



Journal

of

Leadership Education

...is an international, refereed journal that serves scholars and professional practitioners engaged in leadership education.

...provides a forum for the development of the knowledge base and professional practice of leadership education world wide.

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ISSN 1552-9045

Volume 8, Number 2 - Fall 2009

The Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE) is the official publication of the Association of Leadership Educators. The purpose of JOLE is to provide a forum for development of the knowledge base and practice of leadership education. The journal is intended to promote a dialogue that engages both academics and practitioners. Thus, JOLE has a particular interest in applied research and it is the premise of JOLE that feedback between theory and practice tests both and makes each better. The journal provides several categories for submittals to promote diversity of discussion from a variety of authors.

The members and board of the Association of Leadership Educators became aware of the need for a journal about leadership education in the early 1990s. The challenge of educating people about leadership is particularly provocative, complex, and subtle. Other journals with leadership in the title focus primarily on defining and describing leadership, and journals concerning education seldom address the subject of leadership. Indeed, one common argument in society is that leadership is innate (you have it or you don't) and teaching leadership is difficult and often ineffective. This attitude is expressed, perhaps, in the dearth of leadership courses on our university campuses.

In this context, JOLE provides a means to test the hypothesis that leadership education is possible. Our journal sits at the nexus of education theory and practice and leadership theory and practice, and from this divide, this mountain pass there is a need to look "both ways." Whether leadership education is a discipline of its own is unclear, at least at present. If nothing else, by looking both ways this journal hopes to provide a passageway between two disciplines, enriching both in the process.

JOLE is an electronic journal open to all, both as writers and readers. The journal has been conceived as an "on-line" journal that is available on the world-wide web and is to be self-supporting. To this end, at some time in the future a fee may be charged for publication. At present, all editorial, Board, and reviewer services are provided without cost to JOLE or its members by volunteer scholars and practitioners.

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From the Editor's Clipboard Volume 8, Number 2 - Fall 2009

Hawks and Leaders: Learning to Succeed

This Spring my home site became the dwelling for a pair of Red-tailed Hawks. The hawks swooped in and built their nest in a tall tree near the house. Watching the hawks prepare the environment for their chicks' future, I was amazed how their activities were similar to educating people for leadership. As I watched the hawks' progress, the steps for successful leadership education became clearer and clearer....



Selecting and Arranging a Site

Hawks seek a location where their young are safe from harm and the food supply is ample for the family. They build a nest 35 to 75 feet in strong branches of a tree and use substantial materials to ensure longevity of the nest.

As leadership educators, we create environments where potential leaders are nurtured. These environments include classrooms, experiential settings, laboratories, and other environments. Just as the parent hawks, we need to scope out the location. The successful educational environment is conducive to honest and open communication. This initial site for leadership education provides leadership students with a safe place to begin their exploration of leadership.

Caring for the Young



The female and male hawks work full time caring for their young. The female is responsible for the 28 day incubation. During that time, the male hunts for food and feeds the female. After hatching, the young hawks stay in their nest for about 48 days. The parent hawks are responsible for feeding as the chicks grow into juveniles.

For leadership educators, the care for young leaders is similar to that of the hawks. Leadership educators are responsible for incubating those early thoughts of leadership. They present ideas, opportunities, and ambitions to diverse people who may or may not think of themselves as leaders. In these early stages, successful leadership educators work hard to provide the fuel of leadership -- encouragement, support, and study of initial

leadership theories and practices. It is important for educators to nurture and foster the development of a leadership ambition within their students.



Flight

After about one month in the nest, the young hawks transform into small adults. They lose their white downy feathers and start to stretch their wings. During this time, the young hawks begin exploring the edge of the nest. Then, they venture out to the tree branches and walk back and forth to the nest. The parent hawks are busy feeding the youngsters who have a ravenous appetite. The young hawks exist in an environment where they can observe experienced parents and practice critical skills.

As an observer of the hawks, I was fascinated by this stage of their development. I wondered how they would learn to fly. How would they take the leap from nest to flight? In the hawk nest, I counted 3 birds making their first trip from the nest. It was a sad morning when I spotted one that did not make it from the tree branch to the nest. The small hawk had fallen on the ground below the nest.

The day after the hawk accident, the surviving 2 hawks took off, spread their wings, and flew to a tree across the way. From there, they flew far from sight and returned for only 2 more days. Then they were gone -- off to begin their lives as adult hawks making their own way in the world.

Leadership educators have the awesome responsibility of developing educational and/or training programs. Just as the young hawks began their flight training with a step to the edge of the nest, potential leaders need a plan that provides small steps for their clientele. First experiences need a safety net within the leadership environment. Without the initial practice steps, people thrust into leadership may fall to the ground just as the young hawk who did not make it back to the nest. The progression of the hawks' flight practice -- nest edge, tree branches, first flight -- is an excellent example for leadership education.

The Process Continues

Hawks use their same nest year after year. Some repair is conducted but the hawks' life cycle repeats over and over again. Leadership educators repeat their tasks year after year also. With new clientele and contextual changes, it is exciting to repair and change our teaching and learning environments. Reflection and continuous improvement enhances the cycle of leadership preparation. Constructive planning gives students opportunities to grow their leadership potential thorough practice and educational support. Successful leadership

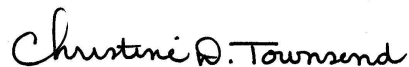
educators have awesome opportunities to make a difference in the future through preparation of people for their first flight as leaders.

[pictures and support information retrieved from
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Issue Information

The *Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE)* continues to strive for excellence in manuscript review and acceptance. Acceptance rates are calculated for each issue and vary depending on the number of submissions. The *JOLE* acceptance rate for this issue is 42%. The manuscripts were authored by 31 writers.

In their review of the submitted documents, representatives of the *JOLE* Editorial Board provided a juried assessment of a manuscript's scholarly significance and relevance. The Theoretical Features, Research Features, Application and Idea Briefs were peer reviewed and closely scrutinized to ensure selected manuscripts advance the theory and practice of leadership education. See the journal website for a more detailed discussion of these categories (www.fshu.edu/JOLE/). This issue of *JOLE* supports scholars in their development of new knowledge in the quest for successful leadership education.



Respectfully submitted, Christine D. Townsend, Editor

Peer Reviewed Idea and Application Briefs

Accepted Application Briefs

The Journal of Leadership Education peer reviews and publishes accepted Idea and Application Briefs that present relevant concepts. Briefs provide the opportunity for a shorter, to the point, discussion of either an idea or an application. (http://www.fhsu.edu/jole/categ_guidelines.html, retrieved 8/06/09) Idea Briefs explore an innovative idea, finding or challenge that is based in theory or practice. Application Briefs describe a project, program, practices, or tool with consideration of the principals/theory of why it is effective. In this issue of the journal, four Application Briefs were peer reviewed and accepted for publication.

Jon Billsberry describes two teaching techniques and presents a case for adopting socially-constructed theories in leadership education. His paper identifies the inconsistency in existing leadership theories and outlines methods instructors can

utilize by aligning their curriculum development with the underlying theory of socially-constructed leadership theory.

The use of candor by successful leaders is the subject of Galpin's and Whittington's brief. They write that the benefits of candor are outweighed by its lack of use. A solution is to develop a culture of candor in the classroom. In their manuscript, they describe seven actions that provide instructors with the ability to influence students to develop their skills in candor.

Craig Johnson continues the development of the leadership classroom in his paper concerning followership. His brief presents a model for incorporating the subject of followership into three major leadership course segments. He supports the inclusion of followership in leadership courses because followers are a critical component in the success of leader actions.

Lindsay, Hassan, and Day report on a leadership education course that is part of a specific contextual application. At the United States Air Force Academy, a core course in leadership development is a part of the overall educational program. The authors present the assessment strategies that are used to integrate the classroom leadership education with the students' experiential leadership roles.

Ozgur Ekmekci, in "What Would I Do Differently? Using First Person Voice to Develop Leadership Identity for Health Care Professionals," reports that leadership education is more than acquisition of knowledge. He presents a model where medical students lead a change project and reflect their leadership progress in first person writing. He develops a teaching/learning strategy where students have the experience of thinking about what they would actually do in a leadership and change situation.

Peer Reviewed Research and Theory Features

Accepted Theory Features

This category is appropriate “for development of theory that is not necessarily data based, but concerns a clear issue/hypothesis, a review of related scholarship with synthesis of theory, and discussion and conclusion.”

(http://www.fhsu.edu/jole/categ_guidelines.html, retrieved 12/23/08) This issue contains three theory articles. Each of the articles was reviewed by members of the Editorial Board who recognize the merits of introducing new theories and merging different ideas into one thought.

Willis Watt presents a theory that was developed by a melding of Social Change Theory, Social Change Leadership Theory, and Transformational Leadership

Theory. He presents ten recommendations to support effective leadership during inevitable times of change.

Anne Perkins theorizes that courses are needed for entrance into the cross-cultural aspects of leadership. In her manuscript, Perkins addresses six premises of Western leadership theory and sets up a global framework for leadership education.

The third theory, constructed by Jeffrey McClellan, presents three levels of leadership and proposes development of transcendent servant-leaders. In his paper, the author write of the challenge to conceptualize leadership in the current context containing multiple leadership definitions.

Accepted Research Features

This article category is an important repository for “research-based papers containing a clear statement of an issue/hypothesis, a review of related scholarship with synthesis of theory, a discussion and conclusion.”

(http://www.fhsu.edu/jole/categ_guidelines.html, retrieved 12/23/08) This issue contains eight research-based articles that focus on various leadership contexts, educational systems, and differing teaching methods.

Dolly Adams conducted her research with faculty members working in public schools. In her study she investigated the relationship between personality type and preferred leadership approaches. Although her study did not reveal any significant correlations, the study adds to continued leadership education discussion.

John Barbuto and Marilyn Bugenhagen studied elected leaders' emotional intelligence and quality of their leader-member exchange. Their study offers critical findings that link emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange.

Edgar, Boyd, Rutherford, and Briers investigated the themes found within the Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE). The study results indicate the need for increasing research continuity within the journal.

According to the research by Elmuti, Jia, and Davis women face obstruction to leadership positions. Although women have aspiration for advancement they report discrimination, family-life demands, and other barriers. The authors also found women supported participative leadership styles.

Sherlock and Morgan studied graduate students and critical thinking. In their findings they report that students found critical thinking assignments and activities were good learning tools for successful leadership education.

Stoecker, Willis, and Lersch (with Hill and Burgert) completed research with community-based leadership programs. Their study looked at programs sponsored by different organizational groups and the objectives of these differing programs.

Athletic team leadership was the focus of the research completed by Extejt and Smith. In their study, they found no relationship between the length of athletic participation and level of leadership skill.

Horstmeier and Ricketts looked at civic engagement of participants in a youth leadership program. Although support for civic engagement is evident, they reported the totality of students participating in civic projects was low.

The Social Construction of Leadership Education

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Abstract

Most leadership theories assume that leadership is a quality of leaders (e.g., trait theory), or a response to environments (e.g., situational theory), or a combination of both (e.g., contingency theory). In all these approaches leadership is something knowable and definite. However, after years of research there is no agreed definition of what leadership is or any universal agreement about who might be regarded a leader. This paper outlines an alternative approach in which leadership is a contested construct and describes two engaging teaching techniques that align pedagogic approach with the underlying theory. In doing so this paper makes a case for the adoption of socially-constructed theories in leadership education.

The Social Construction of Leadership

Recently there has been increasing interest in theorizing leadership from a social construction perspective. One of the leading advocates of this perspective is sociologist Keith Grint. His analysis of the leadership literature highlights that two dimensions (the person and the situation) are central to most theories of leadership and that most extant theories have an element of certainty and knowingness about them (Grint, 1997, 2005; Yukl, 1994). For example, trait-based theories assume that it is possible to know which elements of the person contribute to their leadership success, situational theories assume it is possible to analyze a particular context so that particular leadership responses can be tailored, and contingency theories assume it is possible to determine the leadership characteristics of both the person and the situation so that adaptations can be made to both to enable leadership to thrive.

Grint's (1997) approach questions the notion that it is possible to analyze these two dimensions and produce a definitive assessment of the leadership characteristics of either the person or the situation. Moreover, drawing from social constructivist ideas, he builds an argument for leadership being based in people's

perceptions. Adapting a common proverb, his argument is that just like beauty leadership is in the eye of the beholder. By making leadership a product of the observer, he explains many leadership riddles such as why people regard people differently as leaders. It also explains why no common definition of leadership can be agreed upon or why completely different approaches to leadership work in similar situations.

A socially-constructed approach to leadership is more than simply placing leadership assessments in the eye of the beholder. People are not free from social influence and this allows for the “truth” of someone’s leadership to emerge over time; truth emerges from a competition between various accounts and interpretations. He says that these interpretations do not have equal weight. Some are more dominant than others and become the accepted view, regardless of the “reality” of the person or the situation. Hence, “we may never know what the true essence of a leader or the situation actually is and must often base our actions and beliefs on the accounts of others from whom we can (re)constitute our version of events” (Grint, 1997, p. 6).

Grint’s (1997) social constructionist approach to leadership is typical of the literature. Within his conceptualization he captures four features that Sandberg (2001) argues are common to all approaches.

Dualistic ontology (Sandberg, 2001) is the idea that there are two entities, the subject and the object, that are separate and independent of each other. When leadership is the issue, the two entities are usually a person perceived as a leader and the person perceiving the individual. The separation of the two entities allows the researcher to explore independent qualities or attributes of both parties.

Objectivistic epistemology is the notion that beyond human consciousness there is an objective reality. Hence, social construction is not the completely illusory approach that it is often misrepresented to be. Social constructionists believe that there is a reality and that it is through people’s interpretation that meaning comes (Sandberg, 2001).

Assuming that the individual is the prime creator of knowledge about reality in this way is termed *individualistic epistemology*, which is Sandberg’s (2001) third common feature.

The fourth common feature of social constructionist approaches is the *role of language as a mirror of objective reality* (Sandberg, 2001). Put simply, this is the idea that language can represent or mirror reality in an objective fashion. All of these are embodied in Grint’s (1997) approach.

Aligning Theory and Teaching

Although there is considerable agreement that leadership can be taught and learned, there is considerable disagreement on definitions and approaches to the subject (Doh, 2003; Gill, 2006; Middlebrooks & Allen, 2009; Nahavandi, 2006). One major advantage of a socially-constructed approach to leadership is that it dodges many of these problems and its underlying principles offer instructors an opportunity to align their teaching methods with their theoretical approach to leadership.

Dualistic ontology gives validity to students as valued observers of leaders. It gives them the “right” to view, analyze, and critique the leadership of others. Their views reflect their approach to leadership. Moreover, this theoretical approach makes it essential that instructors acknowledge and incorporate the students’ own backgrounds when discussing leadership. Crucially, dualistic ontology compels instructors to provide independent contexts and people for observers to discuss (and contest) leadership. Conversely, allowing students to discuss their own leadership situation violates the rule that object and subject must be kept separate. Also, if it is assumed that students inhabit different arenas, when talking about their own environments observers occupy a privileged position as the only observer of the events and a meaningful debate cannot occur (Posner, 2009). Individualistic epistemology gives value to students’ interpretations and assessments of leaders. More than this, students’ thoughts on leadership are their truths. Helping students find their own understanding of what leadership is and applying this to their own situations becomes an important goal of leadership development.

In this process language becomes an essential medium. It is through discussion and debate that perceptions of leadership contests are established. Grint (1997) argues that “the ancient study of rhetoric provides one significant element of leadership training since it may be persuasive powers that hold the key to leadership success. Political networking, interpersonal skills, material wealth, and negotiating skills are the hallmark of this approach” (Grint, 1997, p. 6). He further contends that “this does not mean that leadership is whatever anyone wants it to be; it is what certain powerful ‘voices’ make it. All voices may be equal but some are more equal than others” (p. 9).

Accordingly to this approach, the foundations of leadership education are about helping students understand their own definition of leadership and understanding leadership in their own environments. They do this through debate and contest by analyzing leadership subjects from similar knowledge bases. Leadership development is likely to focus on skills that help students’ develop their ability to

persuade and inspire people in their own leadership arenas. Crucially, it will address the way that students appear to other people.

Constructed Leadership Teaching

The remainder of this paper outlines two teaching approaches that abide by the principles set out above. Both of these approaches focus on helping students surface and define their own understanding of leadership.

Films

Over the past 20 years many papers have been published advocating the use of films for management and leadership education (Billsberry & Edwards, 2008; Billsberry & Gilbert, 2008; Bumpus, 2005; Champoux, 2006a, 2006b; Huczynski, 1994; McCambridge, 2003; Serey, 1992). Advocates of using films for teaching management and leadership have, by and large, justified the approach by appeals to their utility because their students report that they both enjoy and learn from the films. This is not unexpected. Films are designed to engage the audience quickly and to swiftly form a bond between the audience and the characters. The narrative arc of a film creates tension, interest, and drama. In effect, many films are multilayered and multidimensional case studies that focus on a key issue.

A particularly useful quality is that often the filmmaker allows the audience to develop their own understanding of subject. A good recent example is the depiction of the work and life balance (and related topics) in *The Wrestler* (Aronofsky, 2008). In this film, a wrestler (Randy “The Ram” Robinson, Mickey Rourke) is juxtaposed with a lap dancer (Cassidy, Marisa Tomei). Whereas Cassidy has imposed strict rules upon herself to keep work and non-work separate and will not take work home with her, The Ram has become his work persona, both at work and outside of work. When The Ram falls ill and has to retire from wrestling he is forced to confront his non-existent private life. Both the roles of Cassidy and The Ram are richly depicted and the contrast and interplay of the two provides a rich tableau upon which to base discussions on the work and life balance. Such detailed, subtle, and realistic occasions lie at the heart of the utilitarian justification for the use of film in management and leadership education.

Beyond this utilitarian justification of films in education, the social constructionist approach provides a theoretical reason for the adoption of film in leadership education. First, film separates object and subject. Students are the observers and film gives them a common reference point, or objective reality, around which to discuss leadership. Students are the prime creator of their reality and their discussions about the way that leadership is portrayed gives language a prime

role. When using films to teach leadership through a social constructionist perspective, the instructors' goal is to help students find or develop their own understanding of leadership. For example, what do they acknowledge as leadership? What qualities of leaders do they respond to? In what sort of situations is leadership required? By analyzing and discussing films with their fellow students, they will develop their own objective reality and this, in turn, becomes a tool that they can use to analyze leadership in their own environments.

Films can be used in all manner of ways in teaching depending on the time available, the resources of the students, the teaching environment, and goals of instructors. The approach to leadership outlined in this paper suggests an alternative approach to showing the film in either its entirety or short sections as described by Billsberry and Gilbert (2008) and Huczynski (1994), where film is primarily used for illustration. Instead, students need to study their chosen leaders with the ability to view scenes as many times as they need in order to disentangle the complexity and subtlety of the way leadership is portrayed. The most suitable technology would be DVD or digital clips viewed on personal computers, thus suggesting a laboratory or home setting.

Clearly there is an almost limitless list of films in which leadership is portrayed. Any film with a narrative arc is likely to contain characters that people may perceive to be leaders. Hence, there is little point producing such a list. Instead, there are several films worth mentioning because they have interesting elements of social constructionism interwoven into the depiction of leadership. In *Lawrence of Arabia* (David Lean, 1962) the actions of the lead character were largely invisible to his bosses and his home nation. Hence, his recognition as a leader, except to the Arabs with whom he worked closely, comes from third party reported accounts and is clearly socially-constructed. A similar point can be made about *Spartacus* (Stanley Kubrick, 1960), where reports of the lead character's actions struck fear in the hearts of distant Romans.

The Great Leader Project

Many leadership teaching techniques involve debates about leadership. Most of these align well with a social constructionist approach to leadership given the centrality of rhetoric and "powerful voices" to it. To demonstrate how, this paper will briefly outline a well-elaborated technique called The Great Leader Project (Burton, 2009).

The Great Leader Project uses rhetoric to improve students' understanding of leadership theory, their knowledge of leaders, and to develop leadership skills by engaging in competitive debate. The technique works in the following way. Students are allocated to a team of four to six and they are given a randomly-assigned leader by the instructor. They spend time analyzing the leader with the

purpose of using leadership theories to explain why they think the individual is an effective leader. They use this analysis to prepare a presentation explaining to other students why their allocated person is, or was, a great leader. The next stage of the process is for the groups to compete against each other to persuade an audience of their classmates that their leader is the greater. They are not allowed to refer to the other groups' leaders and may only advance their own and do so using course ideas. The classmates vote based on the quality of the advocacy and the use of course ideas. The level of competition (i.e., how many teams they compete against) is determined by how large the class is. The goal is to have a few teams go through to a second, or championship, round a week later. This promotes deeper learning and a chance to improve debating skills.

This approach encourages students to use multiple sources from which they develop their views of their leader. Through team processes they form their collective reality and such discussions are rehearsals for their public advocacy. In many ways, it is natural follow-up to the initial study of leadership through the studies of films and other media and the two methods combine to give students a comprehensive immersion in the social constructionist approach to leadership.

Conclusion

This paper has considered leadership education from a social constructionist perspective. It began by describing the social constructionist perspective with an elaboration of the underlying principles. The paper then described two teaching methods that align the theoretical approach to leadership with the teaching method. These two approaches are the use of films in an analytical, rather than illustrative, manner and a debate framework that embodies the role of rhetoric in shaping leadership perceptions.

In outlining these two techniques, this paper does more than just highlight two teaching methods that align with a socially-constructed approach to leadership. It also advocates social constructionism as a valid approach to leadership. The fact that the underlying theoretical approach to the subject can be mirrored in the teaching approach should improve the quality of teaching because students will be internalizing the theory both from what is said and what they do.

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Biography

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Creating a Culture of Candor in the Leadership Classroom

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Abstract

A culture of candor can bring numerous benefits to any organization. Yet, candor is rare in most organizations. Despite the scarcity of its practice there is a need to develop leaders who value and use candor by demonstrating and practicing candor in the leadership classroom. A description of seven key actions that enable leadership instructors to build a culture of candor in the classroom is provided. Each of these actions is supported with prescriptive guidelines for implementing these practices in the classroom. The influence of the seven actions on the candid behavior of leadership students as well as leadership instructors is also discussed.

Why Candor is Important to Companies

There are many synonyms for candor such as frankness, openness, honesty, forthrightness, and straightforwardness. Candor is good for business. For example, Welch (2005) describes the lack of candor as “the biggest dirty little secret in business” (p. 25). Welch argues that the pervasive lack of candor in business stifles good ideas, slows decisions down, costs money, and ultimately damages firm performance. In contrast, the presence of candor increases the flow of useful ideas. This results in faster decision-making, lower costs, and higher productivity. Candor is present in companies that have made the transition from good to great. According to Collins (2001), these organizations have developed the ability to candidly confront the brutal facts. This ability reflects what Bossidy

and Charan (2002) call “robust dialogue.” They believe it is necessary in order to effectively execute strategy.

Candor in an organization also creates greater transparency which establishes the basis of trust on which effective leadership depends (Bennis, Goleman, & O’Toole, 2008). In their discussion of how to rebuild the trust in organizations that has been lost during the recent economic crisis, O’Toole & Bennis (2009) state that, “we won’t be able to rebuild trust in institutions until leaders learn how to communicate honestly – and create organizations where that’s the norm” (p. 54).

Given these benefits, it would seem that candor would be pervasive throughout organizations. So, why is this not the case? Candor makes people uncomfortable and many people fear that speaking candidly may alienate others. Welch (2005) attributes the prevalent lack of candor in businesses to people being socialized from childhood to “soften bad news and make nice about awkward subjects” (p. 28). Galpin (1996) contends that people possess limiting beliefs about offering open and honest comments to others. These limiting beliefs include fear that people become upset or defensive or demoralized. Often people are hesitant to provide candid and constructive feedback because they believe others “should know by themselves what is needed, and they may think I’m being too critical” (pp. 102-103). Moreover, Bolton (2006) states, “Most managers have an ‘approach-avoid’ attitude toward candor. While they say they want it, most don’t want the conflict, frustration, and additional work they’ve experienced as by-products of candor” (p. 343). This lack of candor amounts to a cordial hypocrisy in which we are aware of problems, but refuse to discuss them in a meaningful and constructive way.

Why Candor is Important in the Leadership Classroom

Beyond candor in companies, candor is also good for the leadership classroom. Stech (2008) contends that leadership development, in addition to leadership training and education, is essential. Stech argues that leadership development occurs when participants are able to gain insights into their own beliefs and behaviors as well as understand the effect they have on others. According to Stech, while various methods of leadership instruction exist (e.g., lecture, case study, textbook review, experiential exercises, and group discussions) it is the more active methods such as experiential exercises and group discussions that promote the leadership development.

In order for active leadership development methods to be optimally effective in achieving their intended outcomes, establishing a culture of candor in the classroom is essential. For example, Ramsey and Fitzgibbons (2005) propose that

classroom experiences can provide rich learning opportunities if they are allowed to emerge because every student brings personal work experiences and are members of other organizations that can serve as sources for discussion. Moreover, Kolb and Kolb (2005) suggest that in order to facilitate group learning and reflection, an appropriate space must be created in order to encourage the ongoing discussion which is relevant to the issues being addressed. However, simply providing time in the classroom is not enough; facilitators must be intentional about creating an environment that is psychologically safe by fostering trust and mutual respect (Roberts, 2008). When a leadership classroom is optimally functioning, participants enter a zone of understanding wherein the instructor and students speak with candor and actively listen (Avery & Steingard, 2008).

Considering the scarcity of candor in business and the myriad benefits that a culture of candor can bring to both an organization and to the leadership classroom, we propose that there is a need to develop leaders who value and use candor by demonstrating and practicing candor in the leadership classroom.

Implementing Candor in the Leadership Classroom

We have found through numerous leadership courses which include active learning techniques such as facilitated discussions, experiential activities, and other self-awareness exercises, that candid participation can be established if leadership instructors conscientiously implement a set of seven actions. Implementing these actions not only promotes the candid involvement of participants in leadership courses, but these items also directly shape the role and candid behavior of leadership instructors. Finally, it should be noted that the seven actions are interconnected. Implementing one or two of them will help promote candor among participants, but implementing all seven as a comprehensive set builds a broader and more effective culture of classroom candor.

Preparing for Candid Participation

Establish participation ground rules. Agreeing upon ground rules early in a course supports open dialogue (Roberts, 2008). Taking this into consideration during the first class session, the instructor engages the course participants in generating a list of participation ground rules. The list should consist of clear bullet points, and be no more than ten items long. The items are recorded on a flip-chart sheet and the list is posted during every class session where it is clearly visible to everyone. Course ground rules may include stay on topic, do not over participate, agree to disagree, listen, respect others' ideas, and be brief. The value of establishing a clear set of participation ground rules to encourage candor

cannot be overstated. The items on the list invariably help the instructor regulate the participation of individuals in the course, by enabling instructors to control overly dominant participants and encourage more reluctant individuals to participate. The responsibility for monitoring and maintaining adherence to the ground rules should be shared by the instructor and the participants. Setting these ground rules during the first class session sets an expectation of participation, open dialogue, and candor.

The Instructor's Role

Hold back. In classrooms where candor is prevalent, course instructors listen first and tell second. Participants shut down and do not offer their own views when instructors provide their comments and opinions first. The traditional lecture and textbook review methods which persist across both domestic and international educational institutions have conditioned students to expect to be told the answer. Consequently, the instructor is perceived by students as the only authority in the room. In order to overcome this conditioning and draw out candid original thought and insight, instructors should be the last to comment on a topic. Instructors need to allow for the discomfort – their own and the students – of breaking with these traditional classroom roles. However, as Roberts (2008) states, “this more organic style of learning may be prove to be challenging for some instructors if they are more comfortable with higher degrees of structure, used to providing answers, or compelled to move the group in the ‘right direction’” (p. 121).

Ask the right questions. Holding back does not mean the instructor abdicates involvement in the class. Rather, the instructor's role takes a new form. In order to stimulate participant input, instructors should avoid the trap of projecting too much of themselves or their beliefs onto the group (Wardale, 2008). Instead, instructors should constantly pose questions such as: What is your experience with that? Do you have an example? What are the ramifications of your idea? What do others think about that comment/idea? Does anyone have a contrary view?

Asking these second level questions allows both students and the instructor to get at deeper insights about a particular topic. This type of questioning stretches the thinking of the class and encourages higher levels of participation. This type of questioning is crucial to the establishment of candor in the classroom.

Shut “over participants” down. One of the most difficult issues for instructors to contend with when trying to establish a culture of candor among a group is how to manage overly dominant participants. Invariably, overbearing participants stifle group candor by simply dominating the discussion time. The more hesitant participants will hold back and the free flow of ideas and opinions across the

group is brought to a veritable stand still. Because of this, it is imperative that instructors are forthright in their approach to shutting dominant people down. This is aided to a great extent by establishing clear participation ground rules as described in item number one above. However, once ground rules are established and the expectations of enforcing them throughout the course are set, when sensing that someone is over participating then instructors can respectfully and candidly say to the person – “Thanks for the comments, we have heard a lot from you, so I am shutting you down for a little while.” We have never seen an overly dominant participant become surprised or offended by such action taken. At least for a period of time they always comply with the instructor’s comment, but some enthusiastic individuals may need to be reminded of their shut down status. Once the instructor deems that the individual who has been shut down should join back in the exchange, it is simple to invite the person to participate again.

Be comfortable with silence. For candor to truly take hold, *everyone* should participate at some point. Silence is an excellent tool to encourage candor and open participation from even the most reluctant participants. Instructors who pose questions to a group about leadership techniques they want the group to discuss or aspects of a learning exercise they have just lead participants through can often be met with silence, especially if they have just “shut down” (see discussion above) overly active participants. However, the natural tendency is for an instructor to break the silence by answering their own question or by asking the question again in a different way just to fill the dead air time. A better way to break the silence is to let the silence linger. It does not take long for participants, even very reluctant participants, to become uncomfortable with the silence of the group, thereby compelling them to offer a response to the question that was asked.

Accept all input. During leadership courses poor ideas and substandard input to discussions are a reality. But, instructors should not allow that to stop the candid flow of input. Instructors can address obviously substandard input by looking for some merit in those comments or ideas (e.g., the goal of the suggestion rather than the content, or a similar idea that might have worked in another environment than the one being discussed). Instructors can also ask participants to think through ways flawed suggestions might be implemented in order to draw out potentially ill fated ramifications of those ideas. Instructors should remember that candor opens up the free flow of ideas and comments – both good and bad.

Engaging Participants in Facilitating Each Other’s Learning

The Feedback Mill: Implementing regular feedback and coaching. The benefits of feedback and coaching are numerous. Regular feedback has been found to increase individual performance, productivity, and job satisfaction (Yu, 2007). Feedback facilitates the implementation of organizational change (Rock & Donde, 2008) because feedback helps set behavioral expectations. Feedback and

coaching are intentional leader behaviors that aid individual development and team building. Feedback also facilitates the creation of a shared organizational vision, strategy and values (Catton, 2008).

The benefits of regular feedback and coaching can also be brought into the leadership classroom, with a simple and very effective exercise we refer to as The Feedback Mill. This process of feedback and coaching is most effectively introduced into a leadership classroom several weeks into a term in order for the group to have some time to observe each others' class participation behaviors. The format for the feedback exercise is as follows.

First, including the instructor, have course participants get up from their seats and divide into pairs of their own choosing. Second, once all participants are paired up, inform the group that they will be conducting a private discussion with their partner only to exchange feedback between each other about their course participation and adherence to the ground rules. Be sure to let everyone know that they will not be asked to share their discussion with the larger group. Third, provide participants with a balanced format for their feedback exchange by requiring that they use the lead in phrases: "You are effective because..." and "You would be even more effective if..." At this point these phrases should be written on the board or projected in the front of the room. These are key lead in phrases as they require participants to balance their observations about each other, providing both positive and negative constructive comments. Fourth, ask participants to focus the content of their feedback exchanges on how their classmates are performing in the course activities and discussions (e.g., they can use the ground rules that have been set for the course as a basis for their comments) and have them begin. Fifth, once the pairs have had a chance to exchange feedback with each other for about three to four minutes then ask the participants to find another partner and repeat the exchange with their new partner. Have the participants move through about four or five pairings in about 20 minutes.

Implementing The Feedback Mill technique in a classroom inevitably creates a great deal of discomfort. Because of this initial level of discomfort, it is important for the instructor to debrief the first session. Once the participants have moved through four or five pairings, the instructor should have everyone return to their seats and ask them a series of questions about the exercise. For example: Were the discussions with your partners useful and, if so, why? Which of the two constructive comments (the positive or negative) were easier for you to make to your partners as the provider of feedback? Which of the two comments were you most interested in hearing from your partners as the receiver of feedback?

Conducting this exercise periodically throughout the course (e.g., three to four times during a term) establishes regular points for candid one to one exchange

between participants. Course participants will often seem uncomfortable when the exercise is first introduced because they are staring candor directly in the face. But, invariably people are hungry for more feedback after the first exchange. Participants who are paired with the instructor are typically even more uncomfortable, so instructors need to reassure each person with whom they exchange feedback that there will be no retribution for offering open and honest comments about the instructor's course participation and performance.

Conclusion

Just as bringing candor into a company requires candid leadership, bringing candor into the leadership classroom requires candid instruction. Leadership instructors who expect candid participation from their students must be willing to incorporate candor into how they conduct their courses. Course leaders can build candor into their instruction by encouraging and facilitating open and honest discussion among all participants. Leadership instructors should also establish on-going performance feedback exchanges between participants in their courses. Moreover, instructors should themselves actively participate in discussions and feedback exchanges with course participants. Doing so will model the candid behavior instructors expect from their participants. As Welch (2005) points out, "to get candor you reward it, praise it, and talk about it...most of all you yourself demonstrate it" (p. 32).

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Biographies

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Introducing Followership into the Leadership Classroom: An Integrative Approach

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Abstract

Developing followers is just as important as developing leaders. This brief outlines strategies for integrating material on followership into three leadership course units: introduction to leadership, leadership theories, and leadership ethics. Instructors can highlight the importance of followership by emphasizing that (a) leaders and followers have an interdependent relationship, (b) followers are essential to group success, (c) followers are an important component in many leadership theories, and (d) followers are responsible for their moral choices and face their own set of ethical challenges.

Introduction

After decades of neglect, followers and followership are beginning to get the attention they have long deserved. Papers and panels on followers were featured at recent Academy of Management and International Leadership Association conventions. The Kravis Institute at Claremont McKenna College and the Institute for Advanced Studies in Leadership at Claremont Graduate School of Management devoted an entire conference to followership in 2006. Organizers of the event believe that this gathering, which resulted in the publication of *The Art of Followership* (2008), marked the beginning of a new subfield in leadership studies. In her latest book *Followership* (2008), Harvard political scientist Barbara Kellerman argues that followers are gaining power while the influence of leaders is fading. She urges leadership educators to include followership as part of leadership education, noting that “developing good followers is important, as important as developing good leaders” (p. 240).

It may be decades more before followership earns equal billing with leadership. However, there can be little doubt that leadership educators must focus more attention on followers and followership than they traditionally have in the past.

Followership can be addressed as a stand-alone unit in the leadership course (Bratton, Grint & Nelson, 2005; Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2009). Separating followership from leadership is misleading because leadership cannot properly be understood without accounting for the attitudes, skills and behaviors of followers. An integrative approach, one that incorporates material about followers throughout the quarter or semester, presents a more complete picture of the leadership/followership dynamic. This brief describes how followership can be integrated into three course units.

Integration Strategies

Three sections of the leadership course are particularly suited for including material on followers and followership. They illustrate some of the ways that followers can be considered throughout the quarter or semester.

Unit 1: Introduction to Leadership

I introduce followership the first day of the class by highlighting the interdependent relationship between leaders and followers. Leaders and followers are relational partners who work toward shared goals (Hollander, 1992). Both play an important part in the success of the group (Kelley, 1992). Most class members will rotate between leader and follower functions through the course of a week, serving as the leaders of class project groups, for instance, and then as work-study students taking direction from university supervisors. In light of this reality, I encourage them to view themselves as leader-followers (Hackman & Johnson, 2009).

The negative connotations associated with the labels “follower” and “followership” should be confronted when the topic is first raised. Followers are widely thought of as passive and subservient and some scholars object to the use of these terms, arguing that alternative terms like “collaborators” and “constituents” be employed instead (Rost, 2008). Students holding a similar view may object to devoting class time to followers. I address these misconceptions by asking small groups to brainstorm the duties or functions of the leadership and followership roles. It soon becomes apparent that both roles are essential to success. Leaders have more influence and bear more responsibility for the overall direction of the group. Followers are more responsible for implementing plans and making sure that the work is completed (Hackman & Johnson, 2009). As part of this exercise, I also ask the teams to generate lists of the characteristics of effective leaders and followers. Team members discover that many of the same characteristics contribute to the success of both leaders and followers. For example, those in leadership and followership roles need to communicate effectively, generate creative ideas, make good decisions, and work effectively with others.

Unit 2: Leadership Theories


Followers are an important, albeit often overlooked, component in a number of popular leadership theories. In fact, major theories can be categorized according to their degree of emphasis on followers and followership, ranging from leader centric to follower-centric. Theories can be introduced using the framework outlined in Table 1 and described in more detail below.

Traits Approach. This approach is leader-centric, focusing on the personal characteristics, such as personality, motivation, physical appearance and intelligence that qualify individuals for leadership positions (Stogdill, 1974; Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Harder, 2003). Traditionally, traits theorists have paid very little attention to followers, believing that the success or failure of the group depends almost entirely on the actions of the leader. However, some recent proponents of trait theory have begun to identify qualities that encourage followers to identify some individuals as leaders (Lord, De Vader & Alliger, 1986).

Transformational and Charismatic Leadership. The transformational and charismatic leadership theories focus largely on the behaviors of leaders, largely crediting them for the collective success or failure of the group. Nevertheless, these approaches do not completely overlook the contributions of followers. Transformational leaders bring about significant positive change in groups, organizations and societies (Burns, 2003). In the process, followers are transformed into leaders. Both leaders and followers become more effective and ethical. Burns (1978), who coined the term transforming leadership, notes: “Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p. 2). In charismatic leadership, leaders are seen as having extraordinary powers, generate strong emotional attachments with followers, and exert powerful influence over follower behavior (Weber, 1947; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Follower perceptions are a key to maintaining charismatic status. To be perceived as charismatic, leaders must speak to the needs, fears, aspirations and desires of followers while engaging in behaviors that encourage attributions of charisma, such as acting in an unconventional manner, demonstrating personal commitment, risk taking, and appearing confident and knowledgeable (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

Table 1

Followership Focus
Continuum of Leadership Theories



Leader Centric			Follower Centric		
Traits Theory	Transformational Charismatic Theory	Contingency Model	Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory	Information Processing Theory	Social Identity Theory
Leader characteristics and behaviors central			Follower characteristics and behaviors central		
Performance depends on leaders			Performance depends on followers		
Leaders influence followers			Followers influence leaders		

Contingency Models. Contingency models are based on the premise that a leader's effectiveness is dependent on (contingent upon) elements of the situation, including followers. According to Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker theory (1967; 1978), the influence of a leader rests upon the power of the position the leader holds, the structure of the task, and the interpersonal relationship between the leader and the followers. The most favorable conditions for leaders exist when they have significant power, direct highly structured tasks, and have good relationships with followers.

