When the interviewed person had answered this question, it was further asked "in your opinion, which of the following leadership views are similar and which are dissimilar with the leadership views that are used in the institute's management and leadership development: 1) Traditional or behavioral theories, 2) Theories that emphasize interaction, such as transformational leadership or LMX and 3) Contextual leadership theories such as shared leadership? After the interviewed person had answered this second question, it was asked, which leadership views he/she considered to be better: the similar ones or the dissimilar ones? Finally, it was also asked why is this? The use of laddering technique helped the interviewees to talk a lot about the leadership views that had been adopted in the institute. All in all, the interview included six questions in which the laddering technique was used.

3.3.2 Records and documents

Records and documents are written texts that endure time. Even though they are often considered to be interchangeable, there are some differences between them. Records are prepared for some official reason, but documents are prepared for personal rather than official reasons. Documents are closer to speech

and require more contextualized interpretation. Also, records can have local uses that are quite distant from officially sanctioned meanings (Hodder 1994, 393). Educational institutes have many kinds of records, for example, advertisement leaflets, course programs, course materials, books of the history of the organization etc.

When interpreting records and documents, the researcher is required to make sense actively. The researcher needs to interpret the particular fragments of the text as indexes of some underlying pattern of a state of affairs. So, the researcher is not merely collecting facts but has to be actively involved in and interpreting the social world around business schools (Atkinson 1990, 91; Atkinson & Coffey 1998, 47).

The researcher can gain a particularly rich source of records and documents that educational institutes or business schools have made. However, the problem is, how to access and get the permission to use these records and documents. So, the researcher from the very beginning of the research started to negotiate access to these records and documents. Before the researcher began to do the fieldwork, she collected a lot of material from each educational institute from the Internet. In the interview, it was asked for more materials, and most of the interviewed persons gave us some marketing materials etc.

The researcher collected a lot of records from the Internet at the beginning of the research. These materials are mainly advertisements and other marketing material. However, these advertisements gave some valuable information to the researcher before she tried to contact the leadership institute.

During and after the interviews, the researcher collected many records from the educational institutes. All in all, 1279 pages of records were collected. These records are mostly advertisements and brochures that provide information on the educational institute or some leadership course. The researcher read this material carefully several times so that she could better understand the background of the thinking in a particular educational institute. These records may give a too positive picture of the operations of the educational institute and of the management and leadership courses that the educational institute arranges. However, together with the materials collected from the Internet and with interviews, these records added to the reliability of the research.

3.4 Data analysis

This research is abductive in the sense that it strengthens the hypothesis derived from preliminary understanding that leadership views adopted in educational institutes have an effect on the leadership development given in educational institutes. Because both leadership and leadership development are abstract concepts that can be understood from very many different points of view, the amplifying process needs both theoretical and empirical considerations. Theoretical considerations are mainly needed to determine the main points of

views that are currently considered to be relevant in the field of leadership and leadership development. This was done in the theoretical part of this research.

Empirical considerations are needed for various reasons. Because one cannot beforehand be certain of what kind of leadership and leadership development views are used in educational institutes, one has to compare the theoretical views of leadership and leadership development to the actual situation in each case (educational institute). If it is possible to determine on the basis of theoretical considerations what kind of leadership and leadership development methods are used in each case, then one has to compare the different cases with each other.

If the preliminary hypothesis that there might be some kind of relation between leadership views and leadership development views adopted in different educational institutes seems to be relevant, then one has to analyze leadership views and leadership development views adopted in educational institutes in detail. Finally, one has to analyze the future visions of leadership and leadership development of educational institutes.

The analysis of empirical data began by case analysis. Each educational institute is considered to be a case because each of them and the way they perform leadership development cannot be separated from their context (Yin 1993, 3). Case study methods were decided to use, knowing at the same time, that case study is not a method and that research problems are not solved by a method, but by thinking (Thomas 2016, 6).

In this research, case study refers to an exploration of the uniqueness of a particular educational institute in its real-life situation (Thomas 2016, 10). Several cases are jointly studied to inquire the phenomena of views held of leadership and leadership development. So, this research can be called a collective case study (Stake 1994, 237) or multiple case study (Thomas 2016, 172). A multiple case study enables one to explore differences and similarities within and between cases (Baxter & Jack 2008, 548).

Yin (1981, 59) underlines that a distinguishing characteristic of the case study is its attempts to examine the phenomenon in its real-life context. Yin makes a difference between exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory case studies (Yin 1981, 59). Explanatory case studies seek to answer questions that try to explain the presumed causal links of the phenomenon in real life situations that are too complex for the survey or experimental strategies. An exploratory case study is used to explore situations in which the phenomenon at hand has no clear outcomes. A descriptive case study is used to describe a phenomenon and the real-life context in which it occurs (Baxter & Jack 2008, 547-548). Explaining is the purpose of all scientific work, but in a case study, the explanations can only be context-specific (Thomas 2016, 123). This means that the explanations given may not be valid in other contexts.

Because people are rather poor processors of information, the researcher has to follow some sort of method in searching for cross-case patterns. The danger in searching for cross-case patterns is to reach premature or even false conclusions. Eisenhardt suggests two strategies to avoid this kind of bias. She says

“that one tactic is to select categories or dimensions, and the look for within-group similarities coupled with intergroup differences... A second tactic is to select pairs of cases and then list the similarities and differences between each pair (Eisenhardt 1989, 540).

In this study, it was decided to use the first tactic that Eisenhardt recommends. So, in this research, the initial within case analysis ends in arranging the cases into categories which were the result of content analysis. These categories were also compared with the categories made in the theoretical framework. The classification is done according to what kind of views, in each educational institute, are held of leadership and of leadership development.

Because leadership and leadership development are multifaceted phenomena, and because these phenomena can be seen from many angles, it is difficult to say objectively what kinds of views of these phenomena are held in educational institutes. However, the texts that the persons have produced in the interviews give a possibility to put these phenomena into their contexts and help to determine what kind of views each educational institute has adopted of leadership and leadership development.

The purpose of qualitative research is to produce findings from a massive amount of data which is collected in interviews, records and documents (Taylor & Bogdan 1998). A real challenge is the interpretation of this data. There are no formulas for determining the significance of material and there are no easy ways of guiding the analytical process of the researcher. However, there are some guidelines to assist in analyzing the data (Patton 1990, 371–372).

The analysis of the data in a comparative case study relies on the methods of interpretative inquiry where the analysis begins by reading the collected data again and again and then comparing each element (phrase, sentence or paragraph) with all the other elements (Thomas 2016, 204).

In this research, content analysis was used to analyze the research material. Content analysis began with the choice of the theme of the research and by the formulating of research questions. Because the data gathered in qualitative research is rich and plentiful, the researcher has to focus on a rather detailed area of the theme at hand. In so doing, the researcher has a good possibility to concentrate on interpreting the data in depth (Puusa 2011, 114).

In this study content analysis began as in any other qualitative study so that the researcher read the data from transcriptions over and over again. This gave a possibility to the researcher to gain an overall picture of the data and also to formulate some preliminary categories of the data. The classification of the data is a crucial part of the interpretation (Mäkelä 1992, 54). After reading the transcribed texts of each case several times, the researcher drew up a classification framework for each of the educational institutes. The framework was drawn of the key concepts of the study (In Appendix II, there is an example of a classification framework that was drawn for one educational institute. Similar classification frameworks were done to all educational institutes).

An example of the first step of classifying the research data is shown below:

Texts in the interview	Informant centered classification of the text
<i>We have been able to identify what is good leadership, what the participants of our courses have experienced to be good leaders. We ask participants to describe a real person who they have considered to be a good leader... We speak of the cornerstones of leadership. These are such as enthusiasm, trust, learning and appreciation.</i>	The cornerstones of leadership: enthusiasm, trust, learning and appreciation.

The classification framework is based on the texts that were transcribed after interviews. These texts were first read through, and later these texts were classified in preliminary themes. These preliminary themes were named and combined together with other similar expressions. Because there were 25 case organizations and because each classification framework had many rather unique elements, it was eventually needed to diminish the number of classes. This was done by using theoretical constructions that were created in the theoretical part of the study.

So, this study is abductive in its nature and in doing abduction, it relies on Gioia methodology (Gioia et al. 2012). Gioia method starts of by analyzing informant centered expressions and, later in the analysis, moves on to more theoretical formulations. This is done by distinguishing 1st-order and 2nd-order analysis from each other. The 1st-order analysis refers to the informant-centric terms and codes (which were expressed in the classification framework drawn for each educational institute), and the 2nd-order analysis refers to using research-centric concepts and themes (which were created in the theoretical framework of the study). In the 1st-order analysis (see the extract in previous page), which aims to follow the informant's ideas, the number of categories was exceptionally large. However, the researcher classified these categories under similar themes, which reduced the number of categories and made it easier to compare the cases. The 2nd-order classification further reduced the number of categories and labels the categories to aggregate dimensions (Gioia et al. 2012, 18–21).

The Gioia method helped to understand the logic of the operation of each case. The within-case analysis began by writing a case description of each education institution. This description was based on the information gathered by interviews, documents, and information on the Internet. Both the description of the educational institute and the classification of data collected by the Gioia method are, of course, simple descriptions that help to cope with the enormous amount of data, and they help the researcher to become intimately familiar with each educational institution. These processes help the researcher to understand the unique patterns of each educational institute (Eisenhardt 1989, 539–540).

4 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

4.1 Case organizations

The data consists of 25 educational institutes. Out of these educational institutes, 18 institutes organize management and leadership courses, and seven institutes arrange EMBA-courses. Those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses train mainly middle managers, foremen and supervisors. Those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses train mainly top managers and persons who will most probably be end up working in top management positions later in their careers.

Those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are mostly private companies. These institutes are located in various parts of Finland, but most of them (14 institutes) have their headquarters in the Helsinki area. Each of all the educational institutes (18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses, organize management and leadership courses and in company training in the whole country. Some of these organizations are also consulting client organizations and coaching managers. A few of these institutes are carrying out research and surveys in the leadership field, and one institute is performing psychological evaluations of personnel. One educational institute is arranging training for public administration.

Eight educational institutes are University departments. One of them does not arrange EMBA-courses (case R). Those seven University departments arranging EMBA-courses also provide further education of management and leadership, and most of them arrange other courses and have other functions besides EMBA-courses. The universities that participated in this study are located in different cities in Finland. In Finland, there is at least one foreign organization that provides EMBA-courses, but this organization did not want to participate in this study.

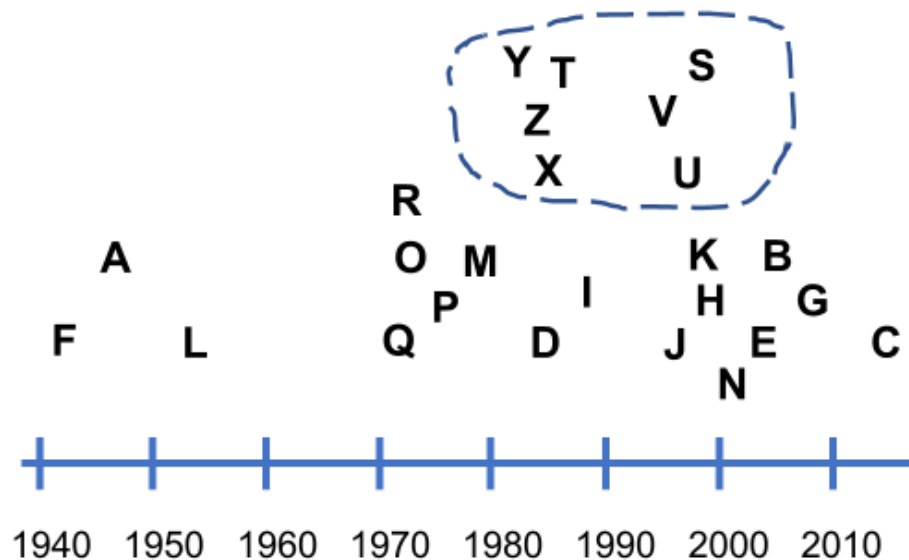


FIGURE 3 The establishment of educational institutes (Dotted area: Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses)

In terms of the creation, educational institutes can be grouped into some clusters. Figure 3 shows that the first educational institutes arranging leadership training were founded during the second world war or just after it. The second wave of establishing educational institutes emerged in the 1970s, and the third wave at the end of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s.

Figure 3 also illustrates that EMBA-courses are a rather recent phenomenon in Finland. The first EMBA-courses were organized in the mid-1980s (case Y in 1986), and over the following 15 years many more EMBA-courses emerged in Finland. Behind these 'big lines' of the establishment of educational institutes, there are many reasons that one can identify through a more detailed analysis of cases.

The motive for the establishment of educational institutes can be related to the Second World War. During the war in 1942, the Finnish Industry Association and the Finnish Defense Forces established an organization to promote and develop the rationalization of workplaces. Besides arranging rationalization courses, this organization, case F, began to arrange distant education in the form of letter courses for foremen. Case F has been rather successful and is still going strong. Nowadays case F provides many open courses and in-company training also in many other areas besides leadership and management. On its website, case F claims that its leadership development is based on such ideas as *"the effectiveness of work, doing things right and building a good work climate."* The

website of case F further claims that *“for managers and leaders it is important to get new ideas, learn new knowledge, be inspired by ideas and to find out new ways to do things”*.

In 1946, the Employer’s Confederation in Finland established an educational institute (case A) to arrange courses for foremen. The example for these courses were applied from Sweden. The need to train foremen was obvious because *“in the war many men were lost”* (case A), and because Finnish organizations were growing fast after the war. One reason behind the training need was also the war reparations for Soviet Union, which Finland had to pay after the war. Accordingly, case A gave many courses for foremen and, some years later, for supervisors (in service organizations) and engineers (the middle management of industrial organizations were mainly engineers, by that time). About 10 years ago, case A was one of the biggest educational institutes in Finland. By that time, case A had more than 100 persons working permanently in the institute. However, after that case A was merged with three other education institutes. Some years after the merger, case A had diminished its operations dramatically. On their website, case A informs that *“we want to help you progress your career and to ensure that you will continually develop in your leadership and management profession”*.

Even if there are only few training institutes in Figure 3, which have been established between the years 1940 to 1970, this is not the whole truth. During that period, many training institutes were established, but these institutes have ended their operations by now. These educational institutes include a training institute for highest management (Lifim), a training institute for engineers (Insko) and a training institute for economists (Sefec). Many banks and trade organizations also had their own training centers (Hämeenkylä kauppiaasopisto, Jollas-opisto, K-instituutti, Säästöpankkiopisto, OP-opisto, Tanskarla, Unitas-opisto). All of the before mentioned institutes arranged, among other things, management and leadership courses. A common denominator to all these training institutes is that they were part of the labor market system, because each of them was owned by some labor union. So, it seems that the labor market system, both employer’s confederation (cases A and F) and labor unions (Insko and Sefek), had a major role in the establishment of management and leadership training in Finland in the 1940s and 1950s.

Case L, established in 1953, represents a special kind of training institution. It was established to carry out psychological evaluations of candidates applying for a work position: *“(The institute) was born out of recruitment. But soon all development methods were used... These kinds of services did not exist, and there was a need for these services in organizations. Professional psychologists could show how useful their services could be.”* (Case L). Psychological know-how was widely used in leadership training, also in other training institutes, for example, in case A by that time. On its website, case L claims that *“Management and leadership development brings results. Building leadership capabilities is an important part of a company's business success”*.

Besides a special knowledge or service offered, a special target group can also be the reason behind the establishment of an educational institute. Cases Q

and O are examples of this. They were established at the beginning of the 1970s. Case Q gives training specially for ministries and government officials. On its website, case Q says that *"leadership is consolidation, towards a common goal. Leadership is needed to deliver results."* Case O is specialized in the training of foremen, supervisors, and management in Northern Finland. Case O was established in 1974 as part of a labor market agreement. On its website, case O emphasizes *"practicality, learning by doing and interactivity"*.

It is common for leadership training institutes established between 1975 to 1990 that the person (or persons) who established them had a special vision of leadership or how to develop companies. For example, the owner of case P explains how he had established the company: *"This company was established, because I carried out a development process in one large company. The company needed a major change in business operations and the management of the company needed to be trained for the new operations. The change process went so well that other organizations asked me to perform the same kind of training processes."* (Case P). On its website, case P emphasizes *"the growth of the organization, the innovativeness of the organization, leadership and how to win in the management game"*.

The establishment of case M followed similar footsteps as the above described case P: *"The founder invented innovative methods around which the company began to be formed."* (Case M). On its website, case M emphasizes *"innovativeness, participative leadership, change management and carrying out experiments"*.

The establishment of case D did not follow the same route as cases P and M. The founder of case D had worked inside one rather well-known educational institute, and while working he had networked with the Tavistock Institute: *"The founder of this company had worked inside an educational institute, and he had studied organizational dynamics. At first he began to train consultants rather than managers."* (Case D). Although the founder of case D has retired from case D some years ago, the company is currently going strong and still following the footsteps of its founder. On its website, case D says that *"we are known for our organizational dynamic orientation, which our Tavistock-seminars have made famous"*. Case D also emphasizes on its website *"systemic work with organizations and counselling skills"*.

Some educational institutes that were established around the year 2000 can be classified in the former group where the person (or persons) who established them had a special vision of leadership or how to develop companies. Cases J and K belong to this group. However, these educational institutes also have other features. The founders of these companies had a vision of how to improve the leadership and managerial practices of Finnish companies: *"I had written a book about intelligent leadership and management... We believe that there is a huge need to improve leadership and management practices in Finland... and we believe that everyone has a right to be led well."* (Case K). Intellectual organizations and intelligent leadership are currently still the cornerstones behind the operation of case K.

The founders of case J had been working in the service of the evangelical-Lutheran Church. One of these two founders explained the process that led to the establishment of case J: *"We had a vision of how to improve leadership and man-*

agement practices." (Case J). On its website, case J emphasizes *"Passion for good. Effectiveness can be combined with a respectful way of doing things with people"*. The founders of case J have followed their vision and they have been writing books on value-leadership and corporate social responsibility.

The same motive to improve the existing leadership and management practice found in cases J and K can be found behind the establishment of cases B and C. Case B was established in 2006. In its brochures, case B emphasizes coaching: *"A coaching leadership approach is goal-oriented, encouraging and unleashes the potential of employees"*.

