Leadership Development for International Crises Management: The Whole Person Approach

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Abstract
Leadership development (LD) is critical in peacebuilding and crises management where leadership decisions have far-reaching consequences. As organisations navigate turbulence, agile leaders who can deal with information extremes, take critical decisions, and deliver change are needed. We find contemporary LD approaches are conceptually not geared to deliver such leaders. From a developmental perspective, the problem lies in the preponderance of reductionist ideas, an overwhelming focus on managerial skills and competencies, and a short-term outlook on development that diminish the value of leadership courses. This exploratory article emphasises the value of LD and proposes a rethink in how LD is approached at individual and organisational levels. A holistic, flexible, and longitudinal approach—the whole person approach (WPA)—is proposed, which encourages individuals and organisations to work jointly towards LD. WPA is equally relevant for other sectors and organisations where volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity affect positive change.

Keywords
international crisis management, leadership development, whole person approach, VUCA, complexity

Introduction and Background
In his address to the UN General Assembly in September 2018, the UN Secretary General observed that “21st century challenges outpace 20th century institutions and mind-sets” (Guterres, 2018). The Secretary General’s remark echoes back to similar concerns raised in earlier years by scholars, international organisations, and corporations (OECD, 2001; World Bank, 1997). Genovese (2016) suggests we live in an age of “hyper-change,” and whilst organisations have learned to adapt to external change in the past, hyper-change will test future leadership to its limits. To deal with such challenges, Tal and Gordon
suggest that we need to move away from the idea of the omnipotent heroic leader and towards a more “distributed” concept, embracing wider ownership of responsibilities, as posited over two decades ago by the World Bank (1997). These observations are particularly relevant in international crisis management (ICM) where building multi-agency collaboration, networking, and cooperation go hand-in-hand when dealing with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty.

ICM has become a permanent feature of international relations: It is both complex and controversial due to the nature of conflicts and crises but also the nature of actors. ICM includes civilian crisis management, humanitarian aid and assistance, humanitarian intervention, peace-support, peacekeeping, peacebuilding, and peacemaking (Houben, 2005). The scope of ICM today has expanded to include civilian-led initiatives (Tardy, 2017, p. 10) and is very different from the military-like interventions of the 1990s. Whilst there are more and more civilians engaged in conflict management, we observe that the increase in civilian-led missions is not reflected in a corresponding growth in leadership development (LD). Kaufmann (1996) observed that ICM, instead of providing a solution, often becomes an intractable part of the problem. The Bosnian Civil War (1989–1996) is a case in point. For the UN and the European Union, it was the first real post–Cold War test of ICM and exposed myriad shortfalls, ranging from legal and structural issues to leadership and management in interconnected complex systems.

The Bosnian Civil War, part of a wider crisis in the Balkans in the 1990s, had roots that can be traced back to the Christian schism of 1054 when the Orthodox Byzantine and Roman Catholic Churches split, redefining ethnicity- and faith-based frontiers. The Ottoman conquest of the region after the battle of Kosovo Field (1389) added yet another dimension (Mojzes, 2016). The collapse of Yugoslavia, a violent and ugly spike within the wider crises that the region faced following the death of Marshall Tito in May 1980, is an example of how long-standing unresolved and recurring problems can re-emerge and give rise to conflict. The UN humanitarian intervention in the conflict exposed soldiers, civilian staff, and leaders at different levels to the new complexities and inexplicable emergent behaviours of actors in a conflict that made even basic humanitarian intervention a “wicked problem.” Rittel and Webber (1973) describe wicked problems as unsolvable, unbounded issues that are socially or culturally constructed, lack clarifying traits, and are thus difficult to ring fence. Such problems follow no rules, are intractable due to the number of factors and opinions involved, are always connected to other problems, and, therefore, are generally impossible to define (1973, p. 160).

