Two decades of self-leadership theory and research
Past developments, present trends, and future possibilities

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to provide a thorough review of self-leadership literature past and present, including a historical overview of how the concept was created and expanded as well as a detailed look at more recent self-leadership research trends and directions. The paper also presents a theoretical and conceptual explanation and differentiation of the self-leadership concept relative to other related motivational, personality, and self-influence constructs.

Design/methodology/approach – Self-leadership research and related literatures of motivation, personality and self-influence are discussed and described in order to present the current state of the self-leadership body of knowledge and to suggest future directions to explore and study.

Findings – It is suggested that self-leadership is a normative model of self-influence that operates within the framework of more descriptive and deductive theories such as self-regulation and social cognitive theory.

Research limitations/implications – While self-leadership research composes an impressive body of knowledge, it is a domain of study that has been under-investigated in some aspects, both empirically and conceptually.

Practical implications – This paper suggests several future directions that researchers can undertake to advance self-leadership knowledge.

Originality/value – This paper fills a void in the organizational literature by reviewing the body of self-leadership knowledge, by stating how self-leadership is a distinctive theory in its own, and by presenting directions for future self-leadership research.

Keywords Leadership, Empowerment, Motivation (psychology), Management techniques

Paper type Conceptual paper

Self-leadership (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004) is a process through which individuals control their own behavior, influencing and leading themselves through the use of specific sets of behavioral and cognitive strategies. The concept of self-leadership first emerged in the mid-1980s (e.g. Manz, 1983, 1986), as an expansion of self-management (e.g. Manz and Sims, 1980), which was rooted in clinical self-control theory (e.g. Cautela, 1969) and inspired by Kerr and Jermier's (1978) notion of "substitutes for leadership". Over the past two decades, the self-leadership concept has enjoyed considerable popularity, as evidenced by the large number of practitioner-oriented self-leadership books and articles

on the subject (e.g. Blanchard, 1995; Cashman, 1995; Manz, 1991; Manz and Sims, 2001; Sims and Manz, 1996; Waitley, 1995). Moreover, self-leadership has earned the respect of many academics, as reflected by a plethora of theoretical and empirical self-leadership journal publications (e.g. Anderson and Prussia, 1997; Houghton *et al.*, 2003a; Manz and Sims, 1987; Markham and Markham, 1995, 1998; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a; Neck *et al.*, 1996; Prussia *et al.*, 1998; Roberts and Foti, 1998; Stewart *et al.*, 1996; Williams, 1997), and by coverage in a growing number of management and leadership textbooks (e.g. Kreitner and Kinicki, 2003; McShane and Von Glinow, 2005; Nahavandi, 2006). Business executives have also embraced self-leadership concepts through training programs designed to increase self-leadership skills and behaviors in the workplace (e.g. Neck and Manz, 1996a; Stewart *et al.*, 1996).

The purpose of this paper is to provide a thorough review of self-leadership literature past and present, including a historical overview of how the concept was created and expanded as well as a detailed look at more recent self-leadership research trends and directions. We will also provide a theoretical and conceptual explanation and differentiation of the self-leadership concept relative to other related motivational, personality and self-influence constructs such as self-regulation, self-management, conscientiousness and emotional intelligence. Finally, we will also suggest some directions for future self-leadership research, including discussions of which aspects of self-leadership have been under-investigated in the past and which aspects hold the most promise for future investigation.

Self-leadership: definition and overview

Self-leadership is a self-influence process through which people achieve the self-direction and self-motivation necessary to perform (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004). Self-leadership consists of specific behavioral and cognitive strategies designed to positively influence personal effectiveness. Self-leadership strategies are usually grouped into the three primary categories of behavior-focused strategies, natural reward strategies and constructive thought pattern strategies (Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 2001; Prussia *et al.*, 1998). Behavior-focused strategies strive to heighten an individual's self-awareness in order to facilitate behavioral management, especially the management of behaviors related to necessary but unpleasant tasks (Manz and Neck, 2004). Behavior-focused strategies include self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment and self-cueing. Self-observation involves raising one's awareness of when and why one engages in specific behaviors. This type of self-awareness is a necessary first step toward changing or eliminating ineffective and unproductive behaviors (Mahoney and Arnkoff, 1978, 1979; Manz and Sims, 1980; Manz and Neck, 2004). Armed with accurate information regarding current behavior and performance levels, individuals can more effectively set behavior-altering goals for themselves (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 1980). A large body of research suggests that the process of setting challenging and specific goals can significantly increase individual performance levels (Locke and Latham, 1990). Self-set rewards, coupled with self-set goals, can aid significantly in energizing the effort necessary to accomplish the goals (Mahoney and Arnkoff, 1978, 1979; Manz and Sims, 1980; Manz and Neck, 2004). Self-rewards may be something simple or intangible such as mentally congratulating oneself for an important accomplishment, or something more concrete like a special vacation at the completion of a difficult project.

Self-punishment or self-correcting feedback should consist of a positively framed and introspective examination of failures and undesirable behaviors leading to the reshaping of such behaviors. The excessive use of self-punishment involving self-criticism and guilt can be detrimental to performance and should be avoided (Manz and Sims, 2001). Finally, concrete environmental cues can serve as an effective means of encouraging constructive behaviors and reducing or eliminating destructive ones (Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 1980, 2001). Lists, notes, screensavers and motivational posters are just a few examples of external cues that can help keep attention and effort focused on goal attainment. In short, behavior-focused self-leadership strategies are designed to encourage positive, desirable behaviors that lead to successful outcomes, while suppressing negative, undesirable behaviors that lead to unsuccessful outcomes.

Natural reward strategies are intended to create situations in which a person is motivated or rewarded by inherently enjoyable aspects of the task or activity (Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 2001). There are two primary natural reward strategies. The first involves building more pleasant and enjoyable features into a given activity so that the task itself becomes naturally rewarding (Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 2001). The second strategy consists of shaping perceptions by focusing attention away from the unpleasant aspects of a task and refocusing it on the task's inherently rewarding aspects (Manz and Neck, 2004; Manz and Sims, 2001). Both strategies are likely to create feelings of competence and self-determination, two primary mechanisms of intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). To summarize, natural reward strategies are designed to help create feelings of competence and self-determination, which in turn energize performance-enhancing task-related behaviors.