In Path-Goal Theory, leaders influence follower perceptions of task paths and the desirability of goals (House, 1977; House & Mitchell, 1974). Followers will be more motivated if they are convinced that completing the task will lead to achievement of a desirable objective. Deciding what kind of leadership style to use (directive, supportive, participative, achievement oriented) depends primarily on (a) the nature of the followers (needs, values, abilities, personality) and (b) the structure of the task to be completed. Followers need the most direction when they are inexperienced and the task is unstructured. In Situational Leadership Theory, the most effective leadership style matches the readiness level of followers. Readiness levels are based on the ability of followers as well as their willingness to undertake tasks (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2008). Leaders need to provide most direction when followers lack ability and motivation; very little guidance is required when followers are highly skilled and motivated.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory highlights the relationship between leaders and followers (Goertzen &

Fritz, 2004). Some followers enjoy relationships with their leaders that are marked by high levels of trust, support and mutual influence. Followers in these high quality (high LMX) relationships are more productive, satisfied, and committed than their low LMX counterparts (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In the latest stage of LMX theory, researchers outline ways that entire work units can foster high-quality leader-follower partnerships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1998).

Information Processing Theory. The information processing theory examines the cognitive processes that determine the behavior of leaders and followers. Cognitive schemas determine how individuals make sense of the world around them (Brown, Scott, & Lewis, 2004). Leaders use schemas to determine which behavioral style to use but, perhaps more importantly, followers use schemas when interpreting and evaluating the behaviors of leaders. Judgments about who is suitable to lead are based largely on implicit leadership theory – beliefs about what separates leaders from non-leaders. Those individuals engaging in prototypical behaviors are more likely to be elected, to emerge as small group leaders, to be selected as CEOs and so forth. At the same time, followers judge the effectiveness of leaders based on such indirect cues as the success of the group and whether they believe the leader is responsible for high performance (Lord & Maher, 1991).

Social Identity Theory. This theory shifts attention almost entirely to followers, making this the most follower-centric approach (Lord & Brown, 2004). Leader effectiveness depends on how leaders speak to the self-images of followers (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). To be successful, leaders must tailor their messages to the self-identity level of followers and modify those images when necessary. Followers who are individually oriented are more receptive to personal performance feedback and rewards. Interpersonally oriented followers want to establish a positive emotional connection with their leaders. Followers who define themselves at the group or collective level will be motivated by messages that highlight teamwork and organizational goals. There is evidence to suggest that the most effective leaders encourage followers to shift from selfish concerns to collective goals and values (Lord & Brown, 2004)

Unit 3: Leadership Ethics

The failings of leaders are obvious given the recent glut of well-publicized scandals involving Jeffrey Skilling, Bernie Ebbers, Franklin Raines, Martha Stewart, William Aramony, Bernard Madoff, and others. However, these scandals would not have taken place without the willing participation of followers who inflated earnings, lied to investors, defrauded donors, and covered up the crimes of their bosses. Followers, like leaders, are responsible for their moral choices (Kellerman, 2004; Chaleff, 2003). My discussion of ethics in the leadership course includes followers as well as leaders for that reason. As part of this

discussion, I point out that followers face a unique set of ethical challenges inherent in the role that they play. Not only are followers charged with doing the work and implementing the decisions of leaders, they have less status and power. Their moral dilemmas center around (a) Obligation – how much to followers owe their leaders, (b) Obedience – when should followers disobey, (c) Cynicism – how can followers prevent themselves from being exploited yet not become cynical, (d) Dissent – when and how should followers express their disagreement to leader, and (e) Bad news – how can followers take the risk to tell their leaders what they do not want to hear (Johnson, 2009). Students have first hand experience with a number of these dilemmas and I ask them to share their stories with the rest of the class.

I introduce two ethical approaches that specifically address the moral dimension of followership. Courageous followership is based on the premise that courage is the most important character trait for followers (Chaleff, 2003). Courageous followers assume responsibility for their own actions and the organization as a whole. They serve their leaders through hard, often unrecognized, work. However, they challenge or stand up to leaders who are engaging in inappropriate behaviors, help leaders change their attitudes and actions, and leave the organization when the leader or organization refuses to change its unethical behavior. To help students develop their confrontational skills, I ask them to role-play such scenarios as confronting an abusive or disorganized supervisor.

Servant followership is an offshoot of servant leadership, which I also introduce in the ethics component of the course. In servant leadership, leaders put the needs of followers first which discourages such selfish behaviors as hoarding power and wealth (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant followership also discourages self-centered behavior by encouraging individuals to remain in a follower role. This reduces competition and conflict for leadership positions (Kelley, 1998). Servant followers recognize that they have responsibilities to their leaders just as servant leaders have duties to their followers. They demonstrate the active engagement and independent thinking typical of exemplary or outstanding followers.

Conclusion

The examples provided in this brief serve only as a starting point. There are many more opportunities to incorporate followership in the leadership course. For example, follower expectations play a key role in diverse settings. Leaders in a global society must meet the cultural expectations and values of followers in order to be successful. The challenge for leadership educators, then, is to take advantage of these opportunities to introduce followers and followership. Failure to do so is a disservice to students who are entering a world where followers play an

increasingly important role and followership development is becoming as important as leadership development.

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Biography

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Leadership Education and Experience in the Classroom: A Case Study

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Abstract

This paper examines the core academic leader development course at the United States Air Force Academy. The course serves as the foundation for individual leader development that is integrated across all four years of the student's education. The basic approach uses a self-study where the student selects a current leadership role and that role serves as a common frame of reference for the entire course. Assessment strategies such as self-study, journaling, leadership application exercises are intentionally developed to integrate the classroom education into their leadership role. Through this integration the student is able to apply the leadership education real time as they have a current, relevant context in which to apply the material. Initial response to the course has been positive from both the students and the faculty. Future data collection is planned to determine the actual impact of the experience on relevant leadership outcomes.

Introduction

Recent authors have extolled the virtues of practical application to the academic study of leadership (Blackwell, Cummins, Townsend, & Cummings, 2007; Posner, 2009). In fact, several authors assert that without practical experience to connect the education obtained from leadership courses then little may be gleaned from these programs (e.g., Connaughton, Lawrence, & Ruben, 2003; Day, 2000;

Roberts, 2008). Whereas leadership education is important, it is only one part of a larger, ongoing leader development process (Day, 2000; Kezar, et al., 2006). Unfortunately, in much of the extant leadership education students learn the academic material and then much later in their program they will apply the material in the form of a practicum or senior project (Brungardt, Greenleaf, Brungardt, & Arensdorf, 2006). In terms of longer term application, it is either hoped or assumed that the lessons learned will transfer to future leadership situations (DiPaolo, 2008; Williams, Townsend, & Linder, 2005). This is understandable given the limited time frame for a leadership course, but it should not be taken as the only or best way to teach leadership. A question addressed in this article is how can leadership educators balance the academic material of a formal classroom course (i.e., theory, models, and research) needed to provide a solid foundation of leadership education for the student and the need for applied practice within the limited time frame (i.e., a semester) of a leadership course. This will be done through the examination of a core leadership course taught at the United States Air Force Academy. The paper will (a) describe the background and basic framework of the course, (b) address the balance of education versus practical application, and (c) offer preliminary results and implications for individual leader development.

Background

The United States Air Force Academy (USAF A) is a four-year undergraduate institution established in 1954 with the mission to educate, train, and inspire men and women to become officers of character who are motivated to lead the United States Air Force in service to the nation. As part of that mission all cadets are required to complete an academic course on leadership in their junior year. The focus of the course is on their personal leadership development. Within that focus, there are three primary objectives – (a) understand conceptually the behavioral science and leadership concepts that are fundamental to leadership development, (b) improve the student's interpretation and analysis of various leadership situations, and (c) improve the student's ability to facilitate their own leadership development. This is a tall task within the scope of one semester; however, the approach is not unique to this particular course. What makes this course unique is how it is delivered in terms of taking into account the personal context of each student while tailoring the learning to the needs of each respective student.

At stake here is the critical balance between the academic content of leadership and the applied nature of its actual application. If you offer one without the other then the student will get an unrealistic picture of the leadership dynamic. One way to try and balance these competing processes is along the lines of the Scientist-Practitioner model where the focus is on ensuring that there are opportunities to apply theory to practice within academic programs (e.g., Lindsay, Tate, & Jacobs,

2008; Murphy & Saal, 1990). Many leadership educators and researchers agree with this combination (e.g., Connaughton, et al., 2003; Doh, 2003; Kayes, 2002; Van Velsor, Moxley, & Bunker, 2004). While it makes sense to use such an approach, a question to consider is what that would look like on a day-to-day basis within the context of the leadership classroom.

Prince (cited in Connaughton, et al., 2003) offered a framework suggesting how this could be done, which was adopted for use at USAFA in the leadership course. He presented four criteria that leadership development programs should consider. The first is to make sure that the teaching methods line up with the desired outcomes. This implies that we have specific outcomes to which we are trying to teach. Therefore, if we are concerned with the practical application of the material, then our pedagogy ought to line up with our course objectives. Second, he suggested that we need to create opportunities that will allow the students to apply the knowledge to their lives and grasp the consequences of their actions or inaction. This means that instead of leaving students up to their own devices and experiences, that we are intentional about these experiences and how students will experience them. Therefore, more involvement by us as educators beyond the traditional classroom walls is required. The third criterion is that there must be some sort of reflection in this process that involves the faculty. This implies a partnering with the student in their developmental process. Roberts (2008) provides a description of how reflection can be added into the classroom environment. Finally, the students must have multiple learning opportunities. This means a varied approach to not only the teaching of leadership itself, but in how we assess their learning and create developmental experiences based on the assessment findings during their leadership education. These criteria help set the stage for how an academic leadership course can manage this balance between academic theory and practical application.

Implementation and Assessment

This balance between theory and application is addressed on day one of the course as part of the first class assignment. Specifically, students are required to identify a leadership position that they currently hold and use that as the referent for the rest of the course. This could be a formal leadership position or it could be a different position such as a team captain, student club, or community project. Everything that is taught subsequently and all of the assessments take into account that frame of reference. Since many students taking part in leadership education are at early stages of their respective careers, the only frame of reference that they may have is of being a student, what is provided them in our course (e.g., case studies), or from limited work experience. Ignoring this fact means missing out on an opportunity to connect with the students in their current context. By having them select a current leadership role, we help them make these connections. This

is important. As Connaughton et al. (2003) suggested, often leadership is discussed in abstract terms, when in reality, the practice of leadership occurs within a specific context. Accordingly, if we are to educate students on leadership, we must account for their current context (Conger & Toegel, 2003). In addition to this idea of context, Doh (2003) suggested that in order to effectively teach leadership, the methods and programs must be adapted to the specific needs, attitudes, and circumstances of the students. This again indicates that we need to meet the students and connect with them where they are developmentally and then provide them the education and experiences that will help them in their individual leader development. In doing so, the students will become active participants in the leadership experience. The following assessments are used to facilitate this developmental process.

Self Study

Once a leadership position is selected, the students engage in a self study process. The self study approach is used in place of typical case study analysis. Although case studies add value in encouraging students to analyze a particular scenario and diagnose what went wrong, what went right, and so forth, the potential limitation is that students are expected to put themselves into an artificial situation in which they may have little or no experience. Thus, the overarching concern is that they may not be able to relate to the actual constraints and contextual nuances of the situation (i.e., being a CEO of a Fortune 500 corporation). According to Day (2000), research shows that there is relatively weak transfer of the lessons learned from classroom development programs unless they are linked more directly to experience such as with some form of action learning. With the self study approach cadets take the leadership situation which they identify early in the course and use it in an action learning type of process. Whereas action learning typically takes place in a group format within a specific academic or organizational context, the current leadership course adopts an individual-level approach using the context of a currently held leadership position. Therefore, the learning that takes place in the classroom is applied in real time within a personally meaningful context (as with action learning) that is reflected upon through self study. Cadets work on the self study throughout the semester. At the end of the course they write a reflection paper highlighting issues such as what course content they implemented in their leadership position, reflections on what went well or not so well, and developmental experiences they encountered and used to practice their leadership skills.

Leadership Application Exercises

In addition to the self study, cadets complete several leadership application exercises that are focused at the personal and interpersonal levels. First, they do an analysis that consists of a personal reflection regarding their personality. This

assignment is referred to as – “Who are you.” This process allows cadets to generate information about how they see themselves and what they bring to the particular leadership situation. This is based on the idea of who you are determines how you lead (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). They next gather 360-degree feedback from cadets who include superiors, peers, and subordinates that are directly affected by their current leadership position. They take this information and then process it in the form of a reflection paper. In addition to this reflection, they examine any differences that existed between their self assessment and the 360-degree feedback. Finally, they take the information from the self assessment and peer feedback and use it to develop an individualized leader development plan. Once this plan is developed, they implement the plan and this serves as a critical component to the self study that was referenced earlier. This framework allows the instructor to guide each cadet through the entire developmental process. The instructor therefore takes on more of a coaching role in which they provide the student feedback throughout the semester regarding their progress and development in their current leadership position. In this way the cadets do not consider leader education in isolation or in reference to someone else (i.e., case study). It is in their life, therefore they own the experience. This process of analysis models for the student how they can apply the material to future leadership positions.

Journaling

Another technique used in the classroom to help apply the material is through a process of reflection and journaling in hopes of shifting mental models about leadership and its relevance to personal development. This has the advantage of having the student think about the material in a deeper way than is possible within the relatively sterile classroom context. This is an important skill to develop in that reflection is thought to be a key competency needed for leaders to be effective, especially in more complex and multicultural settings (Roberts, 2008). The primary challenge is for the instructor to create appropriate reflection questions that not only address the course content, but also tie into the application exercises and personal experiences of the student. Cadets participate in a journaling process throughout the entire semester with the hope of it continuing beyond the end of the term.

Results

The results from the course have been mainly qualitative to date. The feedback from instructors has been overwhelmingly positive. They feel that they are making meaningful breakthroughs with the students and that the classroom discussions are richer and more varied due to the students’ application of the material outside the classroom. Instructors also feel that the classroom dynamic

has pushed them both personally and professionally to be more engaging and to sharpen skills such as facilitation and feedback giving. Since students bring their personal experiences into the classroom, this allows for a different type and deeper level of processing of the material. This process has also had a similar effect on the instructors. Many have reported an increase in their own development as instructors and leaders.

From the students' perspectives the results have been equally as compelling. End of course critiques show that students found it easier to apply the material outside of the classroom since the focal experiences were personalized in the course. In addition, they state that they see clearer connections between the material and its future application to their lives. They also report a greater value of a reflective assessment strategy rather than one based on more objective means (i.e., tests of knowledge on leadership content).

Conclusion

In summary, the leadership course at the United States Air Force Academy uses an individualized form of self study as a means to balance the academic and applied nature of leadership education. In addition, by using the criteria presented by Prince (2001), personalized developmental experiences are used that enable the cadets to apply the material real-time and be able to see results of their efforts over the course of a single semester. Cadets are not only growing in their knowledge of leadership, they are growing personally as they take the information from the classroom and apply it to their own personal leadership experiences. While additional quantitative assessment of the course is needed and planned for to determine the long-term effects of such an education experience, based on the qualitative information reported to date, the experience has been both educational as well as developmental for students and instructors.

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Anthony M. Hassan, Ed. D., is a Major in the United States Air Force (USAF). He is currently serving as the Deputy Department Head, Leadership Directorate and the Director of the Air Officer Commanding Master's Program in Counseling and Leadership at the United States Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs, Colorado. He received his doctoral degree in Higher Education Administration and Leadership from the University of South Florida. In addition to his higher education administrative duties, he teaches undergraduate and graduate courses in leadership and behavioral sciences. He has 24 years of military leadership experience and 17 years of clinical experience as a licensed clinical social worker. His areas of specialization in social work and leadership evolved from creating change in patients to facilitating change in leaders and organizations. He will retire from the USAF and join the University of Southern California in September 2009.

David V. Day, Ph. D., is the inaugural Woodside Professor of Leadership and Management at the University of Western Australia Business School. He received his doctoral degree from the University of Akron in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. He has published widely on the topics of leadership and leadership development, and is the lead author on the recently published book, *An Integrative Approach to Leader Development: Connecting Adult Development, Identity, and Expertise*. Dr. Day serves on several editorial boards and is an Associate Editor of *Leadership Quarterly* and the *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

What Would I Do Differently? Using First Person Voice to Develop Leadership Identity for Health Care Professionals

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Abstract

Can leadership be taught? Those of us who offer courses on leadership, as part of an academic program, face this question quite often. It is my belief that acquiring more knowledge on leadership does not readily translate into becoming a better leader – especially so at a time in history where leaders have to deal with more complexity and change than ever before (Snowden & Boone, 2007; Malloch & Porter-O’Grady, 2009). Leadership is a process of *becoming* rather than a process of *acquiring*. In this paper, I argue the need to ground our teaching practices in complex responsive processes (Stacey, 2003), share one such practice we employ in a graduate program for health care professionals, and discuss the implications.

Introduction

Can leadership be taught? Those of us who offer courses on leadership, as part of an academic program, face this question quite often. While there may be a number of different opinions on the matter (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 1989; Kotter, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 1997; Washburn, 1998; Yukl, 2002; Zaleznik, 1977), as a faculty member teaching a graduate course on leadership and change for health care professionals, I believe our role is one of facilitation, more so than it is of instruction. We can talk about leadership theories in class, illustrate the construct through research conducted in various domains, and maybe even model what it means to be a leader through our own behavior, but at the end of the day – as faculty – all we can hope for is that our own efforts have somewhat helped our students in their efforts to become better leaders. After all, leadership is a process of *becoming* rather than a process of *acquiring*. It is my belief that acquiring more knowledge on leadership does not readily translate into becoming a better leader – especially so at a time in history where leaders have to deal with more complexity and change than ever before (Snowden & Boone, 2007; Malloch & Porter-

O’Grady, 2009). With that fundamental belief, in this paper, I argue the need to ground our teaching practices in complex responsive processes (Stacey, 2003), share one such practice we employ in a graduate program for health care professionals, and discuss the implications.

Leadership, Change, and Complex Responsive Processes

The health care sector is a formidable landscape, which accounts for nearly one-sixth of the gross domestic product at over \$2.5 trillion (NCHC, 2009). While this sector is firmly grounded in research and development (Berwick, 2003), there is widespread sentiment that the sector is in serious crisis. James Clifton, Chief Executive Officer of Gallup, Inc., in the opening speech he made at The National Conference on Health Care Consumerism in Arlington, Virginia on December 9, 2008, stated that lack of leadership was the root cause for many problems in health care (2008).

According to a recent poll, four in five Americans feel that the U.S. health system is in need of a fundamental change or a complete overhaul (2008). One of the reasons Americans may not be seeing the desired change anytime soon is because health care professionals are usually reluctant to innovate or initiate change in the face of perceived complexity and risk (Ekmekci & Turley, 2008). In an environment where the amount of complexity and risk leaders face is likely to increase for the foreseeable future (McAlearney, 2008; Snowden & Boone, 2007), leadership – which has been named the most critical factor for successful change in a survey of senior executives working for Fortune 500 companies in the United States (Gill, 2003) – will have to play a larger role in envisioning change.

Envisioning change – that is “articulating a compelling vision, mission and strategy”, which “connects employees, shareholders, suppliers and customers” (Kets de Vries, Vriegnaud, & Florent-Treacy, 2004, p. 479) – has been found to be one of the 12 key dimensions by which world-class leaders are evaluated. As a matter of fact, some argue that “if leadership is essentially about realizing change, then crafting and articulating a vision of a better future is a leadership prerequisite” (Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009, p. 65). However, envisioning change starts with challenging the status quo and clearly communicating the direction and speed of change. When communicating the speed and direction of change, leaders must allow their “own emotions to surface” (Conger, 1991, p. 43). A leader’s commitment to and belief in the vision is “a cornerstone to becoming inspirational” and may be attained “only after significant periods of exploration, reflection, and effort” (Conger, 1991, p. 43). Only through the proper choice of “words, values, and beliefs” (Conger, 1991, p. 43) can the leader convey confidence through a compelling vision.

In change efforts that are grounded in linear systems thinking (Stacey, 2003), it may be difficult to create such a compelling vision, since this particular view treats the leader outside of and independent from the environment, as if that individual were an objective observer recommending certain initiatives for the objective system that was being observed. McLagan (2002) and Kotter (1995) argue that many failed transformation initiatives are the result of leaders falsely assuming that organizations will naturally embrace rational and technically-sound plans that have been designed outside of the system itself. Such plans, no matter how much detail they have or regardless of how well they are crafted, are doomed to fail in the absence of a compelling vision (Kotter, 1995; Gill, 2003). In contrast, change efforts that are grounded in complex responsive processes thinking (Stacey, 2003) – because they emerge out of the same environment in which both the leader and the organization co-evolve to create subjective and meaningful transformation – have a better chance of initially producing and then being guided by a compelling vision. Through interactions with other members of the organization, a leader is not only capable of conceptualizing, articulating, and communicating a compelling vision, but is also able to get stakeholders involved in the change efforts by way of iterative gestures and responses (Mead, 1934) - even if this is done simply through simulated role play (Guenthner, 2005).

While objectively analyzing a system - as an outside observer - and then planning a strategy for change appears to be an impartial and scientific method for leaders to implement organizational transformation, this approach often fails. The main reason for failure is that by planning the transformation process as an outside observer, leaders usually end up excluding stakeholders - those who will have to carry out the change efforts and those who will have to adapt to the changes - from the planning process. By doing so, leaders overlook the need to articulate a compelling vision and the task of connecting this vision to what each stakeholder has to do in order for the desired transformation to take place. The leadership of change (Gill, 2003) has to fully integrate all stakeholders into the transformation process for it to be effective. Such integration relies on establishing a strong leadership identity that is embedded within and becomes part of the organization undergoing transformation.

Developing Leadership Identity: A Graduate Level Application

Change Proposal Project

The Department of Clinical Management and Leadership within the School of Medicine at The George Washington University provides degree and certificate programs in Clinical Health Sciences, Clinical Management and Leadership, Clinical Research Administration, and End-of-Life Care. Our programs reinforce an interdisciplinary approach and serve practitioners interested in formalizing

their educational and professional accomplishments through a degree or certificate in their field of study. We embrace the fundamental concepts of adult learning and encourage collaborative independence within the program. Our students are mainly health care professionals with a significant amount of work experience, who strive to advance their careers by pursuing a higher degree in their field (GWU, 2009).

All of our graduate level programs end with a capstone course that focuses on leading change within the contexts of health professionals, health systems, and health policy. In this course, we present and discuss theories on the topics of organizations, leadership, change, and complexity. We also explore characteristics of personal and professional change leadership in relation to expectations for successful executive leadership and performance in today's dynamic health care environments.

We ask students taking the capstone course to develop a research-supported comprehensive change initiative proposal that demonstrates leadership and competency in the assigned field of graduate study. Students have three months to work on this project. The main objective of this assignment is for students to develop a leadership identity that evolves parallel to their change proposals throughout the course of the semester.

We ask that our students pick an organization with which they are fairly familiar – preferably the one for which they are working – and identify an aspect of this organization that they would like to change. Most importantly, when writing their proposals, we ask our students to *use first person language* and *employ active voice* in their narrative and require that they structure their proposals, whereby they provide a:

- brief introduction of the organization that gives the reader a sense for the size, location, mission, and operations;
- description of the student's leadership role in the organization;
- definition of the problem the organization currently faces;
- statement of significance indicating why the mentioned problem is important and what will happen if it is not addressed;
- description of the change strategy and target objectives, along with a basic timeline;
- a list of stakeholders (i.e., those who are affected by the problem and those who will be affected by the proposed solution) and a strategy for working with them, along with a discussion of anticipated resistance to change;
- description of how to monitor progress – as measured against target objectives - and how to evaluate success; and

- a wrap-up discussion, including a statement of why the organization will be a better place as a result of the proposed change effort.

As instructors, we provide regular feedback to each student throughout the proposal development process, constantly encouraging them to envision what they would do and how they would do it, if they were the leader in charge of the proposed initiative. Through such feedback, we also ensure that they properly align all of the components listed above in their presentation. Towards the end of the course, we put our students in groups of three and have each student conduct a formal peer review of proposals for the other two members of the group. We conclude the project with a final instructor evaluation of the proposals.

Student Feedback

Overall, we get highly-positive feedback from our students regarding their experiences in developing a leadership identity through the articulation of a change proposal. Here is how one student summarizes her experiences, with an emphasis on the positive influence of writing in first person:

To present my thoughts in such a way that it was not only my philosophy on leadership, as it has been molded and shaped through my graduate education, but to do so in my own voice? At first, I was a bit stumped....I was under the misguided assumption that one could not write in first person in a scholarly undertaking - thus the reason that I wrote my first paper in third person. However, once I was given 'permission' to do so, I found it a very creatively freeing experience. I do feel that it has been a worthwhile method that has allowed me to better integrate my learning as I am actually 'placing' myself in that learning.

Another student comments on the experience of being placed directly in the leadership role:

I believe that your method is extremely helpful in allowing us to consider every aspect of leadership that we may not have otherwise considered, if we were not, ourselves, in the leadership role. Additionally, it requires us to organize our thoughts systematically as we develop a plan of action. This will certainly prepare us for leadership roles in the future as we now have 'done' it and will be much more comfortable in these roles. I can see it as a great stress reducer in my future to know that I can save an entire hospital if I need to....I have done it on paper! Thank you for powerful lessons in leadership.

Similarly, another student draws attention to the power of employing an insider's perspective when approaching transformation:

I personally liked the approach of putting us in the forefront as a leader. I only wish that I had taken this course prior to starting the non-profit. I have gained such knowledge about how I could have better achieved success with the tools I

have learned. This course has also provided the means to look at my organization as well as other departments internally to understand their strengths and weaknesses.

Many of our students consistently comment on how connecting the *self* to *others* has helped them better conceptualize what they would do – as well as how they would do it - when asked to transform an organization. The realization of the interconnected nature of organizational relationships and how they may facilitate or hamper change initiatives comes to life in one of our student's comments: *This has been an especially good style of learning for me. My project planning does reflect my actual expectations of how I anticipate things will occur when I actually implement the plan. This has allowed me to play out the scenario and to anticipate barriers that I may not have considered prior to the exercise.*

Another student adds to the significance of employing a personal perspective when thinking about change:

I have benefited from this perspective from being placed in the position of a leader. The benefit is to extrapolate and process possibilities from that position. It was helpful and educational for me to look and see who I will want to be more clearly than I ever have before. I have found the process of learning through applying personal perspective to change management to be beneficial.

A student summarizes the difference between acquiring more leadership knowledge versus becoming better as follows:

Putting myself into leadership positions for class assignments has actually helped me gain some insight in my day to day work. What is most interesting to me now is that I feel more like I am being a leader, when I am simply being myself, instead of trying to act like a leader.

Finally, I would like to share the comments of a student who emphasizes how developing a leadership identity helps them conceptualize *how they would change* an organization, as opposed to *how an organization ought to be changed*.

I think your model has been very effective in forcing each of us to think about leadership, particularly for us to think about how we would lead organizations or departmental groups.

Implications

The feedback we receive from our students supports our belief that developing a leadership identity is essential for helping our students become agents of meaningful and sustainable change. First of all, students find it easier to conceptualize, articulate, and implement change, when they establish a strong

leadership identity. Furthermore, students more effectively construct and communicate a compelling vision, when they employ first person perspective and use active voice in their change proposals.

Thinking about what they would do, allows students to consider their potential actions (i.e., gestures) and others' potential reactions (i.e., responses). In other words, the iterative nature of the gesture-response cycle to which Mead (1934) refers sets into motion a series of complex responsive processes (Stacey, 2003) through which a strategy for organizational change emerges naturally. This type of emergence is necessary, as leaders cannot change an organization without changing themselves and others (i.e., stakeholders). Meaningful and sustainable change cannot be achieved in organizational settings where leaders do not involve stakeholders' in the strategic planning process. Interactions with and through stakeholders are vital elements of the organizational transformation process.

As instructors in leadership programs, we should encourage wider use of first person perspective and active voice by immersing our students in organizational contexts that will allow them to think about *what they would do*, instead of generically talking about *what needs to be done*. By allowing our students to use passive voice, we also create a medium in which they can conceal "agency, or responsibility for action." (Germano, 2005, p. 20). Instead of letting our students patch together a wish list - *of things they hope will somehow be done* - when thinking about change, we should encourage them to specifically consider who will do what, with whom, and by when. In change proposals, the use of passive voice not only distances the writer from the reader, but it also distances the writer from his or her own ideas (Germano, 2005), hence hampering the development of a strong leadership identity. Most importantly, however, readers respond better to the use of active voice, as they sense another human being – a genuine identity – vying for their attention and trying to connect with them. That connection is vital for creating a compelling case for change.

In summary, helping our students form a strong leadership identity should be our top priority, if we, as educators, are to have any hope of creating winds of change in the health care domain. We can't lose sight of the probability that a mind that we can transform in our programs today may someday transform the very world in which we all live and work. As hard as it is to believe, when faced with the status quo that one can't quite embrace, the path to transformation almost always starts with a simple question: What would *I* do differently?

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Facilitative Social Change Leadership Theory: 10 Recommendations toward Effective Leadership

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Abstract

In the fast pace of the 21st century there is a demand for effective leaders capable of handling the internal and external changes occurring in our organizations. This paper seeks to inform the reader because change is natural; it is constant; it is inevitable. But, what constitutes effective leadership is the question? The main purpose of this paper is to offer 10 recommendations toward effective leadership that are outcomes of an eclectic leadership approach – Facilitative Social Change Leadership Theory (FSCL). The FSCL approach is a melding of Social Change Theory, Social Change Leadership Theory, and Transformational Leadership Theory as well as the work of Tichy and DeVanna.

Introduction and Framework

In a review of the literature numerous definitions of leadership can be found. This same body of literature suggests a variety of viewpoints on the necessary competencies, skills, values, and behaviors which are deemed key toward effective leadership.

For examples, according to Olsen (2009), a key area of leadership development is an understanding of oneself: one's ability to manage oneself by behaving according to one's values. That is, to be a person of character with a sense of purpose and commitment. Attention to such issues is a foundational element of effective leadership. A leader's sense of self contributes to the ability to understand others and work with them toward the achievement of common goals.

In addition, it can be claimed that leadership is generally understood to be a dynamic activity that ultimately affects social and organizational change. In *On Becoming a Leader* Warren Bennis (1989) noted that learning to lead is "learning to manage change" (p. 145). It has been suggested that "leaders create and change

cultures” (Schein, 1992, p. 5). More recently Crawford, Brungardt, and Maughan (2000) have gone so far as to claim that “conceptually defined, leadership is about creating change” (p. 114).

Effective leaders seek answers about how to survive in a rapidly changing environment. As noted above, to be successful a leader must understand and effectively manage internal and external social changes to ensure survival. Additionally, leaders need to understand the phenomenon of leadership and learn effective ways of dealing with the chaos that surrounds them – to move forward, to achieve, to make progress – within and outside of their organizations.

Leadership education has become more prominent in the United States and globally with many venues delivering educational and training programs. For example, as reflected in many mission statements of colleges and universities, educational institutions seek outcomes related to student leadership development and reaching higher levels of developmental maturity in the areas of leadership skills, knowledge, and competence. (Haber & Komives, 2009)

Purpose

In a tradition of inquiry, this paper seeks to inform the reader because “the first step is understanding” (Gardner, 1990, p. xiv). The Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL) approach as offered herein was chosen due to its focus on effective leadership that is relational, change-directed, learned, and transformative in its process. The focus on the individual as a leader is explored in order to focus on some of the foundational aspects of leadership. Leadership effectiveness has entered an age requiring a fundamental shift in the way leadership is understood and practiced. Contemporary environments demand leaders and followers working together. I will offer 10 recommendations toward effective leadership which flow from an understanding of this theoretical approach to leadership. Further, the paper examines FSCL’s applicability to effective leadership as it applies to the empowerment of leaders and followers as they transform their organizations as a result of ongoing social changes within and outside their organizations.

Definitions

To ensure understanding throughout this paper, several definitions are offered at this time.

- Community – a social group, department, organization, government agency, or society at large.
- Change – a conversion or shift in the internal and external culture or environment of a social group, department, organization, government

- agency, or society at large.
- Social Change – to bring about or alter conditions to improve the human welfare.
 - Organizational Social Change – to bring about or alter conditions in the internal and external culture or environment to improve the human welfare of personnel in a department or organization.
 - Social Change Leadership Theory (SCLT) – the “what, how, and why” of leadership to create change – personal, organizational, and societal by promoting the development of social change agents who address and solve community problems (Crawford, et al., 2000).
 - Facilitative Social Change Leadership Theory (FSCL) – a leadership approach adapted from Transformational Leadership Theory, Social Change Leadership Theory, and Social Change Theory as well as the work of Tichy and DeVanna (cited in Northouse, 2004) that suggests how leaders can be effective as they seek to empower followers in the ongoing process of meeting the challenges that arise due to changes or shifts in their internal culture and external environment.
 - Transformational Leadership – a leadership approach that embodies *individualized consideration* that gives personal attention to subordinates, *intellectual stimulation* that values the intellect, encourages the imagination, and challenges old ways of doing things, *inspirational motivation* that involves envisioning an attractive attainable future that is aligned to individual and organizational needs, and *idealized influence* that exhibits persistent pursuit of objectives, confidence in the leader’s vision, strong sense of purpose, and relational trust. (Bass, cited in Boyd, 2009)

Review of Leadership Theory Literature

In the past it was believed by many that certain personal traits enhanced a person’s ability to lead. An example of this theory is Bernard Bass’ Great Man Theory. While a few people may still hold to this theory, it pretty much died out in the early 1900s. (Crawford, et al., 2000)

Others like Ralph Stodgill (1948) believed that leaders were born with certain leadership genes that gave them the leadership traits necessary to lead. This approach later expanded to include skills (learned behaviors). At this point in the development of leadership theory it was believed that physical characteristics, social background, intelligence, ability, personality, task related abilities, and social characteristics all combined to make one an effective leader.

More modern approaches in leadership theory include Contemporary Traits Theory. One example is Stephen R. Covey’s *7-Habits of Highly Effective People*. Covey (1991) offers seven traits which make a person an effective leader: (a) be

proactive, (b) begin with the end in mind, (c) put first things first, (d) think win/win, (e) seek first to understand, then to be understood, (f) synergize, and (g) sharpen the saw.

Another modern approach to leadership was put forth by Daniel Goleman. His approach deals with the leader's Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EQ). Goleman's approach focuses on (a) self awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) social skills. (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004)

For many years people subscribed to the traditional transactional leader approach. DuBrin (1995) noted transactional leaders complete transactions through a focus on administrative work and giving rewards for good performance. Kouzes and Posner (1995) referred to this type of a leader as simply a manager. Leaders fitting this label tend to focus on the most basic of human needs identified in Maslow's hierarchy – physical, safety, and belonging needs. Hackman and Johnson (2009) indicated this type of leader is a passive one who establishes reward criteria while attempting to maintain the status quo.

Kurt Lewin and Ronald Lippitt published their research on leadership styles. Along with Ralph White, they offered a continuum based on three styles of leadership: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership. (Goldhaber, 1993)

Rensis Likert suggested the Systems of Interpersonal Relations based on the nature of the relationships between leaders and followers. System 1 leaders are exploitative autocrats. System 2 leaders are benevolent autocrats with similar attitudes. System 3 leaders are consultative in their approach to dealing with followers while maintaining high levels of control. System 4 leaders are democratic and use a team approach. (Goldhaber, 1993)

Douglas McGregor is the author of Theory X and Theory Y. His approach is based on human motivation. He suggests Theory X leaders view workers as lazy, stupid, apathetic, and irresponsible. On the other hand, some leaders subscribe to Theory Y wherein followers are viewed as self-directed and willing to work hard. (Goldhaber, 1993)

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton developed a model which is identified as the Managerial Grid. In this approach there are two dimensions – task and concern. According to Blake and Mouton, leaders will fall into one of five types. First, there is the 1/9 country club leader. This leader is most concerned about providing a positive work environment. Second, the 1/1 impoverished leader is someone who is highly ineffective in both the task and concern (people) dimensions. Third, the 5/5 organization person seeks to balance task and concern issues, but will compromise in favor of task, if necessary. Fourth, the 9/9 team management

leader places a very high value on both task and concern issues. And, fifth, the 9/1 leader stresses follower adherence to leader authority and expects obedience. (Blake and Mouton, 1964)

Robert Greenleaf (1977) while Director of Research for General Electric coined the phrase servant-leader. This concept has its roots in Eastern (Taoist – “be a humble valley.”) and Western thought (Jesus, Mark 10:43-44, “Whoever wants to become great among you must be your servant.”). The basic premise of servant-leadership is that leaders should put the needs of followers ahead of their own needs. Such leaders ask, “What is best for my constituents?” Notable supporters of this line of thought include Margaret Wheatley, Peter Block, Max DePree, and James Autry.

Joseph C. Rost supports the importance of followers. In fact, he claims that successful leadership is based on the relationship between leaders and followers. He contends that leaders and followers need to work together to bring about real mutual change. (cited in Hackman & Johnson, 2009)

James MacGregor Burns pioneered study in transformational leadership and wrote the seminal work, *Leadership* (1978). He indicates that leadership is exercised when people with varying motives and purposes mobilize as a result of competition or conflict with others. At some point institutional, political, psychological, and other resources are integral to the process. Such issues tend to arouse and engage people in an effort to satisfy their. Followers and leaders must realize their goals are mutually held and both leaders and followers benefit from their interdependent relationship. Applying the transformational approach, theory supports the idea that leaders must effect a change of the organization through what they contribute to it and their followers.

According to Northouse (2007), Bass “provided a more expanded and refined version of transformational leadership” (p. 179). In part, the work of Bass was founded on the 1970s work of J. M. Burns and R. J. House. Bass suggested a continuum that goes from transformational to transactional to laissez-faire leadership.

Christopher B. Crawford, Curtis Brungardt, and Micol Maughan (2000) identified key aspects of an effective transformational leader. These aspects include the ethical, charismatic, inspirational, and personal nature of the leader. They suggest such leaders must have the ability to grow the needs of the follower. Such leaders seek to meet the upper levels of people’s needs identified in Maslow’s hierarchy – self-esteem and self-actualization. The theory suggests leader morality is crucial to moving people to higher levels on Maslow’s hierarchy. Values are central to transcending the traditional leadership which is usually based on expertness,

reputation, and elite control. Another key point about transformational leadership: it is a collective action for collective relief on the part of the leader and followers.

Dynamics of Change

In his discussion of organizational and cultural change, Schein (1992) indicated that all human systems seek equilibrium. They try to maximize their autonomy within their environment. He claims coping, growth, and survival involves continuing the viability of the entity in the face of a changing society. He further asserts that “the function of cognitive structures such as concepts, beliefs, attitudes, values, and assumptions is to organize the mass of environmental stimuli, to make sense of them, and to provide, thereby, a sense of predictability and meaning to the individual” (p. 298). Shared assumptions developed over time in groups and organizations provide stability and meaning. Social cultures evolve over time. This evolution is one of the ways a group or organization maintains “its integrity and autonomy, differentiates itself from the environment and other groups” (p. 298). Thus, group or organizational identity is established.