In the spring of 1993, soldiers and commanders of a British unit in Bosnia faced unforeseen moral dilemmas that drove a wedge between the mission objectives and individual conscience (Watters, 2019). Neutrality, as it then applied, required that soldiers should not intervene in the fighting at any cost. In the spring of 1993 during a spate of house to house clearances by armed gangs, a military patrol opted to save human life by attempting to evacuate civilians from imminent danger, and in doing so, they knowingly violated the principle of neutrality (Watters, 2019). In trying to do the morally right thing, the patrol consciously and willingly exposed themselves to formal disciplinary action. Military training had not prepared these soldiers or their leaders for the kind of ethical and moral challenges they found themselves dealing with. As the system adapted to interventions at all levels, from grand strategy to the business of delivering aid in the field, the disconnects and inconsistencies in principles and practice, and between humanitarian support and humanitarian consequences, continued to expand. Lessons gleaned during the spring and summer of 1993 in the Balkans influence international law and UN operations to the present day, creating formal ICM space for regional organisations, non-governmental organisations, and local volunteers. Organisations engaged in peacebuilding and ICM need better leadership and investment in LD.
LD is an intentional, forward-looking process aimed at preparing agile and adaptive leaders who can deliver leadership and change in complex systems. In an increasingly complex world, Kotter (2012) argues that organisations are overmanaged and underled (p. 30). We reiterate this view and find a predominance of reductionist approaches. Civil organisations adopt a short-term outlook on LD, and the military, whilst taking a long-term approach, only partially focuses on ICM. Continuing the current practice of underinvesting in developing the capacity of leaders is short-sighted, irresponsible, and incompatible with the concept of Duty of Care as recognised by the EU (EEAS, 2017, p. 6; Merkelbach, 2017). We agree with Oddou and Mendenhall (2018) that contemporary LD approaches are based on an array of courses and workshops that are management-oriented but fall short of addressing the leadership needs for ICM. A unifying framework that staff and organisations could use to forecast and address development needs is missing. This exploratory article addresses the challenge of balancing LD across the breadth and depth of organisational and individual needs within the context of ICM and proposes a novel approach to deal with the deficit. We briefly look at the ICM context and survey contemporary approaches to LD within the EU. Drawing on best practices across sectors, we advance the whole person approach (WPA) as a guiding framework for LD that individuals and organisations can apply.

International Crises Management Context and LD

Observing an international power vacuum after the collapse of the Soviet Union and the resulting “disorder” that followed, Barber (1992) described the world as volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA; p. 8). This acronym combined two challenges for defence and security: first, an organisation’s ability to pace internal development with changes in the external environment (Bennins & Nanus, 1985); and second, an unforeseen set of external challenges emerging out of the unstable and uncertain environment within which the U.S. Military found itself in the early 1990s. The contemporary usage of VUCA has wider application and includes interdependent connected systems, disruptive technologies, globalisation, and what we see as the new “global-social”—the collective power and influence of social media—to name a few. For LD, we see VUCA as the transition from known to unknown, possibly unknowable threats and challenges and the ambiguity that mirrors across peace and security contexts within ICM. In this sense, LD is about increasing the individual’s or collective’s ability to deal with complexity, enhancing their potential, and supporting engagement with others towards achieving collective objectives or driving change (Santana, 2009) for peace and development in general and ICM in particular.

ICM is an example par excellence of the deep, systemic challenges (Atree, Street, & Venchiarutti, 2018; Senge, 2006) that outpace institutions and mindsets. ICM sits within a “complex adaptive system”—“open, evolutionary aggregates whose components (or agents) are dynamically interrelated and who are cooperatively bonded by common purpose or outlook” (Uhl-Bein, Marion, & Mc Kelvey, 2007). Complex adaptive systems are non-linear, dynamic systems that evolve around entities consisting of many diverse, autonomous, and interrelated agents. These entities learn from experience, are interdependent and interconnected, and constantly adjust to changes in the environment. Small changes in a subsystem can have significant effects, implying that perfect knowledge of individual parts in a subsystem is insufficient for predicting resultant whole-of-system behaviour. Issues addressed in ICM are difficult to conceptualise and can be described as both adaptive (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009) and what Rittel and Webber (1973) call “wicked” (defined above). Such problems evolve with every intervention; they often appear to go away but in fact are not actually solved but “re-solved” repeatedly (Grint, 2008). Wicked problems have emergent qualities and
behaviours (P. Allen, 2018) that are often missed. In social systems, this emergence embraces struggle over diverse ideas, “the reformation of existing elements that are qualitatively different from the original elements; and self-organisation” (Uhl-Bein et al., 2007, p. 308).