Case C was established recently in 2014: *"This world needs something new in the leadership area. We are tired to the old leadership practices and old ways of training leadership."* (Case C). On its website, case C also emphasizes shared leadership: *"Everyone is a leader. People create success for organizations. Organizations can only be successful if everyone working there is fully committed to achieving the visions that the organization has"*.

In 1997, the Specialist Qualification of Management -diploma was founded in Finland. By that time many educational institutes, for example, cases A and F, began to train managers so that they could pass the Specialist Qualification of Management -diploma. Perhaps the best example of educational institutes that were concentrating solely to train managers to pass this diploma is case H: *"We noticed that there is a need for leadership development in organizations... And then the Specialist Qualification of Management -diploma was introduced to the field of leadership training, and we found that it suited Finnish organizations very well as a method to develop leadership and management."* (Case H). On its website, case H writes that *"we have specialized in long-term, customer-tailored courses"*.

Case N was established to improve the leadership practices of the Finnish Defense Forces. However, after the founder of case N had successfully launched the new *"transformational leadership practices"* to the Finnish Defense Forces, many other organizations wanted to use the same methods in their organization: *"We held defense seminars and many managers who were participants in them said that if you have managed to change the culture of Defense Forces, which seems to be a rather rigid organization, we want you to also come to our organization."* (Case N). On its website, case N claims that *"our leadership model (transformational leadership) is developed in Finland, and it is based on scientific research. Our training program helps managers, management groups, professionals, and salespersons to succeed in their careers"*.

At the beginning of 2000, cases E and G were established to help HR-management to improve leadership in a way that HR-management wanted. Since then, both of these educational institutes have been merged to a bigger company. Both cases E and G have maintained their position as leadership developers inside these two bigger companies. On its website, case E informs, that *"supervisor training, workplace coaching, and coaching sessions are powerful tools to improve performance"*. Case G also emphasizes coaching on its websites, but, at the same time, case G emphasizes shared leadership: *"In addition to supervisors, more and more experts need strong skills to manage themselves, things and people along common goals"*.

The establishment of case I is in many ways similar to many of the above described cases, but somehow its establishment is also quite unique compared to other cases. Case I was established by a single person in 1992, and it originally operated in media and IT-businesses. However, case I changed its name in 2007 and began to operate as a training company. The company was at first successful. However, after some years, case I suffered severe losses and the owner of the company left case I in 2011, returning back to the company in 2018 and worked as a marketing director. On its website, case I writes that *“we are a change management company. Our clients use us to implement their strategy and to improve the results of their company.”*

All other university cases in the study, apart from case R, arrange EMBA-courses. Case R has concentrated on counselling methods, for example, in training supervisors and work counselling and coaching. On its websites, case R describes *“Inspiring and modern management, the ability of the staff to learn and utilize the knowledge they receive, and effective and timely communication form the basis for the organization's operations. When these key areas work together seamlessly, the organization can perform well and also produce better”*.

EMBA-courses are a rather recent phenomenon in Finnish organizational life. Currently most universities have their own further education departments and these departments provide, among other courses, also EMBA-courses. This study concentrates only on the EMBA-courses when considering university training programs in order to keep the focus of the study (concentrating on leadership education in Finland) clear.

Some universities arrange EMBA-courses so that each year a certain group of persons enter the EMBA-course, and they pass the seminars etc. together as a group. A good example of this is case U: *“Here EMBA-courses have been arranged so that the same group has gone through the seminars at the same time. The group has started together, studied together, and ended together. We believe in group learning.”* (Case U).

Some universities arrange EMBA-courses on a modular basis so that the students can choose what modules from the university's course supply they wish to participate in. A good example of this is case S: *“The students have different needs and we can meet these needs through the modular structure of our program. Our program is by no means a 'pipe' program”*. (Case S).

Many universities arrange EMBA-courses somewhere between the above described two extremes: 1) Group learning model or 2) modular structure model. The modular structure of EMBA-courses was used in four universities and the group learning model was used in two universities. In one university the way the university is arranging EMBA courses is about to change: *“We have a modular structure in the EMBA-course so that students can enter when they will. However, our goal is to gain accreditation status to our program and the organization that grants the accreditation status has strict rules so that each group should start at the same time and have a certain amount of training. This situation is slightly conflicting.”* (Case Y).

On their websites, educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses write almost similar texts of their operations. Most of the educational institutes that

arrange EMBA-courses claim that their EMBA-courses *“are based on the latest research data”* (Cases S, U, V and Y). Some educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses claim on their websites that their EMBA-courses are *“flexible”* (Cases V and X). Other educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses say on their websites that their EMBA-courses are *“suitable for organizations and managers”* (Cases S and Y). Still, other educational institutes claim on their websites that their EMBA-courses *“bring new ideas to the participants”* (Cases X and Y). The websites of two educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are quite different of the websites from the rest educational institutes. Case T emphasizes on its websites that in their EMBA-courses *“our psychodynamic leadership course offers a pathway to improve your self-knowledge”*. Case Z writes on its websites that *“we are among the 50 best management developers in the world... We have over 15000 alumni all over the world... We have three accreditations”*.

We can conclude that leadership development in Finland started after the Second World War. There were many reasons why leadership development was established by that time. The economy was expanding, and organizations were growing. Growing organizations needed new personnel. At the same time, many men had died in the war. So, new, and more effective working methods were needed. Tayloristic management practices were brought from the USA during the war. Just after the war, the training of foremen for Finnish industry also began.

The role of employer and employee unions was significant when leadership development started after the war. The Finnish Employer’s Confederation started both the training of foremen for industry (case A) and had a central role in starting the training of Scientific Management practices, which were called rationalization in Finland (Case F). However, many of the organizations which had started to train engineers, economists and other middle managers have already vanished. However, they had a significant role in the development of leadership training in Finland. The Employer’s Confederation and labor unions also had a significant role in establishing leadership training in northern parts of Finland (Case O).

Many of the educational institutes established in the 1970s and 1980s were grounded on their founders’ special idea of leadership. The founder of case D wanted to use psychodynamic methods in leadership training, and he brought these methods from England to Finland. The founder of case M wanted to increase the innovativeness of organizations and work groups. Accordingly, he used special kinds of participative methods, which he had created to improve the process by which workers’ ideas could be better collected and used in organizations. The founder of case P had invented ways to improve the productivity of organizations, and he wanted to start the change process from the highest management and proceed downward in the organization.

In the 1990s, the same trend of using the special knowledge of the founders of educational institutes continued. The founder of case J invented new ways of teaching ethics to leaders and managers. The founder of case K had earlier worked in Nokia, and he wanted to teach the lessons learned in the

Nokia success story to other organizations. The founder of case I was a media person, and he could use his fame successfully in organizations where he trained leaders and managers.

The latest institutes for leadership training have been established around 2010. These educational institutes mainly use coaching methods and try to promote self-organization principles in their training. This means that there is a gradual change taking place in the leadership training field. This change is away from the hierarchical leadership views to shared leadership and self-organization principles and from the traditional classroom training to more face-to-face discussions between the participant manager and the coach.

Although most of the leadership theories and ideas come from the USA, the leadership ideas used in Finland have been adopted to Finnish conditions. The best example of this is case N, which has used the ideas of transformational leadership in its leadership training. However, the ideas of transformational leadership are not used as such in the training of case N. The founder of case N published his dissertation of transformational leadership, in which he had adapted this leadership method to Finland and called this method Deep Lead.

4.2 Case comparison: Differences and similarities between both leadership and leadership development discourses used in Finnish educational institutes

In this chapter, we will compare the cases in order to find similarities and differences between those leadership and leadership development discourses which are used in different educational institutes. We will start by comparing discourses used in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses (cases A-R). These educational institutes mainly arrange management and leadership training for supervisors and first line managers, as well as to middle management. It is supposed that these educational institutes are different from those educational institutes that arrange EMBA courses, because educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses mostly train top management or persons who will work in top management positions in the future. It is also supposed that those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are quite similar to each other, because the training needs of persons working in top management are quite similar. The EMBA-course programs must address the business in a holistic way, while the programs of the courses for supervisors and middle managers have to deal with such issues that concern middle managers or first line managers.

4.2.1 Leadership discourses and leadership development discourses used in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses

First, the discourses of leadership and leadership development in different educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses were compared. The comparisons were done on the basis of the content analysis and also on the basis of theoretical considerations presented in the summary of leadership discourses (chapter 2.1.5.) and in the summary of management and leadership development (chapter 2.2.9.). The classification was performed so that it considered the whole data (interviews, records and internet data) available from each case (educational institute). The results of this classification are shown in Table 9.

Deve- lop- ment dis- cour- se	Contextual		M, O,	B, C
	Learning		K, R	D, G, J
	Traditional	A, F, I, L, P	H, N, Q	E
		Traditional leadership discourse	"New leadership" discourse	Contextual leadership discourse
		Leadership discourse		

TABLE 9 Leadership discourses and leadership development discourses used in educational institutes.

First, Table 9 shows that the content analysis of research data (interviews, records and internet data) fits rather well to the theoretical considerations presented in the theoretical part of the study. Secondly, Table 9 shows that the relationship between the leadership discourses and leadership development discourse is rather strong. Those educational institutes that have adopted traditional leadership discourse are more prone to also use traditional classroom methods than those educational institutes that have adopted contextual leadership discourse. At the same time, those educational institutes that use contextual leadership

discourse are more prone to also use learning oriented or contextual leadership development methods in their management and leadership development.

Some cases, which are at the opposite ends of the diagonal in Table 9, can easily be compared along the before mentioned lines. Cases A and F use traditional classroom methods in their management and leadership development and at the same time they have adopted rather conservative leadership views. On the contrary, cases B and C use coaching methods in their leadership development and they have adopted contextual leadership views. Case E is an exception to this rule. In case E, the interviewed person talked about shared leadership. However, this educational institute has such limited resources that they have not been able to develop educational methods that would emphasize learning orientation.

In order to further compare the cases, we have to form small groups of the cases according to Table 9. The first group of cases in the model is formed of cases A, F, I, L and P. This group can be divided further into two subgroups according to their operations. The first of these subgroups is formed of cases A, F and L and the second subgroup is formed of cases I and P.

Cases A, F and L are the oldest educational institutes participating in this research. So, this subgroup is formed to some extent on the basis of tradition. However, the near positioned case H, which gives mainly leadership diploma training, and the fact that cases A and F also give leadership diploma training, means that the group is also formed of those educational institutes that give leadership diploma courses. The traditionality of the group is, however, strengthened by the fact that case N is also near this group. Case N gives traditional leadership courses, just like cases A and F. It is noteworthy that in the leadership diploma training and in traditional leadership development, traditional classroom training methods, such as lectures, groupworks and discussions in the classroom, are generally used. So, this subgroup is formed of traditional leadership institutes that give traditional classroom training and also arrange leadership diploma training.

The second subgroup of the first group (cases A, F, I, L and P) is formed of cases I and P. Cases I and P are using change management methods that start from the highest management and which later includes all members of the organization. These methods are in case I always the same and in case P the methods follow the wishes of the top management of the customer organization. However, neither of these case institutes (cases I and P) is using change management methods which would be linked to organizational development (OD), organization transformation (OT), action learning or cultural change methods. These educational institutes that belong to this subgroup do not consider that the participation of employees of their client organization would be important, and the methods which these educational institutes use in their work are rather managerial of their nature. The change management methods, which these educational institutes use, emphasize the role of top management.

In the other end of the diagonal, there are cases B and C which mainly use coaching in their training. Near to these two cases are first M and O, which use

simulations in their leadership education. Near to the cases B and C are also cases D, G, J. These cases could be called idealistic in the sense that in all these institutes the idealistic humanistic idea of leadership is held in high value. Because all of these cases (cases B, C, D, G, J, M and O) are in the other end of the diagonal of Table 9 than cases A, F and L, these two groups of cases must somehow be vastly different from each other. The methods of these two groups differ so that cases A, F and L use mostly traditional classroom training methods while cases B, C and G use coaching methods, and cases M and O use simulations in leadership training. So, one could conclude that the groups would be different from each other on the axis which is formed along the 'traditional-new methods' -continuum. However, there are other factors than the training methods that have an impact on the difference between these two groups. Cases A, F and L mostly use rather traditional leadership discourses in their leadership training, but cases B, C and G are using rather new coaching views in the leadership training, and cases D and J are using idealized leadership views in their leadership training. So, the difference between these two groups could also be seen to be based on the continuum of traditional - new leadership discourses.

Cases K and R are located in the middle of the table, and these two cases can be seen as a group of their own. These two cases have, in fact, not very much in common. Case K has created its own view of leadership, which is called intelligent leadership. Case R is an educational institute that is part of a large university. Case R mainly uses either lectures or guidance in its leadership education and humanistic values are highly appreciated in case R.

Case K has some similarity with case M, which has also created its own leadership views. In case M, this leadership view is called a participative leadership model. The theoretical innovativeness of these two institutes (cases K and M) is also noteworthy because the theories that they have created can also be considered to be somehow idealistic. The idealism of the leadership views of cases K and M connects these cases to the cases D, J and R, which use idealized views of leadership in their leadership training. The theoretical views of leadership that cases K and M have created are also rather new and this connects these cases, to cases B, C and G, which use rather new leadership views.

We can conclude that the educational institutes can be divided into two groups. On the one hand, there are a group of educational institutes which use traditional leadership discourse and traditional leadership development methods in their leadership education. On the other hand, there are a group of educational institutes which use rather new leadership discourses and also use rather new leadership development methods in their leadership development.

It is not surprising that the best line of difference between the two extreme groups in Table 9 are formed, on the one hand, on the diagonal axis of 'traditional - new' leadership discourses and, on the other hand, on the 'traditional - new' leadership development methods. So, we can conclude that those educational institutes that have adopted traditional leadership views are also using traditional leadership development methods and those educational institutes

that have adopted new leadership views also use new leadership development methods.

4.2.2 Leadership discourses and leadership development discourses used in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses

It was not possible to compare the views of leadership and leadership development held in those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses with the same model as other educational institutes, because the leadership views adopted in these institutes differed so much from the rest of educational institutes. One can understand that the difference of leadership discourses in these two groups of educational institutes can be different because the target groups of the educational institutes are so different.

Those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are similar to each other in many ways. First of all, the EMBA-courses are long courses where there are several modules that are arranged according to the functional themes of organizational knowledge. The training days of EMBA-courses take place in classes and, in some educational institutes, the participants can choose what themes and what seminars they want to have. In spite of this, there are some differences between these educational institutes. Some educational institutes require that students should participate in all the themes that the educational institute arrange in their EMBA-course at the same time as a group. Some other educational institutes do not require this, and they tend to give students more freedom in selecting what courses they will attend.

In most educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses, the themes of the whole program cover business management themes rather extensively. However, in some EMBA-courses the themes are mainly concentrated on leadership, while in some other EMBA-courses the themes of the program are mainly concentrated on business management areas.

The above described differences were used as guiding principles when it was created a model through which it was tried to compare educational institutes that provide EMBA-courses (Table 10).

E m p h a s i s o n	Leadership	T, V	U
	Business management	S, Y, Z	X
		Modular	Unified

The structure of the program

TABLE 10 Leadership discourse and the structure of the program in educational institutes that arrange EMBA courses.

Cases T and V are mainly concentrating on leadership in their EMBA-courses. Cases T and V also use a modular structure in their EMBA-courses. Cases T and V provide a holistic view of leadership to the participants of their EMBA-courses. The content of the EMBA-courses of these cases consists of the following themes:

1) *Knowledge and skills*, 2) *me as a leader*, 3) *networking skills* and 4) *developing and changing organization*. (Case T).

1) *Business management*, 2) *change management*, 3) *human resource development*, 4) *sales and marketing* and 5) *digital management*. (Case V)

From the above citations, it can be seen that the EMBA-courses in cases T and V are not solely based on leadership training and that these programs also have other business management themes, but that these programs, however, mainly concentrate on leadership. The interviewed persons told that the main idea behind the EMBA-course is to teach participants "*how to get people involved in work, organization and business*" (case T) and "*to strengthen the leadership identity of participants*" (case V).

Case U also emphasizes leadership themes in its EMBA-program, but, at the same time, in case U it is strongly believed in the power of the whole group of participants learning together: "*In our programs participants start together, study and learn together and end the course together*" (case U). The themes of the EMBA-course in case U are as follows:

1) *Developing leadership and strategy*, 2) *innovation management and change management*, 3) *knowledge management*, 4) *sales and marketing management* and 5) *developing your own leadership skills*. (Case U).

The structure of the EMBA-course of case X is also unified. Participants of the EMBA-course are supposed to participate in each module at the same time, but case X has not arranged its EMBA-course in unitary structure voluntarily. So, the structure of case X is not unified because in the institution, it would be supposed that people learn better when they study together. The unified structure of case X is caused by the accreditation process, which case X has gone through. The themes of the EMBA-course in case X are as follows:

1) Strategic management, 2) leadership, 3) economics, 4) investment, 5) financing, 6) corporate governance, 7) sales and marketing management, 8) developing business management.

Leadership in case X is mostly seen as safety management and the purpose of the EMBA-course in case X is seen to “give practical help to business managers”.

The position of case Y in Table 10 is complicated. The interviewed person from this educational institute said that “we have a modular program so that the participant can perform one module at a time. This is in conflict with our aim to be accredited because the accreditation office has strict rules that the same group should go through the whole program from the beginning to the end”. The same dilemma has been solved in case Z, where the program has been accredited, so that there are so many participants in the programs that the educational institute can arrange several modules where the students can register if they want to. This gives the possibility to participants to choose which modules they want to participate in.

In case S, the structure of the EMBA-program is modular and there are no leadership modules as such. The interviewed person in case S said that “we do not teach leadership in particular, but in the knowledge management program we kind of deal with leadership issues”. In cases Y and Z there is a special module of leadership which the participants can elect if they want.

The themes of the EMBA-courses in cases S, Y and X are as follows:

We have general studies, thematic studies and personal studies. The only general module is strategic management-course. There are three themes: 1) knowledge management, 2) procurement management and innovation management. (Case S).

The general themes are: 1) Leadership, 2) strategic management, 3) finance, 4) managing internationalizing firms. There are several specialized themes depending on what EMBA-course has been chosen. (Case Y).

1) Corporate finance, 2) corporate social responsibility, 3) economics, 4) financial accounting and analysis of financial statements, 5) human resource management, 6) management accounting and control, 7) management communication, 8) marketing management, 9) strategic management, 10) operations management, 11) personal and organizational leadership. (Case Z).