Cameron and Quinn (cited in Falls, Jara, & Sever, 2009) illustrate a six step process for addressing the competing values frameworks within organizations as a way to address organizational change processes. According to the authors, a leader must (a) facilitate consensus on what the current culture is, (b) facilitate consensus on the desired future culture, (c) determine what the changes will and will not mean individually and organizationally, (d) facilitate identification of illustrative stories or organizational narratives about the culture and changes within the culture from key stakeholders in the organization, in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the organizational self-identities at stake, (e) develop a strategic action plan that takes this information into account, and (f) form a plan.

Social Change Leadership Theory

The Social Change Leadership Theory referred to in this paper began in the spring of 1993 at Fort Hays (KS) State University. Several professors undertook to develop a leadership education program based on Social Change Theory. According to Crawford et al. (2000), SCLT focuses on the what, how, and why of leadership. It is about creating change – personal, organizational, and societal. It promotes the development of social change agents who address and solve community problems. The theory has three foundational principles: creating change, collaboration, and civic leadership. SCLT advocates contend that leadership is not what leaders do; rather leadership is what followers and leaders do together for the common good. They are convinced people must work together

in order to effectively deal with change in the internal and external environments people face on a daily basis.

- **Creating change** – leadership should make improvements and correct discrepancies between what is and what ought to be for everyone in a community. Social change leadership is purposeful and it results in organizational and cultural transformation. Leader-followers are positive agents of change. They seek to bring about improvements or correct deficiencies in organizations or society as a whole.
- **Collaboration** - successful leaders have the ability to bring people together for collective action. Leader-followers are collaborators. They seek cooperation and are willing to share power. They are committed to empowering people in order to bring about social change. Social change leaders are civic leaders. Leadership is an influence relationship for change.
- **Civic leadership** - civic leadership shifts from an emphasis on goal attainment for the good of individuals or just a group within an organization, to emphasizing the common good of society as a whole. Leader-followers believe in something bigger than themselves. They are actively involved in the process of social change. Their practice is to emphasize the common good (the good for all of society), not just what is good for themselves or their groups. SCLT advocates that there is a need for leader-followers whose focus is on promoting the good of the community and society. Social change agents participate in leadership to promote social concerns by involving individuals and various groups to serve society.

Facilitative Social Change Leadership Theory

The Facilitative Social Change Leadership theory is a melding of aspects of Social Change Theory, SCLT, and Transformational Leadership Theory as well as the work of Tichy and DeVanna (cited in Northouse, 2004). The basic premise of this paper is that through the application of FSCL leaders can effectively cope with and initiate organizational change. When considering the FSCL approach to leadership (Figure 1), a foundational issue that arises is, “How does the leader empower people to meet head-on and effectively deal with social change in the organization’s internal and external environments?”

Tichy and DeVanna (cited in Northouse, 2004) offer a three-step process for dealing with social change. First, they note the need to recognize “the need for change” (p. 181). Too many people too often are too comfortable with the current way of doing things. Therefore, they are not motivated to seek necessary change and may actually resist it. Tichy and DeVanna suggest encouraging “dissent” and allowing people to “disagree” (p. 182). Second, they indicate the need to create “a

vision” (p. 182). They refer to this as the “conceptual road map” (p. 182). And, third, they point out the importance of “institutionalizing changes” (p. 182). Leaders must stress the need to break down old structures while putting in place new structures designed to enhance the new direction being taken by a community.

At this point, let us examine Figure 1. In Phase 1, leaders must be willing to take a stand based on their **visions** and established **goals**. It is necessary for them to follow the **paths** laid before them and take action to seek and implement innovative changes within their organizations despite the various **obstacles** facing them – internal and external. FSCL leadership rests on the leader’s *willingness* to lead. Without individuals motivated to take risks and action, little productive change can be achieved. The status quo rolls along unhindered; much to the glee of some within the organization. *Awareness* that innovation is demanded in a given circumstance must move the leader to initiate the needed change. The need for change may be a result of a perceived problem in the organization or a broad societal issue or a weakness of a particular leader. However, being aware of the need for change is not enough to initiate the process. Once aware, the leader must assume *responsibility* to resolve the situation. FSCL leaders must take responsibility to ensure action.

In Phase 2 it is necessary to provide a *description* of the problem, issue, or situation. In contrast to the status quo, the leader needs to determine an *alternative* way of doing things. Once an alternative has been established, the leader must seek **assistance** by developing *coalitions*. As noted above, coalition building **supports** the leader’s chances of being successful.

In Phase 3, with the alternative in place and coalitions established, the leader must *confront* the status quo including those within the organization who oppose the change as well as the higher powers that control the organization. It was mentioned above that social change brings with it *conflict*. It should be noted that while social conflict is not necessarily comfortable, without conflict it is unlikely that the leader’s vision and goals will be adopted. After a period of reach-testing during which all parties argue and support their own positions, a need arises for everyone to *collaborate* – that is, seek to support the proposed change. When seeking to institutionalize a change, it is necessary to modify current practices within the organization in favor of the new innovation. It must be remembered that each individual and group is an interdependent entity in the organization and, therefore, is affected by the proposed change. Only by working together can progress be achieved and the desired change made for the advancement of the organization. It is imperative for FSCL leaders to follow up the implementation of any change with periodic **evaluation** to ensure productivity and future survival of the organization.

Facilitative Social Change Leadership Approach

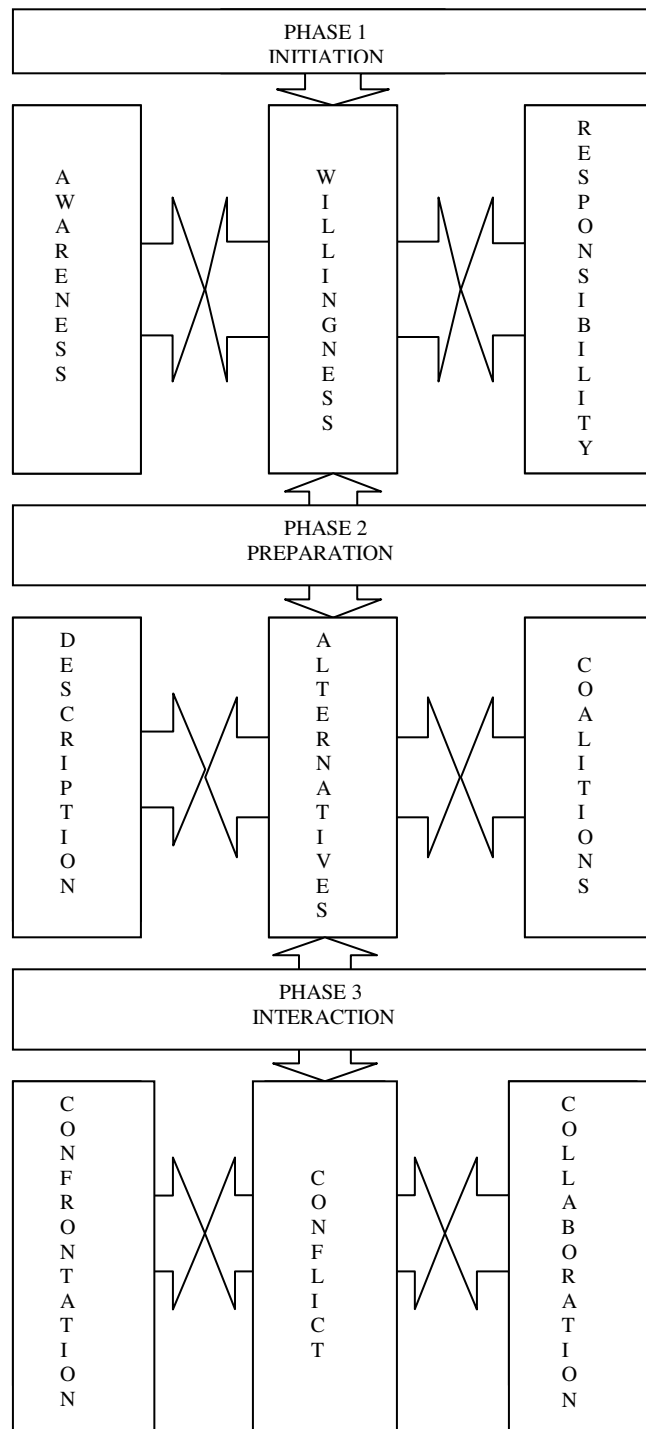
Given the diversity of leadership theory that currently exists in the literature, the question arises: “Why add the Facilitative Social Change Leadership approach to the stew pot of leadership theory?” The answer is because leaders in the 21st century are on the front line of massive social change. They represent the avant-garde. Too often traditional approaches intended to handle social change do not work or, in fact, have failed. It is their task to work with those who are not satisfied with the current state of affairs in their organizations.

In addition, part of the answer lies in understanding the FSCL approach and recognizing its applicability to effective leadership. A facilitative leader uses a collaborative approach which includes the follower’s involvement and participation in decision-making. They promote interactive relationships. While following procedures, rules, and policies the facilitative leader is able to promote thinking and activity outside the box. Such leaders recognize the value of learning from trial and error. They are willing to take risks in order to promote positive change to allow the organization to meet the shifts in its internal or external environments.

FSCL leaders tend to share several common beliefs. For example, they are frustrated by the status quo. It is the facilitative leader’s belief that the community can be improved through change. Of course, there will be individuals or even groups who are resistant to any proposed change in the internal or external environment. However, FSCL practitioners are convinced they must be involved in creating or responding to change in order for the community to prosper and meet the challenges of constantly changing environments. Such leaders are aware of the importance of gaining the support of significant individuals and groups as they promote social change. The FSCL leader realizes that empowering others will result in a corps of people who will be brought on board to deal with the needed change.

A social movement will result from effective FSCL leadership. This will provide a depth of invaluable experience and knowledge, thereby ensuring effective organizational change. In addition, facilitative-minded leaders recognize the importance of involving outside individuals and organizations which often bring with them needed credibility for helping bring about the desired change. A wise FSCL leader recognizes that both individuals and outside organizations bring important information, data, experience, knowledge, potential resources, influence, and power to their efforts to influence organizational change. Such inclusion of internal and external entities allows the leader to empower others and helps to ensure achievement of their goals.

Figure 1
Three-Phase Facilitative Social Change (FSCL) Process Model



A person who subscribes to the FSCL approach accepts and understands that conflict is a normal part of human interaction. In fact, as a result of social change pressures within an organization, conflict would be considered to be a positive component of the process, and not necessarily a negative event. Certainly facilitative leaders know it is important for controversy to be handled in a civil manner because sometimes there will be tensions among the participants. Differences of opinion and vision will emerge during the change process, but the facilitative leader sees this as a valuable part of the process.

According to Boyd (2009), transformational leaders assist followers in reaching their fullest potential while in the process they transform their little corner of society. He notes that a transactional leader exchanges rewards or recognition for performance. He points out that transactional leadership results in the expected outcomes, although transformational leadership will result in outcomes exceeding the expectations of both leader and follower.

Transformational leadership facilitates understanding of oneself as a leader and leadership itself (Boyd, 2009). When viewed through the FSCL lens, the application of this approach suggests an effective leader is one who uses idealized influence to provide followers with a compelling vision through a strong role model that followers can trust. FSCL leaders create a shared vision and use inspirational motivation to set high expectations for their followers which builds commitment to organizational goal achievement. They are more likely to be able to motivate followers to go beyond their own self-interest for the advancement of the organization. These transformative leaders intellectually stimulate and inspire followers to challenge their personal assumptions along with those of the leader and organization. Therefore, the followers gain encouragement to find innovative ways to solve problems. FSCL leaders take into consideration individuals' needs in order to create a supportive environment as they listen to their followers and help them to self-actualize.

A diversity of viewpoints allows for new approaches to meet the organization's needs as shifts occur in the organization's environment. Because facilitative leaders accept the idea that their duties and activities are intended to serve the community as a whole, they strive to create a shared vision and common purpose. Commitment by all persons and parties is ultimately necessary. When the leader is committed to a facilitative social change process, then the followers will be empowered.

Empowered individuals and groups will confirm the need for the change and the selected path for that change to be accomplished. The bottom line is that complex organizational issues need to be addressed in a collaborative manner. The leader and followers must work together toward the achievement of the vision and goals of the organization.

Generally a coalition of social change agents is needed to successfully transform an organization. With this in mind, the facilitative leader works to form liaisons that empower individuals and groups. Leadership must be willing to confront existing power structures. With empowered followers it is more likely a coalition will be effective in pulling off the desired organizational change.

In 1996 Alexander Astin and Helen Astin, of the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute, stressed their belief that it is possible for all individuals to be leaders and to make a difference in society (Crawford, et al., 2000). Practitioners of FSCL must put the needs of followers ahead of their own wants and needs. The facilitative leader asks, “What is best for my followers?” They recognize the importance of listening to their internal and external constituencies. Such leaders are attentive and attempt to clarify the will of the followers they serve. These leaders are empathic. They employ empathy as they seek to understand and recognize the needs of others. On occasion facilitative leaders will need to provide healing for the emotional hurts experienced by individuals or groups during periods of conflict. A person practicing facilitative leadership will be more aware of others’ needs in given situations. In addition, FSCL leaders tend to be more sensitive to ethical issues. They seek to motivate others, but they are careful to use persuasion that is not based on their authority as leader. Further they know conceptualization is critical in setting a vision for social change within the organization. They employ foresight for effective long-range planning which includes collaborating with the followers. This type of leader is committed to the principle of stewardship and recognizes the position of leadership is held at the will of the followers. That is, it is a trust between that leader and followers. Such leadership is committed to the growth of people – nurturing and training are vital. The FSCL leader attempts to build a strong sense of community resulting in a sense of belonging among all parties.

By providing good information, FSCL leaders empower followers in constructive ways to create a shared vision and the corresponding strategies for addressing change are more likely to be a success. FSCL has the potential to empower everyone. As noted earlier, it is true that when dealing with change there are going to be people or factions that resist, even oppose, the recommended change in the organization. Yet, when collaborative practices are implemented, it is likely disenfranchised individuals or groups will be more likely to be motivated to work toward the established vision and goals that have been set. This is why Covey (2004) urges leaders to “find your voice and inspire others to find theirs” (p. 26). As a result, what happens is a broader group of people who are leader-followers that have been empowered to act. Empowerment through FSCL gives a sense of ownership to the followers. Therefore, tangible results can be achieved because various individuals are working together with a unified focus. When working with other committed individuals there is often a synergistic effect created which has

the potential to produce extraordinary outcomes (Covey, 1991). Collaboration that results from empowering others through the FSCL approach to leadership can result in the institutionalization of effective problem-solving processes. As followers experience successes in achieving their goals, a more collaborative process is likely to become the standard for problem-solving within the organization. Adopting this framework sets forth an inclusive rather than exclusive dispersal of information, thereby changing the way social change is handled when dealing with organizational problems and events.

Along with the nine aspects of the FSCL change process, Figure 2 presents the major tenets of the sources that heavily influenced its development. SCT includes three categories directly affected in the change process – individual, group, and community (see Crawford, et al. 2000, p. 116, for a description of the categories). Within these dimensions there are a total of seven elements. The three categories of SCLT that influenced the facilitative approach are (a) personal, (b) civic, and (c) organizational.

Figure 2

Comparison of SCT, SCLT, Tichy-DeVanna, and FSCL Leadership Approaches

SCT	SCLT	Tichy-DeVanna	FSCL
<i>Individual –</i>			
1. Consciousness of self	1. Personal	1. Need for change	1. Awareness 2. Willingness 3. Responsibility
2. Congruence		2. Encourage dissent	
3. Commitment			
<i>Group –</i>			
4. Collaboration (G)	2. Organizational	3. Institutionalize changes	4. Description 5. Alternatives 6. Coalitions 7. Confrontation 8. Conflict
5. Common purpose		4. Create vision	
6. Controversy with civility			
<i>Community –</i>			
7. Citizenship	3. Civic leadership		9. Collaboration

And, Tichy and DeVanna (cited in Northouse, 2004) provided an additional three categories in the development of FSCL including (a) need for change, (b) institutionalization of changes, and (c) creating a vision.

Recommendations

David W. Leslie, Chancellor, Professor of Education, at the College of William and Mary, notes that “colleges and universities have presented leadership conundrums....from the most varied perspectives....Yet this vast trove of purported wisdom remains somehow unsatisfying and desperately random” (Wergin, 2007, p. xv). That is to say, despite all that has been written about leadership, the question still remains: “What does it take to be an effective leader?”

At the risk of redundancy by simply adding to the “unsatisfying and desperately random” (Leslie, cited in Wergin, 2007, p. xv) pool of information concerning leadership and its effectiveness, I wish to share several recommendations which I am convinced enhance an individual’s ability to be an effective transformative FSCL leader. These recommendations come out of my investigation and thinking on the concept of “leading in place” popularized by Wergin (2007) and Shapiro (2005). Shapiro states, “Leadership is an action, not a title, and the ability to lead can be found in every person. Each of us must claim our authority to lead at the right time and in the right place” (p. 1).

FSCL is an eclectic approach that borrows from and melds many of the principles of Transformational Leadership Theory, Social Change Leadership Theory, and Social Change Theory. Thus, the FSCL leader is much like what Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, and Omary (2009) describe in their article when they write about transformational leadership. According to them, a transformational leader is one who as a matter of principle challenges the process of doing things because they either create new ideas or recognize and support new ideas. These leaders demonstrate a willingness to challenge systems in order to turn new ideas into actions that result in new products, processes, and services. They seek challenging opportunities that test their abilities, thereby resulting in innovative ways of improve organizations. Transformational leaders show a willingness to change the status quo way of doing business. Such leaders experiment and take risks by adopting new approaches to how business is done in the organization. For them learning is a lifelong process. This type of leader recognizes the need to be prepared to make mistakes because every error leads to a new opportunity for success. Rather than punish someone for failure, transformational leaders are able to learn from mistakes rather than shifting responsibility and blaming followers.

“Leadership is not an exclusive club for those who were ‘born with it.’ The traits that are the raw materials of leadership can be acquired. Link them up with desire and nothing can keep you from becoming a leader” (Maxwell, 1993, Introduction). Because I am convinced that Maxwell is correct in his position on

leadership development and based on the FSCL approach as presented in this paper, I offer for your consideration 10 characteristics I have found that positively leadership contribute to effective leadership. The application of these characteristics allow for a transformative environment that involves the leader and followers involved in a joint effort to accomplish change which leads to organizational success.

- **Number 10: Follow procedures and adhere to policies.** Effective leaders are essentially good followers. They understand that they are accountable to those in authority. Such leaders do not submit to this authority because of fear of their superiors. They know it is not a good idea to behave as a lone wolf, but instead to keep their work priorities aligned with the organization's goal and have an appropriate sense of self-importance. People who lead in place value the necessity of following procedures and adhering to established policies to ensure survival of the organization.
- **Number 9: Submit to authority of others.** Closely related to number 10 is the recognition that we are all under the authority of someone, whether it is a supervisor, director, president, board of governors, or whomever. Leaders and follower play an important role in the organization's success. Failure to follow may lead to death – personal and organizational. The long term power possessed by a leader is positively correlated to the person's ability to be a follower.
- **Number 8: Take risks.** And, yet sometimes it is necessary for leaders to step outside the box, to be innovative. Such leaders are change agents. They are often visionaries whose presence and hard work lead to transformative change. They know that it is necessary to be flexible enough to know when it is time to try a new procedure or implement a new policy. For many taking a risk is frightening, but such behavior can be invaluable, benefiting the entire organization.
- **Number 7: Commitment.** Any person who assumes a leadership role needs to be committed to the group or organization. These leaders seek to enhance opportunities allowing for everyone's potential to be achieved through empowerment. The group's or organization's vision and mission must be internalized by the leader. An effective leader is a person who can commit to using one's ability to lead others, perform technical skills, and conceptualize situations, thus helping to ensure goal achievement.
- **Number 6: Be proactive.** Covey (1989) points out the need to be proactive. Individuals who assume leadership must take the proverbial bull by the horns and move forward to be successful. This often requires individuals to facilitate the group's or organization's production through organization, effective oversight, providing directions, and collaborative decision making.

- **Number 5: Expect conflict.** Conflict among people is a natural, constant, and an inevitable factor of human interaction. An effective leader expects conflict and is able to manage it in a productive manner. Such leaders seek to meet individual as well as the needs of management. This can be done through coalition formation that allows the leader to collaboratively build an agenda for change that meets the needs of the group or organization.
- **Number 4: Tell the truth, but with compassion.** To some degree conflicts occur because people are not able to differentiate between task related conflict issues and their personal investment in a given situation. Too often in the past followers were viewed as lazy, unwilling to take responsibility, and needing to be controlled. Today it is recognized that, in fact, when people are dealt with in an open and honest manner then they are likely to perform at a very high level. Bracey, Rosenblum, Sanford, and Trueblood (1990) point out the importance of leaders being truthful when establishing and maintaining positive relationships with followers. Yet, at the same time the leader must compassionately tell the truth (e.g., about their job performance).
- **Number 3: Listen.** Communication plays a vital role in the achievement of interpersonal and organizational goals. Communication is a two-way process. Effective communication requires leaders capable of effective listening. Remember, hearing and listening are not synonymous terms. Covey's (1989) Habit #5: Seek First To Understand, Then Seek To Be Understood reflects the epitome of effective listening. Ineffective listening undermines people's self-esteem, their self-confidence, and creativity.
- **Number 2: Love people.** Roger D'Aprix stated that leaders must be "loving in our organizational relationships" (cited in Goldhaber, 1993, p. 217). "Loving" in this context means that we acknowledge the value of our coworkers and respect them with the dignity they deserve. We as leaders let them know that we care for them whether we like them or not. The bottom line is that we must value people and our relationships with them if we are to claim our "authority" to lead.
- **Number 1: Check your attitude.** I contend effective leadership begins with a correct mindset. That mindset is founded upon an individual's willingness to lead – to serve others. An effective leader desires the opportunity to step up to be involved in influencing not only one's personal situations, but that of those being led. This leadership attitude flows from a reasoned choice; it is a conscious decision to take on the role with all its rights and responsibilities. Amid natural chaos and interpersonal interactions effective leaders are able to demonstrate a fixed purpose. Such leadership is determined to ensure that not only personal goals are reached, but more importantly, the organization achieves its objectives and fulfills its mission. Those who seek to lead in place must be compelled to lead no matter the personal cost.

Allow me to point out that these characteristics are not some magic formula for success, nor do they serve as a 10-step program like the Alcoholics Anonymous' 12-step recovery program, but when adopted these characteristics and their underlying principles can lead to more effective leadership and followership.

Conclusion

I agree with David W. Leslie that there has been a lot of thinking, theorizing, and writing about leadership. Yet I am convinced we should continue to explore what constitutes effective leadership. In doing so it may be that we can bring greater clarity to what it takes to be an effective leader.

I do not pretend that I have found the final answer to the question regarding what it takes to be an effective leader. In sharing my thinking as it relates to the FSCL approach to leadership, an approach that promotes facilitative, transformative leadership, perhaps we can all be better at leading in place in our organizations.

Finally, it is my hope that I have added some bit of insight to the pool of literature concerning effective leadership. The characteristics presented in this paper are based on my leading in place for over 30 years in academic, business, church, community, and military environments in the United States. Therefore, allow me to encourage you to take action, to claim your authority to lead when the time comes, in the right place.

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Biography

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Global Leadership Study: A Theoretical Framework

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Abstract

Traditional leadership theory and research courses do not adequately prepare students for cross-cultural leadership. This article notes six premises of Western theories and demonstrates the limitations of these premises in non-Western settings. A framework for the study of cross-cultural leadership, The Global Leadership-Learning Pyramid, is proposed, and the theoretical foundations are discussed.

Introduction

Issues of global leadership intrude on our lives everyday. Business, politics, and popular culture are on the world stage, a milieu of political, economic, and social changes. Our runaway world (Giddens, 2003) is out of control, filled with risks and culturally complex. Taking the lead has always required talent, skill, preparation, and practice. When the complexities and vagaries of a different culture are added to the mix, the leader must expand his or her leadership repertoire. How then do we prepare future leaders for the global theatre?

In this article, I address six premises of Western leadership theories derived from history and culture that present potential obstacles to leadership in non-Western cultures. These premises join with research findings on cross-cultural interaction to form a theoretical framework for the study of global leadership.

Literature Review

In surveying the literature, I noted three relevant themes. The first was the nature of globalization and its ramifications for individuals and societies. Second was how societal history and culture shape global differences. The third theme encompassed the common threads or premises that give leadership theories their Western identities and constrain them in their global application.

Globalization

The works of Giddens (2003), Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), and The GLOBE Study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) provided complementary perspectives on issues of globalization. Giddens' short treatise on the transformative aspects of globalization presented a succinct definition and addressed issues of national entrenchment. While Hofstede and Hofstede countered Giddens' arguments that a new world order is inevitable, they concurred with his views on entrenchment, emphasizing the importance of national identities to cross-cultural interactions. Dorfman, Hanges, and Brodbeck (2004) in The GLOBE Study supported Hofstede and Hofstede's conclusions on the importance of cultural identity, urging adaptation of leadership style to meet societal demands.

History, Culture, and Leadership

Geert Hofstede (1980) opened the eyes of the business world to the importance of culture to management almost 30 years ago. More recently, The GLOBE Study (House, et al., 2004) has expanded and refined the implications of culture for leadership. Brodbeck, Hanges, Dickson, Gupta, and Dorfman (2004) concluded from The GLOBE Study that societal values were the most important influence on desired leadership within organizations. This conclusion supported the Wren and Swatez (1995) conceptual model that embedded elements of the immediate or organizational context within the larger contexts of history and culture. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) and The GLOBE Study further explained how history and culture shape leadership practices and follower expectations. Dorfman, et al. (2004) developed from The GLOBE Study results culturally endorsed leadership profiles to describe the leadership patterns of the study's 10 cultural clusters. They demonstrated that the values, ideas, and beliefs of a culture or culture cluster determine its conception of effective leadership.

Premises of Western Leadership Theories

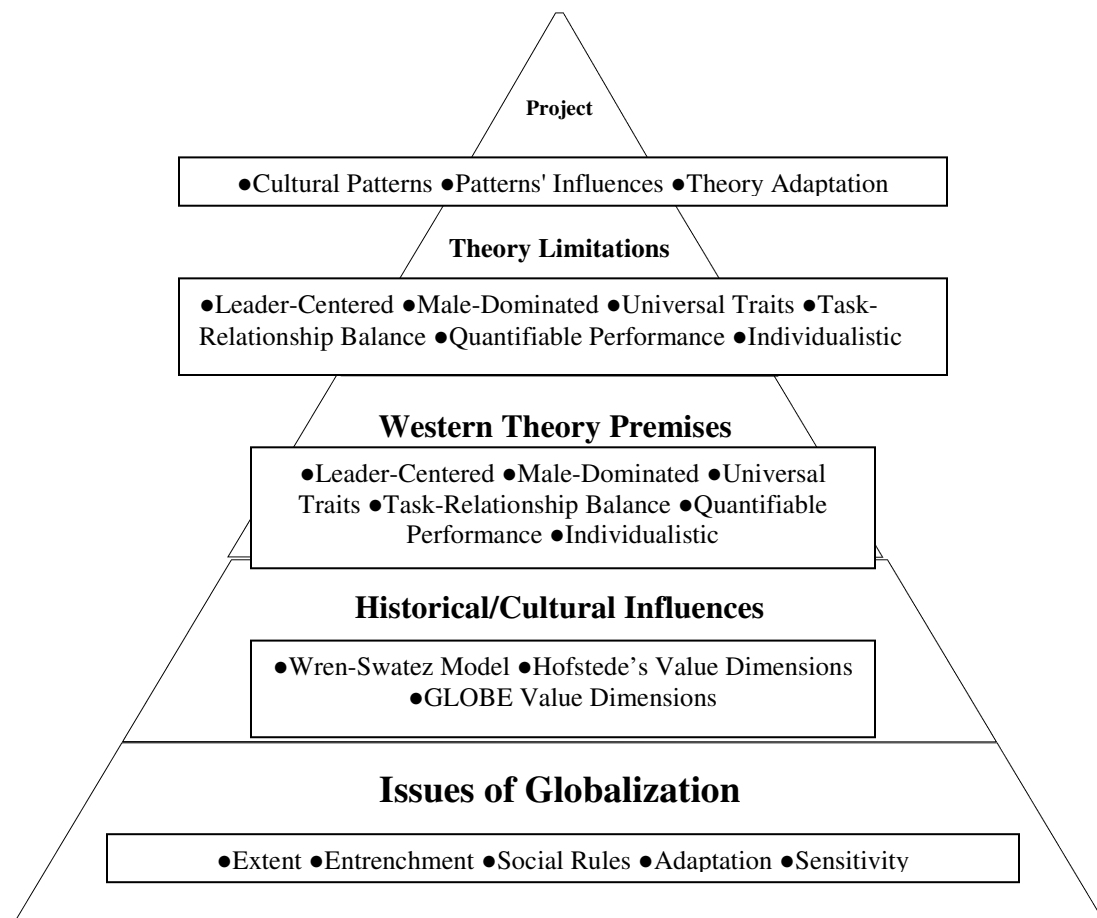
Findings of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) and The GLOBE Study (House, et al., 2004) also demonstrated the discrepancies between Western leadership theories and non-Western leadership practices. GLOBE findings on power distance (Carl, Gupta, & Javidan, 2004), gender egalitarianism (Emrich, Denmark, & Hartog, 2004), humane orientation (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004), performance orientation (Javidan, 2004), assertiveness (Hartog, 2004), individualism/collectivism (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004), and uncertainty avoidance (de Luque & Javidan, 2004) supported the presence of a Western, especially American, bias in contemporary theories that is ill-suited to most cross-cultural interaction. While Bass (1995) noted the universality of leadership, Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (2007) expressed its distinctive Western flavor in their

generations and categories of leadership theories. A review of Yukl (2006) and Northouse (2007), standard texts in undergraduate theories courses, confirmed the Western premises of leadership theories as did Chemers' (1995) work on modern leadership theories.

Global Leadership-Learning Pyramid

The literature leads us directly to the first three levels of global leadership study. The Global Leadership-Learning Pyramid (see Figure 1) rises from the broad foundation of the issues of globalization. Each subsequent category narrows the focus of study, preparing students to apply their knowledge and understanding of cross-cultural patterns to leadership.

Figure 1
The Global Leadership-Learning Pyramid



Level 1. Issues of Globalization

Extent of Globalization. Globalization is a term that has almost sinisterly crept into our vocabulary, yet determining a universal meaning is as challenging as agreeing on one definition of leadership. Giddens (2003) provides the simplest characterization of globalization – there is now one economic and political world order. Skeptics, however, insist that the resultant loss of national influence is just talk. Like all controversial subjects, the truth most likely falls somewhere near the middle of the continuum of possible alternatives. Thus, the extent of globalization is an issue that students must address.

National Entrenchment. The implications of globalization extend far beyond economics and politics and not in the way one might surmise. While telecommunications has opened the world beyond national borders in ways never imagined 50 years ago, they have not helped us surmount our differences (Giddens, 2003). If anything, we seek stability in the sphere of the familiar – the values, culture, and traditions that ground our society. So an unexpected consequence of globalization is local entrenchment that stands in opposition to the much ballyhooed global village. The rise of fundamentalist movements accentuates the tendency to cultural entrenchment in opposition to global forces. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) note, “The software of machines may be globalized, but the software of the minds that use them is not” (p. 330). Fundamentalism is thus another global issue for students to explore

Social Rules. Even when culture adapts to external, global influences, the changes are often only cosmetic. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) compare the expressions of culture to the layers of an onion. Even though the outer layers such as symbols, heroes, and rituals are fairly easily peeled away, the values that comprise a culture’s core remain virtually intact and unassailable. Hofstede and Hofstede liken culture to an unwritten rulebook that society imparts to its members. Students must understand the concept of a social rulebook and the importance of the rules of the social game.

Cultural Adaptation. Once students are comfortable with the idea of conflicting rules between societies, they must confront the issue of cultural adaptation. How must they modify their behavior to account for the different social rules, such as those that govern communication and other forms of social interaction? Averting or addressing issues of cultural confusion is paramount. Success in a multinational setting requires careful consideration of organizational design and appropriate leadership style (Dorfman, et al., 2004; Dorfman & House, 2004).

Cultural Sensitivity. Leadership in any venue is not just about style or learned skills. Perhaps of greater concern and less easily controlled are issues of cultural sensitivity. As the onion metaphor (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) demonstrates,

effective leadership requires more than observation and tolerance of cultural idiosyncrasies. Because they are products of long-held core values, students must delve deeply into the foundations of cultural practices and appreciate how these values influence the culture's views and expectations of leadership.

Level 2. History, Culture, and Leadership

Empirical research (Dorfman & House, 2004) supports the assertion that culture influences such aspects of leadership as: societal requirements for holding a leadership position; leader power, influence, and privileges; extent to which social position influences elevation to a leader role; expected and preferred patterns of leader behaviors or styles; and response of followers to various leader behaviors. Brodbeck, et al. (2004) reach the compelling conclusion that societal values, not industry factors, are the strongest influence on an organization's culture and desired leadership. The interplay of history, culture and leadership is complex, and understanding requires guidance.

Wren-Swatez Model. Wren and Swatez (1995) provide a visual model for students to conceptualize the relationship. Using concentric circles, they illustrate how leader-follower interactions occur within three distinct yet overlapping contexts – immediate, contemporary, and historical. The innermost circle is the immediate context. It is here that leaders and followers, with all of their idiosyncrasies, confront the micro factors of the leadership situation – organizational structure and goals, organizational culture, and specific tasks and problems. The immediate context sits within the contemporary context. This context includes the current societal factors, such as social values, cultural mores, and subculture norms that shape customs and traditions. It is the contemporary context that generates specific expectations of leader actions, behaviors, and styles. The outermost circle represents the macro factors or historical context, the long-term political, intellectual, economic, and social forces. These enduring influences shape the standards followers use to measure leader success. Successful leadership approaches correspond to the demands of the immediate context and the expectations of the contemporary context while recognizing these demands and expectations have their roots deep in a society's past. History and culture surround the current leadership environment, molding and limiting leadership choices and potential solutions.

Hofstede's Value Dimensions. For Hofstede & Hofstede (2005) a person's country is the individual's cultural home from which the person observes the rest of the world through a window. The unconscious programming or conditioning of the mind that defines national culture establishes societal rules for thinking, feeling, and acting. Cultural programming starts in the family at birth and continues first in school then at work. The fundamental cultural differences between nations are in their values. Hofstede & Hofstede describe five areas in

which dissimilarities in values occur, resulting in a five dimensional model of differences between national cultures. These dimensions of differences are power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term versus short-term orientation. For each dimension, a country falls somewhere along a continuum from strong to weak as compared to other nations. In relation to these five dimensions of national culture, the United States is a low power distance, individualist, masculine, uncertainty accepting, and short-term oriented country. Using the United States as a benchmark, students can visualize the relation between their societal values and those of other nations as they inform leadership.

The GLOBE Study Value Dimensions. The GLOBE Study (House, et al., 2004), the most extensive to date on the cultural contingency of leadership, concludes that each society has culturally endorsed leader behaviors labeled leadership belief systems. To guide the research, the study (House & Javidan, 2004) developed the culturally endorsed implicit theory of leadership (CLT). The GLOBE Study (House, et al., 2004) resulted in nine dimensions of value differences between cultures: performance orientation, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, power distance, humane orientation, and uncertainty avoidance. Here the United States is part of the Anglo cluster that includes Australia, Canada, England, Ireland, New Zealand, and South Africa-White Samples. Agreement within cultures as to their beliefs about leadership is so substantial that significant differences between societies are evident. The GLOBE Study enables students to examine the cultural differences in leadership

Level 3. Premises of Western Theories

The ideal American leader steps out of his or her leadership heritage as do leaders in all societies. If students are going to be successful cross-cultural leaders, they will likely need to reassess the trusted leadership theories learned in class. These theories have a very strong Western bias as to preferred leadership styles, behaviors, and methods for group or organizational success. In the preface to the GLOBE Study, House (2004) advises, “To date more than 90% of the organizational behavior literature reflects U.S.-based research and theory” (p. xxv). The premises of these theories are grounded in Western, specifically North American, ideas and experiences. If Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) are correct in their assumption that different societies and cultures generate different mental software for their members, thereby creating the desire for cultural congruence in the workplace (Dorfman & House, 2004), then the chances of our future leaders being out of step with a non-United States, especially non-Western, leadership environment are extremely high.

Although leadership research seems to be a Western phenomenon, ideas and philosophies of leadership are ancient and universal. Bass (1995) notes that concepts of leader, follower, and leadership were present 5000 years ago in Egyptian symbols as well as in the writings of Confucius and Lao Tzu. Western students of leadership, however, usually begin their study with the Greek philosophers, examining the thoughts of Plato and Aristotle on the ideal leader. From there, leadership study becomes a journey through Western civilization (Wren, 1995). Komives, et al. (2007) provide a concise outline of the generations of Western leadership theories. Beginning with the Great Man Theory and ending with current chaos or systems theories, they describe the evolution of leadership study and research from leader-centered (trait, behavior, and contingency theories), to leader-follower interaction (transaction/influence theories, reciprocal theories, etc.), to a post-industrial leadership paradigm for a chaotic world.

What Rost (1991) termed the Industrial Paradigm Model was often leader-dependent and male-dominated with an emphasis on management, control, goal-achievement, and personal self-interest. Post-industrial leadership approaches attack the industrial paradigm head-on. Examples include Wheatley's (1999) chaos theory of leadership, SuperLeadership of Manz & Sims (1995), and the Relational Leadership Model (Komives, et al., 2007). Other post-industrial approaches have emerged from the remnants of industrial paradigm methods. Northouse (2007) notes the resurgence of interest in trait, transformational, charismatic and affective approaches to leadership. Along with transformational leadership, implicit leadership theory takes center stage in the GLOBE Study (House, et al., 2004).

From the Komives, et al. (2007) outline and other sources such as Northouse (2007), Yukl (2006), and Chemers (1995), six premises of Western theories can be deduced. Students must recognize these premises as the next step up the learning pyramid.

Premise 1. Leader-Centered. The most obvious principle of the leader-centered approaches is the importance of the leader. Who the leader is (either through lineage or inherited traits), what the leader does, and when, where, and with whom the leader performs are central. Leadership and leader are one and the same. This idea persists throughout the evolution of Western theories. Even in leader-follower interaction and post-industrial approaches, we see the primacy of the individual leader as visionary, path-setter, meaning-maker, motivator, role model, and leader-maker of able followers. Only in Wheatley's (1999) chaos theory does the leader appear less at the front and more as a part of the whole.

Premise 2. Male Dominated. The second premise that emerges is male-domination. As the Great Man Theory focuses on hereditary male leaders, trait theories posit leader characteristics observed more often in men than women –

masculinity, dominance, assertiveness, drive, the need for achievement. While the idea of male ascendancy has been sorely tested in the last 30 or so years, women are still woefully underrepresented in the highest leadership positions (Hoyt, 2007). The equal presence of women in managerial and professional positions, however, indicates the erosion of this premise as do studies cited in Hoyt demonstrating the effectiveness of leadership factors more generally associated with women – participative style, caring orientation, interpersonal skills, and use of contingent rewards.