Constructive thought pattern strategies are designed to facilitate the formation of constructive thought patterns and habitual ways of thinking that can positively impact performance (Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992). Constructive thought pattern strategies include identifying and replacing dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions, mental imagery and positive self-talk. Individuals should first examine their thought patterns, confronting and replacing dysfunctional irrational beliefs and assumptions with more constructive thought processes (Burns, 1980; Ellis, 1977; Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992). In addition, negative and destructive self-talk should be identified and replaced with more positive internal dialogues. Self-talk is defined as what people covertly tell themselves (Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a) and involves mental self-evaluations and reactions (Ellis, 1977; Neck and Manz, 1992). By carefully analyzing self-talk patterns, negative or pessimistic self-talk can be suppressed or eliminated and replaced with more optimistic self-dialogues (Seligman, 1991). Finally, mental imagery is the symbolic and covert cognitive creation of an experience or task prior to actual overt physical muscular movement (see also Driskell *et al.*, 1994; Finke, 1989; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a). Individuals who envision successful performance of an activity in advance of actual performance are more likely to perform successfully when faced with the actual task (Manz and Neck, 2004). In support of this assertion, Driskell *et al.* (1994) performed a meta-analysis of 35 empirical studies and found a significant positive effect for mental imagery on individual performance.

Self-leadership: development, expansion and applications
The self-leadership concept first appeared in a 1983 practitioner-oriented book (i.e. Manz, 1983) that expanded upon the existing concept of self-management (e.g. Manz and Sims, 1980). The seminal academic work on self-leadership appeared three years later in the *Academy of Management Review* (i.e. Manz, 1986). This article laid the basic theoretical foundations of self-leadership and presented the basic self-leadership strategies outlined above, although the constructive thought pattern strategies were somewhat underdeveloped at this point. Throughout the latter part of the decade and into the early 1990s, the self-leadership concept was applied to two primary areas:

(1) self-managing teams; and

(2) empowering leadership.

The emerging self-managing teams literature of the late 1980s often prescribed self-leadership among team members as an integral part of the self-managing process (e.g. Manz and Sims, 1986, 1987, 1994; Manz, 1990a). About this same time, leadership theorists were beginning to explore the concept of empowerment (e.g. Conger and Kanungo, 1988) as a possible alternative to the heroic leadership model of the 1970s and 1980s. In particular, the concept of SuperLeadership, the process of leading others to lead themselves, was introduced as an effective means for empowering followers and creating self-leaders (e.g. Manz and Sims, 1989, 1991; Manz, 1990b, 1991, 1992a). The first empirical study to examine self-leadership in an organizational setting was published in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 1987 and examined the role of self-leadership in the context of both empowering leadership and self-managing teams (Manz and Sims, 1987). This study suggested that the most effective external leaders of self-managing work teams are those that engage in behaviors that facilitate self-leadership strategies such as self-observation, self-goal setting and self-reward (Manz and Sims, 1987).

A few years later, self-leadership's constructive thought pattern strategies were more fully developed and expanded under the label "thought self-leadership" (e.g. Manz and Neck, 1991; Neck and Manz, 1992). The practical usefulness of the more fully developed thought self-leadership strategies was later demonstrated in a training-intervention based field study (Neck and Manz, 1996a). The results of this study suggest that individuals who received the thought self-leadership training experienced increased mental performance, positive affect (enthusiasm), job satisfaction and decreased negative affect (nervousness) relative to those not receiving the training (Neck and Manz, 1996a). Throughout the remainder of the 1990s and into the new century, self-leadership theorists have made application of self-leadership concepts within a variety of contextual settings including:

· spirituality in the workplace (Neck and Milliman, 1994);

· performance appraisals (Neck *et al.*, 1995);

· organizational change (Neck, 1996);

· total quality management (Neck and Manz, 1996b);

· self-leading teams (Neck *et al.*, 1996);

· entrepreneurship (Neck *et al.*, 1997a);

· diversity management (Neck *et al.*, 1997b);

- job satisfaction (Houghton and Jinkerson, 2004; Roberts and Foti, 1998);
- non-profit management (Neck *et al.*, 1998);
- goal setting/goal performance (Godwin *et al.*, 1999; Neck *et al.*, 2003);
- the United States Army (Neck and Manz, 1999);
- team performance (Stewart and Barrick, 2000);
- team sustainability (Houghton *et al.*, 2003b);
- succession planning (Hardy, 2004); and
- ethics (VanSandt and Neck, 2003).

In addition, over the past decade and a half, a number of popular books on self-leadership and SuperLeadership have been published, with a significant amount of success (e.g., Manz and Sims, 1989, 1994, 2001; Sims and Manz, 1996). The book *Mastering Self-Leadership: Empowering Yourself for Personal Excellence* has become the quintessential text on the subject and is currently in its fourth edition (Manz, 1992a; Manz and Neck, 1999, 2004; Neck and Manz, n.d.).

Self-leadership criticisms
Although it has enjoyed an enduring and expanding popularity based on a strong intuitive appeal, self-leadership has not been without developmental problems and criticisms. For instance, the majority of self-leadership research has been conceptual with relatively few empirical studies examining self-leadership in organizational settings. This lack of extensive empirical research may be due in part to the fact that a valid self-leadership measurement scale has been slow to development. The first published self-leadership assessment instrument, Anderson and Prussia's (1997) Self-Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), was based to a large extent on self-leadership assessment prototypes created by Manz and Sims (1991; Manz, 1992a) and represented an excellent preliminary effort in self-leadership scale development. Nevertheless, the Anderson and Prussia SLQ suffered from a number of psychometric problems and required further refinement. More recently, a Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ; Houghton and Neck, 2002) has been presented and has shown a greater degree of reliability and construct validity than the earlier SLQ. The RSLQ was created by eliminating or rewriting ambiguous items from the Anderson and Prussia SLQ and by integrating additional items from a previously unpublished self-leadership assessment instrument (i.e. Cox, 1993). Additional data is needed to fully assess the reliability and validity of the RSLQ. Nevertheless, preliminary applications indicate that the RSLQ may prove to be an effective self-leadership measure with positive potential for facilitating additional empirical self-leadership research.