The connection between adaptive organisations and leadership is well recognised (Gibson & Tarrant, 2010; McLAY, 2014; Nadler & Tushman, 1990; Uhl-Bein et al., 2007). ICM, like management of any commercial organisation, requires leaders able to deal with turbulence in the organisational, team, and individual contexts. Tano (2006) finds that “agile leaders are creative thinkers with a deep sense of purpose,” are architects of agile teams, and build agile organisations (p. 9). In today’s VUCA world, agile leaders able to deal with extremes of information, capable of taking critical decisions, and delivering change proactively are needed. This is possible through a holistic and long-term approach to LD. There exist conflicting views on agency, the value of individualistic focus, group context, or social orientation to LD (Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White, & Schedlitzki, 2013). We argue that it is not only the conflicting approaches or focus on agency that affect the quality and value of contemporary LD approaches; a preponderance of reductionist ideas, an overwhelming focus on managerial skills and competencies, and a short-term outlook on development are also factors. Leaders at all levels need a more formal and structured yet flexible and non-prescriptive way to approach their own development. They must prepare themselves for situations of extreme emotional stress, internal and external noise, and still deliver effective management and leadership to their organisations.

Leadership and LD?

To develop leaders, we need to understand leadership. The terms leadership and management are often used interchangeably. Albeit interconnected, leadership and management are part of different systems of action and therefore require different approaches for development. Management is a process driven by a pursuit for efficiency, effectiveness, and upwards accountability to formal authority. The manager–staff relationship is what Northouse (2019) describes as a “unidirectional authority relationship” (p. 15). As everything has a clear purpose, a clear place in the system, and progressions are predictable, management effectiveness can be reduced to skills and competences related to agreed processes and creative problem-solving. Managers higher up in the organisation are more strategic, but the focus on effectiveness, efficiency, and accountability constrains thinking and action. Leadership, on the other hand, is a multidirectional influence relationship (Northouse, 2019, p. 15) that deals with change and movement (Kotter, 2001). Short of the horizon, within a space that is more predictable, change is premised on what needs to be done for organisational success and survival. Beyond the horizon, the zone of ambiguity and uncertainty expands and the focus shifts to vision—the long-term direction for the organisation and more significantly, people within the organisation.

Leadership theory is a natural starting point for designing the “why, what, and how” of LD; however, a universal, cogent, and coherent set of theories that clarify the discipline and define leadership is not possible (Latham, 2014). Bennis and Goldsmith (2010) also challenge the notion of a general reflective theory of leadership in the face of “pervasive incapacity of organisations” and chronic crisis of governance in a complex and changing world. Zyl (2019) echoes this in the context of peace leadership. Oddou and Mendenhall (2018) observe that in an interdependent world, leaders must work with complexity and draw on the experience of foreign partners who are more aware of the cultural milieu to create strategic alliances. Leadership theories have been reflective by nature and tend to remain fixated on hierarchical, top-down industrial age bureaucratic frameworks (Gronn, 2000; Uhl-Bein et al., 2007) and treat LD as the development of skills and competencies.
Leadership cannot exist without people—the followers, including other leaders—to influence and can be seen as a relationship between two or more individuals in a system (Day, 2014). Combining relational and complexity dimensions with a more widely agreed idea of leadership as influence, we define leadership in organisations as the art of influence and nurturance of positive changes in a complex adaptive system. A variety of approaches may be needed for effective leadership in ICM, and no single theory or approach, as Bennis and Goldsmith (2010) observe for the corporate world, sufficiently encompasses the complexity. Whilst reviewing the whole range of theories on LD is beyond the scope of this article, we now take a closer look at three that, in our opinion, are particularly relevant to the ICM context.