All in all, leadership is not taught exclusively in any EMBA-course. Leadership is mainly dealt together with other management themes in most EMBA-courses. In some EMBA-courses, there is a special leadership module which the participants can choose if they want. Critically thinking, it can be concluded that in

EMBA-courses it is assumed that leadership issues will be dealt as a byproduct of letting participants solve more concrete managerial issues.

4.3 Leadership discourses used in Finnish educational institutes

The first research question was *“what kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?”*

Because the leadership institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses and the universities that arrange EMBA-courses are so different in their operations, we will divide the analysis into two parts. First, we will address the question of what kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes, which do not arrange EMBA-courses, and then we will turn to the question of what kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses.

4.3.1 Leadership discourses used in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses

The classification of leadership discourses of those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are presented in Table 11. The Table consists of two axes. The first dimension consists of leadership discourses and the second dimension consists of the guiding principles behind leadership thinking. The classes of the first dimension are based both on the results of the content analysis of interviews (see appendix II) and the theoretical considerations presented in the theoretical framework of this research (chapter 2.1.). Results of the content analysis fit well with the theoretical considerations. The classification was also helped by counting the number of concepts related to leadership which each interviewed person used in the interview (Appendix III). The second dimension in the picture and the classes used in it, are based on the results of content analysis of interview data. Content analysis showed that some educational institutes are mainly adopting a particular leadership theory in their training, while some others use some kind of idealized views of leadership in their training. However, most of the educational institutes claim that they are client centered. This means that these educational institutes use any leadership views in their leadership education, which the client organization claims to use. So, most of the educational institutes are trying to support the leadership views adopted in their client organizations. This means that they cannot present their own management view too strongly, which, at the same time, prevents them from developing their own leadership view. At the same time, this means that educational institutes which have adopted these kinds of views on leadership should be very flexible in order to be able to use multiple leadership approaches skillfully in their training.

Gui- ding prin- ciple	Ideals		K, R	D, J
	Client's views	F, I, L, P	H, O, Q	B, C, E, G
	Theory	A	M, N	

Traditional leadership discourse "New leadership" discourse Contextual leadership discourse

Leadership discourse

TABLE 11 Leadership discourses used in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses

At first there was some difficulty in finding the specific leadership discourse that educational institutes are using in their training because many persons who were interviewed said that: *"We use all leadership theories in a certain way."* (For example, cases Q and R). However, on closer inspection of the whole text which was related to the leadership and also the words used to describe leadership, it was possible to find the main leadership discourse that each leadership institution was using in their work (see appendix II and III). In addition, the records collected from the educational institutes and from their websites supported the classification that is presented in Table 11.

The data shows that the most often used leadership discourse in educational institutes is justified by arguing that it is used in the client organization. This means that educational institutes have to be able to master a combination of leadership discourses or several leadership discourses in their operations. Critically thinking, one could ask if there is any leadership theory behind leadership training if the educational institutes are using several leadership theories and applying each of them whenever it is convenient for the institute? Because leadership is such a multifaceted and complicated concept one can expect that at least educational institutes that train leadership should know what they mean by leadership.

The single most often used group of leadership discourses belong to the cluster of 'new leadership' theories, which includes a combination of psychological and social psychological interaction theories and those leadership theo-

ries that were classified as ‘new leadership’ theories, for example, transformational leadership and authentic leadership:

Leadership is seen to be goal oriented interaction between the leader and subordinates... Successful leadership is based on trust, enthusiasm, learning and appreciation, so that too much control and passivity cannot disturb the cooperation". (Case N).

Leadership is energy... We help managers to focus this energy on the right things, so that the manager can, through the interaction process, get others to be more energized". (Case H).

Our view is intricately linked to the work process... In the process management, it is important to consider how people are working and how to get people to cooperate in a right way... The aim is to get the team to mature so that team members are more capable of taking responsibility for leadership themselves". (Case M).

When reading the comments that interviewed persons said about leadership, the comments of ‘new leadership’ theory and interaction theory seemed to be rather up to date or modern. No wonder that these leadership discourses appeal to many organizations and many managers. However, these leadership discourses are still leader-centered theories (e.g., Kelly 2014, 909) even if there is a lot of talk of interaction, cooperation and enthusiasm in these theories. So, the use of the “new leadership” theories have a side-effect of maintaining hierarchical organizational structures and leader-centered views.

From the texts of the interviewed persons, it is obvious that contextual leadership views are still in a marginal position in the leadership education. The most often used leadership theories in leadership education are ‘new leadership’ theories and other theories that emphasize interaction, for example, transformational leadership and authentic leadership. This result is the same that is found in researchers of the articles published in leadership journals (for ex. Zhu et al 2019). Accordingly, only a couple of interviewed persons spoke of contextual leadership views:

Shared leadership is self-evidently important because coaching is a process that appreciates people and emphasizes the importance of them... The goal of coaching is to help people to take more responsibility and to be able to self-manage and organize the work... Behind the coaching philosophy there are theories of solution-orientation, empowerment and building on strengths. (Case B).

The change that is going on in the working life is also visible here. We talk a lot of self-management... Self-management and shared leadership mean that responsibility is no longer only on the manager, but it is more and more on the team members... Those organizations that have grown most rapidly in the past few years have been able to use creativity and innovativeness best. (Case G).

Those persons who favored contextual leadership views also talked of shared leadership and self-management. They also talked of coaching, empowerment and solution orientation. These rather humanistic views are supported by the latest leadership research and also by positive psychology. In spite of this, the traditional leadership views have by no means lost their ground in the thinking of educational institutes:

Our leadership view is based firmly on behavioral scientific ground. This view is also something that we are known of... We use, quite explicitly, the individualistic and psychological views in leadership. We believe that our clients know their business best and what we can do is to give them possibilities to understand themselves and their own behavior. (Case L).

We have focused on human behavior... But the problem is that it is hard to get anything concrete to happen in human behavior in short courses... We want to emphasize that the foreman and manager is the representative of the employer and that the foreman and manager is responsible of operations. (Case A).

The interviewed persons in cases A and L said that they primarily use behavioral theories in their leadership training. These persons said that, in the institutes that they represent, the training is mostly based on psychology (case L) and on social psychology (case A). It is perhaps worth mentioning that those educational institutes that base their leadership views mainly in behavioral theory (cases A and L) were the only ones that had doubts about the success of the organization in the future:

We are an old-fashioned training institute and there is no need for this kind of institute in the digital world. (Case A).

The need for such services that we provide is diminishing in the future. (Case L).

The above quotations show that at least some of the educational institutes that are leaning mainly on the behavioral theories of leadership in their work have noticed that the demand for their services is diminishing. However, these organizations are not planning to renew the leadership theories behind their leadership training. Instead, they are viewing their behavioral orientation as their main strength and they are blaming the changing world around them for their misfortune.

It was relatively easy to classify cases according to the guiding principle behind the leadership views that educational institutes have adopted. Educational institutes that have adopted idealistic views of leadership stress one perspective of leadership that they consider to be the only best leadership view. Those educational institutes that are trying to fulfil the wishes of their customer organizations have to be able to use many leadership discourses in their operations.

Most educational institutes, 11 out of 18 cases, claimed that they try to support the client organizations' perspective of leadership in their leadership development:

All that we do is based on the clients' wishes and what we consider to be best for the client organization. We do not think that we would have something that could be called a more enlightened view of leadership here. Instead we have tried to build on the views that clients have... We work with the clients and we conform to the leadership views that clients have... In open courses, it is difficult to know in what kind of situations the participants are and that is why we have to talk at a more abstract level. (Case E).

We do not need to teach leadership views because the participants find the working views of leadership in the simulation process... In the simulation process, it is very often high-

lighted how important the interactions between team members and the economical questions at work are. (Case O).

It may sound fine to say that our educational institutes have not adopted any particular leadership view and, instead, that they are supporting the leadership views that the customer organization has chosen to be their own leadership view. However, this means that these educational institutes are just trying to support the ideas of the customer organizations' top management. Because the top management of the organizations is nowadays changing every 4 to 5 years, it is not possible that a special kind of leadership culture would grow in the customer organizations or, at least, that the operations of the educational institute do not support the process where this kind of leadership culture would grow. Some educational institutes that try to support the leadership views that client organizations have adopted have even gone so far in their operations that they have formulated their own methods to suit this process:

We lead and implement such change projects in the client organizations that the highest management in the client organizations want. We have crystallized the change projects in four trips. Firstly, the strategy or goal must be told in a story which gives meaning to the change, why it is important to make this change... Secondly, the story must be operationalized into action. We have created an impact-map tool that tell us what are the critical operations that must be measured... Thirdly, the operations must be changed to be the ordinary and normal way of doing things. We have created a tool that tells the managers if the things that they are doing are leading in the right direction or not... Fourth, the ways of doing things need to lead to results... We have created a tool which we call 'fire control room' where it is easy to visualize the whole change process and whether it is going in the right direction or not. (Case I).

Leadership and management are very impressive things... The first rule of the use of power is 'use it or lose it'. The company will lose its competitiveness if the managers are not managing... The companies do not need leadership training or consultation, they need solutions that create success for the company... We begin by discussions with the highest management of our customer organization... The goal is to get people to be aligned to the business goals of the company... We use integrative leadership and management models which provide managers and leaders tools with the to create success. (Case P).

Some educational institutes like cases I and P have adopted rather flexible leadership views so that they could be able to support the leadership views of the top management of the customer organization. One could ask why in such situations the operations of the educational institutes are needed in customer organizations? This question is relevant in such a situation because it is commonly supposed that organizations are led by the top management. It can be concluded that in so doing the educational institute begin to lead the organization together with the top management. This is likely to change the role of middle managers, foremen and supervisors in the organization.

Not all educational institutes leave the leadership concept undefined. Some educational institutes use some theoretical view of leadership in their leadership education, because they have imported it from the United States and/or have developed it themselves. Still others have adopted an idealized

view of some leadership model. Educational institutes that have adopted idealized views of leadership have different kinds of views of leadership:

Most leadership views are still quite managerialist. It is believed that if all work processes are functional and everything seems to be fine on paper and in the plans that managers do, and if the economical measurements are tight, then the leadership is all right. But it is forgotten that leadership begins only when people have internalized all ideas behind the plans, and this is only possible when people have been participating in the planning process... Managerialist managers have a hard time understanding the human side of enterprise. Managerialist managers can better understand the operation of machines than the ideas of human beings... We try to say that managers need not to be afraid of people... It is a good starting point that leaders appreciate people. We have also tried to say that a leader is not a hero. Leadership is something that we all create and share. All members of a group can be leaders. Leadership can be shared. (Case J).

We use group dynamical models... Another framework that we use is a systemic view. Thirdly, we have adopted a social constructionist view and we consider that language plays an important part in the construction of reality. Fourthly, we have adopted the process view. We think that it is not good to describe organizations as static structures like most people still do. In the process view it is considered that organizations are constantly changing. (Case D).

The Intelligent leadership-model that we have created is a balanced view of leadership that takes into consideration both efficiency and well-being at work, as well as continuous development... The Intelligent leadership -model is a concrete tool-box for managers. (Case K).

We are a humanistic university and behind all of our leadership thinking are humanistic values. (Case R).

A few educational institutes lean on the difference between concepts of management and leadership in their leadership views relying on leadership discourses and trying to oppose the managerial discourses (case J). Others are leaning either in research done in the field (case D) or the research done in the university which they represent (case R). Still others have created their own theory of leadership, which resembles leadership views adopted in knowledge management (case K).

4.3.2 Leadership discourses used in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses

Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses have adopted somewhat different views of leadership from the views of leadership held in those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses. First, all educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses have adopted rather similar views about leadership. This can be summarized so that they want to teach diverse and multi-functional views of leadership:

There are so many different kinds of leaders and managers that we must have a very wide and open view of leadership. But in Finnish leadership education and in Finnish culture we must emphasize the idea of shared leadership... In our EMBA-programs, there are the

behavioral theories, interactional theories, theories of corporate responsibility and shared leadership, all of them are present. (Case T).

The manager cannot know all things and fields. The question is, how can the manager be in interaction with others... We do not speak of strong leadership, but of multifaceted leadership views. (Case U).

We give many views of leadership and management to the participants who must be at such an intellectual level that they can accept that the end result is not a collection of papers but a collection of different tools and frameworks out of which some are less relevant and others are more relevant. (Case Z).

If one compares the leadership discourses adopted in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses with the leadership discourses used in educational institutes arranging EMBA-courses, one can say that the non-arranging educational institutes concentrate more on just leadership issues and not on managerial issues (such as strategic management, economics, financial management, business administration or production management). This can also be seen from the concepts that the interviewed persons used when they described the leadership views adopted in their educational institution (Appendix III and appendix IV). The ratio of using leadership concepts, such as coaching, interaction, communication, team and work group, to using the management concepts, such as strategy, business economy and result, by the interviewed person in those educational institutes that do not arrange MBA-courses was 3.4. The same ratio in those educational institutes that arrange MBA-courses was 0.9. This means that those interviewed persons who worked in educational institutes that do not arrange MBA-courses regularly use much more leadership-related words than those persons who worked in educational institutes that arrange MBA-courses. Those interviewed persons who worked in educational institutes that arrange MBA-courses use management-related concepts (strategy, finance, results) more often than leadership related concepts (coaching, interaction, communication, team and work group) when they describe the leadership practices which the educational institute that they represent has adopted.

Educational institutes that mainly train foremen and middle managers are taking the human resources view seriously, because the participants of their courses have to supervise their subordinates on a day-to-day basis in their work. In contrast, those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are supposed to emphasize strategic discourse to their participants, because the participants of EMBA-courses are supposed to either work in managerial positions or to move in them. By the strategic discourse, it is commonly meant that during the training participants will consider strategic issues such as planning and implementing strategy and considering the economic and technological issues of organizations (Table 12).

A, B, C D, E, G, I, J, K, L, M, N, R	F, H, O, P, Q		T, V	U, X, Z	S, Y
Leader- ship	Leader- ship and mana- gement	Mana- gement	Leader- ship	Leader- ship and mana- gement	Mana- gement
Educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses			Educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses		

TABLE 12 The main focus of management and leadership development in education institutes.

More than two thirds of all educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are mainly focusing on leadership issues in their training, while only almost one third of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are focusing mainly on leadership issues. About a fourth of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are focusing mainly on both leadership and management issues in their training, while a little bit more than two fifths of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are mainly concentrating on both leadership and management issues. None of the educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are focusing on management issues in their training, while almost one third of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses focuses mainly on management issues.

The difference between educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses and educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses is striking. Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are trying mainly to give an overall picture of both leadership and management to the participants of their courses, while educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses try mainly to focus on such leadership issues that are important to the customer organizations. This does not mean that leadership would be ignored in the teaching of those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses. Leadership is considered to be important in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-

courses, but leadership is not an issue that would appeal to the participants' EMBA-courses before they reach a certain level of knowledge and become aware of the importance of leadership:

Quite few people will openly admit that they have problems in understanding other people... When planning to attend an EMBA-course, it is easier to say, for example, that I want to know financial matters better. But when time passes, and they look back at their experiences in the EMBA-course, participants often say that they have learned most in the self-development seminars. (Case Z).

We can conclude that many educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses give too little attention to leadership issues in their training. Leadership is too often considered to be of minor importance, compared to those issues that handle management issues such as strategy and economy. For example, one interviewed person said that:

We do not have very much leadership training, but there is, however, a lot of leadership in our knowledge management courses, because one can think that knowledge management consists mostly of leadership issues. (Case S).

When the situation in some educational institutes is such, it can be thought that many persons who participate in EMBA-courses will not get a clear picture of leadership from the EMBA-courses. It may even be so that the participants of EMBA-courses that are working or will later-on be working in top management will not consider leadership issues to be as important as issues related to strategy or business economy?

It can be concluded that leadership issues have a central position, especially in the training of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses, while leadership has a less central position in the training of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses. In spite of this, leadership issues have a central position among strategy and business economics in few EMBA-courses.

4.4 Management and leadership development discourses used in Finnish educational institutes

In this chapter, we will address the second research question, "what kind of management and leadership development discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?"

First, we will consider the orientation of educational institutes to the leadership training. Then we will consider the targets of management and leadership development in educational institutes. Later we will consider the means of management and leadership development in educational institutes and, finally, the educational effectiveness of management and leadership development in educational institutes. In this chapter, it is possible to present the management and leadership development discourses used in educational institutions without performing a distinction between educational institutes that arrange EMBA-

courses and educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses, because the management and leadership development methods in these educational institutes are similar enough.

When considering the orientation of educational institutes to the leadership training, we asked the persons we interviewed the following question: "What is most important in the leadership training in the institution that you represent?" The following options were also given to the persons who were interviewed:

1. Efficiency
2. Economy
3. Technology
4. Environment
5. Humanism

About half of the interviewed persons who represented educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses said that the most important issue in leadership education in their institute is humanism. However, the humanistic orientation in these institutes were not the only issue that they had adopted:

We have mainly adopted humanistic values, but we try to find a balanced combination between humanistic, economic and technological values. (Case C).

Our thinking has been mostly influenced by philosophy, psychology and social sciences. Our starting point is not efficiency, but we believe that leadership in which the understanding of people is in the foremost position will lead to effectiveness. (Case D).

We have adopted humanistic orientation because we believe that specialists that want to do this kind of work need to adopt some kind of helping orientation in the work that they are doing. (Case M).

We are a humanistic university and we have also adopted humanistic orientation to our work. (Case R).

Most educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses (6 institutes out of 7) said that they have adopted such issues as "efficiency, economy, technology, environment and humanism" in their leadership development. It is noteworthy that only those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses said that they use environmental orientation in their leadership education and that all the educational institutes that give EMBA-courses said that environmental-issues are included in their leadership education.

Quite many of the interviewed persons of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses (8 institutes) said that they use all of the named issues in their work. For example, the interviewed CEO of case Q said that "we use all of those issues that you have mentioned". One could wonder if this kind of orientation to the leadership development might, in the long run, lead to confusion. This kind of orientation to the leadership development might lead to nihilistic, opportunistic or relativistic orientation to the leadership development. Nihilistic orientation to the leadership development work might lead to aliena-

tion or estrangement. Opportunistic orientation to the leadership development work might mean that persons performing the development would consider only their own advantage, such as promotions and gaining better salary levels. Relativistic orientation to the leadership development might mean that persons performing the leadership development could adopt an “anything goes” mentality towards leadership development.