Premise 3. Universal Traits. Trait theories give rise to a third idea of Western leadership, the universality of effective leader qualities. Even though the exact relationship of traits to successful leadership has not been determined, our students probably can agree on a general list of desirable leader characteristics and assume that there will be little argument from anyone else. Northouse (2007) focuses on five of the most desirable traits: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Integrity, character, and ethics are notably emphasized in leader-follower interaction theories and post-industrial approaches. Implicit leadership theories remind us of the importance of beliefs and assumption to one's recognition of leadership. Because these ideas are formed and shared by others in the culture the congruence of leader traits is understandable. It is not a difficult leap to assume universal agreement.

Premise 4. Task – Relationship Balance. Behavioral and contingency theories inform Western thoughts on the most effective leadership styles and actions. They speak to a fourth premise, the balance of task (directive/authoritative) and relationship (consultative/participative) behaviors. Interestingly, only in the United States does participatory leadership positively influence performance (Dorfman & House, 2004). Here we expect the leader to exhibit some mix of task-relationship behaviors, usually adapting to meet follower needs.

Premise 5. Quantifiable Performance. This leads to a fifth principle of Western leadership, its emphasis on quantifiable performance and outcomes. In most situations, measurable results determine leadership effectiveness. If the outcomes meet or exceed expectations, then we deem the enterprise successful. How we arrived at that point is not relevant. Effective leaders get the job done.

Premise 6. Individualistic. Leader-follower interaction and post-industrial theories illustrate a sixth premise, the primacy of the individual in the leadership process. Followers as well as leaders have specific wants, needs, drives, and ambitions. Affective factors, such as personal beliefs, values and assumptions, also come into play. Effective leadership results when a leader and follower form a unique and mutually satisfying relationship based on their individual characteristics and motives. This premise assumes that followers desire engagement or participation in the leadership process.

Level 4. Cultural Constraints on Western Theories

Such culturally-conditioned follower expectations and preferences for leadership are the sticking point for Western theories in non-Western cultures as they vary greatly across nations. Examining the aforementioned premises of Western theories in light of the cultural value differences noted above points out some theory limitations that students must acknowledge.

Limitation 1: Leader-Centered. Of the six premises of Western leadership theories discussed, leader primacy would seem the least contentious. It is, however, not without controversy in countries that place high priority on egalitarianism in terms of power. As noted previously, the United States is a relatively small power distance country (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), but a leader-centered approach can run into problems in smaller power distance nations where followers prefer flatter organizational structures and power-sharing, expect equality and interchangeability of leader-follower roles, and presume at the very least consultation in planning and decision making. Differences between countries on Hofstede & Hofstede's Masculinity (MAS) Index also have consequences for leader-centered approaches. The United States ranked relatively high on the MAS Index (19 on the ranking of 74 nations), noting greater acceptance of distinctions in gender roles. Like small power distance countries, cultures that are more gender egalitarian also tend to expect more equality between leader-follower roles (Emrich, et al., 2004).

Limitation 2: Male-Dominated. The prevalence of masculine ideals and traits in American leadership theories clearly reflects the United States' position on the masculinity v. femininity dimension (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). When working in a nation whose culture values "tender" or "feminine" attributes (i.e., intuition, compromise, consensus-building), using "tough" masculine traits, such as assertiveness and dominance, and directive, confrontational approaches may be less effective. Gender egalitarian cultures place greater emphasis on charismatic/value-based attributes (i.e., inspirational, motivating, self-sacrificing) and participative behaviors (Emrich, et al., 2004).

Limitation 3: Universal Traits. Apparently, then, masculine leadership traits are not universally valued. Other preferred Western traits (Northouse, 2007) suffer the same malady. Leader self-confidence, personal integrity, and sociability are not as highly valued in collectivist cultures as they are in the individualistic United States (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In collectivist nations, individual traits are secondary to group roles and duties. The knowing and assuming of one's designated role in the group is of more importance than intelligence and confidence in one's ability. An individual accepts and performs the leader role because society has deemed him (usually male) worthy due to social position

and/or in-group networks. Because of the priority placed on harmony in collectivist cultures, Western-style integrity also suffers. Hofstede and Hofstede note that honesty, for example, is less valued if it results in disruption of harmony, in-group shame, or loss of face. The emphasis on adaptation and networks in long-term oriented nations results in bribery being an accepted part of doing business. The very strength of in-groups and networks in the workplace of collectivist cultures, often dictated by social norms, makes sociability moot. If one is a member of the in-group, then sociability is not necessary; if one is an outsider, then sociability is futile. Sociability is also not as highly valued in high uncertainty avoiding nations where structure and task take priority over relationships because of the desire to reduce ambiguity by controlling the environment.

Limitation 4: Task-Relationship Balance. Uncertainty avoiding countries also shatter the belief that a balance of task and relationship-oriented behaviors is desirable across cultures. Their desire for more structure and rules stems from an emotional need to feel in control, leaving nothing to chance (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). This often results in ritual behaviors and archaic regulations that may seem dysfunctional to the outsider but are necessary for the organization's sense of security. Followers expect leaders to micromanage, providing precise tasks, and rules for performing these tasks. Followers in large power distance countries share this expectation of discipline and structure which is the consequence of long established and accepted hierarchical roles. The ideal leader is the benevolent autocrat. In such societies, the leader high in consideration may be viewed as weak (Carl, et al., 2004). On the opposite end of the spectrum, nations that place high priority on egalitarianism resent the discipline and directiveness of leader task behaviors. This is also true for countries that have a more feminine or less assertive orientation where there is more emphasis on caring, generosity and fairness than on authority, direction, task and results.

Limitation 5: Quantifiable Performance. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) see task-orientation and performance orientation as decidedly masculine cultural values. Similar values are echoed in short-term oriented nations. Masculine countries with short-term orientation, such as the United States, are largely concerned with the bottom line. Rewards are based on performance, valuing meritocracy and delineation by abilities over economic equality. Cultures that have a long-term orientation conversely tend to place a greater emphasis on persistence in pursuit of goals rather than immediate returns. They are more likely to endure setbacks to reach long-term goals. Differences in performance orientation are especially noticeable in terms of individualism versus collectivism. In collectivist societies the leader meets societal obligations and performs specified duties in return for follower obedience and loyalty. Because loyalty and in-group preference are more important than follower performance, poor performance alone is not a justifiable reason for firing an employee. In large

power distance countries, the leader is also impervious to the consequences of poor performance. Leaders are placed on a pedestal and highly respected, but there are seldom any performance expectations. Categorizing performance orientation as a separate dimension of culture, the GLOBE Study (Javidan, 2004) concluded that nations with low performance orientation are more focused on loyalty, tradition, and seniority than reaching high performance goals. Their communication styles are apt to be more subtle and indirect, leading to misunderstandings and confusion for the culturally uninitiated. Members of such cultures may also find more direct communication styles offensive. Here are definite pitfalls for the performance-oriented, straight-talking citizen of the United States of America.

Limitation 6: Individualistic. In the American way of thinking, along with quantifiable performance come contingent rewards for the individual. Encouragement and personal reward for innovation, high standards, and performance improvements are characteristics of a performance-oriented society (Javidan, 2004) that support an individualist culture's emphasis on the importance of individual interests in the workplace. Individual performance and achievements are rewarded according to merit. The motivational aspects of Western leadership theories assume the primacy of individual self interest while leader-follower interaction and post-industrial approaches tout the importance of the relationship between leader and follower as unique individuals. The majority of the world, however, is collectivist (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Here the emphasis is on group cohesion and loyalty, not personal achievement, merit, and reward. In societies with strong in-group affiliations, in-group may influence hiring. It is common and ethical for leaders to show preferences to family and friends. Management is of groups, not individuals, and workers usually do not seek individual recognition. They will more often act out of loyalty to group than personal self-interest.

In an attempt to overcome the constraints of Western leadership theories, the GLOBE Study (House, 2004) proposed an integrated theory of leadership that attempted to account for culturally-based differences in implicit views of leadership. Based on the CLT, the study (Dorfman, et al., 2004) found six globally desired leader behaviors: charismatic/value-based, team oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective. But this theory also has limitations. The six rank uniquely within each country. The priority and weight assigned behaviors within a nation will greatly influence appropriate leadership actions, styles, and strategies. For example, Dorfman, et al. (2004) describes a universally accepted and effective leader as someone with the highest level of integrity. As noted above, the defining characteristics of integrity are culturally determined. Like any Western theory, the use of CLT is country specific.

Level 5. Country Analysis and Adaptation Project

Because of the country-specific nature of cross-cultural leadership, global leadership education necessarily culminates with a country cultural analysis. Through the country analysis, students apply cross-cultural models to determine implications for leadership. While country analyses of various types are available from scholarly sources (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007) as well as various governmental agencies, such information is often incomplete and sometimes contradictory or biased. Direct analysis enables student engagement with the cultural data and more thoughtful consideration of societal patterns that influence leadership.

Students may analyze their chosen country through traditional research or a modified evaluative case study. Using a single case, embedded design and data triangulation (Yin, 2003) students are able to analyze their country in a systematic, information-rich way. Regardless of method, however, the project should challenge the student to discern cultural patterns, articulate the influence of these patterns on leadership, and generate recommendations for Western leadership theory adaptation.

The analysis and adaptation aspects of the country project challenge students to apply cross-cultural models and confront the limitations of Western theories. Through direct application, the abstraction of models and theories become concrete. Students thus see the relevance of course information and understand how to use it.

Conclusion

While there is no substitution for experience, learning global leadership entirely through the school of hard knocks is painful and counterproductive. It is, therefore, critical to design effective global leadership courses. The Global Leadership-Learning Pyramid provides a framework for study that: integrates broad issues of globalization, history, culture and leadership; determines nation-state cultural patterns and implications for leadership; and adapts Western theories for cross-cultural use. Grounded in cross-cultural research, this framework marries theory and application to better prepare students for the complexities of global leadership.

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Biography

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The Levels of Leadership and Transcendent Servant Leadership Development

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Abstract

This paper addresses the challenges associated with defining and conceptualizing leadership amidst the plethora of theoretical constructs and definitions of leadership and proposes a model for developing transcendent servant-leaders. Based on a review of the literature, three categorical levels of leadership are outlined and discussed that describe the motives that drive leaders, their means of influence, and the outcomes they strive to achieve at each level. These levels include everyday leadership, effective organizational leadership, and transcendent servant leadership. Having delineated these leadership levels, a holistic model for leadership development and education that facilitates the transcendence of effective organizational leaders and ensures their sustaining power of influence is outlined and described.

The Levels of Leadership and Transcendent Servant Leadership Development

Few words in the English language are more ambiguous and evasive than leadership. Thompson (2000) declared, “for decades now, writers have tried to define leadership. Libraries are full of our attempts to decode this complex human phenomenon” (p. 9). While some of the difficulty associated with these attempts may arise from limitations resulting from our own linguistic imprecision (Zenger & Folkman, 2002, p. 16), some of the blame may also come to rest at the feet of those constructing the definitions. In attempting to define the nature of this phenomenon, scholars and practitioners often try “to reduce leadership to some formula or recipe or set of principles. It’s as if we think that, consonant with the scientific method, we can find a sort of generic key that will unlock the whole mystery” (Thompson, 2000, pp. 9-10). The problem is no such key exists and attempting to understand the mystery in its fullness through science is futile.

Leadership, like any other form of creative expression, lies, at least partially, outside the realm of science. Thus, most science based attempts to solve the mystery of leadership usually leave the would-be expert devoid of valuable expression. Nonetheless, there is a need to understand the theory of leadership, just as there is a need to understand the theory of art, music, and other primarily creative endeavors, because while creative expression is indeed improvisational, it is not “random or arbitrary” (Nachmanovitch, 1990, p. 26). Instead, as Nachmanovitch wrote, “when we are totally faithful to our own individuality, we are actually following a very intricate design” (p. 26). This design is written deeply into the strands of the human soul as a result of “three billions years of organic evolution” complemented by our own individual internal dialogical self-construction process, which involves engagement with the past, the future, the environment, and “the divine within us” (Nachmanovitch, p. 27). Furthermore, just as is the case in art, there exists both good and bad leadership, and we know them when we see them.

With this in mind, it is likely that any attempt to define leadership must recognize, and even embrace its inherent complexity, while at the same time providing sufficient clarity and prescriptive guidelines to guide the creative process involved in leadership development and expression. Thompson (2000) may well be correct in his assertion that “perhaps the problem is that we have been searching by microscope for something that can be grasped only in panorama” (pp. 9-10). The intent of this paper is to convey, in what will obviously be an overly-simplistic manner, the panorama of leadership by identifying three concentric layers of leadership while at the same time providing an understanding of the strengths and limitations of each layer. In addition, the paper will attempt to define the means whereby leadership can be developed at all three levels.

Level One: Everyday Leadership

Within the panorama of leadership there exists a type of leadership that belongs to all human beings. Because it is possessed by everyone to some extent or another and is exercised daily. It is referred to in this paper as everyday leadership. The essence of this type of leadership is found in the statement by Drucker (1996) that “the only definition of a leader is someone who has followers” (p. xii). This definition, though intended to identify the distinction between effective leaders and those who are less effective, merely asserts that all human beings are leaders. This is because at a foundational level leadership is about influence. As Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (1995) wrote, “leadership is a social influence process shared among all members of a group” (p. 43). Stone (2002) further explained this concept of influence in the following way. “Influence is inherent in communities, even communities of two. People are not free wheeling, freethinking atoms whose desires arise from spontaneous generations. Our ideas about what we want and the

choices we make are shaped by education, persuasion, and the general process of socialization” (p. 25).

Thus, at this level of influence, everyone is a leader because everyone has followers. Even a hermit who departs into the mountains to escape society influences others by his choice to depart. Through that influence he obtains followers either consciously or unconsciously, and is, therefore, a leader.

The following characteristics typify this level of leadership. First, leadership is a product of existence. If a person is living within a social network, then the individual is a leader.

Second, the means of attracting followers is through interaction based on what Axelrod and Cohen (1999) called tags. Tags are properties of the individual that “serve as a signal to other agents” (p. 95). The socially desirable or undesirable nature of such tags influences interaction patterns among agents and engenders neighborhoods or groups of individuals with certain tags. These tags become a means of facilitating social influence through proximity because “even if those in a neighborhood initially have nothing in common but their tags, the fact that they interact with each other can make a big difference” (Axelrod & Cohen, 1999, p. 95). This difference is based on influence and, therefore, implies leadership.

Third, as is evident from the previous example, influence at this level is derived from proximity and systemic interconnectedness. Consequently, position within a social stratum is significant because one has more influence over those with whom one engages most frequently. Thus, this type of leadership might also be referred to as positional leadership because a leader’s capacity to influence others is based on the formal or informal position that one attains within the social structure in which one exists.

Finally, this level of leadership is focused on perception management because at this level it is what others think of the individual that determines to what extent they choose to follow, even if the individuals have nothing else in common beyond the perception of one another. Consequently, Northouse (2004) argued, “many individuals believe that leadership is a way to improve how they present themselves” (p. 1).

Everyday leadership represents the innermost of the three concentric circles of leadership. This inner circle of leadership is contained within the outer two circles because they are extensions of this foundational type of leadership. While from a conceptual standpoint this structure is perhaps unnecessary, from a developmental perspective it is significant. As one develops as a leader, one builds upon the foundation of the previous layer. Not by leaving it behind, but rather by adding to it.

Level Two: Organizational Leadership

The second level of leadership is that of organizational leadership. This level of leadership is similar to and an extension of the preceding level because leaders exist within social networks. However, at this level leadership is not merely a matter of influence, but rather a process for guiding interaction to accomplish organizational objectives regardless of whether the organization is a business, school, church, family, or any other social group. The following definition is representative of this type of leadership. “Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2004, p. 3). Leaders who fail to accomplish goals, therefore, “simply are not good leaders” (Zenger & Folkman, 2002, p. 14).

The primary focus of leaders at this level is on identifying and developing the skills necessary to produce results. Such leaders acquire followers through shared goals, charisma, and a history of success. As a result, their influence is derived primarily from expertise and past accomplishments. This emphasis is reflected in the majority of leadership books, articles, and development programs (Northouse, 2004, p. 51).

While this emphasis is neither surprising nor detrimental, in fact it is essential, the focus on skills and outcomes as a means of evaluating leadership can lead to a situation where leaders become “clearly manipulative, even deceptive, encouraging people to use techniques to get other people to like them” (Covey, 1989, p. 19) and to follow them solely as a means of accomplishing results. When this occurs, leaders often begin to see others merely as objects to be manipulated to achieve desired results rather than as “[children] of God, valued and treasured for what” (Palmer, 1998, p. 205) they are. In so doing, they “become too busy caring for things to care about people” (Noddings, 2003, p. 21) thereby closing themselves off to the humanity of others. They then begin to relate to other human beings as if they were mere objects or obstacles (Arbinger Institute, 2000, 2006; Warner, 2001).

This relationship drives leaders into a cycle of justification and further dehumanization of others, and self, that leads to alienation and suffering, not only for those who follow, but also for those who lead (Arbinger Institute, 2000, 2006; Thompson, 2000). This cycle of decline ultimately leads to individual and organizational decline. As Greenleaf (1977) stated, “Some institutions achieve distinction for a short time by the intelligent use of people, but it is not a happy achievement, and eminence, so derived, does not last long” (p. 53).

This negative cycle of decline is most likely to occur when leaders lack a sustainable commitment to the value of others or encounter high levels of stress. Such stress is not uncommon due to the inherent challenges and conflicting demands of leadership (Clark & Cooper, 2000; Fassel, 1998; Goleman, et al., 2002; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005) which are merely augmented by the abundance of social, economic, and technological changes occurring in the world (McNair, 2001; Work, 1996). The reason stress limits the effective use of skills is because it negatively impacts one's capacity to manage challenges by taxing physical, mental, and emotional resources and altering effective behavioral patterns (Khoshaba & Maddi, 2005; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). As a result, it is increasingly imperative that leaders find a means of transcending this basic skills approach if they desire to be effective in the world of tomorrow. As Quinn (2004) explained, becoming a leader is not a matter of becoming adept at a certain set of behaviors or learning a particular set of leadership principles or tools. Behaviors, principles, and tools all have their place, but they will not make transformational leaders of us without a process of deep inner change. This is where the third level of leadership emerges.

Level Three: Transcendent Servant Leadership

The third level within the panorama of leadership does not reject the validity or importance of either of the previously delineated levels. Instead, it transcends them by focusing not merely on what the leader does, but rather on who the leader is (Zohar, 2002, p. 112). Thompson (2000) declared "leadership at its best is not the sum of certain skills or competencies, or charisma, or facile style, but rather the sum of who the person is" (p. 8). At this level, leadership is about identity and self-transcendence. The reason it is referred to as transcendent servant leadership as opposed to simply servant leadership is twofold. First, this level of leadership requires that one transcends one's own self interest in order to serve others. Second, transcendent servant leadership is not a stand alone concept. Instead, it is seen as the outer circle of the three concentric levels of leadership. It embraces each of the previous circles in that leaders still occupy a position of influence within the social stratum and effectively achieve organizational objectives while at the same time transcending these levels to become identity based servant leaders.

Quinn (2004) argued that such identity based leadership is a result of one's entering a state-of-being wherein one is "purpose centered, internally driven, other-focused, and externally open" (p. 21). This state of being fundamentally alters the relationship between leaders and followers. Indeed, it fosters a relationship in which leaders and followers engage one another on a more equal level. In such a relationship "leadership is co-created as individuals relate as partners and develop a shared vision, set a direction, solve problems, and make

meaning of their work" (Moxley, 2002, p. 47). Because leaders acquire followers as a result of integrity and wholeness as well as their commitment to serving others, this type of leadership is fundamentally different than that which occurs at the other levels. The type of leadership that most fully embraces this concept of identity based leadership is servant leadership.

The term servant leadership was coined by Robert Greenleaf in his essay, *The Servant-Leader* (1977). Greenleaf suggested that leadership has less to do with oversight, position, and direction and more to do with commitment to service. He wrote, "The great leader is seen as servant first, and that simple fact is the key to his greatness" (p. 21). This servanthood is grounded in "a natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first." (p. 27) and flows outward from one's motivational core through one's actions resulting in a "conscious choice . . . to aspire to lead. (p. 27). This leadership is similar to other forms of leadership in that the leader steps forward and leads the way for others; however, "there is a special quality to this—the quality of service. [Servant-leaders] take others with them because of their manner. . . . It is in serving that they gain the respect of others who know that the servant carries their interests in mind" (Young, 2002, pp. 250-251). Thus, influence and leadership are derived not so much from position or effectiveness, though servant-leaders must also be effective, but rather from the core identity of the individual and the emotional resonance of the person's leadership.

From this core identity, servant leaders engage in behaviors consistent with their desire to serve people and institutions through the use of the knowledge and skills required to lead others. It is through this integration of intent and action that they derive their uniqueness as leaders. This is reflected in the characteristics of servant leaders described by Spears (1998b). These characteristics include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community.

Because of the different motivation and the integrated actions of servant leaders, the outcomes or purposes of leadership are also significantly different. As Greenleaf (1977) explained, the difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that the other people's highest priority needs are being served. The best test and most difficult to administer is finding answers to such questions as: (a) Do those served grow as persons? (b) Do the followers, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? (c) What is the effect on the least privileged of society? And, (d) Will the followers benefit or at least not be further deprived?

Against this standard, not the standards of productivity, profitability, nor return on investment, is the servant leader measured. In fact, Greenleaf (1977) argued that rather than being the ends of leadership, these traditional standards should be

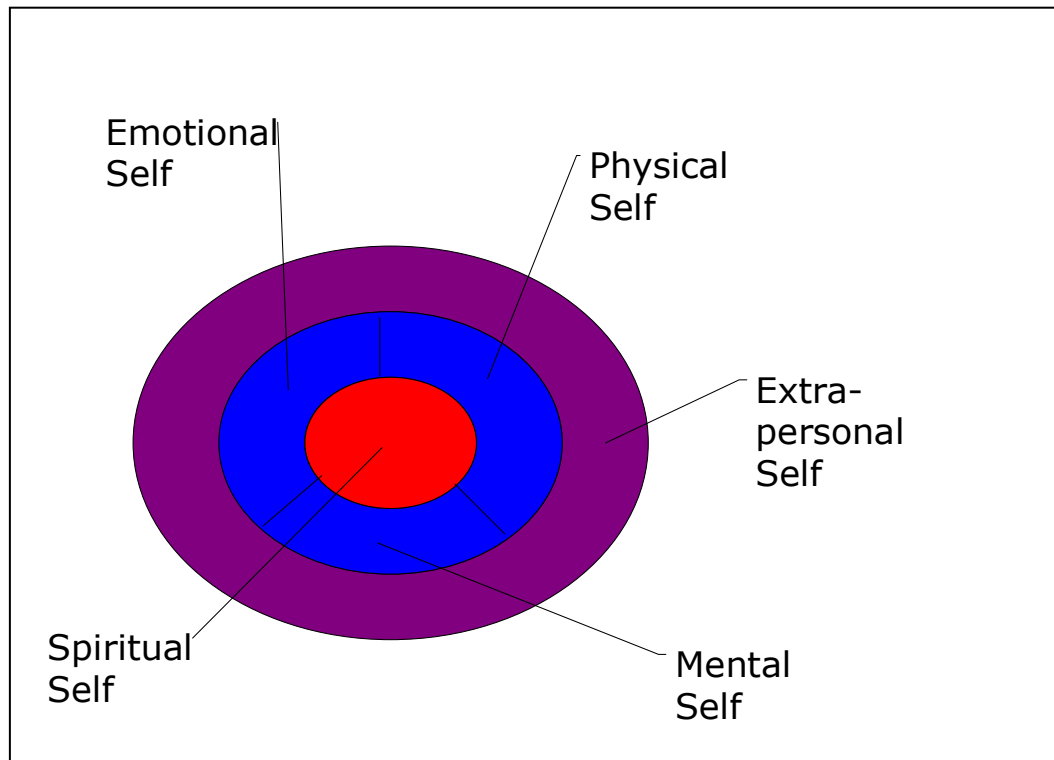
considered the means whereby a company is able to serve its employees and society.

While these notions are indeed idealistic, they are intensely practical as well. In fact, these concepts are so practical that “several of the top twenty companies ranked in the 2001 issue of *Fortune* magazine’s 100 Best [Companies to Work For] were servant-led organizations” (Ruschman, 2002, p. 123). Among the companies on this prestigious list are Southwest Airlines, TDIndustries, and Synovus Corporations, all of which are industry leaders in more traditional measures of leadership such as profitability and productivity. In a study conducted by Sipe and Frick (2009) over a 10-year period, organizations that are recognized as practicing servant leadership out performed Collins’ (2001) good to great companies by a significant margin. Thus, the challenge does not lie in the translation of the concepts of servant leadership into the real world, but rather in the development of servant leaders who can engage in its practice. Consequently, the following model is proposed as a guideline for transforming, nurturing, and developing transcendent servant leaders.

A Model for Developing Transcendent Servant Leaders

Servant leadership scholars have argued that one of the fundamental pursuits of the leader is fostering wholeness of self through the process of healing (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1998a; Sturnick, 1998). Greenleaf (1977) stated “there is something subtly communicated to one who is being served and led if, implicit in the compact between servant-leader and led, is the understanding that the search for wholeness is something they share” (p. 50). According to Sturnick (1998), healing our leaders involves “restoring our leaders by bringing them back to emotional, spiritual, intellectual, and physical health” (p. 187). The model proposed in this paper draws upon these four fundamental aspects of the self and adds an additional element, the extra-personal. These elements of the self are arranged as outlined in Figure 1 with the spiritual self at the core of the sphere, enveloped by the mental, physical, and emotional aspects of the self, all of which are surrounded by the extra-personal.

Figure 1
The Whole Self



The Spiritual Self

The spiritual self, as is evident from its location, represents the core of identity. It is the place from which leaders derive their sense of meaning, connectedness to others, and motivation to serve. In sum, it represents the purposeful nature of the leader. Wheatley (cited in Spears & Noble, 2005) stated, “people have deep yearnings, a quest for meaning, and an ability to wonder. This is a non-religious view of what spirituality might mean” (p. 51). Frankel (1984) stresses that this essential “striving for meaning in one’s life” represents the “primary motivational force in man” (p. 104) and drives people to ponder the deep questions of existence, such as what is the meaning of life? These questions of identity and purpose underlie the significant stories that are at the heart of leadership (Gardner & Laskin, 1995).

While the specific answers to such questions must be searched out and answered by each individual soul, the broader, more general answer to these questions can be found in the religious and philosophical works of many of history’s great thinkers and social activists. Plato referred to it as pursuit of “the good” (Plato, 2000), the Christian ethic identifies it as sacrificial love (1 John 4: 9-10; Gospel

of John 15: 12-14), and in Buddhism purpose is found in the principles of interconnectedness and compassion (Dalai Lama & Chan, 2004; Hanh, 1999), while a modern philosopher and consultant, Robert Morris (1977), identified it as creative love. In spite of the different ways in which these great minds conceptualized this idea, the underlying notion is the same and it is identical to that identified by Greenleaf (1977) in his statement that, “except as we venture to create, we cannot project ourselves beyond ourselves to serve and lead” (p. 61).

The answer to the question of universal purpose is, therefore, found in one’s ability “to serve and be served by” (Greenleaf, 2003, p. 81). Dostoevsky’s (1994) character Ivan expressed it in this way. “The secret of human existence lies not only in living, but in knowing what to live for.” (p. 319). This is because “being human always points, and is directed, to something, or someone, other than one’s self—be it a meaning to fulfill or another human being to encounter. The more one forgets himself—by giving himself to a cause to serve or another person to love—the more human he is and the more he actualizes himself” (Frankl, 1984, p. 115).

Consequently, the fundamental task of developing servant leaders is to assist them to find their motivation to serve, their personal sense of purpose. In the following statement, Frankl (1984) delineated three means of discovering one’s purpose as a result of experience. He declared, “We can discover this meaning in life in three different ways: (1) by creating a work or doing a deed; (2) by experiencing something or encountering someone; (3) by the attitude we take towards unavoidable suffering” (p. 115). As individuals experience life, they can, if they are intentional and reflective come to identify their purpose.

This can be accomplished, at least in part, by engaging leaders in reflection upon the inspirational, self-transcendent moments they have experienced, as well as the ways in which they dream to serve. As this is done, themes emerge that help individuals identify who or what they wish to serve, in what ways, and for what reasons. Once some such answers are found, servant-leaders begin to come alive with a feeling of empowerment and passion to serve the causes or individuals they have identified. This sense of passion and purpose, or love, is what allows a leader to remain true to self and maintain respect for the humanity of others, “even under circumstances in which powerful forces may seem to operate to deny it” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 115). As Mandela (1995) explained, “The human body has an enormous capacity for adjusting to trying circumstances. I have found that one can bear the unbearable if one can keep one’s spirits strong even when one’s body is being tested. Strong convictions are the secret of surviving deprivation; your spirit can be full even when your stomach is empty” (p. 416). For this reason, it comes as no surprise that “love, desire, motivation, inspiration, and passion are in the final analysis the greatest differences between good leaders and great leaders” (Zenger & Folkman, 2002, p. 136).

As would-be leaders come to identify elements of their purpose, they must serve. If they have truly found their sense of purpose, their service and reflection on that service will confirm or expand their source of meaning. In such cases confirmation may come as a result of what Maslow (cited in Thompson, 2000) described as a simultaneously “seeking and fulfilling of the self and also an achieving of the selflessness which is the ultimate expression of the real self. It resolves the dichotomy between selfish and unselfish” (p. 37). Noddings (2003) described this same phenomenon in these terms, “This is the fundamental aspect of caring from the inside. When I look at and think about how I am when I care, I realize that there is invariably this displacement of interest from my own reality to the reality of the other” (p. 14). Such transcendent moments signal the discovery of one’s purpose.

In some cases, however, engagement will simply lead individuals to new and deeper insights. Ultimately, however, as individuals pursue this journey, they come to experience a fundamental change of heart as they develop the heart of a servant. As this occurs, they can then move to the next level of the self and engage in the intentional development of the physical, mental, and emotional skills and abilities necessary to pursue their purpose through leadership.

The Physical Self

The physical self is the body of the leader which is developed through healthy living. This includes proper nutrition, exercise, relaxation, and appropriate use of vitamin supplements and medication (Khoshaba & Maddi, 2005). The purpose of this aspect of the self is to facilitate action in accordance with one’s purpose, manage the stress of pursuing one’s purpose, and insure one’s ongoing capacity to serve.

A significant amount of research has demonstrated that a healthy, relaxed body is more energetic and alert and less debilitated by fatigue, moodiness, attention difficulties, mental, physical, learning, and psychological disabilities and illnesses (Khoshaba & Maddi, 2003). Such research is supported by the anecdotal statements of effective leaders such as Nelson Mandela. In his autobiography Mandela (1995) suggested, “I found that I worked better and thought more clearly when I was in good physical condition and so training became one of the inflexible disciplines of my life” (p. 490). As this testimony proclaims, physical health facilitates action in accordance with one’s purpose.

A second way whereby physical health contributes to effective servant leadership is as a result of the impact of healthful living on one’s ability to manage the inherently stressful nature of leadership. Through effective nutrition, exercise, and

relaxation leaders increase hardiness and are more able to manage stress (Khoshaba & Maddi, 2005). Mandela (1995) wrote, “I have always believed that exercise is not only a key to physical health but to peace of mind. . . . Exercise dissipates tension, and tension is the enemy of security” (p. 490).

Whereas Mandela (1995) proclaims the virtues of exercise, other leaders vouch for the benefits of relaxation techniques such as meditation and the need for good nutrition (Covey, 1989; Dalai Lama & Chan, 2004; Murrell, 2003). Thus, as Batten (1998) explained, “servant-leaders recognize that developing optimum physical fitness is an important requisite of mental and physical health” (p. 48).

A final impact of healthful living on leadership is that it insures one’s ongoing capacity to serve. Murrell (2003) offered the following explanation, “All of us have likely experienced the loss of a friend or colleague who has not been taking appropriate care of him or herself. In the past we have lost many in the O.D. profession too early because their personal health was secondary to what could be described as a nearly compulsive or obsessive need to do [their] work” (pp. 107-8).

For a servant leader, few greater tragedies exist than to fail to achieve one’s purpose because poor health prohibits one from doing so. Therefore, it is imperative that any training programs developed to nurture servant leadership include training in healthy living (Sturnick, 1998).

The Mental Self

The mental self represents the cognitive and intellectual aspects of the person that function primarily towards understanding and seeking solutions to problems. This of necessity involves intelligence.

Intelligence, like leadership, is a complex, much debated concept that is central to the art and practice of leadership (Dickman & Stanford-Blair, 2002). Gardner (1999) explained, “What it means to be intelligent is a profound philosophical question, one that requires grounding in biological, physical, and mathematical knowledge” (p. 22). The need for such a breadth of knowledge is derived from the reality that much of what is considered intelligence is rooted in the functionality of the human brain (Zull, 2002). As a result of extensive research, which initially led to the development of the concept of multiple intelligences, and 20 years of rethinking his research in this area, Gardner (1999) defined intelligence “as a bio-psychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture” (p. 34). In relation to servant leadership such processes represent the natural skills and knowledge in a variety of domains that an individual possesses to accomplish

organizational objectives in order to nurture the growth of others, influence followers, and accomplish organizational objectives.

In accordance with Gardner's (1999) definition, knowledge and skills must be able to produce results valued by the culture. In addition, however, they must also be aligned with the spiritual purpose of the individual. Zenger and Folkman (2002) spoke of this notion as a convergence of one's passion and competencies with the needs of the organization. Such a convergence results in what they termed a "leadership sweet spot" (p. 117).

This place of convergence is obviously different for every individual; nonetheless, there are certain knowledge and skills that effective servant-leaders must possess. While numerous frameworks have been developed for cataloguing a leader's knowledge and skills, the most commonly used seems to be that of organizing them into the following three categories: technical skills, conceptual skills, and relationship skills (Northouse, 2004).

According to Northouse (2004), "technical skill is having knowledge about and being proficient in a specific type of work or activity" (p. 36). This includes the actual knowledge and skills required to perform the tasks that are unique to the work of the individual. Such skills are necessary not only for leaders to perform their jobs, but also for them to establish credibility with followers. This is because "there is an element of modeling (example) that comes first, otherwise there is no credibility" (Covey, 2002, p. 30).

The second category of knowledge and skills is that of the conceptual domain. Conceptual skills are typically those "used to work with ideas and concepts" (Northouse, 2004, p. 38) in order to develop plans, visions, and to manage the abstract conceptual work of leadership. The final category, relationship skills, embraces the knowledge and skills necessary to work effectively with people.

In relation to servant leadership, the knowledge and skills necessary to engage in effective leadership, in addition to any technical skills related to one's field of work, are those required to outwardly express the characteristics delineated by Spears (1998b). In Table 1, these characteristics are listed along with the knowledge and skills required to engage them, these lists are not meant to be exhaustive.

Table 1
Characteristics and corresponding knowledge and skills

Characteristic	Knowledge and Skills
Listening	Understanding of cultural differences, particularly in relation to body language and effective expression of interest. Active listening skills.
Empathy	Theoretical understanding of empathy and how to express it appropriately.
Healing	Understanding of what it means to be whole. Knowledge of maturation/development theory. Counseling and coaching skills.
Awareness	Self-awareness and skills related to awareness, such as meditation.
Persuasion	Knowledge of human motivation. Communication skills.
Conceptualization	Broad understanding of systems and systems thinking. Knowledge of issues related to diversity. The ability to suspend judgment, analyze broadly, develop visions, and “dream great dreams” (Spears, 1998b, p. 5).
Foresight	Intuition
Stewardship	Understanding of one’s role and the technical skills to perform it.
Commitment to the growth of people	An understanding of what it means to be human and how human beings grow, develop, and learn. Teaching, learning, mentoring, coaching, counseling, and advising skills.
Building community	Understanding of community. Skills in facilitation of dialogue, interaction, etc.

As is evident the knowledge and skills listed embrace all three categories. Consequently, any program that is designed to develop servant leaders must, at the minimum, provide individuals with the knowledge and skills necessary to develop the characteristics listed above.

Beazley and Beggs (2002) argue that the pedagogical mode that is prescribed by Greenleaf and necessary to develop servant leaders “is conceptually an apprenticeship” (p. 55), which, as is evident, implies “both instruction in theory and supervision in practice” (p. 55).

As part of this process of iterative action and reflection, leaders should be challenged to ponder the following questions as they seek to identify what other knowledge and skills they might need to accomplish their purpose: What would you say or what would others say are your talents? What are you passionate to

learn? What do you already know a lot about? What do you do well that you enjoy doing? What do you need to know or be able to do to accomplish your purpose?

As would-be leaders deeply embrace and seek to understand the response to these questions, they will become aware of what they must know and what abilities they must develop in order to serve. In addition, they should recognize and accept that true leadership requires the servant leader to constantly engage in this ongoing iterative process of seeking, engaging in, and evaluating means to accomplish the ends of the “best test” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 28).

The Emotional Self

Part of the knowledge and skill that must be acquired by leaders is the capacity to manage one’s unseen world of feelings and emotions. It is through this aspect of the self that individuals harness their own motivation and connect to others, both of which are fundamentally important to nurturing leadership in general and servant leadership in particular (Winston & Hartsfield, 2004; Zenger & Folkman, 2002). This ability to manage the emotional self is referred to as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, et al., 2002). The essential capacities of this kind of intelligence include the ability to understand and regulate one’s own emotions, which provides leverage for understanding and influencing others (Feldman & Mulle, 2007; Goleman, et al., 2002). This is, perhaps, the most challenging element of servant leadership to teach, however, because it is rooted in the deeply engrained emotional response patterns that an individual has developed. These deep seeded patterns are often based, at least partially, on deeply held paradigms and beliefs. In order to change these patterns of behavior and cognitive processes would-be leaders may have to engage with counselors or coaches on an ongoing basis to identify and understand the driving forces behind their emotional responses and to change these. Consequently, a theoretical understanding of emotional intelligence and related concepts such as conflict management would likely prove helpful as would practice and training in meditation, mediation, conflict resolution, and emotional response therapy.

The Extra-personal Self

The final aspect of the self addressed by the model is that of the extra-personal self. This element of the self consists of all the things that contribute to one’s identity that are not physically part of the individual. These include possessions, reputation, relationships, titles, and credentials. Many of the skills previously listed contribute to development in this area; however, two additional concepts may prove beneficial in relation to training servant-leaders. The first is the issue of perception management. The second is that of legacy leaving.

Perception management involves striving to manage the perceptions of those one leads so that the leader is perceived as he wishes to be seen. Russell (2001) wrote, “What sets great leaders apart is their ability to manage perceptions. What people observe or assess as your ability to be a leader and your effectiveness becomes their perception, which in turn becomes reality. Perceptions that are not managed become rumors, then gossip, then backbiting, which leads to destruction. Unmanaged perceptions become a reality that was not intended” (p. 2).

Admittedly, this concept is problematic because many leaders start and end their leadership by simply attempting to manipulate what others think of them. However, when used by servant leaders who have developed and integrated their spiritual, physical, mental, and emotional self, and are merely seeking the means to demonstrate that alignment to better serve others, the concept of image management becomes a powerful tool for positive influence. Thus, training leaders how to manage the perception of others is significantly important; however, training in this area should likely be postponed until the individual has begun to achieve personal alignment.