**Vertical LD**

Vertical development theories differentiate between horizontal development—doing things better—and vertical development—enhancing thinking abilities and mindsets (Petrie, 2014b). A common feature in vertical development is the expansion of consciousness or worldview in the individual and the system. These theories build on developmental psychology, associated with the state encompassing feelings, values, motivations, neurological activation, belief systems, learning systems, and theories of leadership appropriate for that state (Wilber, 2000, p. 5).

**Complexity Leadership Theory**

Recognising limitations of traditional leadership theories with their top-down and simplistic view of the leadership process, complexity leadership theory attempts to address the complex adaptive needs of organisations (Lichtenstein et al., 2006; Uhl-Bein, 2006). The theory focuses on leadership in “organizations dealing with rapidly changing, complex problems in the overlapping hierarchies linked in an interactive network” (Tal & Gordon, 2016, p. 260). Uhl-Bein et al. (2007) suggest that certain interactions within a social network produce non-linear impact on subsequent interactions, the very source of volatility, uncertainty, and ambiguity in complex ICM (Watters, 2019). Complexity leadership embraces an endogenous, time-dependent perspective of change in social systems and explains how new social structures come into existence (Lichtenstein et al., 2006) and therefore has greater utility in ICM.

**Adaptive Leadership**

Connecting problem typologies with leadership styles is not new. Grint (2008), for example, proposes leadership and management as ways to approach “wicked” and “tame” problems—those that have technical solutions, even though they may be complex—respectively. He introduces a third category of problems, the “critical problem”—one that requires urgent decisions because of the consequences attached to delaying action. Grint suggests command (authoritative decision-making), leadership (consultative approach, asking the right questions), and management (scientific prescription) as the approaches most suited to critical, wicked, and tame problems, respectively. Heifetz and Linsky (2002), using an organisational prism, take a functional view of wicked problems and reframe these as adaptive, proposing a pan-system view and a proactive approach. Proponents of Adaptive Leadership suggest that the theory provides a practical framework for organisational change in a complex world (Heifetz et al., 2009). In ICM situations, we believe Adaptive Leadership complements complexity leadership theory but needs additional “plug-ins” as most approaches, whilst incorporating followership interactions remain top-down.
Spheres of Leadership: Complexity, Decision, and Action

From the nature of wicked problems within complex adaptive systems, and the need for agility and adaptive leadership as also posited in complexity leadership theory, we conclude that leadership and its effectiveness are the sum of five interconnected spheres of influence. We propose that LD must address development both within and across these spheres:

**Turbulence:** The existence or emergence of opportunities; opposing intelligent mindsets, fog and benign or active friction—the net sum of threats, opportunities, and VUCA to an organisation’s context.

**People:** Relationship and influence without people is meaningless; people are the common denominator for purpose, relationship, and influence. Leadership is thus directed at people and for people, moving them and the organisation towards a better future. The people sphere includes followers, peers, and other leaders.

**Vision:** This is the organisation’s future direction and is manifested in beliefs, values, goals, and actions. The vision serves as a source of inspiration and as a compass that guides organisational development and decisions. The vision is meaningless unless it is equally connected to people, values, mission, and objectives.

**Change:** Leaders deliver change that extends to systems, organisations, and individuals. Change occurs in the physical domain, but mindsets are equally important.

**Leader:** The leader sphere captures mindset, distal and proximal attributes (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004), world view, cognitive biases, and other internal influences that affect reasoning and drive decisions. Leadership, we argue, is a unique dialectic and thus has a subjective quality in every leader–follower relationship.

**Leadership sweet spot:** From a design perspective, the leadership sweet spot depicts the scope and direction of LD; whereas, from an evaluation standpoint, it is the existential product of strengths and weaknesses in each of the five spheres above. Every leader—the individual with unique distal and proximal attributes—gives leadership a unique, individual quality. The leadership sweet spot is equally concerned with the needs of an individual within an organisation and their personal development. As we move from design to reality, the leadership exhibits emergent qualities and becomes more complicated to measure or quantify, particularly since a return on investment is not immediate, unlike developing skills and competencies, which can be measured immediately. In organisations, the leadership sweet spot must be seen in relation to an individual as well as collective context because leadership today is no longer heroic but about a collective of leaders and followers. The relationship is illustrated in Figure 1.1

Leadership aligns people with purpose, priorities, and resources; good management then takes over to deliver results. The coupling points between leadership and management are the domains of action and mark the transitioning of mindset from a managerial one to a leadership one (ZIF, 2018). Figure 1 provides a framework for designing, implementing, and analysing leadership needs and LD programmes.