Besides the above analyzed question, the orientation to the leadership development was asked by some other questions too and the views that educational institutes have adopted on leadership development were further studied by classifying the answers that the interviewed persons gave to the orientation to development of the educational institute and to the target of development in it. Both the orientation to education and the target of the development were divided in three classes on the basis of the answers that the interviewed persons gave in the interviews. (See also appendix V). Those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses were omitted from this classification because the classification did not make any variance in them. This means that all educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses orientate in a similar way to leadership education and have remarkably similar targets of the management and leadership development.

T d a r g e t o f d e v e l o p m e n t	Workplace development	I, P		
	Relationships development	A, N	D, G, J, K, R	B, C, M, O
	Development of Individual manager	E, F, H, L, Q		
		Traditional orientation	Learning- oriented	Contextually oriented

Orientation in development

TABLE 13 Orientation in development and target of development in leadership institutes

Both in the theoretical part of the study and in analyzing the results of interviews, the learning strategies used in management and leadership development were classified as follows: 1) traditional, classroom-centered, orientation, 2) learning oriented development and 3) contextually oriented development.

About half of the educational institutes (9 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses use traditional learning methods. This means that these educational institutes arrange leadership training in classrooms where they mainly try to teach leadership to individual participants:

We used to have seminars that lasted weeks in order to teach leadership... Now we have some long training sessions, but these are typically organized in half-day seminars. This means that we have only half a day to train each subject matter and then we have some possibility to discuss the new materials between the courses through e-learning systems and after 3 to 4 weeks we have another module... Sequencing attaches the learning materials to work because between the modules it is possible to try out the new learned materials in the workplace... In this hybrid-world it is more and more usual that only part of the training happens face-to-face because part of the training is given through videos that the participants are supposed to watch in their spare time... Our aim is to excite enthusiasm among participants so that they would like to learn more about leadership. (Case E).

We can offer many different types of leadership training to our clients that last from half a day to more than a year... Our diploma training sessions last about one year... There are face-to-face seminars, e-learning sessions and self-learning materials in them... Some persons learn better just listening to a lecture, but in such an environment where we are now it is most common to give assignments to the participants. Participants appreciate discussions in class and practical exercises more than anything else. (Case F).

Leadership diploma training lasts about 1 to 1.5 years. During that time, we try to force the participants in a positive way to look at the mirror and consider 'how could I be a better leader in the future'. At the same time, much is learned from the peer-group, because in the same training there may be 15 to 20 persons from the same branch who have similar problems at work... Our facilitators try to give practical advice to the participants... In the leadership diploma training, there is a final assignment that is related to the participants' own work and which we follow quite closely so that we can be sure that the suggestions done in the assignment are, in fact, introduced at work. (Case H).

The above cited short quotations reveal the conflict between learning objectives and the duration of the training in traditional leadership education. Recently the time pressure has increased, and the short management and leadership courses have been made even shorter. This has forced educational institutes to transfer part of the training to videos and to e-learning methods. It seems that traditional learning methods are at their best in long leadership diploma training courses, where it is possible to combine traditional learning methods with the peer-group support and with the applying of the new subject in practice.

A little more than one quarter of all educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses (5 institutes) were classified as learning-oriented institutes, according to their learning orientation. This means that in these educational institutes the practicing of newly learned skills inside the workplace are emphasized:

When the working life has changed, people have noticed that those skills that used to be relevant some 10 years ago are no longer valid... We give participants new skills so that they might be successful in the future... We teach metacognitive skills and also skills in emotional intelligence. This means that we first try to increase the level of conscientiousness to these phenomena and then we give participants training in skills. Finally, the par-

ticipants get a chance to experiment these skills before they are encouraged to use them in practice. (Case G).

Our programs are tailored and when we start the teaching, we ask the participants what are the themes that they want to discuss. Even if we have beforehand discussed with HR-management the themes, we also need to discuss themes with the participants so that the participants take the responsibility on themselves... Sometimes the person who has ordered the training has had a wrong picture of the situation and the problem he/she has given is not a problem at all, but, instead, there exists other problems... We start the training from the participants' strengths and move slowly onto more delicate issues. We challenge the participants to move away from their comfort zone. (Case J).

Training needs to be well tailored. We aim to give individually tailored coaching precisely for the needs of each individual. (Case K).

Those educational institutes that in the interview emphasized the need to tailor each training situation and to involve participants to plan training sessions, were classified as learning oriented educational institutes. These educational institutes wanted to ensure that participants of their courses will rehearse and practice in their work the knowledge and skills that has been taught during the course. Of course, the line between traditional, training oriented, and learning oriented learning methods is thin, and, in some cases, also blurred. However, those educational institutes that were classified to emphasize learning orientation in their teaching are constantly trying to focus each training situation on the practical problems that participants face in their work situations and these education institutes also emphasized the need to apply the new knowledge to the work.

Those educational institutes that mainly used simulation techniques or coaching methods (4 institutes out of 18 institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses) were classified as institutes that have adopted contextual orientation in their management and leadership development. This classification was done, because in coaching, the interaction between a teacher and participants is focused on the participants' work situation. All of the themes and questions arise from the work situation of the participants and the experiences of the participants are dealt in the coaching process. This classification was done whilst also knowing that it is not the same thing to learn from experiences collected in simulations than learning at the actual workplace. In spite of this fact, those two institutes that use simulation methods in their training were classified as contextual -orientated educational institutes because the learning is based on the experiences that the participants have gained during the simulated situations. The simulated environments produce experiences which may be close to the actual situations in the workplace. However, the simulated experiences are not the same as experiences in the workplace. This means that there are, in fact, no educational institutes that would do management and leadership development in the workplace of the participants so that both members of the workplace and the work situation of the participants would be the same as in the real work situations. So, critically thinking, it can be concluded that no educational insti-

tute offers leadership learning in real working life situations or applies situated learning methods in leadership education.

After reading the interview texts several times, it came to note that it was possible to distinguish a difference between 1) those educational institutes that focus mainly on the training of individuals from 2) those educational institutes that focus mainly on teaching relationships between persons and, finally, also from 3) those educational institutes that mainly focus on the development of the whole workplace.

The main target of leadership education in most educational institutes is to develop relationships between people in organizations (11 institutes out of 18 educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses):

In coaching, it is most important to develop human relations and interaction skills, because the whole idea of coaching is built on the view that the person doing the coaching can build a connection to other people. (Case B).

We believe that developing human relations and interaction skills increases a person's ability to understand themselves and others and also increases leadership skills. (Case C).

In many of those educational institutes which mainly focus on training relationships through training communication and human relations skills, it is also focused on the development of individual identity and growth as a person:

We believe that if we can have an impact on people's inner-reality, we can build a good organization and good society... We have adopted a holistic and systemic view which means that in conflict situations, instead of focusing our attention on persons who are considered to be difficult, we would focus on human relations in the workplace. (Case D).

In organizations, where there are a lot of conflicts, it is important to get all communication channels open so that persons' resources are released to productive work behavior. (Case N).

About one fourth of the educational institutes (5 institutes of 18 educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses) were classified to the group where the main target of leadership development is to develop individual participants:

Our development programs are individually-oriented... Even when we are trying to change the organizational culture, we believe that we should support individual managers, so that they might be able to change the culture. (Case L).

The target of two educational institutes (out of 18 educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses) is mainly to develop an organization or a workplace as a whole. These educational institutes start from the top management and try to implement the ideas that the top management have in the whole organization:

I prefer to start with the management group. When we discuss with the management group, we get to know what kind of changes are needed. Our way of changing the organization is co-creation in a process with the customer organization. It means that we both train and consult the members of our customer organization... Our change process and our training is not a separately produced event or seminar. We do it within the frame-

work of the business. We design our change process with the highest management... We change the mindsets of people, so that they would learn to be better managers. (Case P).

Table 14 shows the classification of educational institutes according to the methods used in management and leadership development and also the basic motive of management and leadership development.

M e t h o d s	Simulations		M, O	
	Guiding methods		B, C, D, G, L, R	
	Several training methods	A	E, F, H, I, K, N, P, S, V, X, Y, Z	J, Q, T, U

Economical benefit of educational institution **Effectiveness in customer organizations** **Social impact**

Basic motive of education

TABLE 14 The development methods and the basic motive of leadership development in educational institutes

From the interviews, it became clear that most educational institutes use many conventional methods in their leadership training. This means that in typical leadership training, there are lectures, groupworks, discussions in the class, exercises, 360-degree evaluations, books and e-learning. In a typical educational institution, the use of e-learning methods is increasing, but there are some exceptions:

In our e-learning environment you can see the programs, course materials, project works and the comments of coaches to these project works. The participants can also tell us what they expect from the module of the course and they can chat with each other there. (Case A).

We have a lot of on-line learning... and web-based learning and mobile-learning... But I prefer the face-to-face training situations. (Case R).

We have tested e-learning, but the participants do not like it. They appreciate the possibility to meet each other face-to-face in 2-day sessions. (Case V).

The interviews show that many educational institutes may have e-learning systems, but that they do not use e-learning systems to deliver their courses. Ra-

ther, they use e-learning to improve the quality of their face-to-face courses between the seminar days. It seems that e-learning systems are a good addition to seminars, but e-learning does not substitute face-to-face seminars.

Some educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses said that they use all other conventional teaching methods except coaching and mentoring in their leadership development:

We do not use coaching or mentoring in our EMBA-courses... Coaching would need a large amount of resources and, even then, it would be group coaching. I do not believe in coaching. (Case X).

The use of mentoring and coaching would need extra resources. One should get even closer to the participants than now. It might be the next step of EMBA-programs. (Case Y).

Even though most educational institutes coach their participants when they are doing their final assignments, most educational institutes are not using coaching and mentoring in their teaching in a large scale. However, there are some educational institutes that have begun to use coaching as the main learning method in their courses.

Almost one fourth of all educational institutes use mainly coaching, mentoring or other kinds of guiding methods in their leadership training:

We have a lot of coaching and coaching in peer groups... Our main goal is to get participants to discuss in class and to bring their own experiences to the dialogue... Actually, we do not sell courses but a new way of thinking. (Case B).

Learning from experiences is vital... We try to offer new concepts that structure what has been taught... Learning from experience is better than conventional lecture-type teaching because it is more prominent, and participants learn more in it. (Case D).

Cases are good because we always try to get the teaching to be as practical as possible and that the teaching would resemble the real problems that the client organizations have. (Case G).

The teacher must understand what to do in class and what to do with the individual participant. The group situations are better suited to increase common understanding. Those issues that require understanding the particular situation of some individual require coaching. The use of coaching is increasing because the demand of the class training is diminishing. This happens because the customers do not have time for a traditional type of class training. (Case L).

The interviewed persons told how important it is to perform the leadership development so that there will be a close resemblance between the teaching materials and the reality in the participants' workplace. For example, cases, learning from experience and coaching are used in order to perform the management and leadership development in as reality-simulating ways as possible in the classroom. However, it seems that there will always be some sort of gap between the real life -work situations of participants and the classroom teaching. One way of closing this gap is to use simulations.

Two educational institutes have changed their leadership education so that they mainly use simulations in management and leadership development. One of these educational institutes has had to invest heavily in order to create

suitable simulation surroundings for the courses and the other educational institute has had to learn new methods of leadership training:

We have our simulation environments (industrial organization, electronic factory and leadership laboratory) ... The participants learn in these simulated environments better than in conventional teaching environments because they will learn from their own experience... The problem with our simulation environment is that the training is difficult to organize, or it is impossible to organize in places that are far away from the simulation factory. (Case O).

In our Lean-team we use simulations very much... The strength of these simulations is that they are close to the every-day operations of the company and that is why the participants find it fascinating... Simulations are a good method to get participants actively involved. (Case M).

The educational effectiveness of leadership development was asked in the interview by questioning the basic motive behind leadership training. This was one of the questions that was not just an open-ended question. When the interviewed person had answered the open-ended question, the interviewer gave some options for the interviewed person. These options were asked through the following question: "What of the following is the basic motive of leadership education in your educational institute?"

1. The economic gain of the educational institute.
2. Effectiveness of training in customer organization.
3. Social impact".

A large majority of the interviewees said that the major motive behind the management and leadership education is the training effectiveness in the customer organization. 20 respondents evaluated that the effectiveness in the customer organization is the basic motive behind the leadership education that their institution is giving:

We follow the goals that our customer organization has set... This means that the effectiveness in the customer organization is our main goal. Of course, we have, before the training, agreed together with our clients the goals of the training... Then we try to think if we can measure these goals. For example, how many per cents will the sales be increasing etc. After the training we will evaluate the effectiveness of the training... Our aim is that the same customer organization will also be our client later. We have been able to form permanent customer relations in this way. (Case H).

Our only goal is to generate customer value. We have given such names as 'impact-map' and 'behavioral change transparency' to the tools that we use, and this proves that we aim to generate customer value in all our operations. (Case I).

Most interviewees wanted to emphasize that the leadership education which the educational institute which they represented are giving only such leadership training which brings great impacts to the participants and especially to their customer organizations:

We have carried out training effectiveness studies, and the results have shown that we have been successful in creating training effectiveness... There needs to be changes in the

behavior of the individuals if one wants to have training effectiveness at the organizational level. All participants must take part in these development processes. When the change happens, the managers of our client organization can also see them happening, and the changes can also be seen in the results of the customer organization... However, if some participant in our courses is persistently resisting the change, we cannot change his or her behavior through our training. (Case N).

Our client organizations can benefit, for example, so that the participants of our courses do not leave the company. Also, our customer organization can implement those growth projects that some participants of the course have proposed. These are the direct and indirect consequences of training. Secondly, the individual participant will also gain... In a research that was published in the Financial Times, the salaries of the participants of our EMBA-courses had increased by about 40 % after the course. (Case Z).

Today there is a great deal of discussion about the impacts of the EMBA-courses... The impacts are huge. We ordered, together with the entrepreneurs of our district, a research of the training effectiveness of our EMBA-courses. One of the results of the research was that in two years-time, the EMBA-course had created 81 new workplaces in this region. (Case X).

Most of the interviewed persons working in educational institutes thought that the training effectiveness of their courses in customer organizations was the main motive behind the institute's leadership education. At the same time, they claimed that their educational institute had taken the training effectiveness issue seriously. Maybe there is a connection between these two issues? At least the educational institutes can use the results of the studies on training effectiveness in marketing their courses and in acquiring new participants for the leadership courses. However, because leadership is such an abstract and multifaceted concept, it is not certain what is developed in these 'leadership' courses. So, the fact that educational institutes claim that their courses produce training effectiveness and have an impact on the customer organizations is prone to blur even further the complicated situation around management and leadership development. If the educational institutes do not know what they are developing, and if the educational institutes at the same time claim that their development gives good results to the customer organizations, the educational institutes are perhaps only further mystifying the situation around management and leadership development. It is possible that the good results that educational institutes are referring to in the training effectiveness studies are at least partly due to a placebo-effect. It may also be that leadership training is some sort of shamanistic ritual in modern times that help leaders and the personnel of organizations to believe that what is done in organizations is based on true facts and that these measures lead the organization to the right way. Finally, it is true that at least the results of training effectiveness studies help persons who carry out leadership training to increase their career paths and also their motivation in their work.

The majority of interviewees said that the main motive behind leadership training is training effectiveness in customer organizations. In saying so, some persons said that social impact is also a rather important goal to the educational institute that they represent (Cases C, G and R). The social impact was consid-

ered to be a by-product, because the better organizations are led, the greater their impact on the society. However, only four representatives of educational institutes said that the main motive behind leadership training in their institution is the social impact:

Our primary motivation is that the companies would do good for this society and the whole world... I believe that ethical conduct is also good business... If organizations' ethical value-base is right, then the employees are also motivated... Our message is that the company is not effective if its employees get stressed or burnt out. It is the people who make the difference. (Case J).

We want to build a better society. (Case U).

One interviewee boldly and honestly said that the main motive behind the leadership training in their institution is the economic benefit of the educational institution:

We are part of a listed company. We must make a profit. This is certainly not a welfare organization. The driving force behind our operations is that we want to develop leadership and working life in Finland and, at the same time, have effectiveness in customer organizations. (Case A).

Even though this person said that the main goal of the listed organization is to make money for the educational institution, he did not mention that this would be the only motive behind leadership education. On the contrary, this person said that they want to improve the level of leadership and well-being at work in Finland. So, it seems that this person was realizing that persons working in this educational institute had to make compromises between two conflicting demands in their work. On one hand, there was the urge to improve the level of leadership in Finland and especially in customer organizations and, on the other hand, there was the need to get money to the educational institute through giving leadership courses.

This means that although interviewees told, what was the main goal of the leadership development, there are also other things that they must take into serious consideration. This means that the persons working in educational institutes are constantly torn pulled in different directions. It seems that they feel that the most important goal, which they must reach, is the training effectiveness. However, at the same time they need to be sure that the social impact of the leadership development is positive, and that the leadership development is carried out in such a way that there will be enough money for the educational institute.

It can be concluded that the views of leadership development are rather diverse, but there are also some regularities in these assumptions. First of all, educational institutes have adopted several views behind leadership development. This means that the educational institutes have tried to adopt as wide views of leadership development as possible so that they would not miss any customers. The same trend is also seen in the goals of management and leadership development. Most of the educational institutes that took part in this research said that the main goal of the management and leadership development

is the training effectiveness in customer organizations. So, it seems that educational institutes are ready to do almost any kind of management and leadership development for customer organizations and they only ensure that the training effectiveness is accomplished.

However, at the same time, some educational institutes are trying to use mainly humanistic values in their leadership education. In particular, educational institutes like this experience contrasting conflicts between their humanistic values and the prevailing economic necessities in the field. The conflict between economic and humanistic values is not the only conflict between values that can be noticed from the data. Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are the only institutes that speak of environmental values in leadership development.

Most of the educational institutes use traditional classroom methods in their leadership development and they use many development methods in the training (see appendix VI). E-learning methods are used mainly as an additional training method and not as a supplement of traditional leadership training. Two educational institutes use mainly coaching methods and two educational institutes use mainly simulations in their leadership education. Even if most educational institutes are still oriented to the leadership development in a traditional way and they are predominantly using classroom learning methods, there are many educational institutes that are trying to bring the work experiences of the participants to classroom teaching. Only a few education institutes are trying to move to the use of experimental learning methods and no educational institute has tried to move its leadership development to the workplace so that work and learning could be done simultaneously, as is suggested, for example, in situated learning theory.