The second important concept for developing servant-leaders to consider in relation to the extra-personal self, and one that should be pondered early in the process, is that of leaving a legacy (Covey, 1989). While it is true that “dignity, significance, character are wholly attributes of individual people. . . . [and] have nothing to do with anything external to the person” (Greenleaf, 2003, p. 117), it is also the case that these external aspects of the self are the personal advertisements for the individual that determine how much influence he or she has in life and what kind of legacy will be left when she or he is gone. This becomes particularly significant when one remembers that the only way to lead is “through the power of your relationships” (Wheatley in Spears & Noble, 2005, p. 49). In fact, Greenleaf (1977) argued that “many otherwise able people are disqualified to lead because they cannot work with and through the half-people who are all there are. The secret of institution building is to be able to weld a team of such people by lifting them up to grow taller than they would otherwise be” (p. 35). Consequently, it is imperative that leaders contemplate the question of what legacy they wish to leave and that they strive to manage the perceptions of others accordingly, based on an authentic conveyance of self.

The Importance of Integrity

In developing leaders and teaching them to understand this model of the self it is absolutely imperative that emphasis be placed on the integration of all aspects of the self in alignment with one’s sense of purpose and servanthood, thereby “creating a seamless link between [the leader’s] espoused values, actions, and

behaviors” (Luthans & Avolio, 2003, p. 242). If this is neglected, the model and training are useless because only those “people who genuinely care and who have this personal integrity merit the confidence of others” (Covey, 2002, p.28); because without confidence, one cannot serve and one cannot lead. Furthermore, Zenger and Folkman (2002) pointed out that any “efforts to change employee behavior” (p.36), as well as attempts to change their nature to that of a servant, “[have] to start by making sure that managers’ behaviors [are] in alignment” (p. 36). Nothing is more important to leadership, not only because of the desire to influence others, but also because the ability to be present, in the moment, with those one is serving is essential to the capacity to truly serve (Greenleaf, 1977; Griffin, 2002; Noddings, 2003; Stacey et al., 2000). Doing so requires alignment of the self. As Jones (2002) beautifully proclaimed, leadership is about (a) listening for the restorative power of language and story, (b) keeping faith with the living word, (c) making a home for others through the appreciation of beauty and place, and (d) developing the sense of seeing gifts in others through first being committed to calling up and living out the gifts that are in themselves by learning to “live in the question” (p. 45) and lead without a script through being open and responsive to the emergent as it is revealed through what the world is already trying to be. Leaders can learn to let life live them rather than feeling they must always be trying to make things happen.

Through such abandonment true servant leadership is embraced and people grow. Thus, servant hood and integrity expressed in the creative now are the real foundation of truly transcendent servant leadership. Only in this way can servant leaders curb the excesses of organizational leadership and the shallowness of everyday leadership. Would-be servant leaders must learn this.

Conclusion

Thompson (2000) wrote, “Perhaps leadership in business and elsewhere is, as Warren Bennis put it, the natural expression of a fully integrated human being, and can thus be seen only through the wide-angle lens of the leader’s total growth and development” (p. 11). In addition to offering a simplistic understanding of the panorama of leadership, this essay has attempted to offer a model for developing leaders in today’s complex society that is true to this statement. It is hoped that this model is one that invites leaders to transcend a myopic focus on accomplishing results through the self-serving misuse of people. In so doing, it focuses on what it takes to develop leaders who are servants first, and who, from that desire to serve combined with establishing a sense of purpose, actively choose to lead. These leaders strive to integrate their physical, mental, emotional, and extra-personal selves in order to achieve integrity and alignment with their spiritual core.

The pathway to such leadership is not easy because to truly lead with power and integrity, one must first journey to the deepest center of one's being – to the core that envelops the deep meaning of one's existence. Then the servant leader must travel across space and time battling the demons of the self to create integrity and alignment at all levels. This journey is not short, simple, easy, or painless, thus it is not to be taken lightly; indeed, to take it lightly means not taking it at all. Nonetheless, if one wishes to become a true leader, it is the only journey worth taking.

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Biography

Jeffrey L. McClellan lives in Cumberland, Maryland, with his wife and six children. He is an Assistant Professor of Management at Frostburg State University in the beautiful Appalachian Mountains of western Maryland. His research interests include servant-leadership development, conflict based learning and change, and advising theory, administration, and leadership. Prior to working as a faculty member, he worked at three institutions as an advisor and advising administrator.

Personality Type and Leadership Approach

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Abstract

Effective leadership in public schools includes, but is not limited to being able to communicate goals, set expectations, monitor instructional progress, coordinate the curriculum, and supervise and evaluate faculty (Snowden & Gorton, 2002). All of these leadership skills are driven by a need for leaders to build collaborative rapport and create a positive learning environment for both teachers and students. This study looked at the relationship between personality type as measured by the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984) and leaders' preferred leadership approaches as measured by the Instructional Leadership Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002). Although this study found no significant correlations, the data provides insight to help determine how and to what extent personality type is related to a preferred leadership approach.

Introduction to the Problem

There is little research available to determine a clear correlation between personality type and preferred leadership approach even though the connection may be easy to see anecdotally (Gracia, 2006; Zaccaro, 2007). For example, a leader with a personality type associated with order and thoroughness might be more likely to prefer a directive-control leadership approach whereas a leader who tries to handle situations with due regard for others' feelings may tend to use a collaborative approach or an approach that would best fit the situation. This study sought to answer the questions how and to what extent do personality types relate to preferred leadership approach? It also examined the question can one predict the type of leadership approach that will be used by first determining the personality type of a prospective administrator?

Leadership Approaches

In the book *Leadership for Learning* the author described four basic types of leadership approaches (Glickman, 2002). Three were used for the purposes of this study. These leadership approaches are preferred ways in which leaders work with teachers based on the clustering types of verbal and non-verbal behaviors. These

behaviors are listening, clarifying, encouraging, reflecting, presenting, problem solving, negotiating, directing, standardizing, and reinforcing.

Glickman (2002) placed these behaviors on a continuum with one end reflecting maximum teacher responsibility and minimum leader responsibility; the other end of the continuum reflecting minimum teacher responsibility and maximum leader responsibility. The four leadership approaches fall within the continuum depending on how much responsibility is needed from either the leader or teacher. A directive leadership approach, either directive-informational or directive-control, requires little teacher responsibility and maximum leader responsibility. A collaborative approach falls somewhere in the middle of the continuum where both leader and teacher share responsibility. A nondirective approach would require maximum teacher responsibility and little leadership responsibility.

In order to determine which approach to use in a situation, Glickman (2002) suggested that leaders develop an understanding of how they prefer to interact with others. He created a Beliefs Inventory that quickly allows leaders to determine their core beliefs or how a leader feels about working with others. The core beliefs are communication styles: whether assertive and bold, calm and conversational, or quiet and reassuring. The purpose of understanding the core beliefs or communication styles and ways of interacting with others is to provide information in order to facilitate the improvement of the learning environment.

If leadership approach is based on communication characteristics or core beliefs and ways of interacting with others, and if communication characteristics can be tied to personality, would it be possible to predict leadership approach based on personality information?

Personality Types

Schneider and Burton (2005) suggested in their findings in *An ideal 'type'?- the characteristics of effective school principals as perceived by aspiring principals both from within education and those from an alternate career path* that leadership characteristics “were better described as personality traits rather than skills or strategies to be learnt and applied” (p. 7). Although they did not discuss what type of personality would yield preferred leadership approaches, they did conclude that leadership and the ability to construct vision and strategies should take precedence over management skills which can be done by assistants when considering applicants for a leadership position. This suggests that inherent traits may often be more effective in leadership than those skills learned through experience.

Similarly, Zaccaro (2007) presented the notion of leader traits which are relatively coherent and integrated patterns of personal characteristics. These traits, although

can be altered through maturation, experience, and training interventions, are relatively stable and inherent. Leader traits include “personal qualities that promote stability in leader effectiveness” (p. 8) and have traditionally been referred to as personality attributes.

Personality attributes develop from inherent temperament and include the thoughts, feelings, and actions of people (Maddi, 1989), are consistent patterns of response to situations, and are relatively stable (Pervin, 1980). According to Jung’s theory of personality (cited in Maddi, 1989), although personality is relatively stable, individuals are constantly trying to grow and evolve. According to Maddi, wisdom and patience are acquired as well as an integration of thoughts, feelings, and actions.

Personality types were developed based on Jung’s theory of personality (cited in Maddi, 1989) and focus on temperament and reflected attitudes (EI), perceptions (SN), judgments (TF), and orientations (PJ). Isabel Myers and Katharine Briggs (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) created a way to measure these traits and developed the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI). Sixteen personality types are possible from the combination of the attitudes, perceptions, judgments, and orientations. Personality functions, or orienting functions, are seen as stable forces that direct activity regardless of the situation. The functions are aspects of Sensing (S) and Intuition preferences (I), and Thinking (T) and Feeling preferences (F).

David Keirsey and Marilyn Bates (Keirsey & Bates, 1984) adapted Myers-Briggs method of measuring personality and created a simpler form called The Keirsey Temperament Sorter. Keirsey and Bates also added aspects of relationships and occupation preferences to the interpretation of personality type and function. According to Keirsey and Bates, effective leaders must understand their own temperament and personality in order to understand and appreciate the differences in their subordinates. The Keirsey Temperament Sorter, the personality inventory used for this study, was designed as a briefer version of the MBTI with explanations and suggestions to help individuals understand ways in which people differ. Many times understanding differences can lead to cooperative behavior and an appreciation of these differences instead of combative and challenging behavioral responses.

The 16 personality types created by Myers and Briggs (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) and adapted by Keirsey and Bates (1984) are a combination of EI (extroversion or introversion), SN (sensing or intuition), TF (thinking or feeling), and PJ (perceiving or judging). EI are ways in which people gather energy. E types are people who recharge when they are around people. I types are those who need solitude to re-energize. S types are those who thrive on facts and Ns are those who tend to make decisions based on hunches. T types are logical and objective in the decisions they make and Fs are more subjective and take things

personally. Ps like to keep their options open and Js prefer deadlines. No type is better than the other, they are all just ways in which we interact with the world and make decisions. Understanding these differences can provide insight into how we deal with others.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out how and to what extent personality type is related to leadership approach. The extent of the relationship – positive, negative or no relationship – will determine how personality type affects leadership approach.

If a positive relationship was found, leaders may be able to predict the type of leadership that would be most effective on a campus based on the personality of the principal placed on that campus. If no relationship was found between personality and leadership approach, then we could conclude that personality may not play a role at all in leadership. Regardless of the findings, the information discovered adds to the body of knowledge related to personality as it relates to leadership.

Research Questions

There were two research questions examined in this study. The first question asked how personality type was related to leadership approach and the second asked to what extent personality type relates to leadership approach. In order to answer these questions, three hypotheses were explored.

H1: Hypothesis one predicted a stronger correlation between a collaborative leadership approach and intuition than the other dimensions of the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984).

H2: The second hypothesis predicted a strong relationship between a collaborative leadership approach and a perceptive psychological type.

H3: The third hypothesis predicted lower magnitude correlations between leadership approach and the judging functions (thinking and feeling) and extraversion-introversion (E-I) as measured by the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984).

Sample

The sample consisted of principals and assistant principals from five middle and junior high schools in one school district. They were asked to complete the

Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984) and Glickman's (2002) Leadership Beliefs Inventory Part I and Part II.

A questionnaire asking for the participants' current age and years of experience in the classroom as well as years in leadership were included and used as additional nominal data for comparison. From the questionnaire it was predicted that a strong positive relationship exists between the number of years in the classroom and the preferred leadership approach. In other words, the fewer the years spent in the classroom, the leader may use a more directive leadership approach. The more years experience in the classroom, the more likely a collaborative approach would be used. More experience may lead to greater understanding and better leadership decisions.

Significance of the Study

Leadership and the behaviors that lead to effective leadership seem to be necessary in order for schools to improve significantly (Snowden & Gorton, 2002). "Leadership is the process of communication (verbal & non-verbal) that involves coaching, motivating/inspiring, directing/guiding, and supporting/counseling others" (Howard, 2005, p. 385). An effective leader may be seen as one who does the right things (Glass, 2005). However, what are the right things?

An understanding of one's personality type and leadership approach should lead to transformational behavior. Although personality is rooted in temperament and remains fairly stable, leadership approach can be seen as situational. Will we find that personality gives insight into preferred leadership approach? Will we find a personality type that yields a leadership approach that will vary according to the situation?

Assumptions

Goleman (2006) found that the best climate for learning occurs when students, teachers, and school leaders take steps to become more emotionally self-aware and socially intelligent. Understanding oneself is the first step to understanding others. Discovering that personality type may be related to a preferred leadership approach should give insight into administrator placement.

If personality cannot be changed (Fiedler, 1979), and if leadership approach is related to personality type, then perhaps Fiedler was correct when he stated that only situations can be controlled and modified to "bring about improved organizational performance" (p. 395). Further study would be needed to see if

leadership behaviors could be learned regardless of personality type or if campus placement benefits from certain leader personality.

Limitations

One caution or implication of this study is that if a strong positive relationship does exist between personality functions and type and leadership approach then districts may want to include as part of their hiring practices, instruments that measure personality and leadership approach. Although these instruments would provide additional information, they should not be used as sole indicators for employment. This could be interpreted as bias or prejudice.

Another caution has to do with generalization of the results. Because this is a correlational study with a small sample, no cause and effect will result, and certainly generalizations should be limited. Principals and assistant principals should be hired on their ability to create an effective school climate. Many factors, including personality type and leadership approach, may contribute to effective leadership therefore one set of factors should not determine employment criteria.

Method

The variables examined for this correlational study were personality type and leadership approach. Type is a nominal variable and leadership approach is an interval/ratio variable. The variables were not manipulated.

Type (nominal) and leadership approach (interval/ratio) were measured using point-biserial. A point-biserial correlation examines dichotomous variables that are either discrete or true dichotomy (personality type) or a continuous or artificial one (leadership approach) that has some sort of underlying continuum (Howell, 1987).

Ages and years of experience in the classroom as well as years in leadership were also examined as nominal data.

Correlational Research

Correlational research has a low degree of certainty, but is designed to “discover relationships between variables through the use of correlational statistics” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 320). Variables are not manipulated, rather measured to determine if one affects the other (StatSoft, 2003). The relationship can be positive, negative, or have no relationship at all. A positive relationship occurs when both variables can be plotted along a line of best fit (as one variable goes up

so does the other), a negative relationship occurs when one variable is plotted in the opposite direction of the other (as one variable goes up, the other goes down), and no relationship occurs is when one variable has no effect on the other (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003).

These relationships, although not causal, help researchers predict what might happen. It is used when individual differences are among the variables and manipulation is impossible. Although correlation does not mean causation, it can show strong relationships between variables. It can show the direction and magnitude of a relationship, yet still cannot predict cause and effect with 100% accuracy.

A correlational design will provide relationship direction and degree. Although correlational studies have a lower degree of confidence in predicting cause and effect, it can provide strong indications that relationships exist.

Population and Sampling

The target population for this study was school administrators. The sample was a sample of convenience and drawn from an accessible population (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003) including middle and junior high school principals and assistant principals in one school district. There were 10 female and four male principals and assistant principals, making the sample size 14.

All principals and assistant principals were asked to self-administer and self-score both the personality sorter and leadership inventory. Each instrument was a paper and pencil inventory that could be completed in approximately 15 to 20 minutes and self scored. If a subject did not wish to do the self score, then the examiner completed the scoring and reported the results to the subject, if so desired. The principals and assistant principals were then asked to respond to the questions on the questionnaire.

In order to gather information about the subjects' age and number of years in education in various positions, a questionnaire was given to the principals and assistant principals to answer. Although questionnaires are generally considered qualitative, for the purposes of this study, the data collected was quantified. Frequency and percentages for each were reported.

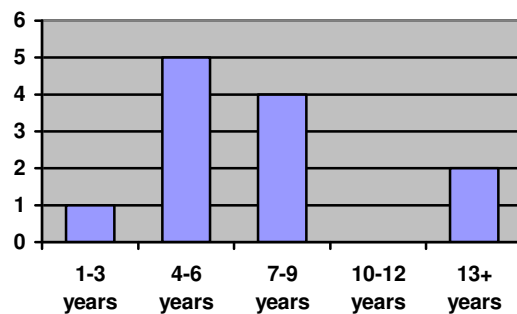
All responses were returned to the researcher for data analysis.

Results

Of the 12 subjects that responded, the majority of them have been administrators less than 10 years and spent less than 10 years in the classroom. Figure 1 shows the frequency and percent of years as an administrator. Figure 2 shows the frequency and percent of years in the classroom. Figure 3 shows the frequency and percent of the administrator's age range.

Figure 1

Frequency of Years as an Administrator

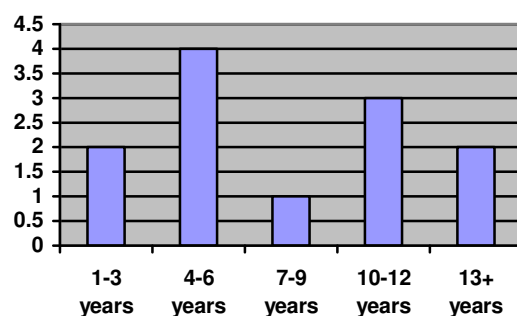


Note: N = 12.

Seventy-five percent of them (nine of the twelve participants) have been administrators between four and nine years. Only two of the subjects (17%) have been administrators longer than 13 years.

Figure 2

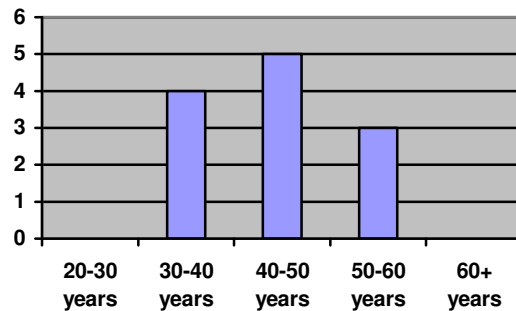
Frequency of Years as a Classroom Teacher



Note: N = 12.

One-half of the administrators spent six or fewer years in the classroom, and one-half spent seven or more years in the classroom before becoming an administrator. Only one administrator spent between seven and nine years in the classroom.

Figure 3
Frequency of Participant's Ages



Note: N = 12.

The ages of the subjects are between 30 and 60 years of age. Most of the administrators (42%) were between the ages of 40 and 50. There were no administrators under 30 or over 60 years old.

The age of the majority of the administrators questioned was between 30 and 50 years, and only two of those surveyed have been administrators more than 10 years. Classroom experience prior to administration was evenly split between one to six years and 10 or more years. Interestingly, of the two subjects that had 13 or more years of classroom experience, only one of them fell in the 50-60 age range. The other was between 40 and 50 years of age. Also, one administrator had the least amount of experience in the classroom (1-3 years) and was also one of the oldest administrators (50-60 years).

Results of Beliefs Inventory

Although 12 administrators returned their data packets, one of them did not complete Part II of the Inventory. And many of the subjects completed Part I so that the percentages add up to more than 100%. Part I of the Instructional Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002) asks administrators to predict the percentage of time that they use a particular leadership approach. The percentage choices were 100%, 75%, 50%, 25%, or 0% of the time. The subjects were asked to predict how often they used the leadership approaches of directive-informational or directive-control, collaborative approach, or nondirective approach in supervising.

Table 1 shows the number of administrators who chose each percentage of each leadership preference from Part I of the Beliefs Inventory. Table 2 represents the results of the forced choices from Part II of the Inventory.

Table 1
Part I: Predictions of Leadership Approach

	About 100% of the time	About 75% of the time	About 50% of the time	About 25% of the time	About 0% of the time
Directive- Informational (or –control)	0	3	4	4	1
Collaborative	0	6	6	0	0
Nondirective	0	1	6	2	3

Note: N = 12.

None of the subjects reported using any leadership preference 100% of the time. The collaborative preference was predicted 50 to 75% of the time, and yet nondirective was predicted as the preference used about 50% of the time as well. Two of the three who predicted that they use the directive or control-informational leadership preference were in the 50-60 age range.

The forced choices in Part II (see Table 2) allowed for 100% total of leadership approach. Each answer is totaled in columns, the columns added and then multiplied by 6.7 so that the total adds up to 100%. Since one subject did not answer Part II, the number of subjects who responded will differ when compared to the answers from Table 1.

Table 2 shows that none of the subjects' forced answers put them above 50% in any of the leadership approach. The results show that when forced to make choices regarding leadership approach, most subjects choose a directive or control- informational approach or a collaborative approach. It also shows that 25% of the time leaders will use a nondirective approach to leadership.

Table 2
Part II: Forced Choices of Leadership Approach

	About 100% of the time	About 75% of the time	About 50% of the time	About 25% of the time	About 0% of the time
Directive- Informational (or –control)	0	0	5	5	1
Collaborative	0	0	6	4	1
Nondirective	0	0	1	9	1

Note: N = 11.

Although the subjects were not limited to a 100% total on Part I, the forced answers in Part II were limited to a 100% total. Each choice was part of a percentage of the whole.

Table 3 shows both predictive and forced choice scores per subjects. The first number is a percentage that was predicted in Part I and the second number is a percentage from Part II that adds up to 100%. In some cases, the prediction is similar to the forced choice.

The biggest discrepancy in Table 3 appears in the differences between the percentages in the collaborative column. All the administrators predicted that they use a collaborative approach at least 50% of the time, yet the forced choices in Part II indicate that is not the case. Based on forced choices of how they believe leaders should respond to leadership situations it appears administrators are not very good predictors of their actual leadership preference.

Table 3

Instructional Leadership Beliefs Inventory: Part I and Part II

Subject #	Directive/Control	Collaborative	Nondirective
2	75%- 20.1%	50%- 13.4%	50%- 33.5%
3	75%- 53.6%	50%- 26.8%	50%- 20.1%
4	50%- 40.2%	75%- 33.5%	75%- 26.8%
5	50%- 33.5%	50%- 26.8%	50%- 33.5%
7	50%- 40.2%	50%- 40.2%	0%- 20.1%
8	25%- 13.4%	50%- 46.9%	25%- 40.2%
9	75%- 53.6%	75%- 20.1%	50%- 26.8%
10	0%- 20.1%	75%- 53.6%	25%- 26.8%
11	25%- ----	75%- ----	50%- ----
12	25%- 26.8%	75%- 46.9%	50%- 26.8%
13	50%- 46.9%	50%- 40.2%	0%- 12.4%
14	25%- 20.1%	75%- 53.6%	0%- 25.8%

Note: N = 12 for Part I, N = 11 for Part II.

Results of the Keirsey Temperament Sorter

There are 16 possible personality types that result from scoring the questions on the Temperament Sorter. Of the 16 types only six types were represented in this study. Table 4 shows the number of respondents per type and the number of respondents who scored in which of the four personality functions and preferences.

Table 4

Number of Personality Types, Functions and Preferences

Type	Number	Function – NF or NT	Preference – SP or SJ
ESTP	1		1 - SP
ESTJ	2		2 - SJ
ESFJ	2		2 - SJ
ISFJ	3		3 - SJ
INFJ	1	1 - NF	
INTP	1	1 - NT	

Note: N = 10. ESTP = Extroversion-Sensing-Thinking-Perceiving; ESTJ = Extroversion-Sensing-Thinking-Judging; ESFJ = Extroversion-Sensing-Feeling-

Judging; ISFJ = Introversion-Sensing-Feeling-Judging; INFJ = Introversion-Intuition-Feeling-Judging; INTP = Introversion-Intuition-Thinking-Perceiving.

There were two subjects who chose not to complete the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). Of the 10 subjects who completed the sorter, there were two subjects who scored orienting functions, NF or NT (how we relate to others), and the other eight subjects scored orientations that reflect attitudes towards the outside world (SP or SJ).

Due to the low number of subjects not all personality types were represented. However, all functions were represented, even if in small numbers. Of the two administrators who did not provide personality information, one admitted that she forgot and did not have the time to resubmit it and the other refused the information. However, the administrator who refused to submit the personality data did complete both sections of the leadership beliefs inventory.

Results of Research Questions

There were two research questions developed for this study and three hypotheses. The first question asked how personality type was related to leadership approach and the second asked to what extent personality type relates to leadership approach. The three hypotheses set out to answer these questions.

H1 predicted a strong correlation between the NF function and collaborative leadership approach. H2 predicted a strong correlation between NT function and directive leadership. H3 predicted low correlations between personality type and leadership approach.

Both Pearson Correlation and Scattergram were run to examine the relationship and strength of the relationship between the variables using a critical value of $p < .05$. There were no significant differences found between either type or function on leadership approach. The correlation between personality type and leadership approach (using Part II - forced choice) was $r = -.506$ ($p = .14$). No relationship was evident. The correlation between personality function and leadership approach (using Part II - forced choice) was $r = -.374$ ($p = .29$). Again, no relationship is evident.

The first question of the study asked how personality type was related to leadership approach. The results found that there was no relationship. The second question dealt with the extent that personality related to approach. Based on the results of this study, there is no degree of relationship between personality and leadership approach.

H1 predicted a strong correlation between the NF function and collaborative leadership approach. There was only one subject who scored an NF function. That subject predicted that their leadership preference was directive, yet scored a nondirective leadership preference in Part II of the forced choices.

H2 predicted a strong correlation between NT function and directive leadership. Again, there was only one subject who scored NT and although that subject did predict and score a directive leadership approach, one sample would not satisfy a significant relationship.

H3 predicted low correlations between personality type and leadership approach. The results upheld this hypothesis.

Summary of Data Analysis

There were 12 subjects that responded to the data instruments. Ten subjects responded to the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984) and 12 subjects responded to Glickman's Leadership Beliefs Inventory Part I and Part II (Glickman, 2002). Of the 12 subjects that responded to the Beliefs Inventory, one subject did not complete the forced choice section, Part II. Therefore, there were missing data pieces in both personality and leadership data. All subjects completed the questionnaire items.

No significant correlations were found between personality type and leadership preference or personality function and leadership preference. However, not all personality types were represented due to the small sample size. Data regarding age, years in administration, and years in the classroom were examined for frequency and percentage.

Most administrators were between the ages of 40-50 (42%) and had been administrators between 4-6 years (42%). Thirty-three percent of the administrators had been classroom teachers between 4-6 years and 25% of them had spent 10-12 years in the classroom.

Table 5 shows how each subject responded in terms of personality type, leadership approach from Part II of the forced choice section, years in the classroom, and age.

Table 5
Subject Responses

Subject	Type	Leadership	Age	Admin Yrs.	Class Yrs.
2	INFJ	Nondirective	50-60	13+	10-12
3	ESTJ	Directive	40-50	4-6	10-12
4	ISFJ	Directive	30-40	4-6	4-6
5	----	Directive/Non	50-60	13+	1-3
7	ESTP	Dir/Collab	30-40	4-6	10-12
8	ISFJ	Collaborative	40-50	7-9	13+
9	ISFJ	Directive	50-60	7-9	13+
10	ESFJ	Collaborative	40-50	4-6	7-9
11	ESFJ	-----	30-40	4-6	4-6
12	ESTJ	Collaborative	40-50	7-9	1-3
13	INTP	Directive	40-50	7-9	4-6
14	----	Collaborative	30-40	1-3	4-6

Note: N = 12.

There were two subjects on Part II of the Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002) that had equal percentages for two of the leadership approaches. This is reflected in the split leadership preference column. Subject 5 had identical percentages (33.5%) in both directive and non-directive preferences, and subject 7 had identical percentages (40.2%) in both directive and collaborative leadership preferences.

Because years in the classroom, years as an administrator, and age were queried in ranges instead of exact years, their averages were not calculated. It looked like there might be a relationship between years in administration and leadership preference, although no significant difference ($p < .05$) was found, $r = .54$ ($p = .69$). The researcher ran a Pearson Correlation between predicted leadership preference and forced choice leadership preference and found a slight, but not significant relationship, $r = .47$ ($p = .14$). There were no other relationships detected between years in the classroom and preference or age and leadership preference.

Discussion

Leadership, although well studied, has not been directly linked to personality. Although Schneider and Burton (2005) found that personality traits may affect leadership characteristics, and Gracia (2006) studied, but did not find conclusive,

elements of personality traits related to interpersonal leadership, the question still arises: Is leadership approach related to personality type or function? Additionally, a question is what extent is personality related to leadership. Those were the questions that this researcher set out to explore.

Leaders individually may have a leadership approach preference, yet should try to use an approach that facilitates success. Recognizing that one approach from one leader may not be the best for a given situation (Lambert, 2002); a leader should assess the strengths and weaknesses of self and others to create a situation that leads to appropriate leadership (Howard, 2005).

Understanding one's leadership approach and developing the ability to use all approaches depending on the situation, however, may not be humanly possible in that leadership behaviors may be inherent traits. Zaccaro (2007) presents the argument that leader traits are inherent and relatively stable, although may be altered through maturation, experience, and training interventions. These traits are integrated patterns of personal characteristics or personality attributes. Which leads one to ask, "Can personality type affect leadership approach?"

Only six personality types were represented in the current study, although all four personality functions were represented. Three administrators had ISFJ type – the type that is associated with being quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious; and devoted to meet their obligations and lend stability to any group or project (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Two administrators had ESFJ type – the type associated with being warm-hearted, conscientious, and born cooperators (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Two administrators were ESTJ – the type associated with being an administrator, organizing and running activities (Myers & McCaulley). And, one administrator represented each of the following types: ESTP – the promoter or one that is good at solving problems on-the-spot; INFJ – the type with a clear vision yet is quietly forceful in serving the "common good" (Myers & McCaulley, p. 21); and, INTP – the designer of ideas.

All four personality functions/preferences were represented. Seven administrators had the SJ preference – the preference that focuses on the organization as a whole. SJ leaders are good communicators and create social responsibility and stability within the organization (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). One administrator had the SP preference – the diplomat or negotiator and one who is effective when there is 'war' declared between factions on a campus. The SP leader negotiates for a win-win situation, has a great sense of reality sometimes ignoring rules and goals.

And one administrator had the NF function and one had the NT function. The NF function is associated with bringing out the best in people. This leader will listen to the needs of others and create a climate of initiative (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). The NT leader is a planner and conveys enthusiasm for change. They have no

problem allowing others to take over the execution of ideas, but expectations of self and others are very high.

A total of 12 middle and junior high school administrators completed the study. Although gender was on the demographic questionnaire, it was not used as part of the data analysis. Since there were only four males in the study, it would be easy to identify the subjects and violate subject protection of confidentiality.

Frequency and percentages for age, years as an administrator, and years as a classroom teacher were calculated. Most of the administrators (42%) were between the ages of 40 and 50, yet spent less than six years in the classroom before becoming an administrator (50%). Fifty percent of those surveyed had also been administrators less than six years. There were two subjects who had 13 or more years of classroom experience and one of them fell in the 50-60 age range and the other fell between the 40-50 age ranges. They both have been administrators between 7-9 years.

The results of the Beliefs Inventory Part I and Part II (Glickman, 2002) indicate that administrators are not very good at predicting their leadership approach. Most administrators predicted that they used a collaborative leadership approach at least 50% of the time or more, yet the results of the forced choice section, Part II, indicated that most of the administrators use the collaborative approach 40% of the time or less. Only two administrators use the collaborative approach most of the time (53.6%) as determined by the forced choices in Part II. One administrator was in the classroom 7-9 years, the other 4-6 years, and one has been an administrator 4-6 years, the other 1-3 years. The personality type of one of the collaborative administrators is ESFJ, function SJ; the second administrator did not complete the Temperament Sorter so the personality data is not available.

The Pearson Correlation and Scattergram were run to determine relationship and strength of relationship between personality type and leadership approach, and between personality function/preference and leadership approach. Both analyses used forced choice Part II of the Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002) to determine leadership approach. There were no significant differences found between either type or function on leadership approach.

Conclusions

Two research questions and three hypotheses were developed for this study. The questions asked how personality type was related to leadership approach and to what extent personality type related to leadership approach.

H1 predicted a strong correlation between the NF function and the collaborative leadership approach. No statistical significance was found. There was only one subject who scored NF. The subject actually scored a preference for a nondirective leadership approach (33.5%), based on forced choice Part II of the Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002).

H2 predicted a strong correlation between NT function and directive leadership. Again, no statistical significance was found. There was only one subject who scored NT. The subject did score a leadership preference of directive leadership (46.9%) based on forced choice Part II on the Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002), but one sample would not create a significant analysis.

H3 predicted low correlations between personality type and leadership approach. The correlation between personality type and leadership approach (Part II - forced choice) was $r = -.506$ ($p = .14$), no significant relationship was evident.

One interesting finding was that 70% of the subjects in the study were SJ personality preference, compared to the 56% that Keirsey reports for teachers and administrators (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). Each of the other personality functions/preferences of NF, NT, and SP represented 10% of respondents in the study whereas Keirsey reports NF = 36%, NT = 6%, and SP = 2% for teachers and administrators.

It appears that the subjects in the study tend to focus on the goals of the district and are leaders who have a great sense of obligation and will provide stability in developing strategies that support the district vision. All of the SJ respondents in the study have been administrators less than 10 years; four have experience in the range of 4-6 years and three subjects have experience in the range of 7-9 years. The current superintendent of the school district has been there a little more than seven years.

Cronin, Hiller, and Smith (2006) discuss effective leadership and the ability of the leader to understand their approach and how it relates to the mission of the organization. They see leadership as an evolutionary process, one that allows the leader to switch gears and use the appropriate approach depending on the situation. Yet, the results of the study indicate that administrators are poor at predicting their leadership approach and when forced to make a choice will choose either a directive or collaborative approach.

Roberts and Pomerantz (2004) address the issue of nature and nurture in personality and its stability and agree that personality becomes more stable with age and life span experience. If we consider that 70% of the subjects (SJ preference) show indications of qualities that support the whole organization, it would be interesting to find out if they are in their position because they have the

SJ preference or if they have adapted their personality orientation based on the expectations of the organization.

Although there were no statistically significant data yielded from the research, there were several areas of interest. Administrators are not good predictors of their leadership approach. An aspect for further research would be to include faculty as part of the Leadership Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002). Glickman suggests that administrators “ask those you work with to anonymously fill out the survey as well, to reveal how they see you in action” (p. 45). Having the perceptions of those you lead will give greater understanding of the interactions one has as the instructional leader on a campus.

A larger sample size might yield better analyses concerning gender, type and function/preferences, and leadership approach. Of the seven subjects who scored SJ preferences from this study, three of them scored a directive leadership approach and three scored a collaborative leadership approach; one subject did not complete the Beliefs Inventory Part II, although predicted a collaborative approach. An examination of the demographic information not reported, it appears that gender may be a factor, but further research will have to be done to confirm or deny any postulation.

Although gender was on the demographic questionnaire, it was not used as part of the data analysis. Since there were only four males in the study, it would be easy to identify the subjects and violate subject protection of confidentiality. The number of males versus females who have certain personality types and leadership approaches would be of interest. Perhaps personality is related to gender, or leadership approach is related to gender, or there is a correlation between certain genders’ personality type and their leadership approach.

Race is another factor to be considered. The current study did not include ethnicity as part of the questionnaire because the researcher knew that only two of the administrators were African-American and the others were Caucasian. Again, the concern for confidentiality and subject protection prevented the researcher to include any ethnicity information.

Recommendations for Further Research

Being able to predict a leadership approach based on a personality test might be great information for districts as they hire administrators to provide the instructional leadership on a variety of campuses. Each campus has a unique environment and the ability to put the “right” administrator in the “right” place would be ideal. However, further research concerning the relationship between personality and leadership is needed.

A large sample size might yield a greater number of personality types represented. Future researchers must also take into account that over one-half of administrators taking the Keirsey Temperament Sorter (Keirsey & Bates, 1984) will reflect the SJ preference. In order to collect enough data to offset the preponderance of a certain preference, a large sample would be advised. Gender and race should also be factors considered for data collection along with number of years as an administrator, number of years as a classroom teacher, and age.

Having faculty members complete the Beliefs Inventory (Glickman, 2002) along with the principals might give greater insight into differences between predicted, perceived, and actual leadership approaches. It would be interesting to see how teachers' perceptions of an administrators' leadership align with the administrators' predicted and forced choice leadership approach.

Predictive research must use caution when considering using a single piece of evidence for employment and placement. Civil rights and discrimination issues may arise. Gracia (2006) recommends that if using an instrument for employment purposes, districts would be advised to select an instrument that has "documented statistical evidence which substantiates that the assessment accurately measure the qualities that the district is seeking that it is job-related and nondiscriminatory" (p. 124).

Summary

So then, are leaders born or developed? Cronin, Hiller, and Smith (2006) suggest that leaders do not develop by themselves; rather they must grow through the right experiences and have the right training opportunities. They argue that traits may be inherent, but only through experience and maturation can they develop. On the other hand, Zaccaro (2007) supports the trait-based perspective of leadership and Galton's theory that leaders are born while Roberts and Pomerantz (2004) provide a middle view that includes both inherent traits and situational experiences.

Roberts and Pomerantz (2004) bring into account age, time, types of change, and sensitivity of persons that affect personality. They conclude that even the meanings of situations shifts with age and suggest that both personality and situations cannot be fully understood "until both the modest consistency in personality early in life and the strong consistency in personality later in life are considered in conjunction with the situational changes that occur as people progress through life" (p. 404).

To be able to predict an effective leader based on personality is not a reality based on current research. Much more research in this area is needed before any conclusions can be drawn.

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Biography

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The Emotional Intelligence of Leaders as Antecedent to Leader-Member Exchanges: A Field Study

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Abstract

Eighty elected leaders and 388 followers were sampled to test the relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence and the quality of leader-member exchange. Results of the field study found a significant relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence (total) and leader-member exchange quality. Specific subscales of emotional intelligence were also predictive of leader-member exchange theory. Leaders' empathetic response and interpersonal skills each correlated with leader-member exchange. Implications and directions for research are discussed.

Introduction

Antecedents of leader-member exchange (LMX) behavior have been studied extensively during the past thirty years. Many variables have been analyzed with LMX including relationship among subordinates within work units (e.g., Graen & Schiemann, 1987), role of leader emotional expression (Sherony, 2004), and transformational leadership behaviors (Basu, 1991); however, no research has addressed a direct linkage between a leader's emotional intelligence and LMX relationships. A literature search of research databases including PsychINFO, Academic Source and Business Source Elite yielded only two published articles connecting leader-member exchange loosely with emotional intelligence and emotional expression (Ashkanasy, 2002; Sherony, 2004) along with a handful of

unpublished dissertations.

The opportunity to tie emotional intelligence (behavior-based) with leader-member exchanges provides great potential for advancing the leadership field. With both the emotional intelligence and leader member exchange sub-fields continuing to grow, it is necessary to test the potential correlates between the two constructs. Like most leadership theories, the antecedents (or predictors) of LMX are largely untapped and require extensive research. This study contributes to the LMX literature by testing emotional intelligence as an antecedent.

Literature Review

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory conceptualizes leadership as process that is understood by the quality of interactions and opportunities surrounding the dyadic relationships between leaders and their members (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). While most leadership research focused on identifying best practices for optimizing organizational outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, motivation, goal attainment) LMX research describes the leadership dynamics that take place implicitly and explicitly in organizations.