Perhaps the most common criticism of self-leadership is that it is conceptually indistinct from and redundant with classic theories of motivation such as self-regulation. As outlined above, self-leadership consists of a broad set of strategies that may be useful in leading to greater personal effectiveness. Many of these self-leadership strategies are founded upon other established theories of motivation and self-influence. Thus, some theorists have questioned the extent to which self-leadership is a unique and distinguishable construct with respect to these related motivational and personality constructs, while others have suggested that

self-leadership is a mere repackaging of individual differences already explained by previously existing personality constructs such as conscientiousness (e.g. Markham and Markham, 1995, 1998; Guzzo, 1998). For instance, Markham and Markham (1998, p. 197) claim that "one of the major stumbling blocks of self-leadership theory is its uniqueness when compared to more traditional views of similar psychological processes". Likewise, Guzzo (1998, p. 214) has expressed concern as to whether "self-leadership is distinguishable from other, existing psychological constructs such as the personality dimension of conscientiousness". In addition, Markham and Markham (1995, p. 198) suggest that "it is possible that various aspects of self-leadership simply recast previous personality traits".

When critics suggest that self-leadership overlaps with other classic theories of motivation, they fail to understand that self-leadership is a normative model rather than a descriptive or deductive theory. Normative theories, which are common in applied fields such as business, are prescriptive and emphasize *how* something should be done. In contrast, deductive or descriptive theories seek to explain the basic operation of various phenomena, but generally stop short of providing specific normative advice for managing a particular process. As Hilton (1980) has suggested, normative and descriptive theories often take differing perspectives in examining the same phenomenon. Indeed, descriptive theories can often help to explain how and why the prescriptions of normative theories operate.

The realistic job previews (RJPs) literature provides a good example of a beneficial interaction between normative and descriptive theory. RJPs (e.g. Dugoni and Ilgen, 1981; Reilly *et al.*, 1981; Wanous, 1973) is a normative concept that has long been accepted as an effective practical tool for reducing employee turnover. For many years, however, the reasons why RJPs work and the theoretical mechanisms through which they operated were not entirely clear (Hom *et al.*, 1998). In response, Hom and his colleagues (Hom *et al.*, 1998, 1999) have recently attempted to clarify and delineate the theoretical contexts and mechanisms through which RJPs influence employee turnover.

In the following sections we will respond to self-leadership critics in a similar manner by providing a theoretical and conceptual explanation of the self-leadership concept relative to several related theories of motivation. Specifically, we will argue that self-leadership is a normative concept that provides certain behavioral and cognitive prescriptions while operating within and through the theoretical contexts provided by self-regulation, social cognitive, self-control and intrinsic motivation theories. We will further suggest that self-leadership represents a unique constellation of strategies that are founded upon, related to, and yet distinct from these various theories as well as from various personality traits. Although previous efforts have been made to conceptually distinguish self-leadership from related psychological constructs (e.g. Houghton *et al.*, 2004; Manz, 1990b; Neck, 1998; Neck and Manz, 1996b; Williams, 1997), the present discussion will go well beyond these in both scope and depth.

Self-leadership theoretical contexts
Self-leadership and self-regulation
Self-leadership strategies operate within the larger theoretical framework of self-regulation. Drawing from literature in the field of cybernetics (e.g. Ashby, 1961; Clark, 1996; Wiener, 1948) and based on linkages suggested by Powers (1973), Carver

and Scheier (1981, 1998) have presented a broad self-regulatory explanation of how behavior happens. According to this view, the self-regulation process is analogous to the operation of a mechanical thermostat. The thermostat senses temperature variations relative to a given standard and signals appropriate action to reduce the discrepancy. Similarly, within the process of behavioral self-regulation (Carver, 1979; Carver and Scheier, 1981, 1998), a sensor monitoring performance in the environment yields a signal that is compared to a set standard or desired state. If discrepancy or error exists, then a behavioral change is facilitated through an adjustment of effort. Alternatively, the standard for behavior can be cognitively re-evaluated and adjusted downward to meet the level of performance. In either case, the objective is the reduction of the discrepancy between the actual performance level and the standard or goal.

In addition, self-regulation theory suggests a hierarchical organization of the self-regulatory system in the form of superordinate and subordinate feedback loops or goals (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Powers, 1973). This hierarchy of goals ranges from systems concepts such as a globalized sense of the idealized self (see also Burke, 1991; Klein, 1987), to overarching principles of what a person wants to be, to more specified programs of behavior that indicate what a person should do in order to conform to higher-level principles, and finally, to specific sequences of behavior that facilitate program goal attainment (Carver and Scheier, 1998). Self-regulation theory further assumes that goals at the various hierarchical levels function simultaneously in shaping behavior but that there is a natural upward drift toward higher levels of goal abstraction as a person becomes more comfortable with his or her behavior (Vallacher and Wegner, 1985, 1987). Likewise, there appears to be a complementary downward drift toward more concrete goals in response to difficulties in maintaining behavioral regulation in the context of higher levels of abstraction (Carver and Scheier, 1998).

Self-regulation theory also suggests that when faced with problems and discrepancies in progressing toward goal attainment, those individuals who are confident or hopeful (i.e. possess positive expectancies for goal attainment) tend to persist or even increase their efforts, while those who lack confidence or hope (i.e. possess negative expectancies for goal attainment) tend to search for the availability of alternative goals or disengage altogether (Carver and Scheier, 1981, 1998). Thus, a key component in self-regulation theory is the concept of confidence or hope as manifested in terms of performance-related expectancies. Although disengagement from unattainable goals is a necessary and vital part of the self-regulation process, cognitive distortions of feedback leading to lower than warranted levels of confidence and related expectancies can result in premature goal disengagement and other self-regulatory dysfunctions such as binge eating or alcoholism (Carver and Scheier, 1998).

Finally, self-regulation theory distinguishes between a promotion and a prevention self-regulatory focus (e.g. Carver, 2001; Carver and Scheier, 1998; Higgins, 1987, 1989, 1996, 1998; Higgins *et al.*, 1994). A promotion focus operates on the basis of accomplishments, hopes and aspirations, thus regulating the presence and absence of positive outcomes (Higgins, 1998). This type of focus is closely associated with the concept of an ideal self-guide, which represents the attributes a person would ideally like to possess (Higgins, 1987, 1989). In contrast, a prevention focus operates on the basis of safety, responsibility and obligations, thus regulating the absence and presence of negative outcomes (Higgins, 1998). The prevention focus is closely

associated with the concept of ought self-guides, which represent the attributes that a person believes they should or ought to possess (Higgins, 1987, 1989). Although broadly conceptualized as an individual difference variable, regulatory focus may also vary across momentary situations (e.g. Higgins, 1996, 1998).