4.5 Future visions for leadership in educational institutes

The third research question concentrated on the future visions of educational institutes and it was stated as follows: *“What kind of future visions of leadership have leaders and development specialists in educational institutes adopted?”* In order to be able to answer this question, many questions concerning the future visions of the institution was asked from every person that was interviewed.

It is noteworthy that the persons who were interviewed talked much less about the future visions than of the current situation of leadership education in the institute. From the texts that the interviewed persons produced, it was clear that educational institutes have no clear visions of the future of leadership. It is obvious that educational institutes exist in a fragmented and rapidly changing environment where they have to adapt as well as possible and, because of this, they have been able to create only partial future visions or fragments of future visions.

Most of the persons that were interviewed in educational institutes believed that the same kind of leadership patterns and models that they are now

teaching will prevail in the future. So, nobody said that there would be a major change in leadership styles or methods compared to those methods and styles that they were currently promoting in the day-to-day operations of the educational institute. It was possible to conclude from the discussions with the interviewed persons that the same kind of leadership theories and practices will continue to exist in the future to which they are leaning today in their leadership development operations. This does not mean that the leadership visions of the educational institutes would be the same. On the contrary, because leadership views in different institutes are currently different there are also different future visions of leadership in educational institutes.

4.5.1 Future visions for leadership in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses

The most common future vision of the leadership in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses (7 institutes out of 18 institutes) was a view that leadership in the future will be based on humanistic values and that interaction and networking will be even more important in the future in leadership than today:

Interaction will be even more important in the future than today. Interaction is needed, both in the customer service and inside organizations, in order that the organization would be able to operate properly... Distributed leadership is also important in its own way, but it is a good question regarding what parts of leadership are distributed because not all parts of leadership cannot be distributed. (Case B).

A human being is not a machine. Man is much more than this... I believe that the growth as a person will be more important in the leadership and I believe that this is connected to the way people are working in the organization... In this chaotic world where there is a constant information overload, it is vital that persons know themselves... This means that everyone has to do a life-long journey to themselves in order to understand themselves. This helps people to navigate in the chaotic world and to get in touch with the ideas and beliefs that are leading them. This is also a prerequisite to understand the world and what is needed now... I believe in distributed leadership in which everyone is a leader and takes responsibility for the whole. (Case C).

In the future, managers will not have any more time to lead and, because of that, each person should lead themselves... Self-directed teams and self-organization are central parts of distributed leadership... I call distributed leadership- minimal leadership (vähällä johtaminen)- with which I mean that leadership will be part of the responsibilities of everyone. (Case E).

I believe that leadership will be more distributed and more democratic in the future than today... Empowerment and participative leadership will increase because organizations are flatter than today. This means that mentoring and distributed leadership will also increase. (Case J).

Humanistic views of leadership were mixed with the ponderings of shared leadership and self-leadership (in cases B, C, E and J). However, the interviewees do not seek to concretize these views and do not use them as a guideline for the activities of the institute they represent. So, such statements as these represent

only distant hopes of few enlightened persons rather than clear visions which the institute will use in its strategy.

However, some visions reflected a concrete effort to improve the world:

Companies can change the world (for the better). That is why we talk of corporate social responsibility... I believe that leadership views will move from the individualistic models to more holistic views that stress organizational culture and systemic views... In leadership, thinking will be moved from sub-optimization to more wholistic views... In the future there will be more talk of self-directed work organizations. (Case D).

Some visions emphasized the human side of organizations. Such visions were like déjà-vu, glimpses from the 1970s, the time Douglas McGregor wrote his book "The human side of enterprise":

When I was young there were a lot of authoritarian managers and managers who were feared. Now we can see that leadership in the future will be more encouraging, supportive and empowering. (Case R).

The human side of organization will be the most central issue in the future... If we analyze what is leadership, we must consider how we can solve conflicting situations in organizations and how we can build better co-operation between persons in the organizations. At the same time, we must realize that leadership is created and situated in relations between persons. (Case G).

It seems that many educational institutes would like to increase the use of humanistic views in leadership in the future. This means that these institutes would like to promote democratic values, such as participation and empowerment, in leadership. Democratic values can be promoted by trying to increase the self-directedness of persons and by trying to teach the methods of distributed leadership and self-directed working methods. Those persons that, in the interview, held humanistic values high and wanted to promote more democratic ways in leadership saw that empowering and supportive leadership practices would lead to better motivation which would lead also to better results.

However, not all persons who were interviewed hold these kinds of values and beliefs. Quite many of the persons who were interviewed (6 institutes out of 18) talked about humanistic leadership methods in a tone which revealed that they had lost their faith in them:

In a long run, we have moved from authoritarian leadership to more democratic leadership... But one can ask if we, in the future, will move back to more authoritarian leadership again? ... Leadership views seem to change in a cyclical fashion... It might be that in the future societies will be meritocracies... where a certain kind of upper-class philosophers would lead. (Case K).

I believe that the concept of distributed leadership is a little bit like a bubble. Leadership methods will change, but there will always be a need for persons who coordinate things. (Case L).

There will be other kinds of management than just democratic leadership in the future. Of course, there will be small businesses where people sing kumbaya and hold hands together with each other. But working in a serious business cannot be just fun all the time. (Case P).

The cynical tone towards humanistic leadership values in the above citations can be seen in the comments like “the distributed leadership is little bit of a bubble”, and “in the future we will move back to a more authoritarian leadership and the future societies will be meritocracies”. This kind of cynicism can be seen to represent lost idealism. Maybe some persons who are leading educational institutes have met strong opposition when they have tried to promote humanistic and democratic leadership values and, because of this, have changed their own views so that they have begun either to understand or to support leader centered ideas that still prevail in the society.

Some persons (3 institutes out of 18) who were interviewed did not actually talk about changes in the leadership when they were asked how leadership will change in the future. Actually, these persons talked about technology and the impacts of technology on leadership:

The world is changing towards a more digitalized form. There are all kinds of new equipment, such as social media, telecommuting and robotics. Just the other day we discussed that we may, in the future, have to train foremen and supervisors to lead robots. (Case F).

New technology and artificial intelligence (AI) will change the character and methods of leadership. But I do not believe that human behavior and how humans perform leadership will change very much in the future. (Case O).

Those people who spoke of digitalization and technology did however not try to create a new utopia of leadership. They could have talked of robots or artificial intelligence leading organizations. However, they talked quite neutrally of the new technology.

Those persons who stressed the impact of technology on leadership when they were asked what kind of leadership there will be in future did not actually answer the question because they felt that human behavior and leadership will not change much in the future. These persons emphasized the impact of the environment to organizations and to leadership. So-doing, these persons also stressed the importance of realistic and objectivistic views of leadership and they left the subjective and socially constructed nature of leadership to lesser consideration in their views.

The persons who represented educational institutes talked a lot less of the future visions of leadership than they talked of the leadership views that they had adopted in prevailing leadership education. Almost two out of five of all representatives of educational institutes saw that the use of humanistic views of leadership will increase in the future. These persons talked about empowerment, self-management and persons working independently. However, one third of respondents talked rather cynically of the humanistic leadership views. They saw that it would not be possible to distribute all responsibilities of leadership and some of these persons even thought that it would be better if some small elite would lead organizations and society in a meritocratic way. Almost 20 % of all respondents talked of new technology when they were asked what kind of future visions they had of the development of leadership. In so doing, these persons avoided to talk of the rather difficult question of how humans should organize their relationships in the future.

4.5.2 Future visions for leadership in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses

Those persons who were interviewed from educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses did not frame their answers of the future of leadership solely in the humanistic frame of reference. Otherwise, their answers were a mixture of the answers of persons referred to earlier. About half of the persons who were interviewed from educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses (4 institutes) stressed the ethical and environmental values in their answers. Some of these persons also stressed the meaning of digitalization and new technology:

Environmental, ethical and humanistic values will have a more prominent place in leadership in the future. This means that leadership will be based on sustainable development in the future... Leadership views in the future will be more versatile, but the role of psychological and interactional factors in leadership will remain high. (Case S).

Ethical thinking will be stressed in leadership in the future, as well as interaction between people. Robotization and digitalization will render new possibilities... Environmental questions and innovativeness will be central issues in leadership. The big question is how to save the world. (Case U).

There will be some changes in leadership, but the human being will not disappear from business. Business will be mostly based on interaction between people. Leadership views will not change much. Interaction between people will also be central in the future... Ethical theories and artificial intelligence will change leadership because, when artificial intelligence is taking part in a management team, new kinds of ethical questions will arise. (Case X).

The common factor in the above citations is that they emphasize ethical and environmental views in leadership. However, in some views ethical and environmental aspects emerged in the context of new technology, while in others they were mixed with human interaction.

The rest of the persons who were interviewed from educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses stressed various views when they considered leadership in the future. One interviewee emphasized the importance of self-reliance and self-management:

There will be two factors that will have a more prominent place in leadership in the future. First, it is important to have as many people to be actively involved in the work and organization. The question is how to create a climate of self-initiative, innovation, development and enthusiasm. Secondly, there will be more consideration of the ethical side of leadership. People want to get answers to their questions of why things are done the way they are done. (Case T).

Another interviewee thought that the role of middle-managers will decrease, and the role of professionals and workers will increase in the future:

The role of highest management will remain, but the role and number of middle managers will decrease. Leadership will more and more be based on self-management and everybody

working independently. The younger generations want to actively take part in the decision making. Digitalization and telecommuting means that people will have scattered over a wide area in the future... There will be much more variance in the leadership styles in the future, depending on what kind of culture there is in the organization. (Case Y).

One interviewee was sure that the institute which he was leading had already solved the problem of future leadership. Of course, these kinds of views can be seen as part of marketing the institution, but still it also shows how conservative the views of leadership can be:

I return to our concept of leadership that we have adopted nowadays. It is a very holistic and synergetic model. We do not believe that it is possible to have one best way to lead. Instead, we think multidimensionally and see leadership through many lenses... Persons will learn leadership by carrying out rationally certain basic business operations. For example, when they learn to use analytical methods in their work. Persons will also learn leadership when they work together with other people. (Case Z).

The majority of those persons who represented educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses talked of ethical and environmental questions when they were asked how they saw the future of leadership. At the same time interviewees talked about leadership and gave to the future leadership several different meanings.

4.6 Future visions for management and leadership development in educational institutes

The future visions of the educational institutes were related to the operations of the educational institutes that the interviewed persons had talked earlier. This means that it is not possible to understand the future visions of educational institutes without referring to the history and the current operations of each educational institute. So, the future visions of educational institutes of leadership development may seem to be rather superficial when they are analyzed separately from the whole story that interviewed persons told in the interview.

4.6.1 Future visions for management and leadership development in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses

The most often mentioned future vision of leadership development in educational institutes, which do not arrange EMBA-courses, was related to the increase of digitalization. This is not surprising when considering the research done by Auvinen and Lämsä (2020) about the future trends in human resource management in Finland. A future vision of leadership development that pointed to the increased use of digitalization was mentioned by 9 educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses:

Leadership training methods will be multidisciplinary in the future... Factual knowledge will be on the Internet, but how to understand these facts will require either face-to-face interaction or interaction via good virtual reality channels. (Case R).

I believe that we will have more self-learning processes by virtual means in the future, but, at the same time, I believe that the face-to-face learning will prevail... We need to be agile in the digital world and we need to carry out experiments on how to teach coaching in a virtual environment. (Case B).

I believe that in the future we will continue to do what we have already been doing so far and, in addition, we will have to teach coaching virtually. There is good equipment available... There will be more pressure to shorten the learning period and, at the same time, to preserve interactive methods in training. This means that we will have to cut training into shorter segments, and we must help participants to also learn in their workplace while students are working. (Case C).

Some interviewees considered that the operations of the educational institute where they work will continue almost the similar as currently also in the future, but that they will use a little bit more digital techniques (for example cases B and C). However, some interviewees wanted to increase the productivity of leadership training through digital techniques and some persons even wanted to create new customer experiences through digital techniques:

We aim to improve our productivity radically through digital equipment... I am fascinated with the idea that it might be possible to nowadays produce common face-to-face training by reducing the costs to one tenth of the current price. That would increase our profit and give more surplus value to customers. (Case I).

We are trying to 'gamificate' our leadership training. We build games of leadership that are concrete and through which participants get excited... Leadership development will be independent of time and place in the future. Leadership training will be on the Internet and people can watch leadership training courses whenever they want. This means that leadership training will be done by reading some articles and watching some videos... Leadership training will be tailored to individuals and small groups. (Case K).

Some interviewees were unsure of their position in this question. On the other hand, they saw digitalization as offering new opportunities for leadership education, but at the same time they still wanted to focus their teaching on learning-by-doing:

We will also offer simulated learning environments in the future and our teaching methods will concentrate on learning-by-doing... We need mobile ways to learn because humans learn best by using the equipment that they are carrying with them... Leadership educators must understand the possibilities that technology offers. I do not know whether the right technological environment for leadership training would be artificial intelligence or virtual reality. (Case O).

The relativistic and customer-oriented orientation adopted by management training institutes also came to the fore when talking about future visions of leadership development:

We will do whatever the customers want us to do. I would guess that there will probably be more individualistic sparring by virtual methods... Our work will probably not

change very much, but we must be able to teach our customers in a shorter time than nowadays. (Case L).

It might seem easy for persons who represent educational institutes to speak of the new technology when they are asked what kind of visions, they have of future leadership development, but, in fact, the increased use of digital equipment will also increase the costs of educational institutes. And, besides that, the increased use of new technology in leadership education will also increase the competition in the field of leadership development, when persons who want to learn leadership have the option of observing all the lectures and doing the exercises in the virtual environment. If the Internet and virtual environment will be commonly used in leadership education in the future, the field of leadership education will also be more open to foreign competition.

The rest of the comments of future visions of leadership education were scattered widely. However, a unifying feature of some of these visions was the close relationship of educational institutes with the customer organization:

In the future we will carry out longer projects with the customers so that our partnerships with the client organizations will last many years. (Case E).

We work together as partners with our customer organizations and that is why we have to use different methods in different organizational cultures. We also have to learn new methods and new ways of seeing things... In the future, the need to learn community skills will increase. (Case G).

I think that our leadership training will concentrate on licensing. We will train the trainers of our customer organizations to train leaders inside the customer organization. (Case N).

Longer projects with customer organization and working as partners with customer organizations are rather concrete goals for educational institutes. A little bit more radical change to the customer relations was expressed by case N where they wanted to concentrate on licensing their leadership training. This can be understood if one considers that case N is using the currently popular transformational leadership view in their leadership training.

One interviewee talked of the difference between generations in learning. However, he did not think that even members of young generation would use “personal learning clouds” (Moldoveanu and Narayandas 2019) when learning leadership:

Many older people still live inside the training paradigm, but younger persons believe that learning skills that they need at work is their own responsibility. So, they learn these skills themselves... Younger persons do not necessarily need a diploma or other kind of document which would prove that they have learned something. So, they do not need formal education either... It is maybe surprising that technological change will increase the need for emotional intelligence. It will take a long time before machines can learn to understand human behavior. (Case A).

Some interviewees wanted to renew leadership education radically. However, they did not express how this renewing process should be done:

The whole concept and idea of leadership training should be renewed. One should be very innovative and one should integrate different working methods and fields radically in leadership training. For example, one should integrate artificial intelligence and humanism... Because the problems in this world are so complicated, one should teach people to think in a new way. One cannot solve the problems with the same level of thinking as when they were born. One should be able to rise to a higher level of thinking. One should not aim at partial optimization, but the development of the whole. (Case J).

Because the future visions of leadership of different educational institutions are so different, the operations of educational institutions may become even more different from each other in the future. However, one can conclude that the main features of leadership education will still be preserved in the future. It is most probable that the classroom training will still prevail in the future even if it is complemented with digitalization in the future.

4.6.2 Future visions for management and leadership development in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses

The visions of leadership education were remarkably similar in one respect in all educational institutes that give EMBA-courses. All persons who were interviewed from these institutes mentioned that their institution will use the Internet and virtual techniques in leadership training in the future:

There will be new methods, depending on the needs of customer organizations and the needs of individual participants... New technology will offer new possibilities to offer EMBA-courses globally... Our EMBA-programs will be mostly in Finnish, because the participants are primarily Finns, but we are ready to give EMBA-courses in English if it is needed... The main skills that we will train in the future are networking skills and digital skills. (Case S).

We will need to increase virtual training and interaction in the training... However, I do not believe that classroom teaching will disappear... I believe that in the future theories will be on the internet and discussions will be held in the class. (Case Y).

The increased use of digital techniques in leadership development means that the field of leadership education will be more open to global competition. Globalization of leadership training is a trend that goes in the opposite direction to the contextualization of leadership development. The globalization of leadership education tends to unify leadership education, while the contextualization of leadership development tends to differentiate leadership education.

Some visions for leadership development expressed a desire to save humanity from a looming climate catastrophe:

The participants need to see their company as part of a bigger picture. They need to focus on how to create sustainable development. That means that we worry about the future of mankind... We have to consider the use of virtuality and artificial intelligence in some future point. (Case X).

The leadership development visions of educational institutes that give EMBA-courses are based on an idea of the increased use of virtual technology. Because educational institutes that give EMBA-courses are subsidiaries of different uni-

versities, they have a digital infrastructure and that is why it is understandable that these institutes rely heavily on virtual technology in their leadership training. However, no educational institute that arranges EMBA-courses relies solely on virtual technology and there are no institutes that would be planning to move their EMBA-courses solely to internet in the future.

In addition to the increasing use of virtual technology, there were other issues related to the visions of educational institutions EMBA-courses. Two educational institutes that give EMBA-courses wanted to promote sustainable development (Cases U and X). The interviewed person in case T wanted to get participants of EMBA-courses to co-operate in solving difficult problems and the interviewed person in case Y wanted to have more interaction with participants through virtual technology. The interviewed person in case V wanted to create new options through the use of virtual techniques to EMBA-offerings and the interviewed person in case S just wanted to attract more participants to the EMBA-courses. So, some of these second agendas were altruistic in the sense that behind them there is the idea of saving the world by emphasizing sustainable development. Some of these second agendas were rather egoistic in the sense that the ideas behind them were just to attract more participants to the EMBA-courses.