Leaders develop different exchange relationships with each employee, leading to an in-group and out-group phenomenon (Graen, 1976). Members of the in-group have preferred access to information and opportunities to expand their knowledge and experience-base with increased responsibilities and autonomy. In-group members are more highly involved and more communicative than out-group members (Dansereau, et al., 1975). Members of the out-group typically have functional or transactional relationships with leaders, with less autonomy or opportunities for job enrichment (Graen, Dansereau, & Minami, 1972). Over time, members of the in-group have been found to have higher morale and higher job satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Researchers have also found that LMX quality is positively related to less employee turnover (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993), high frequency of promotions, greater organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990), more desirable work assignments, better job attitudes, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation, and faster career progress (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Taken together, developing a high LMX leads to many positive outcomes.

The antecedents of LMX have been tested using such variables as similarity-differences between leader and member (e.g., personality, attitude, education) and follower-based variables (education, ingratiating behavior, impression management) (Liden, et al., 1993; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Goertzen and Fritz

(2004) reviewed gender differences in the LMX literature and reported no consistent differences. Gerstner and Day (1997) reviewed the entire LMX field by conducting a meta-analysis, summarizing over 164 studies testing LMX, to generalize validity of the construct. Despite hundreds of studies testing LMX, its impacts and its antecedents, the role of emotional intelligence has not been tested.

Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer (1990) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence in their work which combines affect with cognition, emotion and intelligence. Their concept proposed that emotional intelligence was the ability to use emotions to assist in solving problems and live a more effective life. Emotional intelligence gained wide attention following the success of best-selling books (Goleman, 1995, 1998). Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) proposed that emotional intelligence can enhance workplace performance.

Carson, Carson, and Birkenmeier (2000) developed a measure of emotional intelligence based on Goleman's five behavior-based factors – (a) *empathetic response* - the ability to understand the emotional frame of other people, (b) *mood regulation* - the ability to regulate and manage one's moods and impulses, (c) *interpersonal skill* - the ability to manage relationships and build positive networks, (d) *internal motivation* – the ability to influence the environment and pursue goals for the greater good while delaying immediate gratification, and (e) *self-awareness* – the ability to self-monitor moods, emotions and drives and their effects on others.

Studies have not tested the relationships between emotional intelligence and LMX, but two have tested leaders' emotional expression (operationalized as emotional feedback) and LMX (Ashkanasy, 2002; Sherony, 2004). Both utilized a measure of LMX, but neither tested emotional intelligence. Since both studies found that emotionally-driven affect were related to LMX, it is expected that emotional intelligence, which involves emotionally-driven aptitude, will relate positively to the quality of LMX.

Barbuto and Burbach (2006) reported a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Some scholars have characterized high LMX with transformational leadership, which leads to some belief that antecedents of transformational leadership should also be antecedents for high leader member exchanges (Basu, 1991; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Stedman and Andenoro (2007) studied emotional intelligence aptitude to test critical thinking disposition and found significant relationships amongst undergraduate students. While these speak to the importance of emotional intelligence in young adults and in educational settings – its impact on leader

member exchange is not inferred. Antonakis, Ashkanasy, and Dasborough (2009) reviewed the literature and concluded that while promising there is still little known about emotional intelligence and its role in leadership.

This study is the first in the leadership field linking emotional intelligence to LMX – which makes it exploratory by nature. However, given the results of prior studies testing similar constructs we expect:

Hypothesis

Leaders' emotional intelligence will be positively related to follower's ratings of the quality of Leader-Member Exchanges (LMX).

Methods

Procedures

Data were collected from an intact group of elected officials as part of a full-day leadership-training seminar for members of an association that sponsors annual professional development programs for its members. Leaders were asked to fill out the emotional intelligence measure and return it directly to the first author in a postage paid envelope – approximately 4 weeks prior to the workshop. Each leader was asked to solicit four to six followers to complete the rater version of the LMX-7 – also approximately 4 weeks prior to the workshop. Instruments were coded to protect the identities of raters; however, leaders' names were kept on a separate coding sheet for interpretation and feedback. All instruments were returned directly to the first author via United States mail service. Participants and their raters were provided a letter detailing their participation and rights, which included the right to withdraw at any time during the research process. None of the participants asked to be removed from the study. Because elected officials had pre-registered for the conference, the response rate is less relevant; however, 80 of the eligible 88 elected officials participated in the study. This high participation rate indicates that participants were keenly interested in the information.

Participants

Participants were 80 elected community leaders and 388 raters working with them in the Midwest United States. Leaders attended a leadership development workshop for elected officials and were members of a statewide professional organization, which sponsored the event. The average age of subjects was 51 years. Fifty percent had earned a bachelors degree and 20% had earned an advanced degree. Sixty-five percent were women. Ratets were direct employees of the leaders and reported an average age of 46 years. Forty-two percent of raters

had earned a bachelors degree, with less than 10% had earned an advanced degree. Fifty-three percent were women.

Measures

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence was measured with the instrument developed by Carson, et al. (2000). This instrument contains 30 self-report items rated on a five point Likert-type scale. Each of the five subscales (empathetic response, mood regulation, interpersonal skills, internal motivation, and self-awareness) consisted of six items. Two representative items from the Emotional Intelligence scale are (a) I am keenly aware of the feelings of other people and (b) I can regulate my moods so that they do not overwhelm me. Because the measure is relatively new, we also calculated a single factor subscale, consisting of all 30 items, which we labeled, *emotional intelligence*. It demonstrated internal consistency, as evidenced by acceptable coefficient alphas ranging from .75 to .91 (see Table 1).

Leader-Member Exchange. The dyadic relationship of LMX was measured using the LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984). The LMX-7 was recently recognized in a meta-analysis as the gold standard for measuring leader-member exchange (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The measure consists of seven items assessed on a Likert-type scale with a five point response scale. Two representative items from the LMX-7 are (a) regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your immediate supervisor would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work and (b) how would you characterize your working relationship with your immediate supervisor. In this study the LMX-7 achieved a coefficient alpha of .89, indicating strong internal reliability.

Findings

Simple statistics and correlations were calculated for all variables of interest in the study (see Table 1). There was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence (total) and follower LMX ($r = .15$; $p < .01$). A significant positive relationship also was found between follower LMX and emotional intelligence behavior-based factors empathetic response ($r = .16$; $p < .01$) and interpersonal skills ($r = .13$; $p < .05$). These relationships were small, but achieved the recommended power level ($p < .05$, two tailed test, $n = 388$) (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The relationship therefore is deemed significant, albeit with a small effect.

Table 1
Simple Statistics and Correlations for Emotional Intelligence and LMX

	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Emotional Intelligence	78.64	7.72	.91						
2. Empathetic Response	16.13	3.31	.54**	.90					
3. Mood Regulation	11.52	3.56	.52**	-.09	.76				
4. Interpersonal Skills	14.30	1.78	.53**	.48**	.10	.81			
5. Internal Motivation	25.32	4.40	.60**	.07	-.02	.08	.86		
6. Self Awareness	11.35	2.29	.34**	-.13**	.25**	.11*	.03	.75	
7. LMX	3.15	0.69	.15**	.16**	.02	.13*	.08	-.02	.89

**p < .01. *p < .05. Coefficient alphas presented on diagonals.

Conclusions/Recommendations/Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. Using a field study of 80 elected officials and 388 of their colleagues we found several significant relationships. A significant relationship between leader's emotional intelligence and LMX in-group ranking was found. This indicates that the more emotional intelligence that leaders have, the stronger the quality of relationships they formed with followers. Leaders that have and use higher degrees of emotional intelligence are therefore more likely to develop better relationships with their followers. Similarly, Long and Schultz (1973) found that leaders' empathetic response led to greater depth of self-exploration in followers. Haddad and Smarneh (1999) reported that leaders' supportive interpersonal orientations increased member positive perceptions, feelings and job satisfaction. Taken together, the results of this study may have been foretold by past studies testing similar, but not the same constructs.

A significant relationship was found between emotional intelligence and the leader-member exchange for followers. This indicates that leaders with high emotional intelligence will also be strong in developing relationships that promote greater flow of information, sharing of influence, increased confidence and concern for followers, and achieve more highly involved and more communicative followers. In turn, leaders with high emotional intelligence and high levels of LMX will produce work units with less employee turnover, more positive performance evaluations, high frequency of promotions, greater organizational commitment, better job assignments, better attitude towards job, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation, and faster career progress (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Research Implications

This study has focused on the relationships between emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. While the impacts of leader-member exchange are frequently reported, empirical investigations of the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and LMX requires additional study. As emotional intelligence continues to evolve as a viable construct in the field, the empirical testing of its impact on individuals, groups, organizations, and communities will offer direction for discovery of its determinants. Testing the impacts of emotional intelligence alongside a long tested construct like LMX has led to identifying the need for more research testing other potential leadership behaviors or styles. Additionally, other antecedents of leader-member exchange need to continue to be studied. The results of this study demonstrate a significant, albeit small relationship. Other variables such as liking, ingratiation, and conscientiousness better correlate with LMX than emotional intelligence has in this study (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Emotional intelligence requires more research to establish its impact on organizational behaviors and outcomes. A recent review of the research on emotional intelligence in leadership concluded that caution must be taken – because few studies have validated behavioral frameworks using emotional intelligence (Anotakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009). Future studies may test emotional intelligence with such leadership styles as servant leadership, transformational leadership, and authentic leadership. The role that emotional intelligence plays in other contexts – groups, formal and non-formal education settings, and in interpersonal influence needs extensive attention in the leadership and organizational behavior realm. The antecedents of emotional intelligence are also open for frameworks and research designs – and necessary to establish the extent to which it is innate or learned.

Practical Implications

Research indicates that the quality of leader-member exchange relates to many positive performance related outcomes for followers including lower turnover (Liden, et al., 1993), higher overall satisfaction (Graen, et al., 1982), greater satisfaction with supervisors (e.g., Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986), and strong organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990). One practical implication of this result is that recruiting and selecting activities may include emotional aptitudes, such as emotional intelligence, in the screening process. Identifying leaders high in emotional intelligence will increase the likelihood of selecting leaders more likely to develop strong LMX.

Recruiting managers are cautioned not to overestimate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange. While the relationship was

significant in this study, it explained less than 5% of the total variance in leader-member exchange. This means that 95% of the explanation comes from other factors. Continued efforts to study antecedents of leader-member exchange (LMX) are salient for advancing the field and informing practice for effective recruiting, selecting, and developing of effective leadership. Emotional intelligence may have great potential as a screening or developmental tool, but its applications should be limited until more is known about what positive outcomes and behaviors it can predict in organizations.

Final Thoughts

There is a small relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and the quality of relationships they develop with their followers. Leaders' self-awareness of their and others emotions appears to matter when it comes to predicting leader-follower relationships. Continued research is necessary before recommending formal or non-formal curriculum changes as the antecedents and leadership impacts of emotional intelligence are largely unknown still. Efforts to study emotional intelligence across a wide range of leadership constructs and behavioral frameworks are encouraged. Further research in multiple contexts such as educational, business, not-for-profit, or public is also encouraged so that emotional intelligence frameworks may be generalized and validated.

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Research Themes, Authors, and Methodologies in the *Journal of Leadership Education*: A Five-Year Look

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Abstract

According to a survey of professionals in agricultural education, *The Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE)* is a new and primary outlet of leadership education research and professional scholarship. The purpose of this study was to assess five years of JOLE's primary and secondary research theme areas, frequent primary and secondary research themes by year, prolific authorship, and research methods and types using a mixed-methods design. A compilation of the research results is reported. Research themes appear cyclic and add little to improving an apparent lack of research continuity. Research must continue to determine cycle depth and the influence on research in leadership education as an integrated specialization area of agricultural education. This research may be used comparatively with the National Research Agenda to determine where future research should be focused.

Introduction

The mission of agricultural education included charges to develop abilities in effective leadership as early as 1976 (Brown & Fritz, 1994). In 1989 the Strategic Plan for Agricultural Education identified the need to "amplify and expand the whole person concept of education, including leadership" (National Summit on Agricultural Education, 1989, p. 4). It is a charge of agricultural education to provide leadership education (Brown & Fritz, 1994).

According to Gardner (1990), leadership at all levels in society needs to be developed. Kouzes and Posner (1987; 1988) indicated that leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices, and effective leaders are constantly looking for ways to improve themselves and their departments. Universities have recognized the need and benefits that formal leadership instruction can offer in the classroom and in extracurricular programs (Hays, 1999).

Post-secondary institutions are fulfilling the need for leadership development via curricular and co-curricular offerings, and often leadership development and education is found in departments of agriculture (Fritz & Brown, 1998). The content of leadership courses hinges on several important considerations: (a) students' comfort level with the concept of leadership, (b) identification of leadership elements, (c) acceptance of leadership as a process, (d) greater awareness of the practice of leadership, (e) establishment of leadership purpose, (f) development of a personal leadership approach, (g) enhancement of analytical skills, and (h) sharing new and emerging leadership theories (Lewis, 1995; Watt, 1995; Wren, 1994). Leadership education also encompasses agricultural educators who recognize the need to implement strategies to be leaders and effectively educate students to develop into leaders who possess the ability to effectively

guide and direct future industry (Birkenholz & Schumacher, 1993). Leadership by its nature is multidisciplinary and leadership education often flows over into other disciplines. In the *National Research Agenda [NRA]: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007–2010*, leadership education is identified as one of the five integrated specialization areas that drive agricultural education today (Osborne, n.d.).

Leadership scholars have warned organizations to ensure their survival in rapidly changing times by becoming learning- or knowledge-based organizations that foster growth and creativity (Bridges, 1996; Senge, 1990). Successful organizations in the 21st century will be discernible by their ability to learn together (Senge, 1990). The changing organizational structure of higher education relies on greater faculty input and reflection in decision-making (Ellsworth & Iorizzo, 2001). Because departments of agricultural education are the major academic area that provides leadership education, it is important to understand areas of research occurring in leadership education and how this integrated specialization area supports the context of agricultural education. This research discussion will focus primarily on that academic area of leadership education and its impact on agricultural education.

Since the 1990s rapid growth in research and publishing activities under the broad umbrella of agricultural education has resulted in enormous growth of agricultural literature (Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1995). New research outlets have been created. The *Journal of Leadership Education (JOLE)* was created in 2002. Mannebach (1990) indicated that changes have occurred at an unprecedented rate in agricultural education. Research needs to be conducted regarding leadership education needs in agricultural education to prioritize future research, training, and development (Spotanski & Carter, 1993).

With many leadership education programs housed in university departments of agricultural education, it is increasingly important to find ways to collaborate with and within these units while strengthening our own unique research agendas. Previously, Newcomb (1993) recognized the need for increasing collaborations in agricultural education. He encouraged universities to broaden programs by offering leadership education, agricultural communications, extension education, and international development, and further add depth to teacher education programs. It seems natural that if leadership units are housed in agricultural education departments that initiatives should be formed to incorporate leadership development and education courses into agricultural education programs. However, if leadership education research is not perceived to be at a level equal to agricultural education research, it may be challenging to further form and build successful collaborations in the five integrated specialization areas outlined in the *NRA* (e.g., agricultural communications, agricultural leadership, extension and outreach education, agricultural education in university and postsecondary

settings, and school-based agricultural education). The *NRA* was created as a guide for developing futuristic research (Osborne, n.d.). Yet, how can we be sure where we are headed with research, and if the direction is adequate and appropriate, if we are unclear as to where we have been?

The need for this research is grounded in research by several individuals. Knight (1984) posited that a discipline's journals and magazines are good indicators of research priorities in the discipline. Radhakrishna and Xu (1997) found that research journal articles are indicators of the profession's scientific activity, philosophy, and application. Ball and Knobloch (2005) indicated that it is critical for practitioners to examine the knowledge base of the field to allow the profession to reflect upon actions and ultimately improve the discipline. Crunkilton (1988) identified the need for agricultural researchers to know where research can and should go in the pursuit to develop empirical knowledge. Doerfert (2003), Tucker (2004), and Whiting (2002) called on researchers to examine their discipline, focus research, create cohesion, and develop goal-oriented visions. Miller, Stewart, and West (2006) identified the need to review literature to maintain a clear sense of the discipline's research agenda. Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007) indicated the need to examine core knowledge objects and knowledge domains to advance research. The expressed need to focus disciplines, examine their knowledge base, and review their literature creates a need to examine research in leadership education and the other integrated specialization areas as outlined in the *NRA*.

Due to the infancy of *JOLE*, it is imperative to incorporate a holistic examination of the critical components of leadership education research. This examination will allow the discipline to deepen its understanding of the current state of research and take a futuristic approach to knowledge pursuit, creation, and examination. The integrated specialization area of leadership education can examine many components: research theme areas, variety in research theme areas by year, prolifically-published authors, and types of research being conducted. Because a discipline's journals are indicators of research priorities (Knight, 1984), by analyzing research journal articles it should be possible to analyze dimensions of leadership education in *JOLE*. The review of literature failed to identify content analysis studies previously completed in leadership areas of focusing and research publishing. However, these studies have been popular in other disciplines, including agricultural education. Understanding research occurring in leadership education can assist the agricultural education discipline and other integrated specialization areas in identifying previous literary contexts, and determining if past research initiatives are fulfilling research needs as identified in the *NRA*. This study assisted in the creation of a leadership education research baseline by determining the experience-base of research occurring in *JOLE*.

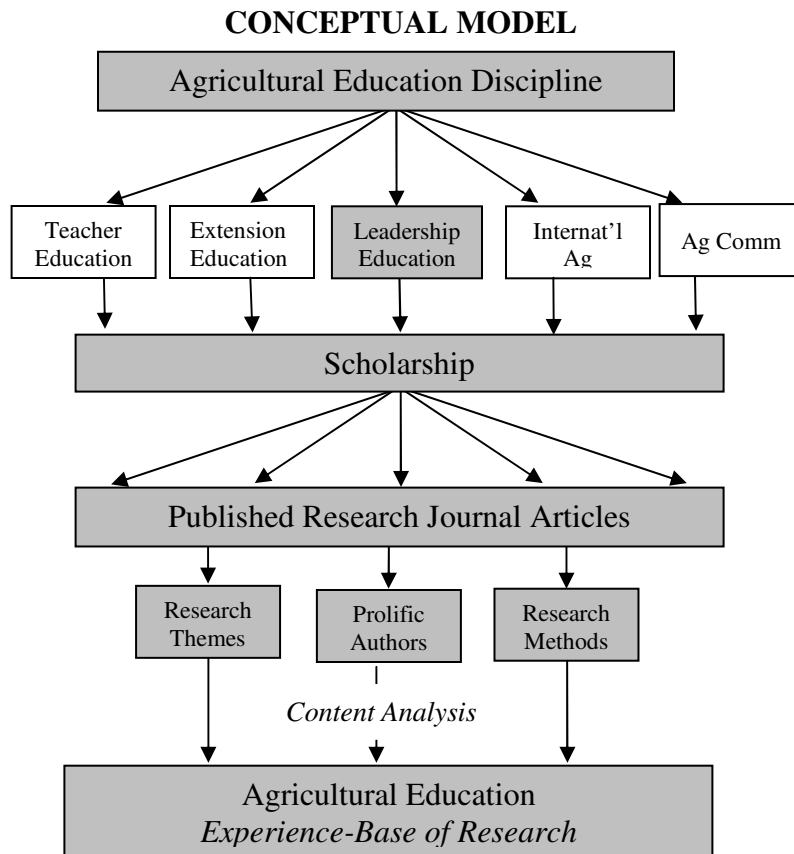
Conceptual Framework

The future of leadership education depends on many variables, and the application and acquisition of new knowledge via research is extremely important (Dyer, Haase-Wittler, & Washburn, 2003). Yet, the quality of research in agricultural education, including the integrated specialization area of leadership education, has been questioned for decades. In some cases it has been identified as inferior to other disciplines (Buriak & Shinn, 1993; Dyer et al., 2003; Radhakrishna & Xu, 1997; Silva-Guerrero & Sutphin, 1990; Warmbrod, 1986).

The conceptual framework of this study (see Figure 1) was grounded in work by scholars in five integrated specialization areas associated with agricultural education. Several researchers have completed various components of journal analysis in agricultural education: familiarity and quality of journals and importance of faculty publishing (Edgar, Edgar, Briers, & Rutherford, 2008; Miller et al., 2006; Radhakrishna, 1995; Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1993); research theme areas (Buriak & Shinn, 1993; Dyer et al., 2003; Edgar et al., 2008; Miller, Stewart, & West, 2006; Moore, 1991; Radhakrishna & Xu, 1997; Silva-Guerrero & Sutphin, 1990); prolific authors (Harder & Roberts, 2006; Radhakrishna & Jackson, 1995; Radhakrishna, Jackson, & Eaton, 1992); and statistical methods used (Bowen, Rollins, Baggett, & Miller, 1990; Dyer et al., 2003; Mannenbach, McKenna, & Pfau, 1984).

This study examined articles with research methodologies published in *JOLE* from its inception in 2002 to 2006. The study assessed primary and secondary research theme areas, authorship, and research methods and types. This research is the first step in identifying a research experience-base framework in leadership education using the premier leadership education journal as identified in a field study. Conceptually, this research examined leadership education with respect to its role in agricultural education. The experience-base gained from this research can then be used as a framework to suggest future research strategies when compared to the *NRA*.

Figure 1
Conceptual base of the study



Purpose and Objectives

The purposes of this study, which were part of a larger study, were to review research published in the *JOLE* from 2002 to 2006 to examine the status of the journal to provide a base from which to direct future research. *JOLE* is a research journal with authors who are university and college faculty-based as well as practitioner-based. The specific objective was to describe and synthesize published research in *JOLE* during the five-year period by (a) identifying primary and secondary research themes in published research articles, (b) identifying primary and secondary research theme areas among research articles published by year, (c) identifying the most prolific authors, and (d) identifying research methods and designs.

Research Methods and Procedures

This study employed a mixed-methods content analysis design. Content analysis as a research method has existed for decades, and the best content-analytic studies use mixed-methods methodology (Weber, 1990). Content analysis can be used to give researchers insight into problems or hypotheses that can then be tested by more direct methods. Content analysis is a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Berelson, 1952; Krippendorff, 1980; Weber, 1990).

Content validity was maintained using both previous research as a guide and a field study to focus the research. Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007) identified 104 individuals as active agricultural education research authors. A field questionnaire was developed and sent to 96 of those authors with valid email addresses. The contacted authors were asked to identify premier journals and to validate or add to research theme categories. Research theme categories were created based on previous content analyses of journals in the specialization areas of leadership education, teacher education, extension education, international agricultural education, and agricultural communications. These categories were provided to the pilot study. It was the respondents' responsibility to compress or expound on research theme areas. The pilot study identified 37 research theme areas for the five integrated specialization areas identified in the *NRA*. Dillman's (2000) Tailored Design Method was used. Sixty-two of the 96 possible respondents completed the questionnaire, yielding a 65% response rate.

The *JOLE* was identified as a premier journal in agricultural education by 42% of the respondents. *JOLE* was noted as the premier journal for the specialization area of leadership education and articles with research methodologies from 2002 to 2006 were analyzed. The main focus of each article (knowledge-base) was coded as the primary research theme area. The most prevalent supporting theme (conceptual-base) was identified as the secondary theme of each article. The principal investigator and a peer independently reviewed the material and formed a checklist of information required during the review of each journal article. The researchers compared notes and reconciled differences on their initial checklists via negotiations. Researchers used a consolidated checklist to independently apply coding. The researchers then checked for agreement in coding. If reliability was not acceptable then the previous steps were repeated. Once reliability had been established the coding was applied on a large-scale basis. The final stage was a periodic quality control check (Weber, 1990). Inter-coder reliability was completed with at least 10% overlap for the reliability test. Final reliability was calculated using a random sample of 5% of the analyzed articles. Reliability was assessed using Spearman's rho. Reliabilities met or exceeded the minimum standard of .70 (Bowen et al., 1990; Tuckman, 1999).

Findings

There were 45 *JOLE* articles that met the selection criteria for analysis. Primary research themes identified are shown in Table 1. There were 17 primary research themes identified in the five-year content analysis. The most frequently identified primary research theme was leadership development (31.1%). The second most frequent primary research theme was leadership education (24.4%). Additionally, those primary research theme areas identified in research articles occurring 6.7% or less are identified in the table.

Table 1
Primary Research Themes

Research Theme	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
Leadership Development	14	31.1
Leadership Education	11	24.4
Service and Experiential Learning	3	6.7
Youth Leadership and Development	3	6.7
Volunteer Development and Leadership	2	4.4
Academic Programs	1	2.2
Career Development and Assessment	1	2.2
Communication Management	1	2.2
Diffusion of Innovation	1	2.2
Evaluation	1	2.2
Formal and Informal Teaching Approaches	1	2.2
Instructional and Program Delivery		
Approaches	1	2.2
Leadership Management	1	2.2
Needs Assessment	1	2.2
Professional Development	1	2.2
Research (methods and models)	1	2.2
Teacher Preparation and Competence	1	2.2

(*N* = 45)

Secondary research themes identified are displayed in Table 2. There were 23 secondary research theme areas identified. The most frequently identified secondary research theme area was leadership education (17.8%). The second most frequently identified secondary research theme areas were academic programs and leadership development (8.9%). Additionally, those secondary research themes identified 6.7% or less is identified in the table.

Table 2
Secondary Research Themes

Research Theme	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
Leadership Education	8	17.8
Academic Programs	4	8.9
Leadership Development	4	8.9
Evaluation	3	6.7
Organizational Development and Leadership	3	6.7
Accountability	2	4.4
Diversity (culture, ethnicity, gender)	2	4.4
Formal and Informal Teaching Approaches	2	4.4
Skill Development and Competencies	2	4.4
Table 2 (continued)		
Research Theme	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
Youth Leadership and Development	2	4.4
Career Development and Assessment	1	2.2
Community Development and Leadership	1	2.2
Critical Thinking	1	2.2
Curriculum and Program Development	1	2.2
Framing	1	2.2
Globalization and Internationalization	1	2.2
Information Sources and Technology	1	2.2
Instructional and Program Delivery Approaches	1	2.2
Leadership Management	1	2.2
Needs Assessment	1	2.2
Processes, Principles, and Styles of Learning	1	2.2
Quality of Life and Life Skills	1	2.2
Volunteer Development and Leadership	1	2.2
<i>(N = 45)</i>		

Table 3 shows the most frequently occurring primary research themes by year. In addition, theme details, frequencies, and percentages are reported in the table.

Table 3
Most Identified Primary Research Themes

Year	Research Theme	<i>n</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
2002	Leadership Education	11	5	45.5
2003	Leadership Development	5	2	40.0
2004	Leadership Development	11	4	36.4
2005	Leadership Development	11	4	36.4
2006	Leadership Education	12	5	41.7

(*N* = 45)

Table 4 outlines the frequently used secondary research themes identified by year. In addition, theme details, frequencies, and percentages are reported in the table.

Table 4
Most Identified Secondary Research Themes

Year	Research Theme	<i>n</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
2002	Academic Programs (2-way tie)			
	Leadership Education	11	2	18.2
2003	Diversity (culture, ethnicity, gender) (5-way tie)			
	Globalization and Internationalization			
	Leadership Education			
	Needs Assessment			
	Organizational Development and Leadership	5	1	20.0
2004	Leadership Education	11	2	18.2
2005	Leadership Education	11	2	18.2
2006	Leadership Education	12	3	25.0

(*N* = 45)

The prolific authors identified in *JOLE* are identified in Table 5. No distinction was made between lead and supporting authorship. There were 83 authors (duplicated count) identified in the 45 articles. Christine Townsend was the most prolific author in the journal, authoring or co-authoring 4 of the 45 articles (8.9%). Additional prolific *JOLE* authors are identified in the table.

Table 5
Prolific Authorship

Author	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i> of Authors	<i>P</i> of Articles
Townsend, Christine D.	4	4.8	8.9
Crawford, C. B.	3	3.6	6.7
Fritz, Susan M.	3	3.6	6.7
Hoover, Tracy S.	3	3.6	6.7
Barbuto, John E., Jr.	2	2.4	4.4
Bruce, Jacklyn A.	2	2.4	4.4
Culp, Kenneth, III	2	2.4	4.4
Dooley, Kim E.	2	2.4	4.4
McCormick, Michael J.	2	2.4	4.4
Rohs, Frederick R	2	2.4	4.4
Strohkirch, C. Sue	2	2.4	4.4
Webster, Nicole S.	2	2.4	4.4
White, Belinda Johnson	2	2.4	4.4
Williams, Jennifer R.	2	2.4	4.4

(*N* of Authors = 83, *N* of Articles = 45)

Research methods used in *JOLE* were identified. Quantitative research methods were the most common at 64.4% (29 out of 45 articles) followed by qualitative in 28.9% (13 out of 45 articles). The least often used research methods were mixed qualitative and quantitative methods (6.7%; 3 out of 45 articles). Research designs used in the 45 analyzed articles are outlined in Table 6. Historical designs were the most frequently used research design (20.0%). Surveys were used in 15.6% of the published analyzed research. Additional research designs and procedures are identified in the table.

Table 6
Research Method Types Used

Method Type	<i>f</i>	<i>P</i>
Historical	9	20.0
Surveys	7	15.6
Correlation	5	11.1
Experimental	5	11.1
Evaluation	5	11.1
Case Study	3	6.7
Content Analysis	2	4.4
Interviews	2	4.4
Open-ended Questions/Reflections	2	4.4
Holistic	1	2.2
Interviews with Referential Adequacy	1	2.2
Material		
Interviews and Observations	1	2.2
Observations and Document Analysis	1	2.2
Survey and Focus Groups	1	2.2

(*N* = 45)

Conclusions

The *Journal of Leadership Education* was identified as a premier journal for reporting leadership education research in the agricultural education discipline. Research in *JOLE* is adding to the scope and topography of discovery occurring in the field. In research articles published, variety in research theme areas was seen. The breadth of research theme areas identified appear to contribute to a lack of continuity in discovery with 17 research themes identified as primary themes, and 23 research themes identified as secondary themes in the 45 analyzed articles.

Leadership development was the most frequent primary research theme. While leadership education dominated both research theme areas, both in category and by year. Secondary research theme variety was seen in 2002 and 2003; however, leadership education dominated from 2004 to 2006. Research themes were cyclic moving between primary and secondary and moving out of primary and secondary for a time before cycling back in. An example of this phenomenon is the theme area “leadership education.” It is seen as the most frequent primary and secondary research theme in 2002. Then it is the most frequent secondary theme in 2003 through 2006 and, again, as the most frequent primary theme in 2006. These apparent research cycles may be indicators of the breadth of research occurring in the field. But are they indicators of research depth? Frequent research

themes may be indicators of what leadership educators' value in terms of research priorities.

Few researchers contribute programmatically or consistently to leadership education research as seen in *JOLE*. Christine Townsend reported research in slightly less than one article per year and others much less. *JOLE* is a research journal with authors who are faculty- and practitioner-based; yet, research publications in *JOLE* are clearly dominated by faculty rather than practitioners. Unlike other research journals in the agricultural education field, *JOLE* does not require membership for publication acceptance. This may have implications for the journal because anyone can publish in the journal and may contribute to a reduction in author domination. Quantitative research employing historical methods were most prevalent in leadership education. Based on research methods and designs, leadership education research lacks diversity of research methodologies and scope and, perhaps, depth and quality if one assumes that depth and quality are indicated by methods that move toward cause and effect relationships.

This study was an attempt to establish an experience-base in research occurring in leadership education. It is critical to create an experience-base in order to complete a comprehensive and holistic examination of a benchmark, such as the *NRA*. Ball and Knobloch (2005) and others have indicated the explicit need to improve the agricultural education discipline, and leadership education research adds to the discipline. We must make every effort to understand how the field of leadership education affects agricultural education.

Discussion and Implications

Baker, Shinn, and Briers (2007) issued a specific call to examine the knowledge domains of agricultural education. Miller, Stewart, and West (2006) identified the need to review literature to maintain a clear sense of the discipline's research agenda. Doerfert (2003), Tucker (2004), and Whiting (2002) outlined the need for creating research focus, cohesion, and goal-oriented vision. This study was an attempt to assist with each of the above identified areas. The frame for this research focused on leadership education's role in agricultural education.

This research identified variety in research theme areas when looking at the minimal number of published research articles in *JOLE* (23 within the five years covered). Excessive variety in research themes may be due to leadership educators' and researchers' attempts to find their place. Although leadership education and development as academic programs and research are expanding, leadership education programs and research have struggled to find a home in academic units and research agendas. Leadership education may still be searching

to find where it fits in the context of agricultural education and the many different facets of leadership. Many faculty contributing research to *JOLE* are not housed in academic units or universities associated with agriculture. However, *JOLE* was identified as a premier journal in the agricultural education discipline. Although leadership education programs have increased, over the previous two decades, in academic units, the discipline still has relatively few faculty members conducting research in surfeit contextual- and knowledge-base areas based on the *JOLE* analysis. Leadership is a broad topic area with relatively few faculty members attempting to cover the numerous research priority areas outlined for the discipline. Although leadership faculty and practitioners are adding to research breadth, it is unclear how research theme area variety is affecting discipline depth. It is also highly likely that *JOLE* is not the only premier leadership education journal, but it was identified in this study as a premier journal.

Furthermore, this research discovered that relatively few researchers add consistently to the scope and topography of leadership education research as revealed by the fact that no author dominated the journal. Because researchers bring with them a variety of interests in both research topics and strategies, this finding is an important component in research stability and diversity. Would leadership educators and researchers benefit from prolific authors assisting graduate students, new faculty, and practitioners interested in developing and producing personal research initiatives? Can we better utilize prolific authors by highlighting their areas of expertise and using them as specialists? Would this allow us to move from a generalist approach in examining knowledge to becoming research area (theme) experts?

Knight (1984) and Radhakrishna and Xu (1997) noted that published research journal articles are indicators of the profession's current state. Although this research supports Knight and Radhakrishna and Xu, it also provides a note of caution and an evident need for more variety in research methodology and design in leadership education research. The findings of this study indicate that a majority of research in leadership education used historical and survey research methods. If research published in the *JOLE* over the past five years is indicative of all research in leadership education then there is a clear need to focus research themes while improving and diversifying methodological research strategies beyond historical and survey research. Criticisms have been made regarding research rigor and diversity in agricultural education; leadership education is often grouped in this field of study, and its research may be contributing to those critiques. There is a need to engage in more rigorous research methodologies to answer the "why" in addition to the "what is" questions.

In 1993 Newcomb identified the need to transform university agricultural education programs and encouraged universities to broaden programs by offering leadership, extension education, agricultural communications, and international

development, and to add depth to teacher education programs. As faculty members in leadership education continue to forge new alliances and integrations with agricultural education, it is clear that our research must be at or above the current level of research in agricultural education. This study was a first step in determining the current state of research in leadership education. This research attempted to outline research priorities, strategies, and designs used in research articles published during *JOLE*'s first five years of publication. This research also calls for a comparison of the identified experience-base to a futuristic framework, such as the *National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication, 2007–2010* (Osborne, n.d.). Although research work in leadership education feeds into multiple leadership journals, our peers and others associated with agricultural education identified *JOLE* as a premier journal. If these individuals are looking at *JOLE* to assess our current level of research productivity and rigor, would they be pleased?

Recommendations

The *Journal of Leadership Education* should expand the breadth and number of researchers consistently publishing research articles. The journal might create more thematic issues to reduce research fragmentation. It should also strive to increase participation in publishing to increase the number of research articles in each issue. Leadership education as a profession and as practice must continue to reflect upon those actions that ultimately improve the field. It is imperative that professionals in leadership education improve research methodologies while increasing continuity in research theme areas. This study calls for future research to examine the essence of leadership education and its role in the agricultural education discipline. It is imperative for us to understand if today's research is adding to the depth of our "well" of research and not merely to its breadth. Our research should strive for depth, richness, and impact. We must continue to deepen our "well" of knowledge and not just expand our "pool." As an area of practice, do we have the volume and quality of theoretical underpinnings and fundamental works needed to support us as we expand the broadness of our "well?" Or do we need to continue to move deeper before we expand in width? Reflections regarding efforts to improve and diversify the discipline must continue. Additional research must be completed to determine if research themes identified in this study are covering all needs within the discipline. Broader research themes would assist leadership education in determining how research is incorporated into agricultural education and other specialized integration areas, as well as in other disciplines and research initiatives. It might also be important to determine what other disciplines/areas are addressing leadership education and invite them to submit publications to *JOLE*.

A pattern appears to exist in the primary and secondary research themes identified in this study. Further research should be conducted to determine the degrees of research theme cycles, meaningfulness of cycles, and how cycles affect leadership education both as an area of scholarship and as an area of practice. Leadership education researchers must diversify their methodological research portfolios to include variety in research methods and designs. Additional research should be completed to determine the depth and rigor of historical and survey methods used in our research. Research must continue to determine whether current research methodologies are serving the leadership education and the agricultural education disciplines, in an effort to advance its scholarship. Further research must be completed to provide methods and standards for exceptional and rigorous research in leadership education.

Reflections regarding efforts to improve and integrate leadership education into agricultural education departments or units must continue. Additional research must be completed to determine the level of breadth and depth of research themes identified in this study as well as how and if these themes are affecting research occurring in the integrated specialization area of leadership education. Current leadership education research (experience-base) must be compared to emerging research priorities for leadership education. By using a benchmark, such as the *National Research Agenda*, leadership education can better determine if previous research is supporting emerging research priority areas and determine where adjustments must be made.

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Challenges Women Face in Leadership Positions and Organizational Effectiveness: An Investigation

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Abstract

This study was undertaken to discover working public thoughts about roles of United States women in leadership positions and to test the relationship between managerial leadership styles and organizational effectiveness. A survey of perceptions of leadership roles and effectiveness distributed 700 randomly selected entities from industries in the United States. Findings suggest approximately 50% of women leaders perceive barriers that prevent women for

entering management positions and lower advancement rates for women. This study shows that aspiration in women exists whether or not they take action and motivate themselves to advance for top management positions. However, barriers like discrimination, family-life demands, prejudice, and stereotyping result in fruitlessness in many cases. The majority of women and men felt education and training could increase the preparedness of women for leadership roles. Respondents expressed overwhelming support for a participative leadership style. A positive association existed between participative leadership style and organizational effectiveness.

Introduction

The role of women in the United States has changed dramatically in the last 50 years. The proportion of women attending college, matriculating from graduate schools, and obtaining doctorate degrees has increased dramatically. No longer are women associated with low expectations both in education and the workforce. Women now seek and obtain the highest leadership roles in education, professions, and business. For example, according to Laff (2006), in the banking industry the ranks of women in senior level management positions have increased from 19% to 31% during 2003 to 2006. This is an extraordinary 63% increase in a mere three years. Even more importantly, the percentage of women at the corporate executive level in the banking industry has increased 37% (from 27% to 37%) in this same three-year period. Given these large percentage increases, one might conclude that this migration of women towards leadership roles has been widely accepted.

However, this is only one employment sector. How have women fared throughout the economy? The overall societal response is accepting, yet some sectors have remained male dominated. Specifically, only 1.8% of Fortune 500 companies had women as CEOs in 2005 (Helfat, Harris, & Wolfson, 2006). Only 13% have female corporate board members and only 16% have female corporate officers (Laff, 2006). In other words, women are still struggling to obtain business chief executive leadership roles.