In short, self-regulation theory is a broad descriptive view of human behavior that seeks to explain how behavior happens. According to this viewpoint, however, self-regulatory processes do not always operate smoothly nor do they always lead to successful performance outcomes and goal attainments. Indeed, as Latham and Locke (1991, p. 240) have suggested, "although people are natural self-regulators in that goal-directedness is inherent in the life process, they are not innately effective self-regulators". Some theorists have even used the term "self-regulatory failure" to describe extreme examples of breakdowns in the self-regulatory process (e.g. Baumeister and Heatherton, 1996; Baumeister *et al.*, 1994; Kirschenbaum, 1987). While self-regulation theory specifies the existence and likelihood of dysfunctions in self-regulation, it prescribes few strategies for increasing self-regulatory effectiveness. In contrast, self-leadership, operating within self-regulation's broad theoretical framework for understanding behavior, prescribes specific behavioral and cognitive strategies designed to enhance individual self-regulatory effectiveness.

Self-leadership strategies may enhance self-regulatory effectiveness in a number of important ways. For instance, the behavior-focused strategy of self-observation can lead to a heightening of self-awareness and increases in self-focus. Research evidence suggests that an increase in self-focus can promote increases in task focus and ultimately in task performance (e.g. Carver, 1975; Wicklund and Duval, 1971). In addition, increased observation of one's own behavior can provide a more accurate and richer interpretation of feedback loops, leading to the identification of specific behaviors that should be changed, enhanced or eliminated relative to goal attainment. Likewise, self-goal-setting may have a positive effect on self-regulatory processes. Goal setting research (e.g. Locke and Latham, 1990) has demonstrated that performance is better when goals are difficult and specific than when they are easy and vague. Indeed, in the absence of an intentional goal-setting process, individuals tend to "satisfice" (Simon, 1955), adopting goals that are less than optimal but seem adequate for the given situation (Carver and Scheier, 1998, p. 66). In contrast, difficult and specific goals tend to result in increased effort and better task performance. Thus, through conscious and intentional self-goal-setting processes, individuals may increase self-regulatory effectiveness in terms of increased effort and better performance outcomes. Finally, self-rewards, self-punishment and self-cueing each have a certain potential for enhancing self-regulation. In order for a goal to be meaningful, it must be both valuable and attainable (e.g. Carver and Scheier, 1998). The creation of self-reward contingencies increases the value of goal achievement, thereby leading to increased effort and persistence toward goal attainment. In like manner, by providing detailed feedback regarding goal-performance discrepancies, self-punishment and self-cueing each may further enhance the efficacy of self-regulatory processes.

Natural reward strategies are particularly useful in improving self-regulatory performance relative to self-determined or intrinsic goals (Deci and Ryan, 1985), or what Carver and Scheier (1998) have called individual or personal goals. Strategies such as incorporating more pleasant and enjoyable features into a given task or focusing attention on a task's inherently rewarding aspects help to make even

externally imposed or coercive goals seem less controlling and more internalized, intrinsic and personal. Such goal internalization may lead to improved self-regulatory processes.

Much like the behavior-focused and natural reward strategies, constructive thought strategies also demonstrate potential for improving self-regulatory effectiveness. For example, the strategy of evaluating and challenging dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions may have a positive effect on self-regulatory feedback processes. Individuals often distort feedback to be closer to what they expect to see or want to see (Carver and Scheier, 1998). Mental distortions such as mind reading, extreme thinking, overgeneralization and mental filters (Burns, 1980; Carver and Scheier, 1998; Manz and Neck, 2004) lead to feedback distortion and ultimately, impaired self-regulatory processes. By confronting the beliefs and assumptions that lead to distortion and replacing them with more realistic and less dysfunctional ones, feedback may become less distorted and self-regulation more effective.

Self-talk and mental imagery strategies also have particular application for improving individual self-regulation. As outlined above, a key component in self-regulation is the concept of confidence as reflected in the form of expectations of success or failure. Confidence can be defined in terms of both perceptions of personal capabilities (i.e. self-efficacy; Bandura, 1986, 1991) and external situational factors (Carver and Scheier, 1998). When confidence is unwarrantedly low, individuals may prematurely disengage effort toward goal attainment. Such a premature disengagement may result from a failure to adequately assess current feedback (as discussed above) or from inaccurate performance expectancies. When faced with problems or difficulties individuals "tend to turn automatically to previously encoded sources of information about expectancies" (Carver and Scheier, 1998, p. 221). This process has been described as a "residual sense" (Carver and Scheier, 1998) and as "habitual ways of thinking" or "thought patterns" (Manz and Neck, 1991, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a). Often, when the residual sense is in the form of doubt or inadequacy or when thought patterns are pessimistic or obstacle-oriented, individuals will give up and disengage effort at the first sign of trouble or adversity without realizing that the present obstacle is minor and relatively easy to overcome (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Manz and Neck, 1991, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a). Positive self-talk and mental imagery strategies are intended to facilitate optimistic or opportunity-oriented thought patterns which may lead to greater persistence in the face of challenges and difficulty (Manz and Neck, 1991, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a). Finally, research evidence (e.g. Neck and Manz, 1996a; Prussia *et al.*, 1998) suggests that self-leadership strategies such as positive self-talk and mental imagery may increase self-efficacy levels, a primary determinant of confidence and performance expectancies, potentially leading to more effective self-regulation and increased performance (Carver and Scheier, 1998).

According to self-regulation theory, standards are simply assumed to exist and little attention is paid to how standards are determined. In an organizational setting, self-regulatory standards are based primarily on existing organizational standards and objectives. As long as organizational policies, rules and procedures are followed, deviation reduction will occur. Thus, in the short run, the process of deviation reduction becomes relatively automatic and self-perpetuating (Neck and Manz, 1996b). Given a continuum ranging from complete external influence to complete internal

influence (see also Manz, 1990b; Neck and Manz, 1996b), self-regulation falls closer to the complete external influence end of the spectrum. As outlined above, self-leadership strategies may be useful in helping the individual to set and manage self-regulatory standards, thereby improving self-regulatory effectiveness and increasing the degree of internal influence.