**EU Capacity Development for ICM**

The EU has an imminent interest in the effectiveness of the EU’s Common Security and Defence Policy, and it recognises training as a fundamental component of effectiveness (EEAS, 2017, p. 2). The EU has funded various research projects focusing on capacity development for crisis management, for example, PeaceTraining.eu and Whole-of-Society Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (WOSCAP) through the Horizon 2020 modality (PeaceTraining.eu, 2018; WOSCAP, 2018). The infrastructure for
capacity development of staff, in particular for civilians, working in ICM has developed rapidly in Europe since the end of the Cold War, and today there are more than 100 providers (Wolter, Tanase, Brand Jacobsen, & Curran, 2017). Current professional development includes academic, postgraduate, and extracurricular courses that last from a few hours to several weeks and are offered in various formats such as online, face-to-face, or as blended learning (Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution, 2018; ESDC, 2018; Patrir, 2018; ZIF, 2018). These courses tend to be content-heavy and primarily focus on transfer of knowledge and competencies. Some, most notably the Hostile Environment Awareness Training and Training-of-Trainers courses, are also experiential.² There is a tendency to prioritise knowledge and skills that are seen as directly and immediately relevant for the performance of the job functions. Courses on offer tend to focus on management (Wolter & Leiberich, 2017, p. 44) and target (potential) senior mission leaders.

Often there are no, or very limited, provisions for professional development beyond pre-deployment training, which is only designed to help trainees to perform basic day-to-day functions. The responsibility for ensuring adequate training of staff serving in EU missions across the gamut of ICM missions “rests with the contributing authorities, but also with the chain of command” (EEAS, 2017, p. 6). In practice, this means that missions, and mission planning staff, begin with the assumption that people to be deployed on mission will have attended at least a pre-deployment training.

The career paths of staff working in ICM are often non-linear and the time spent in one and the same mission limited. This is due not only to the hardship and non-family-friendly character of many duty stations but also to time limits on secondment that are put in place by some contributing authorities, which results in quick turnover of staff. There are limited incentives to invest in capacity development as staff typically leave the mission shortly afterwards. Utility of whatever little training occurs is limited since many leadership qualities, particularly distal and proximal qualities such as more inclusive mindsets and leadership intelligences (intellectual, cultural, emotional, intrapersonal, transformational, intuitive, body conscious, environmental), develop over time (J. Allen & Gutekunst, 2018, p. 17).

**Figure 1.** The five spheres of leadership and leadership development.
Our survey of current courses highlights a bias towards capabilities and skills and a lesser emphasis on essential but intangible and abstract areas. Crucial aspects of LD in a VUCA world, such as emotional maturity, are regarded as “personal” development and thus excluded by the missions or contributing parties. Another reason is the desire for immediate and measurable return on investment to justify value for money. LD in ICM requires general as well as specialised know-how and expertise where the effectiveness of LD programmes is hard to measure. Organisations engaged in ICM are not (yet) ready to commit to such initiatives and therefore tend to favour developing skills and competencies. To our best knowledge, objective measuring of return on investment in LD, beyond Kirkpatrick Level 2, is not practiced in ICM. In addition, EU crisis management operations are often understaffed (Tardy, 2015). In practice, this means that the operations and at times the staff themselves do not wish to take part in training since that would mean further absence from their workplace and an increase in their already heavy workloads.