There are still many obstacles preventing women from obtaining this leadership level (e.g., glass ceilings). Many organizations are implementing leadership development programs aimed solely at women leadership success. These programs identify barriers and obstacles and then suggest strategies for women to circumvent these barriers. The goal of these programs is to facilitate excellent women leadership abilities.

In this paper we discuss (a) the development of the glass ceiling, (b) common situational barriers women face as they excel within an organization, (c) personal

challenges women face as they excel within an organization, (d) stereotyping and leadership styles, (e) the leadership styles of surveyed respondents, (f) our examination of the relationship between women leadership styles and organizational effectiveness, and (g) explains the conclusions and implications of our study.

Understanding these issues will greatly aid organizations to increase women along the corporate ladder. Women, men, and organizations can work together to improve women participation levels throughout the corporate hierarchy. As more and more women continue to enter in the business world and experience the obstacles and elements that men do not face, solutions to these hurdles must be found. We hope that this study is part of the solution.

Literature Review

According to Helfat, et al. (2006), women in top management positions were nearly non-existent from the 1970s to the early 1990s. Information from Powell (1999) and Helfat, et al. (2006) shows a dramatic increase of women in business leadership roles (see Table 1).

Table 1
Women in Management Positions

Period	% of Women in top management positions		
	Fortune 100	Fortune 500	% Increase
Prior to 1990		0%	-
1990		3%	-
mid 1990's		8.8%	193%
1998		11.2%	27%
2000		12.5%	12%
2002	7.3%	15%	20%

As of 2005 women accounted for 46.5% of the United States workforce, but for less than 8% of its top manager positions although at Fortune 500 companies the figure was a bit higher (*The Economist*, 2005). Female managers' earnings now average 72% of their male colleagues' (Emory, 2008).

Often cited as the reason for why women are not represented in top management positions is the "glass ceiling." The glass ceiling effect is defined as an unofficial barrier to opportunities within an organization or company preventing a protected classes of workers, particularly women, from advancing to higher positions (*Glass Cliff*, 2008; Olin, et al., 2000). According to Helfat et al. (2006), the percentage of women in executive positions is gender specific. For example, industries with the

highest percentage of women executives include publishing and printing (15.8%), transportation equipment (15.7%), securities (14.8%), healthcare (14.6%), temporary help (14.5%), airlines (13.8%), and food Services (13.6%). In contrast, industries with women holding the least amount of executive positions include semiconductors (1.3%), energy (2.8%), waste management (3.6%), trucking (3.8%), aerospace (3.8%), mail, package, and freight delivery (3.8%), and pipelines (3.9%).

According to Laff (2006), while this information can be explained in part by female preferences, it can also be attributed to educational choices. Some analysts believe that the educational choices women make explain the low number of executive and managerial women in tactical, science, and engineering fields. According to Nelson and Lavasque (2007), women in the United States only comprise 25% of the doctorates in math and science and less than 17% in engineering and computer and information sciences. The figures suggest education is an enabler of the glass ceiling.

Organizational Barriers

Some argue that the glass ceiling is more of a societal blocker than an individual barrier. Still others argue that corporate culture or organizational barriers are to blame (T&D, 2006). Organizational barriers refer to the organizational-level factors that affect the differential hiring and promotion of men and women. While these barriers vary significantly from organization to organization, they can create a huge roadblock preventing women from advancement to top management. (Baker, 2003).

Selection Process. One of the most common and well known barriers to career advancement is that of the selection process used by most companies. As indicated previously, the pool of women that are qualified for promotion to executive positions is quite small and therefore women simply cannot be promoted. According to Burke and Nelson (2000), 82% of firms stated that lack of general management skills and line experience was a major contributing factor in their decisions not to promote women. However, another study finds some firms have a large pool of qualified women and simply do not consider them for the position (Burke, et al., 2000). Another rationale is that existing top management positions are held by men who tend to promote other men who are similar to themselves (Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002).

Workplace Relationships. Another organizational barrier is the relationships many women have with their mentors, bosses, and female co-workers. Most employees tend to bond through similar interests. Since there tend to be few executive women; many women are unable to find a female mentor. Laff (2006) finds that women are inhibited in the workplace because of their limited access to

capable mentors. Many people prefer to have mentors of the same gender because they tend to understand the challenges most commonly faced. Men do not face the same barriers, have the same family issues, and many times simply do not want to mentor a woman. The needs of women from their mentors also tend to differ from the needs of men. Many women claim to need more encouragement, an example to follow, and simply more tasks to complete. Male mentors tend to be resistant to mentor a woman because they perceive women as more emotional, not as skilled at problem-solving, and because of the risk of workplace sexual harassment issues (Hanson, 2008).

Globalization. Globalization presents many new barriers for women. Senior level managers and top executives now have even more responsibility and higher expectations than before. Due to the time pressures and relocations of many businesses, top executives have had to move to new towns, cities, and countries. This presents a large barrier for many women with families and a working spouse or significant other (Wellington, Kropf, & Gerkovich, 2003).

Perhaps more surprisingly, the largest problem, however, has not been family issues; it has been adoption of new cultures and social norms. While the natural ability of women to adapt is higher than that of men, a large number of women have been unable to accept the culture shock and fail in their new environments. Similarly, women may also experience resistance in other cultures to female leadership. Many countries will simply not deal with a women executive because of their beliefs and perceptions that women are incapable of doing business effectively (Strout, 2001).

Internal Motivation. Many senior executive and top management claim that women simply do not have a desire to excel in their current job positions. However, a recent study indicated that 55% of women not in management positions desire to be in the top most levels of their organizations. Annis (2008) finds many women lose their drive to excel due to the many obstacles met along the path of becoming a manager. These obstacles include discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice, family demands, and lack of opportunities (Emory, 2008).

Life-style Conflicts. For many women, in addition to the roles they hold in their companies, they remain the primary caretakers for their families (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2009). As the time constraints and demands of a job become more important upon, promotion forces many women to choose between family and career. According to Jack and Suzy Welch (2007), very few women CEOs and women executives have children due to the affect it would have on their career. Conversely, many women have voluntarily left their jobs due to family decisions (Baxter, 2000; Wallace, 2008). While a decreasing number of women are taking pregnancy or childcare leaves, 32% of women still leave their jobs once they have children. Also, once a woman has children she is much more reluctant

to travel and work long hours due to their responsibilities at home further hindering her promotion likelihood (Woodard, 2007; Hewlett, 2002; Lyons & McArthur, 2005).

Stereotyping and Leadership Styles. Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. These include assertiveness, aggressiveness, and task-oriented leadership abilities (Jogulu & Wood 2006; Envick, 2008). Other stereotypes of women include the expectation of being modest, quiet, selfless, and nurturing (Eagly & Carl, 2003). These simple characteristics may be seen as non-executive material. Entities desire a leader who will execute, take criticism, and do what is best for the company at all cost (Nelson & Levesque 2007).

Leadership styles are closely associated with common perceptions and stereotypes of women leaders (Goff, 2005; Henderson, 2004). In early 1990 studies found that men emerged as task-oriented leaders more frequently than women who emerged as social leaders more frequently than men (Marrujo & Kliender, 1992). Due to the demands of leadership positions, it became a socially accepted tendency for men to assume leadership because their task-oriented style was more widely accepted (Ryan & Haslam, 2007). As time moved on, the social leadership style of women was more accepted and valued in some circumstances (Jogulu & Wood, 2006).

The study of leadership topics has been a fascinated historians and social scientists for centuries, and more recently resulted in enormous amounts of research on the subject. Nevertheless, one cannot find a generally acceptable universal-comprehensive theory of leadership. Instead, one finds competing theories emerging from several behavioral disciplines. For instance, Gibson et al. (1973) state it appears there are three broad leadership theory categories reflecting the research and opinion on the topic, including trait, personal-behavioral, and situational theories.

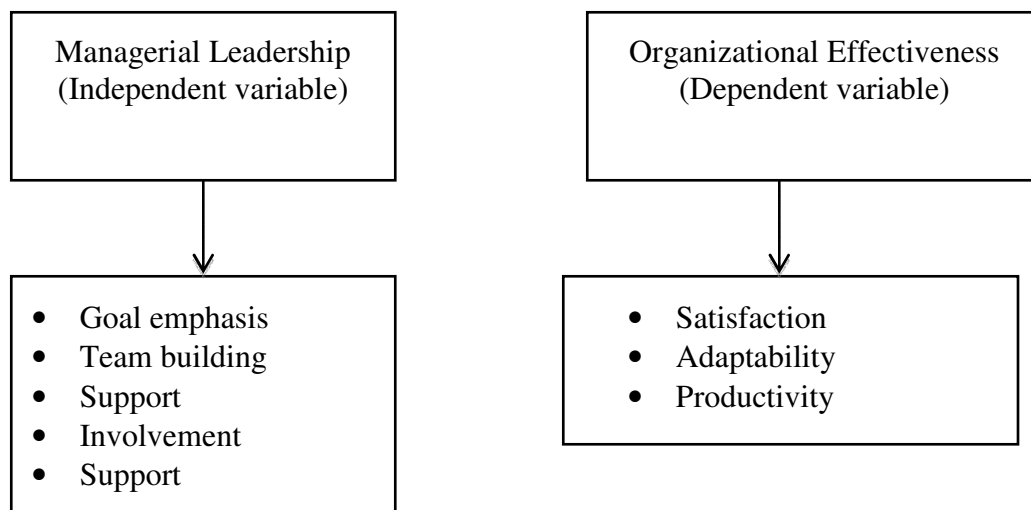
One of the most comprehensive inquiries into personalities and leadership issues is the “Big Five” personality traits. The five factors include openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Cross-cultural researched has concluded there is a universal pattern of sex differences on responses to the Big Five Inventory. Women consistently report higher neuroticism and agreeableness, and men often report higher extraversion and conscientiousness. Sex-based differences in personality traits are larger in prosperous, healthy, and egalitarian cultures in which women have more opportunities that are equal to those of men. (VonGlinow, et al., 2006; Wikipedia, 2008)

On the other hand, Likert, (1961) building on the findings of the Survey Research Center and the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan describes five conditions for effective leadership behavior. The items include (a) Principle of Supportive Relations, (b) Group Method of Supervision, (c) high performance goals, (d) technical knowledge, and, (e) coordinating, scheduling, and planning.

Research Framework

This study employs Likert's (1967) *model of human organizational dimension* known as system 4. Likert believed in the importance of the interaction-influence process and the team approach to leadership. Likert's research formed the foundation for subsequent studies in areas of participative leadership or interactive leadership (Rosener, 1990; Eagly & Carli, 2003). Several variables were identified as being significant for the purpose of this research. First, there are the elements to measure the independent variable that is managerial leadership. Second, there is the dependent variable model which includes organizational effectiveness. The research model views these variables as important elements of effective leadership which are linked to organizational effectiveness as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
The Research Model



Research Methodology

This study is an exploratory study that examines women's leadership roles and tests for the existence of relationships between women managerial leadership styles organizational effectiveness. The population of our study is working United

States citizens. Seven-hundred individuals were randomly selected from a variety of resources. From the 700 individuals it was determined that 400 were useful responses (193 females, 204 males, and three did not indicate sex of the respondent). The response rate (57%) was high due to follow-up letters and email notes to the sample population urging questionnaire completion within three weeks. Participants hold a multitude of jobs in many industries and organizations such as education, financial services, retail, and health care establishments throughout the United States.

Measures

The three instruments used in this study are (a) Likert's (1967) Profile of Organizational Characteristics, (b) Mott's (1972) Characteristics of Effective Organizations, and (c) perceptions of Leadership role. These three questionnaires were used to classify the type of managerial leadership utilized by survey respondents and examine the effect of each Leadership Style on measures of organizational effectiveness (satisfaction, adaptability, and productivity). Likert's (1967) questionnaire is used because it emphasizes the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness. Mott's (1972) questionnaire deals with productivity and is used for the data confirmation of information from Likert's (1967) instrument. The Mott (1972) instrument is based on the 1 through 5 Likert-type rating scale with 5 as the most productive and 1 as the least productive level. Although Likert's (1967) indices of managerial styles have been tested for validity and reliability by Taylor and Bowers (1972), a reliability test was conducted for these indices to confirm reliability. The alpha coefficient for this study was .72. Most researchers consider alpha at .70 to be an acceptable criterion for adequate scale reliability. The perceptions questionnaire is used to discover what the working public thought about women's roles in leadership positions.

The Likert (1973) instrument evaluates eight organizational attributes. These attributes define the leadership process – motivational forces, the communication process, goal setting, the control process, performance goals and training. The Likert questionnaire thus yields a profile of these eight variables using a systems continuum. These systems are shown along with their identifying range of scores for each category in Table 2.

Table 2
Systems of Leadership Styles

	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Name of System	Exploitive-Authoritative	Benevolent-Authoritative	Consultative	Participative Group Approach
Range of score	1.00-1.99	2.00-2.99	3.00-3.99	4.00-4.99

Hypotheses

Two hypotheses have been developed to test the data from this study.

H1: The most predominant leadership style among women in the surveyed population in this study will be classified as Likert's system 3 (consultative) or system 4 (participative group) leadership styles category.

H2: There is a positive significant relationship between participative group leadership styles and organizational effectiveness.

The hypotheses are stated in a way that seeks to determine linear relationships.

Research Questions and Results Analysis

A major objective of this study is analyze what the working public in the United States of America thinks about women's roles in leadership positions and their personal challenges faced as they excel within an organization. To answer these queries the results of the survey were analyzed on a scale from -2 to 2 based on whether participants strongly disagreed or agreed. The survey responses were then weighted accordingly: -2 and 2 were given 1 full credit, -1 and 1 were given .5 credit, and 0 was given no credit (neutral). The data from the surveys are analyzed and summarized in the following tables (2 through 8) in accordance with the objectives mentioned earlier.

Analysis of Research Questions

Q1: Determine perceptions of whether men and women have equal opportunities in professional development and upward mobility in organizations.

Table 3
Perceptions of Equal Opportunities

	Female	Male
Disagree	22%	18%
Agree	26%	34%

The results show that men fluctuate more on agreeing whether both genders have equal opportunities for upward mobility. Interestingly, more women think there are equal opportunities than not.

Q2: Determine perceptions of whether existing barriers prevent women from entering management positions and cause lower advancement rates for women.

Table 4
Perception of Barriers to Managerial Positions

	Female	Male
Disagree	14%	19%
Agree	46%	29%

There is a significant difference (17%) between the percentage of men and women who agree to the existence of barriers for women to advance.

Q3: Determine perceptions of whether most women leave organizations because they desire more flexibility in their jobs.

Table 5
Perceptions of Female Turnover in Organizations

	Female	Male
Disagree	8%	6%
Agree	40%	31%

The results of this question show at least 30% of both men and women agree that women leave organizations due to flexibility issues.

Q4: Determine perceptions of whether women benefit and advance as leaders by having more sensitive and encouraging leadership characteristics than men.

Table 6

Perceptions of Benefits of Leadership Characteristics

	Female	Male
Disagree	18%	15%
Agree	45%	34%

The results show that at least 30% of both men and women agree that the more encouraging leadership characteristics assist women. While there are many that agree with this statement, there is a significant percentage of men and women (at least 15%) of both men and women who disagree that the increased sensitivity helps women succeed.

Q5: Determine perceptions of whether education and training can help women be more prepared for leadership roles and management positions in organizations.

Table 7

Perceptions of Value of Education and Training to Women

	Female	Male
Disagree	8%	6%
Agree	65%	66%

This is the most significant result. Over 60% of both men and women feel that education and training can help prepare women for leadership positions. There were also a low percentage of people who disagreed with this statement.

Q6: Determine perceptions of whether women more likely than men to feel that their family takes priority over their jobs.

Table 8

Perception of Multiple Roles for Women

	Female	Male
Disagree	14%	18%
Agree	46%	36%

Perhaps obvious to some, more women than men believe that women feel family has a greater priority than careers. More men than women thought this statement was not true.

Q 7: Determine the perceived percentage of women who hold upper and middle management positions.

Table 9

Perceived Percentage of Women in Upper and Middle Management Positions

Female Average: 29%
Male Average: 33%

While both of these averages are higher than the actual statistic, women feel the average is lower than men. Surprisingly, the averages are close in number. These findings complement previous studies (Helfat, et al., 2006; Baker, 2003) regarding some of the barriers that may create a huge road block preventing women from advancement to top management.

Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Effectiveness

Another major objective of this study is to identify the leadership styles among the surveyed respondent presently operating in the United States. H1 predicts that the leadership style pattern of practices, behavior, and beliefs as perceived by respondents most predominant in the surveyed firms will be classified as falling within Likert's system 3 or system 4. Mean scores were used for this hypothesis to classify leadership styles as 1, 2, 3, or 4 according to Likert's (1967) profile of organizational characteristics.

As predicted in H1, the data indicates that the leadership most dominant in the respondents was system 3 (consultative) or system 4 (participative). The average mean scores range from 3.10 for firms in system 3 (consultative) to 4.20 for firms in system 4 (participative). Equally significant is the finding that all respondents located within the range of system 4 were women. These respondents scored the highest means on the leadership dimensions among all respondents. In addition, 62% of the respondents expressed an overwhelming support for participative leadership style.

The participative leadership approach is a leadership style where subordinates and superiors exhibit mutual confidence and trust in all matters. Decision making is widely dispersed throughout the organization. Communication is extensive and mobile. It flows not only up and down the hierarchy, but also among peers. Teamwork is encouraged in this atmosphere and there is a high degree of worker satisfaction. This supports the contention of Jogulu et al. (2006) and Rosener, (1990) regarding the social-interactive leadership style of women.

The consultative leadership approach has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Subordinates are permitted to make minor decisions at

lower levels. Communication flows both up and down the hierarchy. Teamwork is not encouraged in this type of leadership style.

Leadership Styles and Effectiveness

A third objective of this study is to test for the existence of a consistent relationship between leadership style and organizational effectiveness. H2 predicts a positive relationship between participative leadership style and organizational effectiveness among some of the respondent. An analysis of variance of organizational mean scores for dimensions of leadership styles and effectiveness is used to test the significance of the difference between means at a .05 significance level for the respondents surveyed.

The average mean scores for those respondents that do have participative style were 4.20 for leadership dimensions and 4.5 for effectiveness respondent dimensions. The average mean scores for those respondents that do not have participative styles were 3.10 for leadership dimensions and 3.25 for effectiveness dimensions. The average mean scores is based on a scale of 1 through 5 (a Likert-type rating scale) with 5 as the most effective and 1 as the least effective.

Further analysis and evaluation of the relationships between participative leadership style and organizational effectiveness were done using a multiple regression analysis. This analysis determines the proportion of variance in organizational effectiveness scores explained by the scores of the participative leadership style. The multiple regression analysis indicates a positive relationship between the measures of participative leadership style and effectiveness. Fifty-two percent of the variation in effectiveness is explained by linear regression on the participative leadership style dimensions. The F-ratio of 4.70 indicates that these linear relationships are statistically significant at the .05 level.

Research Findings and Discussion

Four significant findings emerged as a result of this study. According to the survey results, 45% of women surveyed perceived that there are existing barriers which prevent women from entering management positions and cause lower advancement rates. The causal link between barriers such as discrimination, family-life demands, prejudice and stereotyping and women's advancement to top management in the workplace were statistically significant, confirming prior expectations and complementing previous studies (Baker, 2003; Wellington, et al., 2003; Hewlett, 2002; Helfat, et al., 2006).

Other findings emerged from this study indicated that women are perceived by most men and women as more sensitive and encouraging leaders than men. Most

males indicated that they feel women do not have equal opportunities in professional development and upward mobility in organizations. At the same time, the majority of men and women felt that education and training could help women be more prepared for leadership roles. This supports the contention of Nelson et al. (2007) regarding the importance of education, classes, seminars, and even support groups can help women with this process.

The research data indicated that the predominant leadership styles among respondents are system 3 (consultative) or system 4 (participative). Equally significant is the finding that most respondents located within the range of system 4 in this study were within women dominated positions. These respondents scored the highest means on the leadership dimensions as well as on the effectiveness dimensions among most of the respondents investigated. In addition, the research data indicated that 62% of the respondents expressed an overwhelming support for participative leadership style and 38% expressed support for consultative leadership style. These findings complement previous studies (Rosener, 1990; Von Glinow, et al., 2006; Wikipedia, 2008).

Statistical analysis of the sample data indicated that a positive association exists between the participative leadership style and organizational effectiveness among some of the respondents investigated in this study.

The data of this study supports the conclusion that group interactions through participatory leadership activities such as team-building, goal-setting, participation in decision-making and problem solving, and sharing information often increases organizational effectiveness. Further, the findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between participatory activities led by managerial leadership and organizational effectiveness. This supports the contention of Jogulu and Wood (2006) regarding the social leadership style of women.

The findings also support Likert's thesis (1973) that leadership styles which approach system 4 (participative) tend to be more effective and yield more favorable results than other systems.

Conclusions and Implications

Several significant findings were discussed briefly in the previous section of this paper. From these findings, it is possible to draw several conclusions. First, it is important to know that statistics evidence of gender equality is inaccurate. Some of these inequality issues come in the form of pay and promotions. Equality may eventually be achieved, but it will take great effort from organizations and women alike. Organizations must offer equal pay, training, and recognize the steps to overcome the "glass ceiling" barriers. Women must recognize the potential

barriers caused by gender discrimination. Some of these barriers that women control are a lack of education, training, and experiences. The barriers women must recognize within organizations are discrimination, stereotyping, and negative preconceptions.

There is hope for gender equality in corporations. Future implications for gender equality indicate that the number of women CEOs will increase. In 2007 the percentage of women CEOs was 2.4% and it is projected to increase to 6.4% in 2010 and to 10.4% in 2016 (Helfat, Harris, & Wolfson, 2006). Interestingly, stocks of companies with the 12 female CEOs were up 165% in 2007 (Annis, 2008). However, only women held one in three of all managerial positions in 2007.

The research findings indicate an overwhelming support for participative leadership styles. According to the findings, people of all genders, races, colors and nationalities have a universal desire to participate in the decisions that affect their life. The literature on participation strongly supports the positive effects of participative leadership on organizational effectiveness. Therefore the present study can be seen as making a valuable contribution to that literature.

One major implication of this study is that in order to show positive results organizational effectiveness has to be planned, structured, and carefully monitored. Lasting effectiveness gains will be realized only through effective utilization of people and the system within which they operate. With women's increasing knowledge of how to balance life and work, it is making it easier for them to climb to the top while still raising a family.

Limitations

There are obvious limitations to the self-reported data collected in this study and to the surveyed responses from the key managers in several industries in the United States. Results and responses can contain inherent biases among individuals for programs that may have personally requested or supported. In addition to these limitations, the sample size in this study is so small across a limited range of industries such as education, financial services, retail, and health care industries. Therefore, a more comprehensive study covering a cross-wide range of industries and countries would provide us with a better understanding of challenges women face in leadership positions.

Despite these limitations, this exploratory empirical investigation provides avenues for increasing the probability of success of women in leadership positions and identifies styles and effective organizational effectiveness dimensions in limited sectors of the United States economy. Nevertheless, further work is needed in a variety of industry settings and to confirm linkage between leadership

styles and other corporate activities and functions. Although many more issues remain to be investigated, this study consolidates much of the previous work into a base from which additional studies can spring. It represents a beginning rather than an end. More research will be needed in this area.

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Using Provocative Statement Assignments to Foster Critical Thinking in Leadership Education

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Abstract

This paper advocates for and describes the use of provocative statements as a leadership assignment to foster critical thinking. Critical thinking is an essential competency for leaders who must analyze issues and convince others of their point of view as they compete for scarce internal resources. The provocative statement assignment incorporates common elements from long-established practices of Socratic questioning, debate, argumentation analysis, and rhetoric. It challenges students to develop and advocate their point of view on the controversial issues of their field. Preliminary findings of student perceptions of the assignment in a graduate leadership class are presented which suggest the assignment can be a powerful learning tool.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

The organizational context in which many graduates will find themselves is one where internal competition for scarce financial resources is intense. Where there is external competition for the organization, even greater scrutiny of internal decisions occurs because of the competitive consequences. The dynamics of organizational decision making are often played out via discussions, dialogues, and debate of pertinent ideas and issues. Relying on traditional logic to arrive at the best choice among alternatives is often not possible due to the ambiguous nature of the business context (e.g., uncertainty in the economy, competition, market, etc.). Thus decisions are often made based on who makes the most

convincing argument for or against a point of view. While there are those who tend to be naturally persuasive, for most it is a learned skill.

Toulmin (1958), whose argumentation model will be discussed later, suggests that emphasis of persuasive argumentation be shifted away from the norms and procedures of formal logic. He suggests that the credibility in an argument (i.e., persuasion) is judged in terms of practical and complex workings of everyday life within a specific field. This indicates that critical thinking plays a crucial role in being persuasive in that each scenario or field has a different set of factors that must be considered when formulating a persuasive position. Bassham, et al. (2002) describe critical thinking as dealing with a wide range of cognitive skills and intellectual dispositions needed to effectively identify, analyze, and evaluate arguments and truth claims. They add that individuals engaged in critical thinking discover and overcome personal prejudices and biases to formulate and present convincing reasons in support of conclusions and reasonable intelligent decisions about what to believe and what to do. Furthermore, Ricketts (2005) found a small, yet significant relationship between critical thinking skills and leadership training and experience. Therefore, developing critical thinking skills should be targeted by leadership educators because critical thinking is the precursor to effective persuasion skills. Stedman (2009) poses an important question that leadership educators must consider given the increasingly diverse body of leadership students, “where do we begin with critical thinking instruction?” (p. 203). She suggests from her study that leadership educators emphasize the importance of critical thinking and help students develop their own critical thinking skills and dispositions.

This paper proposes the use of provocative statement assignments in leadership education as an effective tool for developing critical thinking and persuasive communication skills. The need for and significance of critical thinking has been documented in a variety of fields including management (Cavanaugh & Prasad, 2006; Fox, 1994; Reynolds, 1999; Thomas, 2003; Wilmott, 1994), business communications (Muir, 2001), higher education (Walker & Warhurst, 2000) and others (Roy & Macchiette, 2005). The paper begins by providing a theoretical framework for provocative statement assignments, drawing from the literature on (a) Debate, (b) Socratic questioning, (c) Argumentation, and (d) Rhetoric. Each of these four elements has been shown to have validity in leadership education. Next, the paper specifically describes the provocative statement assignments and uses Toulmin’s (1958) model of argumentation to reveal the connection to improved critical thinking and persuasive communication. The paper will then present preliminary findings from student evaluations of the provocative statement assignment in a graduate-level leadership course within a master degree program in human resources management. Lastly, implications for future research are discussed.

Debate

Debate is a systematic presentation of opposing arguments on a special topic (Ericson, Murphy, & Zeuschner, 2003). Roy and Macchiette (2005) suggest that as a pedagogical tool it breathes life into the process of critical thinking. Vo and Morris (2006) also provide support that debating has been found to improve critical thinking in sociology (Crone, 1997; Huryn, 1986), writing classes (Green & Klug, 1990), science (Moody-Corbett, 1996), and economics (Pernecky, 1997). Moreover, Keller, Whittaker, and Burke (2001) found that debate generated greater student interest in the course and that students found debating exercises intellectually stimulating. Musselman (2004) stated that watching students' debate was "like watching students spread their intellectual wings" (p. 347). Debate first examines facts and information to find out what makes an issue unintelligible or controversial. It then attempts to pull together ideas and third, offers evaluations and recommendations (Vo & Morris, 2006). Roy and Macchiette (2005) explain how debate fosters critical thinking via seven learning outcomes. The first is the ability to identify, organize, and prioritize pertinent ideas and factors, which plays a vital role in debate as one determines the most relevant and compelling information. Successful debate also involves being able to recognize credibility when evaluating research and other evidence. The third learning outcome addresses one's ability to reason, or use logical connectors (Paul, 1990). More specifically, one should be able to "analyze cause-and-effect relationships, logical vulnerabilities, and recognize inconsistencies of truth" (Roy & Macchiette, 2005, p. 265). A fourth competency in successful debate is to recognize values, beliefs, and influences of others and strive to eliminate bias, prejudice, and ethnocentrism. The fifth, and arguably most critical, outcome, is communicating with impact. Though especially true to in debate, determining not only *what* to say but also *how* to say it is an attribute that is beneficial professionally and personally. One must choose the most effective format for communicating a point of view by using a creative, cohesive, and consistent communication strategy, which influences how effective one is at informing, persuading, and ultimately convincing an audience. Other skills developed by debate that have a holistic effect are the ability use words effectively and listen attentively.

Socratic Questioning

Socratic dialogue/questioning originated with the Greek philosopher, Socrates, and has been used in classrooms to promote higher-order thinking since his teachings. It can be used to foster critical thinking in students (Maiorana, 1990-91; Paul, 1993). The Socratic questioning approach stimulates students' minds by continually probing into the subject with thought-stimulating questions, rather than providing direct answers (Paul, 1993). Bolten (2001) suggests that there is a substantial difference between a discussion and Socratic-type dialogue. He states

that the fundamental desire of discussants is to convince, while the fundamental desire of dialogue participants is to investigate. He goes on to describe some of the characteristics of Socratic-type dialogue, which are giving each other room to speak, posing questions in order to understand each other, saying only what one really means, striving for mutual understanding, and investigating differences of opinion. Open conversation/questioning such as this allow positive environments for dealing with ethical issues and moral accountability, too (Bolten, 2001). Elder and Paul (1998) contend that every field stays alive to the extent that fresh questions are generated and taken seriously as the driving force in a process of thinking. Additionally, they state that deep questions drive our thought underneath the surface of things, which forces one to deal with complexity. Vo and Morris (2006) point out that Dewey (1939) and Baker (1955) suggested that “active student engagement with a subject provides an effective venue for starting to learn how to think” (p. 316). Interestingly, Stedman, Rutherford, and Roberts (2006) found in their study that weekly feedback from instructors was not associated with leadership development of leadership interns. However, Socratic questioning in the provocative statement assignment involves the feedback not only from the instructor but also from fellow students and the feedback provided is predominantly in the form of questions as opposed to general feedback. Thus, the investigative nature of Socratic dialogue coupled with its emphasis on stimulating critical thinking may prove more effective than traditional feedback from an instructor. This suggests that Socratic questioning could play an important role in the continued improvement of leadership education.

Argumentation Analysis

The use of argumentation and/or debate seeks to address certain elements of critical thinking (McPeck, 1990; Mezirow, 1990; Paul, 1993; Vo & Morris, 2006). Using argumentation or analyzing other arguments promotes the four elements of critical thinking that Mingers (2000) described in a review of critical thinking literature (Gold, Holman, & Thorpe, 2002). Argumentation and its analysis enables the credibility of an argument to be assessed (Toulmin, 1988; Gold, Holman, & Thorpe, 2002), scrutinizes common sense understandings, habits (Bakhtin, 1981), and common practice in a social context, examines and tests beliefs, practices and arguments of those in power (Ehninger & Bockeriede, 1963), and questions an individual’s epistemological understanding (McPeck, 1990). Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (2000) posit that intellectual conflict provides the foundation for effective teaching because it engages and involves the students. Gold and Holman (2001) used a professional development module designed to promote self-reflection and critical thinking by asking leaders to tell stories about their practices and then examine the arguments present within the stories. This approach was used based on the notion that argument analysis would enable managers to develop more critical forms of thinking and that telling stories would help managers to locate arguments within their stories. They believed that

stories contained arguments for or against something because stories usually contain claims, propositions, assertions, and justifications (Georgakopoulou & Goutsos, 1997). Evaluation of the professional development found that this type of story telling proved to be a useful way of helping leaders to articulate accounts of their work experience, which in turn helped leaders develop new understandings and insights, new perspectives, and new ways of thinking. It also found analyzing arguments in their stories allowed for greater recognition of the views of their colleagues. Although the study had several positive findings, the leaders tended only to present the claim and were not adept at providing evidence or warrants for the claims they made. The authors point out that the articulation of arguments did not occur without a structure being offered, which suggests that leadership education may be able to bridge the gap by offering structure in the form of classroom activities that involve analyzing arguments while persuasively using evidence to support one's claims for or against an issue.

Toulmin's Model of Argumentation

Conley (1990) suggests that Toulmin's model has come to dominate the argumentation literature "almost completely" (p. 295). Toulmin's model also established the first steps within the argumentation field of aiding the shift away from viewing argument as formal logic to an interactional view treating argument as a linguistic activity (van Eemeren, 1997). Hamilton (1999) states that the starting point of Toulmin's work is his concern to extend the rigor of formal logic to areas commonly believed to contain arguments of an uncertain kind, such as law and ethics. The layout of the model consists of six parts, three of which are always present and three of which act as modifiers. The ever-present elements are the claim or conclusion that is being established, the grounds or data on which the claim is based, and the warrant, which enable the step to be made from the grounds to the claim. Toulmin developed the model to resemble deductive inference yet with more flexibility. The model allows for varying degrees of support of claim, which develops the skill of argumentation as students strive to provide the most convincing and compelling evidence available. In addition to assisting one formulate an argument with available evidence, it also provides a guideline for analyzing an argument. The first step is to locate a claim and then find the data that were used to support it. The key to analyzing an argument is the warrant because it dictates the choice of data as well as the credibility of the argument. Ehniger and Brockeriede (1963) also suggest that examination of the warrant can shed light on how things relate to one another; a person's desires, values, and emotions; the reliability of the sources of data used; and the authority of the speaker. As can be seen, Toulmin's model is a powerful tool for argumentation skill development as well as peeling back the layers of an argument to determine its strength and validity.

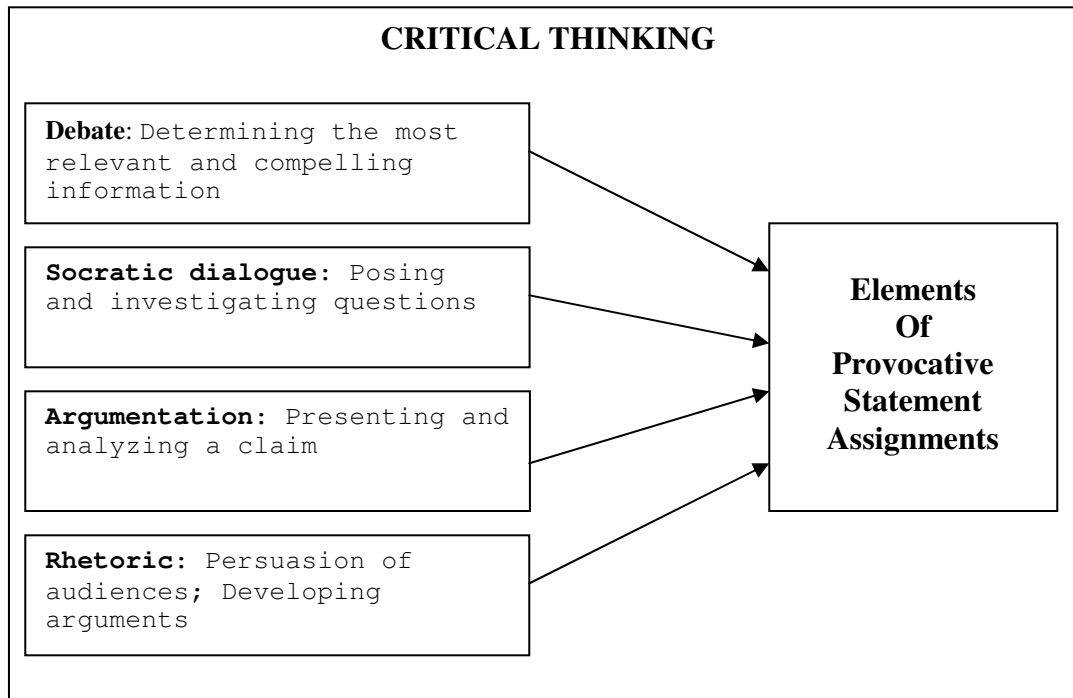
Rhetoric

Another principle that has its roots in Ancient Greece, rhetoric has no clear-cut definition (Skerlep, 2001). The Greeks believed rhetoric to be the knowledge of how to produce and deliver an eloquent speech, but Cicero (1988), to whom broad definitions of rhetoric can be traced, defined it as the art of speaking well. Rhetoric is a type of discourse used to persuade audiences, reach reliable judgments or decisions, and coordinate social action (Bizzell & Herzberg, 1990; Gill & Whedbee, 1997; Herrick, 2001). Skerlep (2001) states that classical rhetoric is dealing with the question of how to develop effective arguments. He continues by suggesting that rhetoric is not only concerned with communication from a linguistic standpoint, but it also shapes thinking on how to present a case and justify a position. Furthermore, rhetoric presents a tool for developing strategies of corporate discourse that justify leadership decisions. The rhetorical perspective suggests that leaders play an active role in the diffusion process because what leaders say and how they say it matter a great deal (Eccles, Nohria, Berkley, 1992; Elsbach, 1994; Pfeffer, 1981). Mintzberg (1973) points out that managers and leaders are essentially discursive beings, spending two-thirds to three-fourths of their time engaged in verbal activity. Green (2004) states that managers and leaders use constant verbal activity to gather information, develop shared understandings of the world, and persuade individuals to contribute to collective purposes. Eccles et al. (1992) posits that most managers and leaders are unaware of the ways in which their language influences social action. It should be noted that rhetoric is closely linked to Toulmin's model of argumentation in that it serves a crucial role in the model in that making the connections between grounds and claims does little good unless it is developed and communicated in a way that persuades others decision making.

Provocative Statement Assignments

Provocative statement assignments incorporate all of the principles described above, which challenge students to think critically and communicate persuasively. Figure 1 depicts each of the integrated principles of provocative statement assignments in a visual model to demonstrate how each principle relates to the assignments, all of which are encompassed by critical thinking. What follows is a description of how the provocative statement assignments were and can be used in the classroom.

Figure 1
Principles of Provocative Statements



Methods

The provocative statement assignments were used as a small group assignment in a graduate-level leadership course in a masters program in human resources development. Each small group in the course was assigned a statement (i.e., a claim) about leadership that has no right or wrong answer. The statements present the students with a leadership issue/concept to which the groups have the freedom to agree or disagree, based on their interpretation of the course materials, supporting evidence, previous research, and the issue at hand (i.e., grounds). Following a deliberation period, groups are asked to present their thesis and supporting information using Microsoft Powerpoint® and facilitate a class dialogue regarding their project and its thesis (i.e., warrant). Due to the high volume of organizational presentations using Microsoft Powerpoint®, students are also challenged to consider how best to present their position on the statements in regards to the use of Microsoft Powerpoint®. The most heavily-weighted component on the grading rubric is the groups' ability to respond to questions. Other considerations in grading the projects are how clearly and

persuasively the thesis is presented followed by how well it is supported with scholarly and practitioner literature and experience.