4.7 Comparison of future visions of case organizations

In order to compare the future visions of education institutes a model of the leadership and leadership development visions of each case was constructed. This model is presented in Table 15. The leadership visions of educational institutes were divided into two classes. In the first class there are humanistic leadership visions and in the other class all the other visions. Similarly, the leadership development visions of educational institutes were divided into two classes. In the first class there are those leadership development visions that rely mainly on technical (virtual or digital) methods and in the second class there were all the other leadership development visions.

L e a d e r s h i p	Humanistic visions	B, C, R	D, E, G, J
	Other visions	F, I, K, L, M, O, P	A, H, N, Q
		Visions relying on digitalism	Other visions
		Leadership development	

TABLE 15 Visions of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses

The largest group in Table 15 is formed from educational institutes that have adopted technology-focused visions. In this group there are 7 institutes. These institutes do not stress humanistic leadership ideas in their visions, and, at the same time, they rely on the Internet and virtual technology in leadership development. There are two kinds of cases in this group. First, there are educational institutes that already rely heavily on technical solutions in their leadership training such as cases K, M and O. For example, in case O there has been a long tradition in investing in simulation technology and this institute is planning to continue to move in the same direction in the future: “*We will also offer simulations in the future... and we will use learning by doing methods*”. So, in this group the history and the operations of the institute largely determines what kind of visions they are planning to follow. Secondly, there are institutes that mostly want to increase operational effectiveness in the customer organizations, such as cases F, I, L and P. For example, in case I, they want to increase the productivity of leadership training by relying heavily on new technology and in case P they want to increase the volume of leadership training by going abroad.

The biggest group in the Table 15 is formed of educational institutes that have adopted non-humanistic leadership visions and, at the same time, have adopted leadership development visions that rely on digitalism. The institutes in this group try to find a good balance between using new technology in their work and not to rely too much on new technology in their operations, so that they would not lose the delicate subject matter of leadership which is bound to be related to human existence and interaction.

The second group in Table 15 is formed of educational institutes that have tried to make a combination between these two variables and, by doing so, they have tried to focus simultaneously on humanistic leadership ideas and on the increased use of new technology. The second group of educational institutes is formed of three institutes. These institutes focus both on humanistic leadership visions and on the possibilities that new technology offers to leadership development. The basic idea behind the visions of all three educational institutes that form this group is the same: These institutes try to increase the use of humanistic leadership methods through new technology, such as virtuality and the Internet. The leadership visions and visions of leadership development in the institutes that belong to this group are almost identical. All three institutes rely on coaching and guidance philosophy in leadership and they want to use new technology as an extension to face-to-face interaction.

The third group of educational institutes is formed of four institutes. These institutes focus on humanistic leadership visions but are not relying in their visions on the use of new technology in delivering their leadership training. These institutes are viewing leadership somewhat in a new way. Maybe that is why they are also searching for new ways of carrying out leadership development. For example, institute D is trying to hold a distance from an individual-centered management approach and wants to try to develop leadership from a holistic and systems-oriented view. Institutes D and G see the concept of leadership to be problematic because of self-organization and institutes D, G and J want to promote communal skills instead of individual skills in leadership training. All institutes in this group emphasize the importance of holistic views of organizations and society in their visions.

The fourth group of educational institutes is formed of four institutes. These institutes have some kind of special position in the field of leadership training. Case A has had a long history in the field, but during that history the institute has lost its monopolistic position in the field of leadership training in Finland. Perhaps because of present setbacks in the field of leadership training, case A has adopted a rather pessimistic and original vision of spiritual leadership and rather cynical views of leadership development: *"I do not say that the future is dark, but that there are a lot of question marks in the field of leadership education"*. (Case A). Institute N has created its own leadership view of transformational leadership and this 'new leadership' -view has gained popularity in Finland. So, it is possible to conclude that case N has reached a special position in the leadership training field because of the freshness of the leadership theory that this institute has created. Institute Q has always been operating in the public field and has been training leadership for ministries. This has provided a special position for this institute in the field of leadership development.

We can conclude that the history of the educational institute forms the background to the visions that educational institutes have. The history and the operations of the educational institutes also seem to bind the educational institutes so strongly to the realities of the field of leadership education that they have not adopted bold visions of leadership or leadership development. The

most common vision held in many educational institutes is that they will increase the use of new technology in the future. While educational institutes rely heavily on new technology, they do not see any need for changing the views of leadership that they have adopted. Only a few educational institutes seem to rely on humanism, but those educational institutes that do, rely on self-organization, distributed leaderships and communality.

Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses have remarkably similar visions. They all emphasize new technology, the Internet and virtuality in their visions. Most of them also tell that they will focus more on ethical and sustainable development in leadership education in the future. Of course, there are many similarities in the operations of these institutes. They are all parts of different universities. However, there are also many differences in the operations of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses. First of all, cases S, V, X and Y are mainly focusing on the leadership training in their own district. Unlike this, cases T, U and Z focus on leadership education in the whole of Finland. However, it can be questioned how well cases T and U have succeeded in getting participants to their EMBA-courses from the whole of Finland and how much these institutes have, in fact, remained also institutes that arrange EMBA-courses in their own district. Secondly, cases S, T, V and Z arrange EMBA-courses that have a modular structure so that participants can choose when they will attend to a certain part of the EMBA-course and that institutes can enroll students flexibly to their courses. Unlike this, cases U and X emphasize the communal nature of their courses and they want students to attend their EMBA-courses as a group. Case Y is currently arranging courses in a modular way, but this institute is about to receive an accreditation where it is supposedly demanded that case Y should change its practices in favor of a communal structure of courses.

Because the visions of the institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are so similar, one could ask where are the bold visions of the institutes that arrange EMBA-courses? Of course, there are some visions that are greatly different from the rest of the visions. Perhaps the boldest vision was pronounced by the person who was interviewed from case V who said that *"EMBA-courses could be held in the same way as the specialist qualification of leadership, where the training is connected to the qualification"*. This vision would emphasize the skills instead the training. Of course, this would mean that one would have to create the qualification methods and systems to the leadership and management skills required at EMBA-level. The person who was interviewed from case Y also boldly stated: *"When jobs will become projects, we will need more co-operation with our customer organizations in leadership training"*. This person referred to the temporary nature of jobs in the future and he wondered how it would be possible to train leadership in such a situation.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

In this chapter the results of the study are presented. What kind of theoretical and practical contributions have been brought by the research will also be discussed. In this chapter a discourse section will also be presented.

The results of the study are presented in relation to the objectives and to the research questions of the study. When considering what are the contributions of the study, it will firstly be discussed what kind of new knowledge and interpretations do the results of the study give and secondly it will be discussed what are the new practical and theoretical knowledge of the results of the study.

The research started from the realization that there are commonly attached high expectations for leadership. At the same time, it was recognized that there is no consensus of what is meant by leadership. So, even if many organizations use a great deal of resources in order to develop leadership it is not at all certain that the expectations attached to leadership development will be met. Accordingly, it was decided to study leadership development from the perspective of educational institutes. It was also noted that this topic has previously not been studied in Finland.

In the theoretical part of the research, both leadership and leadership development were analyzed through literature. These two topics were selected to the theoretical framework because these two phenomena are closely related and intertwined with each other. This means that one cannot know what is meant by leadership development if one does not know first what it is meant by leadership.

The aim of the research was to explore what kind of discourses educational institutes in Finland use on leadership and leadership development and what are their future visions on leadership and leadership development. In order to accomplish this aim, data from 25 leading educational institutes in Finland was collected by using Internet documents, and by interviewing 27 persons who were leading these institutes or who were the leading professionals of these institutes. During and after the interviews, records and documents of the leadership education of these educational institutes were also collected. The data collected was analyzed through content analysis, with the Gioia-method used in

particular. Also, multi-case methods were utilized in order to compare the educational institutes.

5.1 Conclusions

The results of the study are presented by comparing the results of the study to the aims of the study. The chosen perspective tends to narrow the view. However, the advantage of such an approach is that the review focuses on the issues that are most relevant to the study.

The first research question was: *“What kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?”*

We focused on the views of leadership of leaders and development specialists in educational institutes. This was done separately in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses. This was done because the participants of EMBA-courses are mainly top management or persons who will in the future be members of top management, while the participants of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are mainly middle managers, supervisors and first line managers or team leaders.

The analysis of the data revealed that most educational institutes (11 institutes out of 18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses use whatever leadership discourse that their customer organizations prefer in their leadership development. Also, quite many educational institutes use many different leadership discourses in their leadership education. Among other things, this means that most educational institutes have ceased to search for the best way to lead. This also means that most educational institutes do not strive to find the best fit between the management approach and the organizational culture and that they do not try to find leadership views that are reliable and that would cumulate evidence-based knowledge of leadership. So, most of the educational institutes face the risk that they will teach leadership views that are not based on the current best evidence of what would work in similar organizations and situations (Pfeffer & Sutton 2006a, 63–64).

Among the educational institutes that participated in the research, there were 4 institutes (of all the educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses) which had adopted mainly idealistic views of leadership. These institutes are developing ideas that are mainly humanistic, but they also favor some rather recent leadership views. One could think that these educational institutes are trying to use the best available knowledge of leadership in their work. However, at the same time, one has to admit that the situations and sizes of customer organizations are so different that it is not always possible to use the same views of leadership in each customer organization. This means that when an educational institute that is developing leadership has adopted idealist views of leadership, it must carefully consider whether this idealist view of

leadership will suit the culture of the particular organization that it is developing.

Most of the educational institutes that participated in the research have mainly adopted either traditional leadership discourse (5 institutes out of 18 institutes) or 'new leadership' discourses (7 institutes out of 18 institutes). This means that the message of traditional leadership theories still seems to appeal to some customer organizations. This might be partly due to the fact that traditional leadership theories in leadership development are presented in a psychological framework and that is why it is not easy for the customers to realize the old-fashioned nature of these leadership discourses. One can better understand that the texts of 'new leadership' -theories may sound appealing to customers, because these views emphasize good relationships between leaders and members of a work group. However, these 'new leadership' -theories do not in fact represent the latest leadership views and these views do not suit network organizations or innovative organizations well. The views adopted in 'new leadership' -theories may primarily help to prevail the heroic-leader-centered and managerialist views of leadership.

About one third of educational institutes (6 institutes out of 18 institutes) have adopted mainly contextual leadership discourse. This means that these educational institutes are using leadership views that are well suited for organizations that try to empower their workers or are relying on self-organization. However, one cannot claim that the use of contextual leadership views in these educational institutes has reached an advanced level because many of these institutes that were classified to this group have adopted so far only such leadership views as coaching or mentoring. Coaching and mentoring are client-centered views and even if the coach might have adopted very up-date leadership views, the customers may still use traditional leadership methods and in coaching and mentoring processes it is commonly supposed that the coaches and mentors need to support the views that each particular customer has adopted. So, coaching and mentoring may not change the traditional leadership discourse used in customer organization.

The leadership views of those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are somewhat different from those leadership views that educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses have adopted. More than two thirds (13 institutes out of 18 institutes) of all educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are mainly focusing on leadership issues in their education, while only close to one third (2 institutes out of 7 institutes) of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are focusing mainly on leadership issues in their EMBA-courses. About a fourth (5 institutes out of 18 institutes) of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses are focusing mainly on both leadership and management issues in their training, while about two fifths (3 institutes out of 7 institutes) of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses are mainly concentrating both on leadership and management issues in their EMBA-courses. None of the educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses is mainly focusing on management issues in their leadership

education, while almost one third (2 institutes of 7 institutes) of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses focuses mainly on management issues in their EMBA-courses. So, one can conclude that educational institutes that are mainly educating top management or those persons that will most likely be promoted to top management in the future are educating their students to management or both management and leadership, while those educational institutes that are mainly educating middle management, foremen and supervisors are concentrating their education mainly towards leadership or both leadership and management.

The second research question was: *“What kind of management and leadership development discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses”?* In order to answer the second research question, the orientations, goals, targets, means and results of leadership development of the educational institutes were examined.

More than half of all the interviewed persons (10 institutes out of 18 institutes) who represented educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses said that the most important issue in leadership development in their institute is humanism. However, at the same time, these persons said that the institute which they represent consider other issues, such as economic and technological issues, to be as important. So, humanism is not the only issue to be used in leadership development. This result is supported by the fact that quite many (8 institutes out of 18 institutes) representatives of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses said that, in their institute, all of the issues mentioned in the interview were used (efficiency, economy, technology, environment and humanism). Most educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses (6 institute out of 7 institutes) had adopted all the mentioned issues (efficiency, economy, technology, environment and humanism) in their leadership development. It is noteworthy that only those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses have adopted environmental orientation in their leadership development.

In order to be able to research training orientation of the educational institutes in the theoretical part of the research, the following classification of learning methods was developed: 1) traditional learning methods, 2) learning oriented development methods and 3) contextual development methods.

About half of the educational institutes (9 institutes out of 18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses use mainly traditional learning methods in leadership development. Over one third (7 institutes out of 18 institutes) of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses use learning-oriented development methods in their leadership development. Those educational institutes that use simulation techniques in their leadership education were classified to use contextual development methods in their leadership development. However, none of the educational institutes that participated in the research have been able to move its leadership education in the workplace in the mean-

ing which is described in situated learning methods so that leadership development and working would take part simultaneously.

The main target of leadership education in most educational institutes (11 institutes out of 18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses is to develop relationships between people in organizations. The main target of leadership development in about one fourth of educational institutes (5 institutes out of 18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses is to develop individuals who participate in their courses. The main target of two educational institutes (out of 18 institutes) that do not arrange EMBA-courses is to develop organizations or workplaces.

Most educational institutes (16 institutes out of 25 institutes) use many conventional training methods, such as lectures, discussions in the class, groupworks, exercises, 360-degree evaluations, books and e-learning in their leadership development. E-learning is used as a supplement of other methods between the class seminars. Almost one fourth (6 institutes out of 25 institutes) of all educational institutes mainly use coaching and other guiding methods in their leadership development. Two educational institutes (out of 25 institutes) mainly use simulations in their leadership education. One of these institutes has built a training factory especially for leadership development.

In most educational institutes (20 of all institutes) the main goal of the leadership education is the training of effectiveness in customer organizations. Some educational institutes also emphasize other goals such as social impact among training effectiveness in their leadership education. However, only 4 of the interviewed persons (of all educational institutes) said that the main motive of the leadership development in their institute is social impact.

When comparing the views held of leadership and leadership development in different educational institutes (which do not arrange EMBA-courses) it was found that educational institutes were divided into two large groups. The difference between these groups were 1) the extent of traditionality / newness of the leadership discourses and 2) the traditionality / contextuality of development methods which the educational institute is using in leadership development. In the one group there were educational institutes that held both traditional views of leadership and also used traditional class-room development methods in leadership development. In the other group there were those educational institutes that had adopted both new leadership ideas and also used new leadership development methods in their leadership development. In this classification the new leadership ideas refer to contextual and 'new leadership' discourses. In this classification, the term new leadership development methods meant learning-centered and contextual development methods.

Those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses was investigated by a four-field, in which the first axis was the division between the modular or unified structure of the EMBA -courses and the second axis was the division between leadership and business management. Most of the educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses had a modular structure in their EMBA-courses and the themes of the EMBA-courses followed the traditional business

management ideas. The minority of educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses concentrate mainly on leadership development in their EMBA-courses. In most EMBA-courses leadership is mainly dealt together with other management themes. However, in some EMBA-courses there is a special leadership module that participants can choose if they want. It can be concluded that in most educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses leadership is dealt mainly as a byproduct alongside other business management issues.

The third research question was: *“What kind of future visions of leadership and leadership development have educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses adopted?”* It is noteworthy that the persons interviewed talked much less of the future visions than of the current operations and views of the educational institute.

First, we will try to answer this research question in focusing on the future visions of leadership. Most of the persons interviewed believed that the same kind of leadership ideas will be used in the future as they are using now.

The most common future vision of the leadership in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses (7 institutes out of 18 institutes) was a view that leadership in the future will be based on humanistic values and that interaction and networking will be even more important in the future in leadership than today. It seems that many educational institutes would like to increase the use of humanistic views in leadership education in the future. This means that the use of democratic values, empowerment, participation and distributed leadership would increase in the future in leadership education. However, one third of the interviewed persons (6 institutes out of 18 institutes) talked of humanistic values in a rather pessimistic and cynical tone. Three persons did not actually talk of leadership but of the impact of new technology on leadership. So, it is rather difficult to conclude whether the educational institutes would emphasize mainly distributed leadership and self-management in leadership education in the future or would these educational institutes just emphasize still more discussions of the leader-centered ideas in their leadership development.

About half of the persons who were interviewed from educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses (4 institutes out of 7 institutes) stressed the ethical and environmental values in their answers. The rest of the persons (3 institutes out of 7 institutes) representing educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses discussed various topics, such as digitalization in their answers to the leadership views that the institute will use in the future.

Secondly, we will focus on the future visions of leadership development. Also, this research question was addressed separately in those educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses and in those educational institutes that do arrange EMBA-courses.

About half of the persons (9 institutes out of 18 institutes) representing educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses talked of the increased use of new technology when they were asked of the future visions of leadership development of the educational institute. The rest of the comments of future

visions of leadership education were scattered widely. Also, the future visions of those educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses were based on the idea of using new technology. So, it seems that the best conclusion of all interviews concerning the future visions of leadership development is that educational institutes will use more new technology in their leadership education. Some of the interviewed persons had also realized that the increased use of new technology in leadership education will also increase the competition in the field of leadership development, because persons who want to learn leadership will have the option of viewing all the lectures and performing the exercises in the virtual environment. This means that, if the Internet and virtual environment will be commonly used in leadership education in the future, the field of leadership education will be more open to foreign competition.

When comparing the future visions that educational institutes have adopted of leadership and leadership development it was found that 7 institutes out of 18 institutes have adopted technology-based visions. Accordingly, the future visions of the first group could be called "technology-based" -visions. The second group is formed of educational institutes (3 institutes out of 18 institutes) that focus on humanistic leadership views and will try to use the possibilities that new technology offers in teaching leadership. The future visions of the second group could be called "humanistic views that are supported by new technology". The third group of educational institutes is formed of those institutes (4 institutes out of 18 institutes) which rely on humanistic leadership views, but which do not try to use new technology in their leadership development. The future visions of the third group on educational institutes could be called "searching for new kinds of humanistic views". Finally, the fourth group of educational institutes is formed of those educational institutes (4 institutes out of 18 institutes) that are not relying on humanistic leadership ideas and which are not trying to use new technology in their leadership development. The future visions of the fourth group of educational institutes show that these institutes in this group "possesses some kind of special position in the field of leadership development".

Educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses have similar visions. They all emphasize new technology, the Internet and virtuality in their visions. Most of them also tell that they will focus more on ethical and sustainable development in leadership education in the future.

5.2 Theoretical and practical contributions

The contributions of the research can be viewed from many perspectives. Usually, it is considered whether the research has offered new facts and interpretations of the subject matter. Accordingly, when considering the contributions of this study one should consider if the results of the study offer new knowledge of leadership or leadership development and if it is possible to create new

thoughts or concepts of leadership or leadership development based on the results of this study.

The first theoretical contribution of the study is that there are no good ways of using contextual leadership development methods in leadership development. Coaching and mentoring methods offer only limited help for educational institutes in carrying out contextual leadership development. Simulation methods seem to offer good ways of doing contextual leadership development, but, in fact, these methods do not bring the social context of the workplace and the real-life work situations to the development process. So, it is clear, that educational institutes are not using good enough methods of doing contextual leadership development.

Leadership development that is carried out by the educational institutes assumes that learning is a process by which a learner internalizes new knowledge or new ways of working. Educational institutes view learning as the internalization of new knowledge and concentrate their development efforts in helping participants of their courses to absorb and assimilate the new knowledge and new ways of working (Lave & Wenger 2011, 47). This is already evident from the fact that most educational institutes use traditional classroom methods in leadership development.

But leadership development is more than just a matter of the transmission and assimilation of new knowledge. In contrast, contextual leadership development sees leadership development to be an aspect of social practice and it considers learning to involve the whole person including the activities that is done and the persons' relation to the social community. This means that at work persons are at the same time living in a constant process of negotiating of meaning (Wenger 2008, 53). This also means that in the work process persons participating in the work process negotiate and renegotiate their identities (Frenton-O'Creevy, Dimitriadis and Scobie 2015, 33).

This study pinpoints that educational institutes need to develop new contextual leadership development methods in order to be able to truly develop leadership. This need is increased by the fact that many organizations are trying to use shared leadership and self-management (Laloux 2016, 47).

Even if it is rather easy to show that educational institutes need new methods in contextual leadership development, it is more difficult to offer new theoretical views of leadership. This is caused by the fact that there are so many views of leadership already. However, one can say that the theoretical contribution of this study on the leadership field (second contribution of the study) is that it was done in a new context, in educational institutes, where leadership has not yet been studied, at least, in Finland. The new fact that this study revealed in the leadership field was that different educational institutes use several different leadership discourses in their leadership development. It can be thought that this seemingly client-centered way of developing leadership may in fact hinder organizations from changing the leader-centered ways of leading to the shared leadership and self-organized patterns. So, it might also be possible to think that new leadership views, such as contextual leadership views,

have to pass the practical action test at least twice: 1) New leadership theories must appeal to the leadership developers. 2) New leadership views have to appeal to leaders and managers who work in organizations. 3) New leadership views have to prove their validity in both leadership development and practical leadership situations.

The third contribution of the study is that management and leadership development aimed for top management and future top management on the one hand and for supervisors, foremen, and middle managers on the other hand are dissimilar. Management and leadership development for top managers and for future top managers consist mainly of subject matters, such as economy and strategic management, and the role of leadership issues in these target groups is only in the side section. Instead, leadership development for supervisors, foremen and middle managers is largely focused on leadership issues.

The article of Corley and Gioia (2011) offer another way of considering the contributions of a study. They conclude that originality and utility are the two dimensions that should be considered when evaluating the theoretical and practical contribution of a study. This means that a study is successful if it offers useful and original ideas. Corley and Gioia divide originality into two classes: 1) Incremental and 2) Revelatory. Corley and Gioia also divide utility into two classes: 1) Practically useful and 2) Scientifically useful. We can also use this classification in order to evaluate the theoretical and practical contributions of this study. However, before we can do this, we have to explain a little.

The leadership theories of this study were not taken from the tradition of organization theories. In organization theories the following classification of leadership and management theories are usually used: 1) Scientific management, 2) Human relations paradigm, 3) Structural paradigm, 5) Cultural paradigm 6) Innovation paradigm (for example, Seeck 2012). Instead, the classification which is commonly used in leadership theories (for example Wilson 2016, 102) was used in this research. Leadership theories are classified as follows: 1) Trait theories, 2) Behavioral theories such as Ohio state school (Fleishman et al. 1955) and Michigan University school (Likert 1961), 3) Situational leadership theories (Fiedler 1967, Hersey & Blanchard 1972), 4) 'New Leadership' -theories, such as transformational leadership (Burns 1978, Bass 1985), authentic leadership (Avolio et al. 2003) and LMX-theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995), 5) Contextual leadership theories (Gronn 2002 and 2010), such as shared or distributed leadership.

Even though there are quite large variances in the thoughts presented in different leadership theories or leadership discourses, and even though there have recently been major innovations and development in leadership theories, the data of this research shows that all existing leadership theories are still popular in leadership education. Some educational institutes that develop leadership still use the traditional behavioristic views. Most of the educational institutes emphasize interactional views and 'new leadership' theories in their leadership education. Only a few educational institutes use contextual views of leadership in their leadership education and, in so doing, these educational in-

stitutes mainly use coaching in their leadership education. None of the educational institutes which participated in this study used action learning or situated learning methods or communities of practice in their leadership development. This means that there exists a large gap between leadership research and the leadership praxis in leadership development. In the practice of leadership development in educational institutes, there exists a situation where almost any leadership views are used in leadership development. This finding of the study does not reveal new leadership theories. Nor does it incrementally increase our knowledge of leadership theories. However, it shows that leadership theories have, in most cases, no significant role when educational institutes decide how to develop leadership. Leadership researchers should critically and carefully consider why this kind of situation has taken place.

It is possible that this situation is partly due to the fact that there are still many leaders and managers who favor the old-fashioned managerialist and leader-centered hierarchical ways of leading and organizing work and that the latest findings of leadership research, for example, the research done in the field with shared or distributed leadership, have to compete with these old-fashioned views. So, both educational institutes developing leadership and researchers carrying out leadership research have to compete with these old ideas when they are trying to close the gap between the latest theory and practice.

This study also showed that those educational institutes that use old fashioned leadership discourses are also more probably using traditional methods in leadership development. This means that it is not at all certain what the participants of these rather traditional type of leadership seminars and courses actually learn in the seminars and courses of these institutes. The participants of these courses might learn to use leader-centered methods and to control the work of the professionals, while the latest leadership research points to the direction that participants of leadership development should learn how to empower professionals and to give the professionals the possibility of self-leadership and to use their talents. Even those educational institutes that use learning-centered leadership development methods should invest in developing new methods, because there are no educational institutes that are using contextual leadership development methods, such as situated learning methods and communities of practice. So, leadership researchers should also pay attention to the methods used in educating leaders and managers.

The revelatory finding of this study is that the findings of leadership research as such has little impact on leadership development. Leadership development is carried out mainly on the basis of the practical perspectives of the organizations which purchase leadership development.

The main practical utility of this study is based on the finding that educational institutes mediate between theory and practice in the leadership field. In doing so they try to appeal to the organizations that send participants to leadership courses or who order in company development. In this process, educational institutes rely more on the traditional leader-centric ways than try to change the situation towards the direction in which the latest leadership research

points. So, it seems that it is the practical and economical utility of leadership institutes that decide on what kind of leadership discourses are taught in educational institutes.

5.3 Discussions

Leadership development is vital, because it is commonly thought that leadership has an impact both on the wellbeing of people and on the success of organizations. However, it is not at all clear what is meant by leadership when educational institutes try to develop leadership. Even though there are many books and studies written and done in the field of leadership, there is no agreement on what leadership is. This may be due to the fact that leadership is a social construction that each organization has to create in a historical process. Leadership is also difficult to define because leadership seems to vanish whenever one looks closely at the operations of some group. Some researchers have gone so far as to claim that anything can be called leadership.

In their marketing, educational institutes have to claim that they are using the latest and the best views of leadership and leadership development methods. In the marketing, the educational institutes have also to claim that just the views and methods that they have adopted are the best and most efficient ones. However, the analysis of the data collected from educational institutes in Finland shows that there is a wide variety of leadership views used in the leadership development field. It is also clear that the methods mainly used in the leadership development are rather traditional. Most educational institutes use the leadership views that their customer organization is using, and they also use traditional classroom methods in their development. So, who can say that the leadership views that are used in the development are the right ones for the customer organization? The answer is, sorrowfully, that nobody knows. Educational institutes claim that they have the right answers to all leadership questions, but in claiming this and at the same time leaving what they mean by leadership not clarified, they mystify the concepts of leadership and leadership development.

It might be thought that educational institutes, which in this way support the leadership views of their customer organizations, have given up trying to search out what leadership is and, in so doing, these institutes are only trying to get money out of their services. This kind of strategy does not help either educational institutes or their customer organizations to create added value by developing leadership. This kind of strategy will certainly not help to develop leadership, because, in order to develop leadership, it is necessary to know what leadership actually is. Maybe those educational institutes that do not try to define what leadership is are trying to please their customer organizations. They have concluded that the easiest way of satisfying customer organizations is not to challenge the ideas of the top management of their customer organizations. Maybe they have also realized that it is not necessary to know what lead-

ership is in order to develop leadership, because in leaving the leadership-concept unclear it is easy to leave room to different kind of explanations of leadership. As an extreme example, some educational institutes have created special kinds of methods to get all persons working in their customer organization to be involved in adopting the views of the top management of the customer organization. This leaves no room to deviance and some persons working in these organizations may find the use of these kinds of leadership development methods to have some resemblance with the methods of persuasion or intimidation.

All of this means that leadership development may rather be a social process which is mainly done in order to legitimize the power of leaders and managers. This may even be the main cause to develop leadership, although no one mentions it. It seems that this motive behind leadership development is kept hidden while all explicitly say that leadership development is a method to improve the operations of organizations. Even if this rather cynical conclusion might not be entirely true, one can say that there are many hidden targets behind leadership development and that the explicit target to teach leadership and to improve the operations of the customer organizations are used because they are socially acceptable aims of leadership development. It is also clear that leadership development is not based on the search of evidence-based leadership research. If educational institutes would be interested in seriously testing whether their views of leadership would be evidence based, they would continually carry out research in all the steps along the process of leadership development. This would mean that they would perform research of the training needs of the customer organization and of the culture of the customer organization. This would also mean that educational institutes would openly challenge many prevailing leadership views during the training. Finally, this would mean that educational institutes would after the course has ended carry out research on the impacts of leadership training to the leadership culture of customer organizations. At the same time, educational institutes should publish the results of the research that they have done. This should be done because it is not possible to collect cumulative evidence in the field of leadership and leadership development in any other way. This would also mean that educational institutes would cooperate constantly with universities that are carrying out leadership research.

It is also noteworthy that the development methods in leadership development have remained relatively old-fashioned in spite of the amount of the development done in educational institutes. Of course, it is fine that many educational institutes have tried to emphasize the development of leadership in workplaces rather than just trying to teach leaders (individuals) in their courses. Still, no educational institute has been able to move the leadership education into the workplace where the work is done. This is surprising because we already know that leadership is mainly learned in the workplace, while working. It is fine that some educational institutes use simulation techniques and coaching methods in their leadership development. However, the majority of educa-

tional institutes are still using traditional classroom methods in their leadership training.

The above presented critical comments of the leadership development that educational institutes currently do may seem to be unjustified from the point of view of educational institutes, because these institutes operate under constant pressure to get money out of the leadership development market. Education institutes compete fiercely in the leadership development market and it is not easy to get enough money to operate successfully in these markets. However, if educational institutes want to increase the effectiveness of their leadership education and to get evidence-based results in the leadership development, they need to find answers to the following critical questions: 1) How to ensure that the leadership discourse that they use in their leadership education is truly such that it will improve the operations of the customer organizations? 2) How to move the leadership education to the workplaces where the work is actually done?

5.4 Suggestions for future research

This research has been carried out in order to find out what kind of leadership and leadership development discourses are used in educational institutes. This means that we have been looking at the supply side of leadership development. Accordingly, one can say, that there is also a lot of research needs on the demand side of leadership development. For example, the training effectiveness of leadership development should be studied. Studies that look critically at the question of how it is possible to perform evidence-based leadership development should also be done.

There are a lot of magazines and newspapers that now and then write about some successful leader. The tradition of these texts is such that only positive sides of leadership are emphasized. Any examples of failures are omitted from stories that are published in newspapers. Critical research should consider what kind of effects such a positive bias in leadership talk has and how it could be possible to accumulate knowledge of real-life situations in the field of leadership where there would be both positive and negative stories concerning leadership.

Last but not least, there should be research carried out on contextual leadership views on how to develop leadership in workplaces. This kind of research should concentrate on combining leadership development and the actual work of work groups, including leaders, managers, specialists and other members of the work groups. This kind of research should consider both questions of leadership and leadership development.

SUMMARY

Current and Future Leadership Education in Finland

Introduction

Leadership development seen from the point of view of educational institutes, has previously not been studied in Finland, although it is believed that leadership is the solution to almost every problem (Wilson 2016). But, in order to study leadership development in educational institutes, one has to define what is leadership, because the way we understand leadership will probably also guide our view of leadership development.

There are very many books and studies on leadership. However, there is no consensus of what leadership is (Kelly 2014, Bass 1990). Accordingly, there are very many leadership discourses which may be used in leadership development (Kellerman 2012). Paradoxically, even if leadership has been studied for more than 100 years, no leadership views have completely vanished. This means that even the most traditional discourses of leadership can still be used in leadership education, even if many researchers have criticized them.

Leadership views have been evolving from relatively simple views (for example, trait theories, behavioral theories, and situational theories) to complex discourses, where contextual and social constructionist discourses predominate (Lee et al. 2019). At the same time, the situations facing leaders have become more complex and puzzling (Fairhurst 2011). Leaders must nowadays face even bewildering situations more often than previously. No wonder that leaders and managers have been actively participating in many leadership training-courses.

In this study, leadership discourses were divided into three groups. In the first group was put the most traditional leadership discourses, such as behavioral theories and situational theories. The second group was formed of 'new leadership' discourses (transformational leadership and authentic leadership) and leadership discourses which emphasize communication and interaction, for example LMX-theory. The third group consists of contextual leadership discourses, for example, shared or distributed leadership (Ronald 2014).

In considering leadership development one has to draw a line between leader development and leadership development. Leader and manager development concentrates on individual leaders and managers who participate in leadership courses. On the contrary to that, leadership development means the development of leadership in the whole work organization (Olivares et al. 2007).

Leadership development is a central part of an organization's human resource management or strategic human resource management (Burgoyne 2010). Leadership development is also intricately connected to change management and organization development (Luoma 2009). There are many practices that are commonly used in leadership development, such as group works, exercises, cases, 360-degree evaluations, coaching and mentoring. In leadership training, these and many other practices can be combined in several ways (Day 2001). It

is also common that educational institutes claim that they are using the best and most effective practices, even if they do not measure the training effectiveness in any other way than just measuring the reactions of participants of their courses just after the seminar.

In this study, leadership development was divided into three groups. The first group consists of traditional leadership development methods where the most conventional leader training practices, such as class-room training, group work etc., are used. In the second group, there is strategy related leadership development, which is closely related to organizations strategy and human resource management. The third group consist of contextual leadership development.

Research questions

Based on these, the aim of the research is to answer the following question: What kind of discourses are used of both leadership and leadership development in educational institutes?

The research problem is divided into research questions as follows:

- *What kind of leadership discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?*
- *What kind of management and leadership development discourses are used in educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and in educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses?*
- *What kind of future visions of leadership and leadership development have educational institutes which arrange EMBA-courses and educational institutes which do not arrange EMBA-courses adopted?*

Research methods

The philosophical background of this study is hermeneutics (Gadamer 1996, 47–88 and (Gadamer 2004, 24–29) and social constructionism. This research is an interpretative qualitative research because people socially and symbolically construct and maintain their organizational realities (Burrell et al. 1979), such as management and leadership development. The aim of the qualitative research is to understand the subjective meanings of socially constructed phenomena such as management and leadership development in a particular educational institute. The dominant form of interpretative research is social construction (Eriksson et al. 2010). In interpretivism, the theory helps the researcher to understand the meanings, and hence the interpretations of the people involved (Myers 2009) in leadership development.

This study is a qualitative case study in which the data were collected by interviewing managers and specialists who are working in educational institutes in Finland. In this research, case study refers to an exploration of the uniqueness of a particular educational institute in its real-life situation (Thomas

2016, 10). Several cases are jointly studied to inquire the phenomena of views held of leadership and leadership development. So, this research is a multiple case study which enables one to explore differences and similarities within and between cases (Baxter & Jack 2008, 548).

In addition, document materials were collected that offered information about management and leadership development and education. The data consists of their own Internet pages and marketing materials and course programs. The analysis of the data was performed through content analysis and especially through Gioia methodology (Gioia et al. 2012).

The gathering of data began in January 2018 by searching for possible educational institutes from the Internet. At the same time, some preliminary materials were gathered from all the 37 major educational institutes that announced on the internet that they operated in the field of management and leadership development. Out of these 37 educational institutes, 25 (68 %) agreed to the request. 8 universities (72 %) and 17 other educational institutes (65 %) agreed to participate in the study.

From the participating 25 educational institutes, 27 persons were interviewed. Interviews were conducted between February 2018 and October 2018. Out of these 27 persons, 16 persons (59 %) were CEOs, five persons (19 %) were directors, and six persons (22 %) were professionals of the educational institution. The interviews lasted from between 55 minutes to 2 hours 11 minutes, and on average the interviews lasted 1 hour and 21 minutes.

Results

When comparing educational institutes, it was found that those educational institutes have adopted traditional leadership discourses are also using traditional leadership development methods and those educational institutes that have adopted new leadership discourses also use new leadership development methods.

When studying leadership discourses which the interviewed persons said were used in their educational institute's leadership training, it was found that most educational institutes use interactional leadership views in their leadership education. However, quite many educational institutes still use traditional leadership discourses in their leadership training. Quite many representatives of educational institutes spoke favorably of shared leadership and a few educational institutes trained coaching. Both shared leadership and coaching was classified to be a contextual leadership view in this study. It was also found that most representatives of educational institutes claimed that in their institute they tried to use leadership views that were used in their customer organization also in the leadership education. This means that educational institutes have to master several leadership views in their operations.