The deficit in leadership due to lack of LD continues and is attributable in part to the motivation of actors engaged in ICM. These actors adapt and learn on the go, generally reactively in response to external or internal pressures. A recent report concluded that the “EU’s approach to the implementation of peacebuilding and conflict prevention interventions tends to focus on searching for technical solutions to what are often deeply political and complex issues”—wicked problems (Borgh, Martin, & Bojicic Dzelilovic, 2017). Research on leadership and complexity shows that today, many leaders beyond entry-level management are not equipped to deal with the complexity associated with their functions. They do not have the necessary leadership skills and lack the required system perspectives (Dawson, 2017; Heifetz et al., 2009; Kegan, 1994; Rich-Tolsma & Oliver, 2016). Consequently, many leaders cannot make decisions that are adequate to the complexity of situations and contexts. In ICM, bad decisions lead to loss of lives and human suffering. The focus on managerial skills and behaviours does not help develop leaders and decision makers able to deal with complexity. Many aspects of ICM do not respond well to reductionist, “take-it-apart-and-see-how-it-works approaches” (Snowden & Boone, 2007). Staff in ICM frequently confront wicked problems and operate on the edge of policy, are expected to deal with extremes of information from absence to overload, and are required to tackle critical problems (Grint, 2008) in life-and-death situations. Our example from Bosnia, and all complex ICM since, elucidates this point. Decisions need to be made in complex contexts that do not allow for a nuanced understanding of the situation and are marked by interconnectedness of systems, communities, and stakeholders. The different cultural values and expectations of colleagues and organisational politics, together with limited human and financial resources, further compound the problem.

**LD for ICM: Towards a WPA**

LD has professional, relational, and personal aspects and must also recognise drivers and blockers that stem from “worldviews, emotions, personality traits, and dispositional variables” (Woodward, Shaffakat, & Dominié, 2019). Balanced and sustained development along each of the trajectories illustrated in Figure 1 is needed and can be accelerated through interventions that build on reflective learning (Moon, 2004). There is a growing need to think and operate constructively outside of formal function and across organisational silos and boundaries (Petrie, 2014a) and be able to operate with extremes of
For leaders to increase their ability to deal with complexity, they need to modify and enlarge the way they give meaning to life.

We draw on “theories in use,” instruments, and practices that support the shift of basic assumptions that we have described above and include hierarchical complexity of thinking (Dawson, 2017), Street Smart Awareness (J. Allen & Gutekunst, 2018), Torbert’s Action Inquiry (2004; Erfan & Torbert, 2015), Leadership Circle 360° Profiling (TLC, 2018), Senge’s Fifth Discipline (2006), Adaptive Leadership (Heifetz et al., 2009; Kegan & Lahey, 2009) that allows the leader to pursue a set of goals and perspectives that appeared to be contradictory in their earlier mindset. In other words, the leader’s capacity for holding—coping and dealing with—ambiguity needs to grow.

Self-Awareness

The leadership journey begins with self-knowledge and self-awareness (Rosenbach, 2018). Perhaps the single most relevant practice in this area for the myriad leaders who suffer from high workload and high-paced lifestyles is to slow down and deliberately create open spaces where reflection is possible. A useful set of tools at individual and collective level is Street Smart Awareness (J. Allen & Gutekunst, 2018), which we will discuss later. Self-awareness work also implies learning how to uncover our often hidden and limiting mental models, including those that Kegan and Lahey (2009) call “big assumptions,” and replace them using tools such as Immunity to change. Another useful tool for self-awareness is Action Inquiry (Erfan & Torbert, 2015; Torbert, 2004). The Leadership Circle 360° profile developed by Anderson et al. is a sophisticated tool that provides a comprehensive framework for using feedback to generate self-awareness that can strengthen creative competencies that drive leadership effectiveness. It analyses the deeper patterns beneath everyday behaviour in the workplace and enables identification of the pathway for sustainable, effective change. Unlike other 360° instruments, Leadership Circle makes a distinction between creative leadership competencies and reactive tendencies that hold leaders back (TLC, 2018). There are now several instruments in the market that allow for assessing the complexity of thinking and mindsets of leaders. Amongst our favourite
ones are the Lectica™ Decision Making Assessment (LDMA), the Leadership Circle 360° profile, and the Global Leadership Profile. The LDMA, part of the Lectica suite, is a learning tool that supports the development of leaders’ decision-making skills. The assessment presents a real-world workplace dilemma, followed by a series of questions that ask leaders to discuss the nature of the problem, describe solutions, compare these solutions, and describe decision-making processes for similar situations. The LDMA focuses on three aspects: collaborative capacity: the ability to bring together diverse perspectives for inclusive, innovative, and effective solutions; contextual thinking: the ability to consider problems within the broader systems and contexts in which they are embedded; and cognitive complexity: the ability to think well about complex issues. LDMA is a formative assessment that provides the leader with an understanding of their current way or reasoning and how they would likely see the world from the next level (Lectica, 2018).