In summary, self-leadership strategies operate within the broader theoretical context of self-regulation. Specific self-leadership strategies may serve to increase self-regulatory effectiveness by improving self-focus, goal-setting processes, goal valence and saliency, feedback processes, and task-related confidence or performance expectancies. In short, self-leadership does not represent an alternate theoretical view of self-influence, but rather a complimentary set of strategies designed to improve the self-regulation process.

Self-leadership and social cognitive theory

Self-leadership also operates within the context of Bandura's (1986, 1991) social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory suggests that human behavior may be best explained by a triadic reciprocal relationship among internal influences, external influences and behavior. Together with self-regulation theory, this reciprocal determinism view provides the other major conceptual framework upon which self-leadership strategies are based (Manz, 1986). Much like self-regulation theory, social cognitive theory suggests that the basic structure of the self-regulatory system is comprised of processes involving self-monitoring, self-judgments and self-reactions. But whereas self-regulation deals primarily with the concept of discrepancy reduction, social cognitive theory proposes a system of discrepancy production followed by discrepancy reduction. The basic assumption is that individuals have control over setting their own performance standards. Based on past performance experiences, people will set performance goals in such a manner as to create discrepancy. The production of discrepancy mobilizes and induces efforts to subsequently reduce discrepancy. When discrepancies are eliminated, higher standards are set and the process begins again.

Social cognitive theory also differs from self-regulation in terms of self-reactions. According to Bandura and Cervone (1986), three types of self-influences mediate the relationship between goals and performance. These influences are self-satisfaction, self-efficacy and the regulation of internal standards. Self-regulation theory focuses primarily on the internal regulation of standards. Social cognitive theory, in contrast, stresses the importance of the self-reactive influences of satisfaction and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a key construct within social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy describes a person's self-assessment of the capabilities necessary to perform a specific task (Bandura, 1986, 1991; Gist, 1987). Self-efficacy can influence aspirations, effort, persistence and thought-patterns.

The concept of self-efficacy is of particular importance to self-leadership. Indeed, a major objective of all self-leadership strategies, particularly natural reward and thought pattern strategies, is the enhancement of self-efficacy perceptions in advance of higher performance levels (e.g. Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a; Prussia et al., 1998). High levels of task-specific self-efficacy lead to higher performance standards (Bandura, 1991), greater effort and greater persistence in the pursuit of goals and objectives, and ultimately greater effectiveness (e.g. Bandura and

Cervone, 1983, 1986). Empirical evidence tends to support the usefulness of self-leadership strategies in promoting self-efficacy perceptions. For instance, Frayne and Latham (1987; Latham and Frayne, 1989) demonstrated a positive relationship between self-management training and self-efficacy for reducing absenteeism. Furthermore, Neck and Manz (1996a) reported a significant difference in self-efficacy levels between a group that had received self-leadership training and a non-training control group. More recently, Prussia and colleagues (Prussia *et al.*, 1998) examined the role of self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationship between self-leadership strategies and performance outcomes. Their results indicated significant relationships between self-leadership strategies, self-efficacy perceptions and task performance. Taken together, these findings suggest that self-efficacy may function as the primary mechanism through which self-leadership strategies affect performance.

Self-leadership, self-management and self-control
Inspired by the concept of "substitutes for leadership" (Kerr and Jermier, 1978), self-management (e.g. Manz and Sims, 1980; Luthans and Davis, 1979; Andrasik and Heimberg, 1982) also operates within the framework of self-regulation theory by providing specific strategies for managing one's own behaviors in an effort to regulate discrepancy from set standards (Manz, 1986). Self-management is founded upon concepts of self-control originally developed in clinical psychology (e.g. Cautela, 1969; Mahoney and Thoresen, 1974; Thoresen and Mahoney, 1974; Mahoney and Arnkoff, 1978, 1979). Self-management has been described as a process through which an individual chooses a less attractive (i.e. apparent low probability) but perhaps ultimately more desirable behavior from among short-run alternatives (Manz, 1986; Manz and Sims, 1980). Thus, according to self-management, undesirable short-run behaviors are energized by a focus on desirable long-term consequences (Manz and Sims, 1980).

Several specific strategies of self-control have been presented in the clinical literature. These strategies include self-observation, self-goal setting, cueing strategies, self-reinforcement, self-punishment, and rehearsal (Mahoney and Arnkoff, 1978, 1979). These strategies were originally used in clinical settings in order to manage addictive or self-destructive health-related behaviors (e.g. smoking cessation or eating disorders). These strategies were subsequently adapted to organizational settings and relabeled "self-management" by organizational theorists (Luthans and Davis, 1979; Manz and Sims, 1980; Andrasik and Heimberg, 1982). Later, these same strategies of self-control and self-management became the basis for self-leadership's behavior-focused strategies (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004).

In short, self-management consists of a set of strategies designed to help a person manage behavior with respect to reducing discrepancies from immediate externally set standards. Self-management does not, however, facilitate the assessment of the standards themselves. Thus, while self-management provides ample self-influence in terms of how discrepancy reduction should be approached, it provides little self-influence in terms of what should be done and why (Manz, 1986; Neck and Manz, 1996b). In other words, the purposes and importance of the given standards are not addressed by self-management.

In contrast, self-leadership is a more encompassing approach to self-influence than self-management (Manz, 1986). Self-leadership merges the behavioral strategies

suggested by self-management and self-control with cognitive strategies based on the concepts of intrinsic motivation and constructive thinking. Self-leadership addresses not only the reduction of discrepancy from performance standards, but also the purposes and appropriateness of the standards themselves (Manz, 1986). Thus, according to self-leadership, the discrepancy reduction process is based on internalized, superordinate standards of behavior rather than on immediate, short-run operating standards (Manz, 1986). Superordinate or higher-level standards for self-influence provide specific reasons for self-managed behaviors. For example, rather than merely focusing on attaining a certain goal, one might evaluate the validity and appropriateness of the goal within a greater context beyond the immediate situation. By focusing on the reasons for behavior and by incorporating both cognitive and behavioral strategies, self-leadership theory represents a substantially higher level of self-influence than self-management. Self-leadership therefore subsumes self-management and specifies additional sets of cognitive-oriented strategies designed to influence behavioral outcomes. Self-leadership also goes beyond self-management by addressing the superordinate standards (i.e. the reasons) for behavior.