When comparing educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses to educational institutes that arrange EMBA-courses, one can say that leadership training in EMBA-courses is in secondary position compared to manage-

ment training. In EMBA-courses, such issues as strategic management and financial management dominate. So, leadership is not likely to be trained to top management and persons who are likely in the near future to apply top management positions. Leadership is mostly trained in educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses. The participants of these institutes are mostly supervisors, foremen and middle managers.

When studying what kind of leadership development views leaders and development specialists in educational institutes have adopted, it can be concluded that about half of the educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses mainly use traditional learning methods in leadership development. and over one third of educational institutes that do not arrange EMBA-courses use learning-oriented development methods in their leadership development. Those educational institutes that use simulation techniques in their leadership education were classified to use contextual development methods in their leadership development. However, none of the educational institutes that participated in the research have been able to move its leadership education in the workplace in the meaning which is described in situated learning methods so that leadership development and working would take part simultaneously.

Finally, it was found that the interviewed persons talked much less about the future visions of leadership and leadership development in their educational institute and when they talked, they talked of humanistic views and the use of new technology.

Conclusions

This research suggests that there is a need to increase the cooperation between leadership researchers and educational institutes that develop leadership. This cooperation is needed in order to facilitate the application of contextual leadership discourses in organizations.

The research also suggests that there exists a need to develop contextual leadership development methods. This could mean that leadership development would be carried out in the workplace while people are working. This kind of development could increase the true application of shared leadership in organizations.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: THE QUESTIONS USED IN THE INTERVIEWS

A. History of the educational institute and its leadership education

1. Background knowledge of the organization.

The name of the organization. The name of the person interviewed. The position of the interviewed person in the organization. How long has the interviewed person been working in the organization?

2. The establishment of the organization.

When was the education institution established? What was the history behind the establishment of the education institute? What kind of events were there behind the establishment of the education institute?

3. The beginning of leadership training in the education institute.

When did the training institute begin to first arrange leadership training events or courses? What kind of courses were arranged when the leadership training in the institute began? What kind of leadership views were adopted when the first courses took place? What kind of targets were there set for the first leadership courses? What kind of training methods were used in the first leadership training courses?

B. Contemporary leadership education of the education institute

4. Describe the main features of the leadership education which this education institute gives nowadays.
5. Describe what kind of leadership views are used in the leadership education in the education institute nowadays?"

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following leadership views are similar and which are dissimilar to the leadership views that are used in the institutes leadership development: 1) Traditional or behavioral theories, 2) theories that emphasize interaction such as transformational leader-

ship or LMX and 3) contextual leadership theories such as shared leadership?

Which leadership views do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

6. What are the most important issues in management education in your education institute?

Laddering question:

In your opinion what is most important in the leadership training in the institution that you represent? 1) Efficiency, 2) Economy, 3) Technology, 4) Environment, 5 Humanism.

Why?

7. What needs does management coaching seek to meet?
8. What are the basic motives behind leadership education in your institute?

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following motives are similar and which are dissimilar to the motives that are behind leadership education in your educational institute: 1) Economic gain of the educational institute, 2) Economic gain of the customer organization, 3) Effectiveness of education, 4) Social impact of education.

Which motives do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

9. What goals does leadership education have in your institute?
10. What is leadership development mainly focused on in your institute?

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following areas are similar and which are dissimilar to the areas that are mainly focused on in your educational institute: 1) Developing skills of individual participants, 2) Developing

identities of participants, 3) Developing interaction and human relations skills of participants, 4) Developing organizational culture, 5) Developing cooperation between functional and organizational units.

Which areas do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

11. What stage of the career is being focused on in education (The beginning of the career, the middle of the career, becoming head of unit, transition to senior management, training of senior management).
12. How long is the usual leadership training course and in what kind of phases it is usually divided?
13. What are the most often used topics or themes of the leadership education?
14. What kind of persons usually take part in the leadership training events of courses?
15. What kind of persons are usually teaching in the leadership events or courses?
16. Which roles do the trainers take in the leadership training of this institute? (1) Specialist who delivers knowledge, 2) Specialist who discusses with participants, 3) Facilitator, who leads discussions)?
17. What topics does management training address?
18. What methods are mainly used in the leadership education in this institute?

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following methods are similar and which are dissimilar to the methods that are mainly used in your educational institute: 1) Lectures, 2) Groupworks, 3) Discussions in the classroom, 4) Exercises, 5) Computer assisted learning methods, 6) Simulations, 7) Cases, 8) 360 degree evaluations, 9) Mentoring, 10) Coaching, 11) Action learning, 12) Books.

Which methods do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

19. How well do the methods fit together in your courses?
20. What are the strengths of the leadership education in your institute?
21. What are the weaknesses of the leadership education in your institute?
22. What is the training effectiveness of leadership training provided by your education institute?
23. How do you evaluate and measure the training effectiveness of the leadership education of your institute?
24. What challenges or difficulties does leadership education face in your institution?

C. Future visions of leadership education (in about 5 years from now)

25. In your opinion, how will leadership views change in the future?
26. Describe what kind of leadership views, in your opinion, will be used in the leadership education in the education institute?"

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following leadership views are similar and which are dissimilar to the leadership views that will be used in the institutes leadership development: 1) Traditional or behavioral theories, 2) Theories that emphasize interaction, such as transformational leadership or LMX and 3) Contextual leadership theories, such as shared leadership?

Which leadership views do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

27. Describe what kind of leadership education your institute will probably give in the future?
28. Describe what kind of themes and methods there will be in the leadership education of this institute in the future?

29. Describe how the leadership education which this institute will arrange in the future will be different from the leadership education which this institute gives nowadays?
30. What will probably be the basic motives behind leadership education in the future in your institute?

Laddering question:

In your opinion, which of the following motives are similar and which are dissimilar to the motives that will be behind leadership education in the future in your institute: 1) Economic gain of the educational institute, 2) Economic gain of the customer organization, 3) Effectiveness of education, 4) Social impact of education.

Which motives do you consider to be better- the similar ones or the dissimilar ones?

Why?

31. What kind of leadership skills in the leadership training of your institute will probably be emphasized in the future?
32. How can future leadership education meet the challenges of globalization?
33. How can future leadership education meet the challenges of new technology, such as virtual reality?
34. How can future leadership education meet the challenges of multiculturalism?
35. How can one measure training effectiveness and training impact in the future?
36. How do you see the future of the leadership training institute that you represent?

APPENDIX II. An example of classification framework (case N)

The transcribed texts of interviews of each educational institute were first read through several times. Then the texts of each educational institute were classified by using the informant centered views. In the classification framework, an example of case N below, there are first shown the interview texts and the classification of these texts.

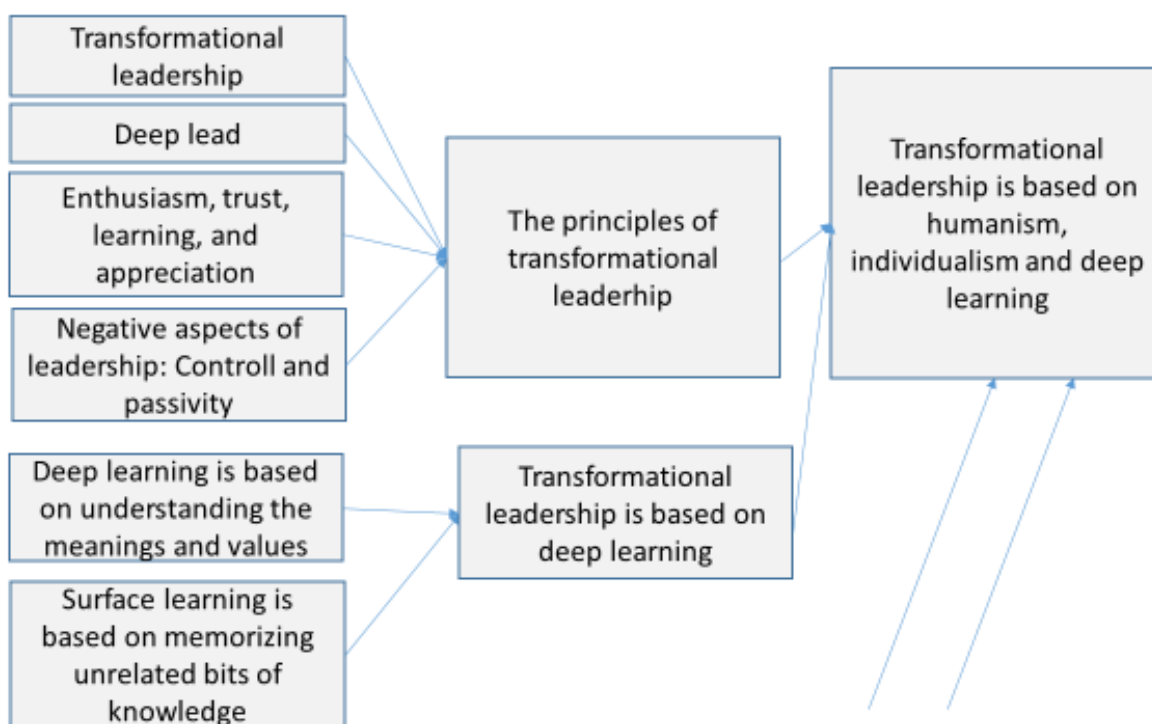
Table 1. An example of interview citations and 1st order concepts in case N

Citation in the interview (case N)	Informant centered classification of the text
<i>The aim of NN was to develop a better leadership view to the army and he pondered what might be a better way to give and receive feedback and then he happened to find these theories of transformational leadership and the research done by Bass and Avolio and he was very interested.</i>	Transformational leadership
<i>If we consider where the deep lead model has come from, we must say that the concept deep comes from learning theories, which was created by Marton.</i>	Deep lead
<i>We have been able to identify what is good leadership, what the participants of our courses have experienced to be good leaders. We ask participants to describe a real person who they have considered to be a good leader... We speak of the cornerstones of leadership. These are such as enthusiasm, trust, learning and appreciation.</i>	The cornerstones of leadership: enthusiasm, trust, learning and appreciation.
<i>The other side of the coin is something that we often want to challenge are barriers to development, such as control and passivity. If there is too much control, it prevents cooperation. But if control does not in any way disrupt cooperation and interaction that is goal oriented, it may direct attention towards objectives. Passivity takes energy away.</i>	Barriers to development: Control and passivity.
<i>Surface learning is learning by just repeating phrases such as "a pike is a fish" and deep learning is the learning of the meanings of things.</i>	Surface and deep learning.
<i>Our leadership model is humanistic in that way that we believe in the person's ability to change through feedback. We believe that efficiency is not a cause, but an effect and we put humanism first.</i>	Humanistic leadership is effective.
<i>We believe that everybody can change through feedback... In organizations and in management groups there are sometimes conflicts and dysfunctionality. It is particularly important to get the connections working, to open the channels. When the channels are open, the persons working there will gain a lot more energy... We challenge the self-concept</i>	Individual leaders must change, if one wants to change leadership.

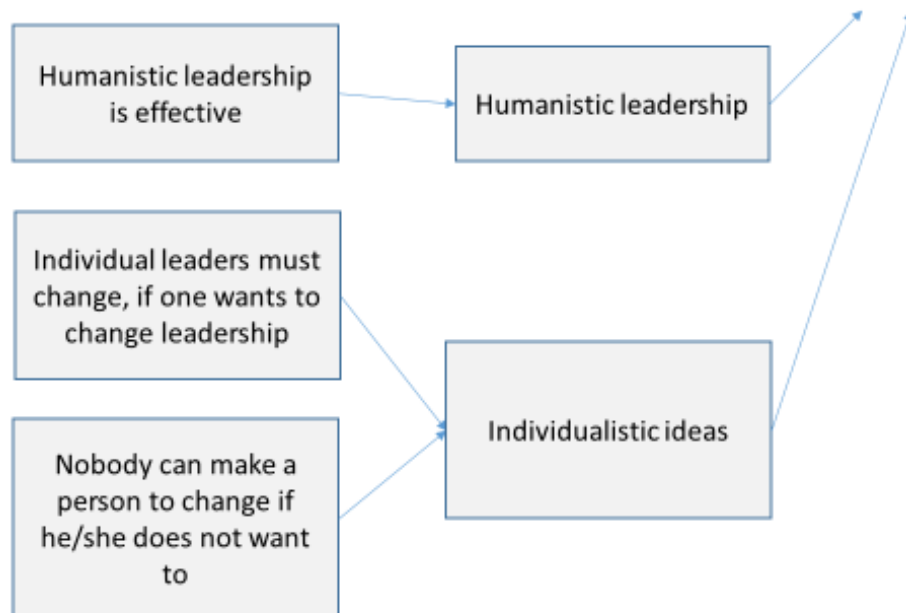
<i>that a participant has and we challenge the behavior that the participant uses... We start from the individual.</i>	
<i>If a person has strong resistance to change, a person who does not want to do anything as a participant of a course, and, even if the leaders of the course tried to make some sort of confrontation, there will be no development. Nobody can develop for another. So, one could say that this is not a shocking training or shocking method which could force persons to change.</i>	Nobody can make a person change if he/she does not want to.

The informant-centered concepts (1st order concepts) in Table 1 are the starting point described in the Figure 1 (below) where the boxes in the left are the same as in Table 1. The informant-centered concepts of the Figure 1 are shortened expressions used by the interviewed person. These informant centered concepts are then classified and put together in the same themes according to the similarity of the concepts (boxes in the middle). The leadership assumptions (aggregate dimensions) of each case were finally described in the box which is in the right part of Figure 1. Similar process was also done to 1) the leadership development assumptions, and 2) leadership and 3) leadership development visions expressed by the interviewed persons.

The classification framework of case N: Leadership assumptions, Part 1



The classification framework of case N: Leadership assumptions, Part 2



Appendix III: The most often used concepts related to leadership that interviewed persons used. (Number of words used per educational institute)

Case	LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT		LEADERSHIP				
	Leadership / Management	Change	Coach	Inter - action	Team	Work-group	Communication
A	11	5	8	7	5	0	3
B	3	5	55	25	4	0	0
C	7	6	4	18	9	3	0
D	4	4	0	4	0	3	0
E	12	14	10	3	4	0	0
F	11	11	2	5	2	1	2
G	3	5	11	12	18	4	0
H	11	7	1	4	2	1	0
I	3	13	4	0	0	0	4
J	20	5	4	3	0	2	0
K	29	0	1	0	10	1	0
L	3	0	9	11	2	0	2
M	12	11	2	1	49	1	0
N	12	13	1	5	1	0	0
O	4	2	0	4	3	1	2
P	14	8	2	2	2	0	0
Q	19	5	1	3	1	2	0
R	7	0	1	3	0	0	4
S	4	0	2	0	1	3	0
T	8	8	1	4	0	3	1
U	8	2	0	2	2	2	0
V	9	0	2	5	1	2	3
X	9	2	6	9	3	3	1
Y	12	0	4	0	0	2	0
Z	6	4	1	2	2	1	1
Total	241	130	132	132	120	35	23

Appendix IV: The most often used concepts related to management that interviewed persons used. (Number of words used per educational institute)

Case	MANAGEMENT				
	Superior	(Business) Economy	Econo-	Strategy	Results
A	32	2		1	9
B	1	3		0	3
C	3	3		1	0
D	0	2		3	0
E	40	2		2	5
F	7	5		8	4
G	23	4		2	2
H	8	2		9	0
I	1	2		8	1
J	5	7		4	3
K	10	3		3	1
L	14	5		0	1
M	14	2		0	2
N	2	3		3	3
O	2	8		0	3
P	2	5		8	7
Q	9	3		4	0
R	1	0		3	1
S	2	4		1	2
T	0	4		3	1
U	0	3		3	1
V	1	3		0	0
X	0	13		5	0
Y	1	9		5	2
Z	3	5		4	3
Total	181	102		80	54

Appendix V: The most often used concepts related to management and leadership development that interviewed persons used. (Number of words used per educational institute)

Case	TRADITIONAL VIEWS			LEARNING VIEWS			CONTEXTUAL VIEWS		
	Train	Cour- se	Teach	Met- hod	Skills	Know- ledge	De- velop	Experi- ence	Facili- tate
A	36	16	0	6	20	4	16	8	2
B	57	2	1	7	10	0	24	2	1
C	44	3	0	15	12	4	16	3	5
D	55	0	4	11	3	0	26	17	1
E	51	0	1	20	8	5	25	11	2
F	74	2	2	5	5	1	15	7	0
G	69	2	0	31	47	9	51	0	9
H	59	2	2	2	5	0	6	10	8
I	34	6	1	13	5	0	11	3	1
J	45	0	1	11	5	5	20	5	10
K	57	4	2	0	4	8	14	6	3
L	56	1	0	16	3	9	36	2	4
M	31	2	1	9	4	4	30	3	3
N	25	1	0	4	0	2	16	4	0
O	53	1	3	9	12	15	16	3	3
P	47	9	0	14	3	1	19	0	0
Q	61	9	1	17	5	5	26	1	0
R	54	1	1	17	6	6	15	1	1
S	45	37	4	1	5	17	12	1	0
T	56	19	1	9	9	5	21	3	1
U	54	19	4	16	7	19	24	7	2
V	72	12	1	0	8	13	35	4	0
X	66	25	8	26	4	0	24	0	0
Y	54	11	1	1	1	0	24	1	5
Z	81	15	3	15	5	4	23	14	3
Total	1336	199	42	275	191	136	529	116	64

Appendix VI: Management and leadership development methods used in educational institutes

Case	Lec- tures	Group works	Dis- cus- sions in class- room	Ex- cer- cises	Com- puter- aided teac- hing	Simu- lations	Cases	360- eval.	Coac- - hing	Books
A	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
B	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x
C	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x
D	x	x	x	x		x	x			
E	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		
F		x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
G		x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
H	x	x	x	x	x			x		x
I	x	x	x	x						
J	x	x	x	x			x	x		x
K	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
L	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
M	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
N	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
O						x	x	x		
P	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
Q	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
R	x	x	x	x			x			x
S	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
T	x	x	x	x	x		x			x
U	x	x	x	x	x		x			x
V	x	x	x	x	x		x			x
X	x	x	x	x	x		x			x
Y	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x
Z	x	x	x	x	x		x			x
Total	22	24	24	24	19	7	22	16	6	21