Learning Ability

Our ability to learn robustly and continuously in learning cycles that consist of goal setting, information gathering, application, feedback, and reflection is essential for growth. Robust learning and sense-making allow leaders to step outside their box, to a space where new knowledge can be linked to existing understanding and tested in real-world contexts, to provide solid foundations for future learning (Dawson, 2017). Knowledge correlates with good leadership; however, Gurteen (1998) argues that “explicit knowledge, tacit knowledge, information, experience and skill are not enough to make knowledge productive” (pp. 5–6). It is how that knowledge is managed within an individual or an organisation that leads to creativity and innovation (pp. 12–13). Putting knowledge into action requires competence but more significantly, the right motivation and positive attitude (p. 5).

Relationships

The third prerequisite is collaboration skills and the ability to work with others who represent a wide range of perspectives and areas of expertise. The term relational leadership attempts to move beyond “static exchanges and address dynamic leadership relationships within organizational contexts” (Antonakis & Day, 2018, p. 111). In a VUCA world, relationships are critical: Leaders need to embrace complexity as opportunity, value collaboration, and develop a network mindset. As scholarship on relational leadership grows, robust tools for diagnosing and developing relationships should follow. These should take a multidisciplinary, long-term view of relationships, focusing on both process and actors (Day, 2014; Uhl-Bein & Ospina, 2012). One of the lessons we draw from military leadership is that strong relationships over time contribute to influencing, facilitate “jointness,” and encourage collaboration towards developing common perspectives and robust solutions. These lessons are equally applicable, if not more so, in crises management, peacebuilding, and development.

Scaffolding for Contextual Thinking and Decision-Making Under Complexity

Leaders also need to learn how to use a wide range of tools to scaffold our contextual thinking and decision-making in complex settings. A range of tools can support leaders in this. When dealing with complexity, the Cynefin framework, a conceptual framework that draws on systems theory, complexity theory, network theory, and learning theories, can be used to aid decision-making (Snowden & Boone, 2007). The framework sorts issues facing leaders into four decision-making domains—obvious, complicated, complex, and chaotic—and a centre of disorder when an issue cannot be located within a decision-making domain. Each domain reflects different relationships between cause and effect. This implies different conceptual understanding and the need for adaptive leadership and to apply different tools and practices towards leadership decisions—the Leadership sweet spot of the WPA.
| WPA Sphere | Turbulence | Leader and Mindset | People | Visions | Change |
|------------|------------|--------------------|--------|---------|--------|
| Turbulence | Complexity theory | Self-awareness | Relational leadership | Stakeholder analysis | Change theory |
| Practice   | PESTLE Tool (See Johnson et al., 2017, p. 53) | Multiple intelligences (See for example Zaccaro, 2002) | Leader Member Exchange Theory (See Northouse, 2019, p. 139) | Power analysis | Organisational culture |
| Reflection  | Power and Influence | Discussion and focus groups | Reflective practice | Complexity theory | Schein’s model |
| Leader and mindset | Theory | Mythers Briggs Type Index (See Northouse, 2019, p. 36) | Social Interaction Theory | Bridges | Self-awareness |
| Practice   | | | | | Vertical development |
| Reflection  | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| People     | | | | | |
| Theory     | Situational Leadership Theory (See Blanchard et al., 2000) | Cognitive biases | Adaptive leadership | Resistance to change |
| Practice   | | | | Organisational culture |
| Reflection  | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Vision     | | | | | |
| Theory     | | | | | |
| Practice   | | | | | |
| Reflection  | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Change     | | | | | |
| Theory     | | | | | |
| Practice   | | | | | |
| Reflection  | | | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Leadership Sweet-Spot | | | | | |
| Theory     | Vertical development; complexity leadership; adaptive leadership; Leadership Sweet-Spot | | | | |
| Practice   | War-gaming and role play, sheep dipping, 360 appraisals, etc. | | | | |
| Reflection  | Leadership agility model, introspection, value-based leadership | | | | |