Self-leadership and intrinsic motivation
Self-leadership strategies have also been significantly informed by the concept of intrinsic motivation. While self-management emphasizes extrinsic rewards (i.e. outcomes such as praise, recognition, and self-reinforcement using external reward contingencies), self-leadership extends beyond this perspective to focus on the natural rewards that result from the performance of the task or activity itself (Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004). Self-leadership's conceptualization of natural rewards is based primarily on the intrinsic motivation literature (e.g. Deci, 1975), particularly Deci and Ryan's (1985) cognitive evaluation theory. Building on the work of White (1959) and deCharms (1968), cognitive evaluation theory suggests that the need for competence and the need for self-determination are the primary mechanisms that drive intrinsic motivation. The need for competence involves the need to exercise and extend one's capabilities, while the need for self-determination involves the need to feel free from pressures such as contingent rewards (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Cognitive evaluation theory contends that individuals will seek to find and overcome challenges in an effort to increase feelings of competence and self-determination.

Feelings of competence and self-control (i.e. self-determination) are a central part of self-leadership's conceptualization of natural rewards (Manz and Neck, 2004). According to self-leadership, to the extent that activities and tasks can be chosen, structured or perceived in ways that lead to increased feelings of competence and self-determination, task performance will be enhanced. Finally, although natural reward strategies are generally more effective, self-reward strategies utilizing external reward contingencies (as suggested by self-management) may be more helpful in situations lacking natural or intrinsic rewards (Manz and Neck, 2004). That is to say, given a task that is inherently unpleasant or tedious (i.e. a task lacking intrinsically motivating aspects), external self-reward contingencies become particularly appropriate and effective. Nevertheless, most tasks have at least some potential to be naturally rewarding. Thus, for most tasks or activities, natural reward strategies will be more effective and generally preferable.

Self-leadership and personality

As mentioned earlier, some theorists (e.g. Guzzo, 1998; Markham and Markham, 1998) have questioned whether self-leadership is unique and distinguishable with respect to certain personality traits such as conscientiousness. Self-leadership is usually conceptualized as learned behavior rather than as a fixed trait (Manz, 1986) and self-leadership proponents have generally ignored personality and individual difference factors. Some advocates (e.g. Neck and Manz, 1992; Neck *et al.*, 1995) have even implied that personality traits may be unrelated to self-leadership effectiveness, citing a study (Turner *et al.*, 1982) that found no relationship between extraversion and performance for individuals using mental imagery (a self-leadership strategy). In contrast, Williams (1997) has suggested that a variety of personality traits are likely to be associated with self-leadership skills in meaningful ways. In particular, Williams (1997) proposed positive associations between self-leadership skills and extraversion, emotional stability, conscientiousness, general self-efficacy, internal locus of control and self-monitoring.

Empirical evidence provides some support for the existence of relationships between self-leadership and various personality concepts. For example, Williams *et al.* (1995) have shown significant relationships between self-management and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and McCaulley, 1985) trait preferences of extraversion, judging, and sensing. In addition, Stewart and his colleagues (Stewart *et al.*, 1996) demonstrated significant correlations ($p < 0.01$) between conscientiousness, neuroticism, and supervisor evaluations of self-leadership behaviors.

On the other hand, the findings of Stewart and his colleagues (Stewart *et al.*, 1996) seem to suggest that self-leadership is nonetheless a distinct concept from personality. Their findings revealed an interaction effect between conscientiousness and self-leadership training such that those scoring lowest in conscientiousness subsequently showed the greatest increase in self-leadership behaviors as a result of the training. This lends support to the assertion that self-leadership behaviors are amenable to change (e.g. Manz, 1986), while personality characteristics are relatively stable across both time and situation (e.g. Block, 1981; Conley, 1985; Costa and McCrae, 1988. If self-leading behaviors are malleable while personality is not, then these concepts may not be synonymous.

Self-regulation theory would also seem to indicate that self-leadership may operate apart from personality influences. In contrast to personality traits, one's self-regulating tendencies may vary across situations (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Higgins, 1998). For instance, although people may have established tendencies, regulatory focus varies from promotion to prevention across momentary situations (Higgins, 1996, 1998). In so much as self-leadership strategies operate within the general framework of self-regulation, it seems reasonable to suggest that people may vary their utilization of self-leadership strategies separate and apart from the influences of their fixed personality traits.

Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence outline above, it would appear that self-leadership dimensions are distinct from, yet related to, certain key personality traits. Houghton *et al.* (2004) have recently provided some additional empirical evidence in support of this position. They reported significant relationships between the three self-leadership strategy dimensions and the personality traits of extraversion

and conscientiousness. Nevertheless, a comparison of the hierarchical factor structures of self-leadership and a constellation of personality traits (including extraversion and conscientiousness) utilizing factor analysis and structural equations modeling techniques suggested that the three self-leadership strategy dimensions are distinct from personality traits, particularly at lower levels of abstraction (Houghton *et al.*, 2004).

In the preceding sections we have argued that self-leadership, while related to and sometimes predicated upon similar psychological processes, is a unique concept that may be distinguished from other concepts of self-influence and personality. More specifically, we have suggested that self-leadership is a normative constellation of behavioral and cognitive strategies that operates within theoretical frameworks provided by more descriptive theories including self-regulation, social cognitive, self-control, and intrinsic motivation theories. We have also contended that self-leadership is conceptually distinct from related personality traits such as extraversion and conscientiousness. We have provided theoretical and empirical arguments and rationale in support of our positions, supplemented by available empirical evidence. Nevertheless, the extent of the uniqueness of self-leadership and its value for understanding and shaping one's behavior is a question that should be further addressed by future empirical research. In the following section, we will continue by providing an overview of some of the primary predictable outcomes or dependent variables associated with the self-leadership concept.

Self-leadership predictable outcomes/mechanisms

The self-leadership literature has suggested a number of predictable outcomes or dependent variables thought to be associated with the application of self-leadership strategies. These include commitment, independence, creativity/innovation, trust, potency, positive affect, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and self-efficacy. These outcomes may serve as the mechanisms that affect individual, group and organizational performance. Although we have previously mentioned some of these possible outcomes, we will now provide a more detailed overview of the primary self-leadership predictable outcome variables.