Note. An example of the range of education, training, coaching and assessments for WPA as part of a hypothetical ICM LD Programme Design. The matrix addresses the what and alludes to the how; however, not shown here, is the overarching-question “why?” that would invariably be the starting point for programme design. WPA = whole person approach; ICM = international crisis management; LD = leadership development.
Emotional and Body-Based Intelligence

Neuroscience research tells us that our memories, fears, and ambitions are not just stored in our head but carried in the cells of our bodies and that “the mind is embodied, not just enskulled” (Siegel, 2012, p. 5). To help adults develop and evolve, the most direct path may not be through the head but through the body (Petrie, 2015, p. 20).Mindfulness exercises, meditation, yoga, and various martial arts are widely accepted practices in the West that combine meditation and movements. Managing emotions and access to body-based intelligence are in our experience the most challenging aspects of LD. In our opinion, the key reasons for this lie in the fact that connecting with our emotions and bodies also means dealing with our old traumas and projections. Nonetheless, this is necessary for developing higher self-awareness, empathy, ability to connect with others, and to understand the beat of the system.

Applications of WPA

WPA provides a powerful vehicle for leadership needs assessment, leadership evaluation, and leadership programme design and can help human resource professionals to make informed decisions about LD in organisations. WPA is adaptive and can be tailored to incorporate situations and perceived needs for mid- to long-term contingencies; at the same time, the approach can address beyond-the-horizon leadership needs in a complex world. The approach is premised on relational dialectics, individual and social constructs, organisational contexts, and other influences within a complex adaptive system. It is about creativity and innovation and as such is non-prescriptive; we encourage use of existing tools and instruments as well as experimentation, combined with formative assessment tools to support leaders and LD. Applying the framework and positioning various specific interventions in each of the spheres of WPA is beyond the scope of this exploratory article; only the conceptual contours are advanced here. A hypothetical example of how WPA may translate to programme design is shown in Table 1. Programme monitoring and evaluation, gap analysis, needs assessment, and personal development plans are some of the other ways in which organisations and individuals could apply WPA.

Conclusion

Hyper-change places greater premium on leaders and their ability to adapt themselves and the organisations they lead. In the international and multi-agency landscape of peacebuilding and development, WPA provides a powerful mechanism for LD at many levels. Applied as a framework, WPA provides both a conceptual and a practical tool for monitoring, evaluating, and developing human capital needs in organisations. Because WPA aims at the leader and the leadership collective, which in our conception of the leadership sweet spot includes followers and co-leaders, the approach provides a unifying logic to organisational development. We believe there is great potential to develop not just programmes and evaluations but general and specific tools and approaches using WPA. This research questions the foundations of contemporary LD approaches in peace and development studies and opens the door for wider as well as pointed research on the aims, objectives, design, and process of LD. We emphasise that whilst we have used ICM as a context, WPA is equally relevant across other sectors too. WPA is adaptive, allowing leaders to take charge of their own development, draw on programmes and concepts relevant to their particular industry, whilst also drawing on relevant cross-sector offerings.
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Notes

1. The model is based on a framework introduced by Zaidi (2015) for leadership short course design and applied in the UK Ministry of Defence Strategic Leadership Programme.
2. For a detailed discussion and thematic overview of courses, see Wolter, Tanase, Brand Jacobsen, and Curran (2017).
3. The degree to which participants acquire the intended knowledge, skills, attitude, confidence, and commitment based on their participation in the training (Kirkpatrick Partners, n.d.).

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