Commitment and independence

Commitment and independence are two of the more commonly suggested outcome variables in the self-leadership literature (e.g. Houghton and Yoho, 2005; Manz and Sims, 2001). Individuals engaging in self-leadership often develop a sense of ownership over their tasks and work processes. As a result, self-leading individuals may demonstrate higher levels of commitment to their tasks, goals, teams or organizations than individuals who are not engaging in self-leadership (e.g. Bligh *et al.*, 2006; Houghton and Yoho, 2005; Manz and Sims, 2001). Likewise, individuals practising self-leadership may experience greater feelings of control and autonomy, leading to heightened levels of independence in behavior and decision making (Manz and Sims, 2001). In contrast, individuals who are not actively practising self-leadership may become dependent on external influences from traditional leaders to guide their actions, becoming increasingly incapable of independent thought and action (Houghton and Yoho, 2005). Although these outcomes have often been suggested in the literature, no empirical examinations to date have attempted to substantiate these

claims. Future researchers should undertake to examine these hypothesized relationships in greater detail.

Creativity and innovation

Creativity may be defined as the development of original, novel, appropriate and useful ideas, while innovation implies the subsequent implementation of creative concepts within in an organizational (e.g. Amabile *et al.*, 1996). Self-leadership proponents have often suggested relationships between self-leadership and creativity/innovation (e.g. DiLiello and Houghton, 2006; Houghton and Yoho, 2005; Manz and Sims, 2001). As DiLiello and Houghton (2006) suggest, many critical concepts from the creativity literature may be related to self-leadership. For example, autonomy and self-determination are key components of both creativity and self-leadership (DiLiello and Houghton, 2006). Yun *et al.* (2006) have provided empirical evidence suggesting that the need for autonomy may be positively related to individual self-leadership practices and autonomy is often identified as an essential component in individual creativity (e.g. Amabile, 1996). For a more detailed overview of the relationships between self-leadership and creativity/innovation, see DiLiello and Houghton (2006). As these authors suggest, additional research is needed to further clarify the relationships between self-leadership and creativity/innovation.

Trust and team potency

Self-leadership has often been presented as a critical component for facilitating team effectiveness, particularly in self-managing teams with no formal internal leader (e.g. Houghton *et al.*, 2003a, 2003b; Manz and Sims, 1987, 1994; Neck *et al.*, 1996). Of particular note, trust and team potency have been suggested as two possible self-leadership outcomes that may have important implications for team effectiveness (Bligh *et al.*, 2006). Trust generally refers to the belief that others will be honest, upholding commitments and declining to take unfair advantage when given an opportunity (e.g. Cummings and Bromiley, 1996). Team potency is a belief jointly held among team members that the team can be effective in accomplishing its goals and objectives (Guzzo, 1998). See Bligh *et al.* (2006) for an in-depth discussion of this issue and presentation of a model detailing the relationships between self-leadership, trust and potency in a team context, along with propositions for future research in this area.

Positive affect and job satisfaction

Positive affect and job satisfaction are two additional predictable self-leadership outcomes that have been advanced in the literature. In a field study of a group of employees at America West airlines, Neck and Manz (1996a) found significant relationships between a thought self-leadership training intervention and subsequent levels of both positive affect (enthusiasm) and job satisfaction. More recently in a separate empirical study, Houghton and Jinkerson (2004) reported a significant relationship between self-leadership's constructive thought strategies and job satisfaction as mediated by the absence of dysfunctional thought processes and by subjective well-being (happiness). Although these studies provide good preliminary support for these relationships, future research should continue to investigate the role of self-leadership in shaping positive affect and job satisfaction.

Psychological empowerment
Psychological empowerment is yet another commonly predicted outcome of self-leadership. Indeed, self-leadership has often been proclaimed as a primary mechanism for facilitating empowerment (e.g. Houghton and Yoho, 2005; Manz, 1992; Prussia *et al.*, 1998). For example, Shipper and Manz (1992) have presented a case study that portrays self-leadership as an integral part of the empowerment of the employees at W.L. Gore and Associates. Self-leadership may enhance feelings of empowerment by creating perceptions of meaningfulness, purpose, self-determination, and competence (Lee and Koh, 2001). More precisely, the behavior-focused strategies of self-observation, self-goal setting and self-reward can foster feelings of self-determination and competence, while natural reward strategies are aimed at increasing feelings of competence, self-control and purpose (Manz and Neck, 2004, pp. 42-4). Because the purported relationship between self-leadership and psychological empowerment has yet to be fully explored in the literature, we strongly encourage future research in this direction.

Self-efficacy
Self-efficacy is perhaps the single most commonly mentioned self-leadership outcome variable (e.g. Manz, 1986; Manz and Neck, 2004; Neck and Manz, 1992, 1996a, b; Prussia *et al.*, 1998). As we have discussed in detail in an earlier section, empirical research (e.g. Neck and Manz, 1996a, b; Prussia *et al.*, 1998) has provided significant evidence in support of self-efficacy as the primary mechanism through which self-leadership affects performance. Nevertheless, this is yet another area that could benefit from additional empirical investigation.

To summarize our arguments to this point, we have suggested that self-leadership is a normative concept that may operate within several theoretical contexts including self-regulation theory, social cognitive theory, intrinsic motivation theory and self-control theory. We have further suggested that the application of self-leadership strategies may result in a number of predictable outcomes/performance mechanisms, including commitment, independence, creativity, innovation, trust, team potency, positive affect, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and self-efficacy. We believe that these outcome variables, in turn, may lead to higher levels of individual, team and organizational performance. Figure 1 provides a visual overview of these suggested relationships.
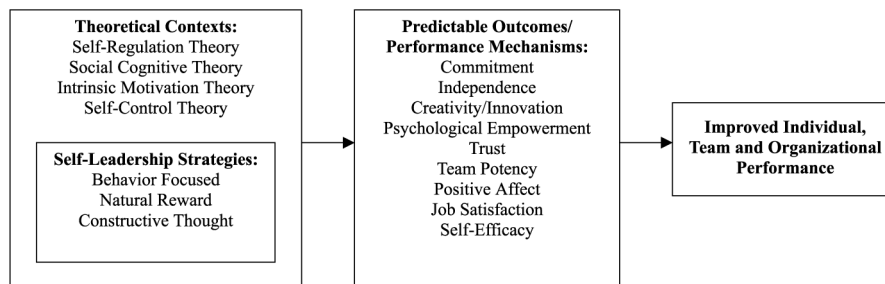
Figure 1.
A model of self-leadership theoretical contexts and performance mechanisms

Current trends and future research directions

After more than two decades of self-leadership theory and research, the field continues to move in new and exciting directions. Current trends in self-leadership research include intercultural/international issues, self-leadership contingency factors, executive health/fitness and shared leadership.

The intercultural and international aspects of self-leadership have not been fully explored to date. Self-leadership has developed largely within the context of the culture of the USA. As a result, the usefulness and applicability of self-leadership should be examined across a variety of international settings. Indeed, such efforts are already underway. For example, Georgianna (2005) recently reported a number of significant differences in the use of self-leadership strategies between US and Chinese students. In a similar vein, Neubert and Wu (2006) examine the psychometric properties and construct validity of the Houghton and Neck (2002) Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) in a Chinese context. This study investigates the extent to which self-leadership dimensions are generalizable across cultures, as well as addressing the issue of how to measure the existence and development of self-leadership practices across cultures. Finally, Alves *et al.* (2006) examine the culturally bounded nature of leadership and explore the applicability of self-leadership theory across cultures by drawing on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions framework to address the question of how self-leadership may be understood and practised in other cultures.

Another current trend in self-leadership research concerns self-leadership contingency factors. Although proponents have generally encouraged the use of self-leadership strategies across a wide variety of situations, some researchers have questioned whether self-leadership should be encouraged across all types of situations. For example, Markham and Markham (1998, p. 199) have raised the issue as to whether self-leadership is "a universally applicable theory that will work with all employees under all circumstances" or "a contingency theory that best fits certain boundary conditions". As a matter of fact, self-leadership theorists have often admitted that encouraging follower self-leadership may not be universally appropriate. For instance, Manz and Sims (2001, pp. 63-4) have stated that "it is naïve to assume that relying on self-leadership is always appropriate [...] several important situational factors influence the appropriateness of attempts to develop self-leadership in followers".

In response these concerns, Houghton and Yoho (2005) have recently presented a comprehensive contingency leadership model that specifies when and under what circumstances self-leadership should be encouraged by organizational leaders. The model suggests that certain key contingency factors, including follower development, situational urgency and task structure, dictate which of several leadership approaches, including directive, transactional, transformational and empowering, should be chosen. Each specific leadership approach in turn results in a specific combination of predictable outcomes, which include the level of follower involvement, dependence, creativity and psychological empowerment. Along the same lines, Yun *et al.* (2006) present an alternative contingency model of leadership in which the interaction between the leadership approach and follower need for autonomy can influence subsequent follower self-leadership. The results of their study support the view that specific attributes of the follower can be an important element within a contingency view of leadership.

In addition to these possible research directions, the realm of self-leadership might need to be expanded beyond behavioral and cognitive elements to include physiological components as well. In other words, a comprehensive view concerning the potential of individuals to truly self-lead themselves certainly must be impacted by their fitness level and nutritional habits. The work of Neck and Cooper (2000) and Neck *et al*. (2004), suggesting that "fit" leaders are more productive leaders, is a step in this direction.

Finally, one of the more exciting and promising areas of current self-leadership research relates to shared leadership. Shared leadership is an ongoing process of mutual influence that occurs when the members of a team share traditional leadership roles and responsibilities (e.g. Pearce, 2004). Recently, Houghton *et al*. (2003a) presented a model that explains the role of SuperLeadership and self-leadership in facilitating shared leadership in teams. In short, this model suggests that an empowering leadership approach from the external vertical leader will encourage team member self-leadership, which in turn will enhance self-efficacy perceptions among team members for sharing leadership roles. Pearce and Manz (2005) have further elaborated on the importance of self- and shared leadership operating in combination, particularly in the context of knowledge work. Bligh *et al*. (2006) expand even further in this direction to examine the relationships between self- and shared leadership in the context of team-based knowledge work, presenting a model that links self- and shared leadership as important antecedents to knowledge creation in team-based environments.

Future self-leadership research should continue along the lines of these current trends. In particular, future empirical research effort should be focused on further examinations of the intercultural aspects of self-leadership, self-leadership contingency and outcome factors, and the role of self-leadership within the shared leadership process. Future self-leadership research should also empirically investigate the way in which self-leadership processes operate within the larger theoretical contexts of self-regulation, social cognitive, intrinsic motivation and self-control theories. For instance, future research should directly examine the effectiveness of self-leadership strategies in improving self-regulation. Although self-leadership strategies are generally portrayed as efficacious for improving self-focus, goal-setting processes, goal valence and saliency, feedback process and task-related confidence or performance expectancies, very little empirical research has examined these relationships. Thus, research endeavors should examine the extent to which self-leadership strategies facilitate improvements in measurable aspects of the self-regulatory process. Future research should also examine the distinctiveness of self-leadership strategy dimensions at the measurement level in a comparison of scales designed to measure self-leadership, such as Houghton and Neck's (2002) Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire, and instruments designed to directly measure self-regulatory processes, such as a revised version of Kuhl's (1994) action-state orientation scale (Diefendorff *et al*., 2000).

Future self-leadership research should also strive to investigate empirically the relationships between self-leadership and the predictable outcome variables discussed above. In particular, researchers should expand on the work of Prussia *et al*. (1998) to delineate more clearly the role of self-efficacy as a primary mechanism through which self-leadership strategies influence various performance outcomes. To the extent that

the role of self-leadership strategies can be differentiated from the mechanisms through which they operate, self-leadership's distinctive yet harmonious identity within its various theoretical frameworks may be better understood. Finally, future self-leadership research should also continue to investigate specific relationships between personality and self-leadership. In particular, future researchers should investigate the relationships between self-leadership and other personality characteristics of interest such as general self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, and self-monitoring (see also Williams, 1997).

In conclusion, two decades after its conception, self-leadership continues to show impressive potential for application in today's fast-paced and highly technical competitive environments characterized by flexible and decentralized organizational types. As organizational members at all levels are encouraged to take more and more responsibility for their own jobs and work behaviors, the ability for these workers to successful lead themselves will become increasingly critical. As self-leadership strategies are acknowledged as having value beyond related psychological concepts, empirical research in the self-leadership domain may be advanced and our understanding and application of this useful self-influence concept will continue to expand in the context of twenty-first century organizational settings.

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