As noted earlier, students are given a claim or proposition to which they must take a stance. In addition to gathering and prioritizing all relevant information, students must assess the credibility of the evidence. In essence, students must think critically about the evidence before they can go onto to thinking critically about their claim in light of the supporting materials. Further still, students must carefully scrutinize their common sense understandings, examine common practice in social context, and evaluate the arguments and practices of those in power. When each student reaches a personal decision, the small group setting allows for a first Socratic dialogue to take place. Typically, students will meet to discuss their materials and challenge each other with difficult questions so that all sides of the claim are not only addressed but carefully pondered. It is then the challenge of the group to reach a position on the issue to present in class, which involves personal rhetoric and persuasive communication. Each group must then present the class with what is essentially a framework as provided by Toulmin's model of argumentation. Figure 2 offers a brief, simple example of the framework that is representative of those presented in class, and Table 1 presents all of the provocative leadership statements. Elements of debate, argumentation, Socratic dialogue, and rhetoric are all present during the class presentation in that the groups' classmates have also familiarized themselves with each topic and what they believe to be appropriate support (i.e., warrants).

Figure 2

Example of Toulmin's Argumentation Diagram Using the Provocative Statement Assignment

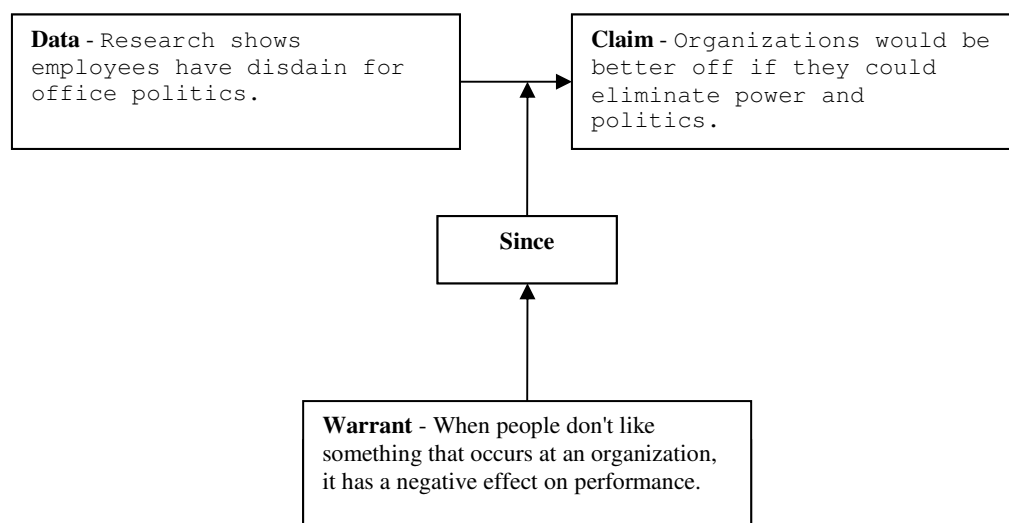


Table 1

Provocative statements used in the leadership course assignment

“Leadership is leadership; the competencies required to lead are basically the same across organization size, type (i.e., military, government, corporate, education, etc.), geographic scope (domestic/global), and culture.”

“Organizations would be a whole lot more effective if they could eliminate the use of power and politics by their leaders.”

“Leadership is about influencing others to achieve something, so while some may dislike Hitler, Hussein, and Castro (for the purposes of the discussion, you may substitute anyone who has been "disliked" by significant portions of society), they should nevertheless be considered effective leaders.”

“Charisma, while not the only important leadership quality, is the distinctive quality that sets truly effective leaders apart from the rest of the crowd.”

“The impact of a 'leader' is an illusion; people want to feel someone is in control, so they attribute impact (positive or negative) to the leader.”

“In a capitalistic economy where only results count and it's a dog-eat-dog competitive environment, ‘ethical leadership’ has a different meaning than it does in government, education, or the nonprofit sectors.”

Results

Student-level data were collected at the end of the course to assess the perceived value and effectiveness of the provocative statement assignment. Results from the provocative statement assignments can be seen in Table 2. Due to the small sample size, the results are considered preliminary, but they are indicative of very positive student perceptions in terms of developing aspects of critical thinking and persuasive communication, effectively learning the course materials, and developing skills that will help them in other areas of life. Additional data collection is currently underway.

Table 2
Student Responses to Provocative Statement Assignment on Course Evaluations

Statement	Strongly Agree / Agree	Strongly Disagree / Disagree	Neutral / Missing
The statements used in the group's projects were provocative and challenged my thinking about leaders.	75.0%	6.3%	18.8%
The statements used in the group projects helped me to recognize contradictions in my own thoughts and work through them.	81.3%	6.3%	12.5%
The statements used in the group projects facilitated a learning experience that would be difficult to duplicate in a different assignment format.	68.8%	18.8%	12.5%
The project using provocative statements improved my ability to be persuasive in communicating my point of view.	75.0%	6.3%	18.8%
The experience gained through provocative statement project will benefit me in other areas of my life.	81.3%	6.3%	12..5%

N=14

Discussion

While this paper acknowledges the limitations of the small sample size used in the evaluation of the provocative statement assignment, the review of the literature in this paper suggests there is strong face validity for provocative statements fostering critical thinking.

Students overwhelmingly agreed (68.8%) that the provocative statement assignment produced a learning experience that was unique. While writing

assignments and other group presentation projects can certainly foster critical thinking, the provocative statement assignment does so in a powerful way because of the way it incorporates debate, Socratic dialogue, argumentation, and rhetoric. In regard to the element of debate, it is important to note that a traditional debate format was not in this assignment by design. Efforts were made in structuring this assignment to replicate real-world organizational conditions where an organizational member or team analyzes an issue, develops a point of view, and then advocates that view publicly often using Microsoft Powerpoint®. The “debate” aspect of the presentation is an informal one that typically occurs during the question-and-answer session. This use of technology (i.e., Microsoft Powerpoint®) in organizational presentations has implications for the informal debate among organizational leaders that typically follows. Chesebro (2000) suggests that digital networks and computing devices as vehicles of interaction have produced significant changes in the sociotechnical context for organizational communication. Barry and Fulmer (2004) state that intersection between influence and media has received little attention from organizational scientists. Thus, determining the impact of computer media on effective delivery of a persuasive argument like the provocative statement assignment is an area for further exploration. It would be interesting to include in such research a closer examination of how the actual classroom presentation slides were constructed (i.e. message point language, multi-media).

Seventy-five percent of the respondents indicated that the provocative statement assignment did help them developing their skills in being persuasive. One interesting implication of this finding concerns the use emotional persuasion. While the provocative statement assignment had a primary focus on rational persuasion, emotional persuasion is also relevant because emotional appeals are often used to promote significant changes in the organizational context (Fox & Amichia-Hamburger, 2001). In the leadership class in which the provocative statements were assigned, some students choose to share personal stories of family members who had died in the Holocaust as part of their “evidence” to support their claim that Hitler’s actions were not those of an effective leader. Thus, emotional persuasion tactics were present and would be an interesting area for additional investigation.

Leadership educators should strive to have students question their own assumptions about leadership issues. Seventy-five percent of respondents in this study felt their thinking about leadership was challenged by the provocative statement assignment, and 81% felt the assignment helped them work through contradictions in their thinking. These results point to the importance of developing statements that are truly provocative. For example, the statement used in the assignment that asserted that charisma is the distinctive quality of effective leaders challenges students to reflect on what really makes a leader effective and the importance of the elusive characteristic of charisma. Several students in the

class commented anecdotally that they began their thinking through this statement with one position but that the position began to shift the more they reflected upon it.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the outcomes identified, what follows are recommendations for future research.

- Additional studies with larger samples to collect more evidence related to students' perceived effectiveness of the assignment.
- Pre- and post-assignment data related to one's leadership development and/or experiences could be collected and compared to determine the impact the assignment has on development.
- The study may be replicated assigning provocative statements to students on an individual basis to mitigate any intervening group dynamic issues.

Conclusion

Stedman (2009) asserts that fostering critical thinking in the leadership classroom is “not only pertinent to the student experience in the course, but in their lives as leaders after the course” (p. 215). Further, Samuelson (2006) recommends that educators should challenge students to “practice making decisions where the ‘right’ answers cannot be derived from a spreadsheet” (p. 364). The provocative statement assignment described in this paper is responsive to both of these comments by challenging students to critically evaluate multiple perspectives related to leadership where there is no one best answer. Leadership educators are encouraged to tailor this assignment to their specific course learning objectives by crafting provocative statements closely related to their course content. The preliminary findings of this study suggest that the assignment has the potential to be a powerful learning tool in the leadership classroom, and we encourage additional classroom research using the assignment so that its full potential can be realized.

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The Community Leadership Educator's Perspective on Program Sustainability

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Abstract

Those who work to develop and manage community-based leadership programs have long been concerned with how to sustain them – to keep them healthy and useful. But focusing on how to sustain programs requires exploring what sustainability means. This paper reports on interviews with 41 community-based leadership education program coordinators. In contrast to their definitions of success, which emphasize impacting individuals and communities, interviewees defined program sustainability more as having enough participants, adequate funding, continuity, community support, and alumni involvement in program management. The paper explores the nuances of these definitions, including internal aspects of sustainability over which program managers had significant control, and external conditions over which they had less control. The paper also explores differences in perspectives between coordinators of programs sponsored by Chambers of Commerce and those sponsored by Cooperative Extension and universities or nonprofits.

Introduction

In these days of economic crisis, community-based programs of all kinds are focusing on survival. This is no less the case for community-based leadership education (CBLE) programs. CBLE programs provide leadership education--usually a regular course -- for members of local communities, or members of identity groups (Lersch & Burgert, 2007). As such, they emphasize improving community life. Course content can vary, but generally includes both self-understanding and community development foci. In Wisconsin, at the time of this study, there were 44 CBLE programs. Slightly less than half of those were sponsored by local Chambers of Commerce. Most of the remainder was sponsored by University of Wisconsin Cooperative Extension, with three others sponsored by a college, university, or a nonprofit organization.

One challenge with understanding sustainability in relation to CBLE programs is a lack of targeted literature. First, the term sustainability is increasingly used in environmental contexts as well as more colloquially in a variety of situations. Those working in an environmental context often cite a 1987 United Nations report defining sustainability as managing development in such a way that it would preserve the ability of future generations to also meet their needs (Henriques & Richardson, 2004; Liebl, 1997). Use of the term has expanded significantly since then and has come to mean simply continued existence. In an organizational context, it means that the organization continues to exist (Gordon, 2005). In its briefest sense, it is interchangeable with viability (United Nations Capital Development Fund, n.d.). Looking more specifically at sustainability in relation to community organizations, analysts see funding (Moore, 2000), and leadership cultivation and continuity (Boyatzis, Smith, & Blaize, 2006; Boaden, 2006) as the crucial foundation for sustainability.

But is that all there is to it? After an extended literature review, the authors of this paper could find little research going beyond the obvious definitions of sustainability that applied directly to CBLE programs. In public health Shediach-Rizkallah and Bone (1998) found little development of or agreement on the definition of sustainability in relation to community-based health programming. They argued that the important indicators of sustainability should be maintenance of benefits from the program, institutionalization of the program in a sponsoring organization, and increased capacity in the local community. The most important factors influencing those indicators included the broader community environment, program design and implementation features, and sponsoring organization characteristics. Savaya, Elsworth, and Rogers' (2009) literature review, again emphasizing public health, found that institutionalization and continuity have been subsequently central to the definition of program sustainability. They also found that diverse funding, organizational stability and flexibility, and

partnerships with individuals and groups in the community enhanced sustainability.

The only literature we discovered that explored sustainability in relation to any kind of leadership program found that institutional sponsor commitment, clear objectives, an evaluation plan, a long-term strategic plan, and a community capacity building focus were keys to program sustainability (Kellogg Foundation 2001). Neither this study nor the others cited above, however, engaged program managers, coordinators, and leaders in defining the terms of the research. Our research set out to discover how those involved in implementing CBLE programs defined and understood the concept of sustainability.

Methods

This research is based on a participatory study (Stoecker, 2005) designed to engage the CBLE program leaders in developing support systems for their programs. The researchers contacted coordinators of all 44 Wisconsin CBLE programs. The vast majority of programs are located in micropolitan or rural areas mostly serving a county, but sometimes focusing on a single city. Three programs are located in urban Milwaukee and Madison. Four programs serve participants across the state and five serve multi-county regions. The programs ranged from one that lasted only a year to others that were more than a decade old. One program was only two years old at the time of the study.

Our purpose was to develop a definition of sustainability that CBLE program coordinators could use in assessing their programs. This research was thus a meta-inquiry whereby the researchers learn more about the meanings and issues of the subject population in order to better design a second-stage research project (Carlson, 2003).

The researchers sent e-mail requests for interviews to coordinators of 18 Chamber of Commerce sponsored programs, 16 UW Extension administered programs, six sponsored by universities or colleges, and another sponsored by a non-profit. The requests included the interview questions (see Table 1). Two coordinators declined interviews, and two others did not respond to repeated e-mail and telephone contacts. Two people from one program were interviewed. Interviews were conducted by telephone that lasted between 30 and 60 minutes each, except in two cases where individuals returned answers via e-mail. These coordinators are responsible for an array of activities within their programs, such as acting as liaison between different program partners, fundraising, recruiting, participating in relevant boards or steering committees, and teaching some or all leadership education sessions. Thus, they could provide detailed answers to the questions. The interview questions also approached the topic of sustainability from multiple

angles to maximize the chances of getting detailed definitions from the interviewees (see Table 1).

Table 1
Interview Questions

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1. What is your role in the leadership program?
 2. How would you define “successful” compared to “sustainable” in relationship to community leadership development programs in general?
 3. How would you know a sustainable program if you saw one? What characteristics would it have?
 - 3b. How would you know an unsustainable program if you saw one? What characteristics would it have?
 4. What factors do you think threaten sustainability of community leadership programs?
 - 4b. What factors do you think promote sustainability of community leadership programs?

Two research team members then independently coded the answers for latent content. Coding for latent content is similar to coding for themes – interpreting what respondents say using a common thematic schema. In contrast to a-priori coding schemes, this process is similar to the original grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) in that new codes are developed until all the interviews are coded and no new themes emerge. Such coding is an inter-subjective process necessitating more than one coder (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). To develop the schema, the two coders first developed their own coding schemes independently on an initial handful of interviews. They then met to discuss each of their coding schemes and create a single common coding template. Then they recoded the same interviews plus another handful of new interviews to test the template and resolve differences in application and interpretation. By the end of the process, they had discussed each code applied to each section of interview content. The researchers then counted the number of individuals for whom a code appeared in an interview. Thus, if the same code appeared numerous times in one interview, that still only counted as one appearance for the analysis you see below. The findings were then presented in draft form to all interviewees and at a gathering of CLBE program coordinators to test the salience of the themes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

What are the Dimensions of Sustainability?

Separating Success and Sustainability

We first asked program coordinators how they would define success compared to sustainability for a CBLE program. The results are summarized in Table 2. We report all of the characteristics that at least four people mentioned. Five individuals did not clearly distinguish between success and sustainability and seven people perceived the concepts as intertwined.

Table 2
Coordinators' Definitions of Success versus Sustainability

Success		Sustainability	
Characteristic	Number and percent reporting	Characteristic	Number and percent reporting
Participant impact	19 (46%)	Enough participants	14 (34%)
Community impact	14 (34%)	Funding	11 (27%)
		Program continues	11 (27%)
		Graduate involvement	8 (20%)
		Enough human resources	6 (15%)
		Adaptability/growth	6 (15%)
		Responds to need	4 (10%)
		Community impact	4 (10%)
		Participant impact	4 (10%)

(total cases=41)

A number of interviewees were unaccustomed to thinking about sustainability in relation to their leadership programs. In the stress of having to maintain programs from year-to-year and even day-to-day in some cases, there is little time to reflect on the array of elements that leadership program coordinators bring together to assure program sustainability. The interview provided an opportunity for coordinators to engage in that reflection.

In defining success, there was an interesting distinction between coordinators who emphasized impact on participants and those who emphasized impact on the community. Impacting participants meant that the CBLE program “made a positive difference in participants’ personal or professional lives,” by helping them learn about themselves and their leadership skills. Impacting the community meant that the graduates engaged in projects that made a difference in their communities. The researchers were conservative in coding community impact. If an interviewee mentioned only that they wanted their graduates to serve on boards or get elected to office, it was coded as personal impact. Only when a coordinator mentioned that they wanted graduates to become involved in community projects was the response coded as community impact. About one-third of the 41 program coordinators mentioned only participant impact while one-fifth mentioned only community impact. One-tenth mentioned both.

Program coordinators’ definitions of sustainability focused mostly on the continued operation of the organization. A quarter of the respondents simply stated that, if the organization kept going, it was sustainable. Also, 11 coordinators – about a quarter of the interviewees – noted that adequate funding is an important indicator of sustainability. Other definitions, such as having enough human resources in the form of staff, volunteers, and class facilitators were also occasionally linked to funding concerns, but also to program management issues. Similarly, eight coordinators noted that having their graduates become involved in the program – recruiting future students, serving on the organization board, and bringing resources into the program – was an important sustainability indicator.

The most common criterion of sustainability, reported by 14 coordinators, was continually filling leadership classes. Many coordinators noted that filling classes meant being able to collect adequate tuition to fund the program. For others, especially in sparsely populated areas, an inability to fill classes indicated whether they had saturated the population and simply run out of potential participants.

A smaller number of coordinators defined sustainability in relation to program participant interactions with the community. For six interviewees, sustainability meant that the program could adapt and grow as conditions in the community changed. Four coordinators each understood sustainability as the extent to which community members perceived the program as responding to a community need or the community received benefits through the program.

Finally, four coordinators looked at sustainability in terms of the program’s impact on individuals. This definition, along with community impact, overlapped with the success characteristics. The success of a program thus, appears to only be a small part of what makes it sustainable. This is consistent with other literature showing that program success alone does not ensure program stability. To the

contrary, as resources collapse, a program may need to be scaled back or narrowly redefined to ensure its sustainability (Wenger, et al., 2007).

Combined Definitions of Sustainability

Over the course of each interview, program coordinators were asked to discuss sustainability in different ways. In the analysis that follows, the researchers analyzed all of an individual's responses as a single block. Thus, a respondent who mentioned funding in answer to more than one question was still only counted once. Table 3 reports indicators mentioned by at least six program coordinators.

Table 3
Internal and External Definitions of Sustainability

Internal	Number and percent reporting	External	Number and percent reporting
Organizational stability	33 (80%)	Funding	25 (61%)
Active alumni	17 (41%)	Enough participants	24 (59%)
Program adaptability	16 (39%)	Community support network	23 (56%)
Strong leadership	10 (24%)	Meeting community needs	23 (56%)
Diversity of participants	9 (22%)	Employer support	16 (39%)
Advertising and recruitment	8 (20%)	Participant impact	12 (29%)
Evaluation / documentation	7 (17%)	Community impact	11 (27%)
		Community involvement	6 (15%)

(total cases=41)

We divided these results into internal and external factors. Internal factors are those things over which program coordinators have significant control. External factors are more heavily influenced by circumstances and conditions outside of the program. There is not a perfect separation between the two, as it is up to the organization to manage the influences of external factors, and external factors can make internal issues easier or more difficult to manage, but distinguishing those helps show the relative importance of organizational development strategies and community development strategies in achieving CBLE program sustainability.

Internal Factors

Organizational stability was the most frequently mentioned internal indicator of sustainability. This indicator combines organizational features such as a strong staff, board, program design, organizational structure and plan, and non-money resources. Organizational stability is a combined indicator because most interviewees mentioned overlapping combinations of the sub-indicators, making a separate analysis of each too difficult.

Organizational stability, however, does not prevent program adaptation and development. On the contrary, the next most cited internal indicator of sustainability was adaptability. Sixteen interviewees, more than a third, believe that continually updating and growing their programs is important. For some, this is one way to continue attracting new participants. For others, this is a way to keep up with new issues in their locale and new developments in leadership education. This focus on adaptability contrasts with the emphasis placed on long-term strategic planning in the Kellogg report (2001), perhaps because of the different scale and institutional context in which the programs operate. But the importance of evaluation, reported by seven interviewees, is consistent with that report and is important for guiding adaptability.

Involving leadership graduates or alumni in running CBLE programs was important to 17 of the 41 coordinators. These respondents wanted alumni serving as program board members, facilitating classes, or recruiting new enrollees, or funders. For most, the underlying theme was involving alumni in connecting the program to the broader community, and one-third of the program coordinators referred to this idea across several of the questions. This finding is not universal, however. While graduates may contribute in many ways to some programs, in other programs their absence is not necessarily seen as detrimental. This difference highlights that even within programs that are substantively similar sustainability can be understood and achieved differently. Some program coordinators (see Table 3) also saw active recruitment and advertising as key to maintaining participation and alumni often played an important role in this process.

Ten interviewees mentioned leadership as important to their CBLE programs. Many of the indicators above, such as adaptability or organizational stability, assume qualities of leadership. But it is nonetheless surprising how few coordinators explicitly mentioned that *leadership* was important for their own programs and even fewer had a developed theory of how leadership models played out in their programs. It is possible that some program coordinators think of leadership at the level of the individual, consistent with their program's focus, rather than at the level of the organization.

One other theme that emerges is diversity which shows the growing importance of Wisconsin's changing demographics. Diversity, as it is used by these interviewees, can take into account ethnicity, race, gender, employment, backgrounds of participants, age, or numerous other characteristics. Nine coordinators saw maintaining diversity among program participants as important to program sustainability. Coordinators saw having a diverse program as essential to ensuring its relevance to the community as a whole and enriching the learning experiences of participants.

External Factors

Looking again at Table 3, funding is the most frequently mentioned external sustainability factor discussed by 25 coordinators. This supports the central role accorded to funding in the literature. However, our analysis revealed that community connectedness which is reflected in six of the seven remaining indicators is also very important.

One aspect of community connectedness is the ability of programs to fill their classes (24 of the 41 interviewees). As noted above, this may be connected to funding, since most of the programs are dependent on tuition. But the challenge of filling classes can also be understood as the need to be connected enough in the community to convince a wide variety of potential participants and the employers that sponsor many of them of the leadership program's importance.

Thus, filling classes is intimately connected with employer support (16 of the 41 coordinators). About one-fifth of the interviewees stated that having employers sponsor their employees' participation was crucial. Others see employers as important community network members. Another way employers provide support, discussed by about a quarter of the coordinators, is by giving employees time off from work to attend leadership program sessions. Some coordinators believe that increased business pressures have reduced these forms of employer support.

Slightly over one-half of the coordinators mentioned the next aspect of community connectedness – building a community support network for their program. These networks can provide program participants, funding, trainers, and other resources. They also provide an indicator that the program is valued in the community.

The same number of interviewees mentioned the next aspect of community connectedness – meeting community needs. Most of these coordinators did not say that their programs needed to show that they met a need, but that they needed to be *perceived* as meeting a need. Here the focus is on whether community members see a leadership gap that needs to be filled than with whether they see

the CBLE program as successfully filling that need. This does not mean that program impact is unimportant, as the next two indicators show, but that it does not automatically lead to program sustainability.

The last two aspects of community connectedness are the involvement of program graduates in the community, and the overall impact of the program and its alumni on the community. Six coordinators reported that community *involvement* was important and 11 others emphasized community *impact*. Such impacts included organizations changing the way they work and incorporating the leadership program into their regular operations. As noted earlier, getting involved in the community by sitting on boards or being elected to office is different from directly creating important community changes through such involvement.

Distinct from community connectedness, 12 of the program coordinators discussed participant impact as a sustainability indicator. While some program coordinators hoped that the changes they tried to support in individuals would lead to those individuals impacting the community, most did not explicitly connect the two. Individual impact is about individual self-improvement, which is theoretically distinct from, though consistent with, directly producing a broader community impact.

Differences between Chamber-Sponsored and Other Programs

The two main sources of leadership programs in the state are county Extension offices and local Chambers of Commerce with a few programs sourced through universities or independent non-profits. Because of the potentially distinct community networks and funding of Chamber programs compared to the others, it is important to explore any potential differences in how coordinators of 18 Chamber-sponsored programs, compared to the coordinators of the 23 Extension, University and non-profit run programs, defined sustainability.

Here again the analysis is divided into internal and external aspects of the programs (see Tables 4 and 5). We are conservative in interpreting the differences since the total responses are small.

Internal Factors

As Table 4 shows, there were similarities across some of the internal factors defining sustainability for both groups. Advertising and recruitment, organizational stability, and evaluation or documentation of the program was reported in similar proportions by Chamber and non-Chamber program coordinators. In both cases, organizational stability was the most frequently cited internal factor in defining sustainability.

Table 4
Chamber vs. non-Chamber Definitions of Internal Sustainability

Internal Factors	Number and Percent of Chamber programs	Number and Percent of non-Chamber programs	Percent difference between groups
Active alumni	9 (50%)	4 (17%)	33%
Program adaptability	5 (28%)	11 (48%)	-20%
Diversity of participants	5 (28%)	3 (13%)	15%
Strong leadership	3 (17%)	7 (30%)	-13%
Evaluation/documentation	4 (22%)	3 (13%)	9%
Organisational stability	15 (83%)	18 (78%)	5%
Advertising / recruitment	4 (22%)	5 (22%)	0%
TOTAL	18	23	

The most pronounced difference between the Chamber and non-Chamber programs is the role of alumni in program sustainability. Nine of the 18 program coordinators from Chamber-run CBLE programs brought up this factor, compared to only four of the 23 leaders from non-Chamber programs. As we note in the next section, Chamber programs may be more tuition-dependent and, as three coordinators noted, alumni can become important recruiters. In particular, since a number of the Chamber programs rely on a regular stream of employer-subsidized participants, positive reports from alumni back to those sponsoring employers are important for filling classes.

There is also a difference in the reporting of program leadership as a sustainability factor. Seventeen percent of Chamber program coordinators discussed program

leadership during the interview, compared to 30% of non-Chamber programs. The bulk of the non-Chamber programs are managed through government agencies, and their coordinators emphasize community ownership of the programs. But building a community base to support the program can be more challenging for a government agency than for a business network group. Consequently, the role of strong leadership may be less visible in Chamber programs.

External Factors

Fewer coordinators emphasized external sustainability factors than internal factors. As a result, the differences here are less pronounced than for the internal indicators, with the exception of funding (see Table 5).

Table 5
Chamber vs. non-Chamber Definitions of External Sustainability

External Factors	Number and Percent of Chamber programs	Number and Percent of non-Chamber programs	Percent difference between groups
Funding	8 (44%)	17 (74%)	- 29%
Community involvement	4 (22%)	4 (9%)	13%
Community impact	6 (33%)	5 (22%)	11%
Community support network	9 (50%)	14 (61%)	-11%
Employer support	8 (44%)	8 (35%)	9%
Participant impact	6 (33%)	6 (26%)	7%
Enough participants	11 (61%)	13 (57%)	4%
Community need	10 (56%)	13 (57%)	-1%
TOTAL	18	23	

Funding as a sustainability characteristic was the most important difference between the two groups. While three quarters of the 23 non-Chamber program coordinators listed funding as an important sustainability factor, less than one-half of the 18 Chamber program coordinators emphasized it. We suspect that funding and participant recruitment may be more tightly linked for Chamber programs, which may rely more on tuition, while the other programs may rely more on grants. Note that employer support is also slightly more important for Chamber programs. This is also consistent with our interpretations of difference in emphasis on the internal characteristics displayed in Table 4.

The next largest difference in external factors reported by each group concerns community involvement and impact. Both factors were mentioned more often by the Chamber program coordinators. On the other hand, having a community support network was reported more by the non-Chamber programs than by the Chamber programs. These differences likely reflect different understandings and practices of relating to the community. Employer support, in the case of the Chamber programs, might be as important in ensuring that the Chamber's business members support the program as it is in filling classes, and could substitute for the broader community networks emphasized by the other coordinators. Also, as we discussed for the differences in the internal indicators, Chamber programs are already part of existing business networks in the community, while government programs need to build a support network from scratch.

Conclusion

This research shows that CBLE program coordinators have much more sophisticated and complex definitions of program sustainability than the scant literature on the issue would suggest. Indeed, in the context of the never-ending quest for stable funding, it would be easy for program coordinators to think of sustainability that shallowly. But their thinking on sustainability extends far beyond funding.

Developing more complex definitions of sustainability as we have done here can potentially increase the sophistication with which program coordinators and researchers approach the issue of program sustainability. In an increasingly pressured context of evidence-based funding and struggles to find best practices, having a multi-faceted model of sustainability can show both practitioners and funders the complex strategic options for sustainability and reinforce the wisdom that there is no silver bullet and no single path to program sustainability. Indeed, our subsequent application of this model to the Wisconsin CBLE programs showed extremely complex combinations of best practices toward sustainability (Stoecker, Willis, & Lersch, 2008). This is especially important because most of these programs are managed by single individuals who have to keep track of this complexity, find the best combination for his or her program, and then put that combination into practice and manage it.

We do not know, from this initial research, exactly how these variables interact, or may be affected by specific contexts. In particular, we cannot yet reach strong conclusions on the differences between Chamber and non-Chamber CBLE programs. We are also not certain whether our findings apply to other regions of the country, but suspect they may, as they mirror some of the findings for public health programs in other places. These questions will need to wait for future

research. We offer these findings as a springboard for both practitioners and scholars to more effectively explore and address the questions and challenges of program sustainability. For those of us who lead and support these programs, we need to move beyond defining sustainability as funding, and better account for the role of the community base in sustaining community-based leadership education.

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Leadership Development through Sports Team Participation

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Abstract

The question of whether leadership is teachable has received considerable attention in the academic and practitioner arenas. Organized athletic team participation offers students a different experiential venue that many argue develops leadership. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between organized sports team participation and leadership skills. We employ a valid means of measuring several leadership dimensions using a validated assessment center method. Nine distinct leadership skill levels were measured for 141 MBA program students. Using ANOVA and correlation analysis we found no systematic association between the number of seasons of sports team participation and the level of any particular leadership skill. The findings caution recruiters and other persons making personnel decisions against using this past behavior as an indicator of these or any other leadership skills. By showing a preference for athletes, recruiters may bypass persons who would be a good fit for a position.

Introduction

The question of whether leadership is learnable has received considerable attention in the academic and practitioner arenas. Doh (2003) presented the perspectives of several prominent management educators on this topic. He concluded that several aspects of leadership might be enhanced through various learning experiences. Additionally, it was suggested “leadership skills are best acquired as part of a practical, experiential educational program” (p. 64).

While most leadership educators are referring to traditional, faculty-led educational programs when discussing leadership skill development, persons from another part of the college campus argue that their programs are also instrumental in leadership development. Organized athletic teams offer the student a different experiential program that many argue develops leadership. Ewing, Gano-Overway, Branta, and Seefeldt (2002) argue that sport contributes to learning the skills and values necessary to succeed in education, in the workforce and throughout life. Similarly, Astin (1993) and Ryan (1989) contend that athletic participation among college students relates positively to growth in interpersonal skills, peer relationships, and leadership abilities. Danish (1986) defines some of these skills as the ability to perform under pressure, solve problems, meet deadlines and challenges, set goals, communicate, handle success and failure, work in a group and within a system, and receive feedback and benefit from it.

Dupuis, Bloom, and Loughhead (2006) analyzed semi-structured interviews with former university team captains. They concluded that team captain experiences developed interpersonal characteristics, verbal interactions, and task behaviors – all elements of leadership. Based on a review of empirical data, Iso-Aloha and Hatfield (1986) concluded that early athletic participation might contribute to later success in leadership through reinforcement of critical behaviors. Snyder and Spreitzer's (1992) study of over 4,000 high school males led them to conclude that athletic participation appears to increase the potential ability to lead. Consistent results were found by Dobosz and Beaty (1999) who found that in a sample of 60 suburban high school students, athletes demonstrated significantly greater leadership ability than did non-athletes. DeMoulin (2002) found that high school seniors who were involved in organized sports were better able to get along with all kinds of people (social integration), a critical skill for leaders of diverse groups. Aries, McCarthy, Salovey, and Banaji (2004) compared athletes and non-athletes at highly selective colleges. They reported that high-commitment athletes had a higher perception of themselves as socially skilled, outgoing, confident, and good leaders.

Not all studies have demonstrated a relationship between athletic team participation and leadership skill development. In his early anthropological study of Little League baseball, Fine (1987) concluded that sports participation has no general effect on self-image; it does not reduce prejudice nor is it necessary for leadership development. Danish, Petitpas, and Hale (1990) argue that overall the empirical literature does not support a cause-effect relationship between sport participation and social competence. While high school coaches rank learning life skills second of 15 reasons they believe young people should participate in sports, they concede that by ranking it ninth as an outcome then in reality, it does not happen (Lesyk, 2000). DeMoulin's (2002) study of high school seniors found that those who participated in organized sports scored significantly lower on a

measure of personal maturity, a construct reflecting self-efficacy, coping skills, positive assertiveness, and locus of control. Blinde and Greendorfer (1992) report that student-athletes find it difficult to interact with peers outside athletic groups. In addition, Spreitzer (1994) contends that the transfer effects from the playing field to the larger game of life receive little support.

In addition to the mixed conclusions reached by previous studies of the relationship between sports team participation and leadership development, the measures used in many of these studies also may be questioned. Some of the leadership measurement instruments used in those studies focused on leadership within a sports team, and thus may not be generalized to leadership in a different context. Other measures included self, peer, or coaching staff perceptions of the individual athlete's leadership abilities and as such, the validity of the construct measured can be challenged. Sample size in many of the studies is very small. No previous study of sports and leadership has used a behaviorally based, validated measure of leadership.

The current study examines the relationship between organized sports team participation and leadership skills, employing a valid means of measuring several dimensions of leadership. The study addresses the following research questions.

Q1: Do organized sports team participants differ in their leadership skills from those who did not participate in similar teams?

Q2: Are increasing levels of participation in school-sponsored sports teams associated with increasing levels of leadership skills?

Q3: Does the nature of the sport have an effect on the level of leadership skills developed?

Methods

Participants

Participants consisted of 141 students who completed a one-day assessment center required by their academic program. The students were enrolled in an MBA program at a suburban North Central United States private university. Seventy-three (52%) of the participants were male. Their average age at time of assessment was 26.9 years (*sd.* = 5.8 years). Compared to other MBA students at other private school MBA programs within a 300-mile radius, this group is comparable in age and gender make-up. Compared to those attending programs sponsored by public universities in the region, these students are approximately two years younger and had more female representation. Based on information

available from *Business Week's* business school part-time MBA program data comparison, this convenience sample is representative of MBA students at North Central United States universities.

Measures

Leadership Skills. The assessment center was a pre-requisite exercise for enrollment in a required management skills course. The assessment center method, which offers a direct assessment of the behaviors, motivations, and knowledge needed for a target position, involves multiple evaluation techniques, including various types of job-related simulations and psychological tests. The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) commissioned Development Dimensions International (DDI) in the late 1980s to develop an assessment center as a means of measuring learning outcomes measurement in business schools (AACSB, 1989).

The Assessment Center exercises used in this study are those developed by DDI. They included the following simulations:

- An in-basket exercise.
- Group discussions.
- Simulated performance interview with a “subordinate.”
- Oral presentation exercise.
- Written communication exercise.

The validity of using the assessment center method in both industrial and academic settings has been established. The standardized administration and scoring inherent in the assessment center method helps to insure the reliability and validity of the data that are produced (Gaugler, Rosenthal, Thornton, & Bentson (1987)). Riggio, Mayes, and Schleicher (2003) and Waldman and Kobar (2004) established the criterion-related validation for the use of assessment centers in academic settings. They were able to establish significant correlations between assessment center performance and post-graduate supervisory ratings (Riggio, et al., 2003) as well as subsequent job satisfaction, number of promotions, and salary (Waldman and Kobar, 2004).

One advantage of using assessment center methods is that it allows for the measurement of a multidimensional array of skills associated with the leadership construct. Nine independent factors (dimensions) were measured in the current study, including (a) planning, (b) analysis, (c) judgment, (d) delegation, (e) maximizing performance, (f) individual Leadership, (g) teamwork, (h) communication, and (h) written communication. Definitions of each of these skills are listed in Appendix A.

Participants' behaviors and outcomes of their participation in each of the simulations were recorded either on videotape or in written format. DDI evaluated the results. Each participant's exercises and simulations are rated by multiple (typically three) assessors. DDI assessors are given extensive training to differentiate participants' behaviors related to competencies being measured. DDI provides assessors with behavioral examples to guide their judgment of participants' performance on each dimension (DDI, 2001). After each assessor assigns a rating on each dimension for each participant, assessors share their observations and agree on a single score for each dimension. Specific written feedback was returned to the participants, including numeric scores (1 = low to 5 = high) on each of the dimensions. A university career counselor then debriefed each student, explaining the DDI feedback and suggesting courses and activities that might result in skill improvement.

Sports Team Participation. Each assessment center participant completed a survey requesting the number of seasons played in each of 24 sports on a formal school-sponsored team at either the high school or college level. We based the list of sports on those offered by a university identified by the NCAA as having the widest variety of varsity teams. In addition, we added that university's "club" sports to the list and an open-ended question was available for participants to amend the list.

Although participation in the assessment center exercises was not voluntary for students in this MBA program, participating in the survey of sports team participation was. No student refused to complete the survey.

Analysis

We carried out a single variable ANOVA where the dependent variables were the leadership dimension scores and the grouping variable was team participation. For significant ANOVA, follow-up univariate analyses were carried out. Finally, we examined the correlation between the number of seasons played and the level of leadership skill for each of the nine leadership dimensions measured.

Results

Table 1 lists the variables' means, standard deviations, and ranges. There is wide variance for all variables, giving us confidence that even though our sample consisted of persons motivated and talented enough to pursue a graduate business degree, their current skill level varied considerably.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges for Team Participation and Assessment Center Skills Results ($N = 141$)

Variables	Mean	SD	Range
Age (years)	26.9	5.7	21 - 53
Number of Seasons Interactive Sport Team Participation Total (High School and College)	3.66	4.46	0 - 15
Number of Seasons Coactive Sport Team Participation Total (High School and College)	2.01	3.00	0 - 12
Number of Seasons All Sport Team Participation Total (High School and College)	5.67	5.27	0-20
Assessment Center Skill Dimensions (1=low 5=high)			
Planning	2.28	.79	1 – 5
Analysis	2.64	.76	1 – 4
Judgment	2.26	.66	1 – 5
Delegation	1.95	.80	1 – 4
Maximizing Performance	2.35	.89	1 – 5
Individual Leadership	2.84	.92	1 – 5
Teamwork	2.91	.77	1 – 5
Communication	3.48	.62	2 – 5
Written Communication	3.23	.43	2 - 5

Table 2 provides results that related to first research question – Q1: Do sports team participants differ in their leadership skills from non-participants. Sports team participation measured as a dichotomous, categorical variable is defined as those persons who reported one or more seasons of participation. Team participants differed from non-participants in only two skills: teamwork: [$F(1,139) = 9.936, p = .003$] and written communication [$F(1,139) = 3.094, p = .081$].

Univariate tests confirmed that the only statistically significant differences were again for teamwork and written communication. For teamwork, participants' mean score on this dimension was 3.02, while non-participants averaged only 2.60 ($t = 2.989, sig. = .003$). Non-participants scored significantly higher ($t = -1.76, sig. = .08$) on written communication ($m = 3.34$) than team participants ($m = 3.19$). While the differences for the other seven dimensions were not statistically significant, it is interesting to note that average scores for non-participants on planning, judgment, delegation, maximizing performance, and communication were higher than the average score for team participants. Subsequent analyses of this data defining participation by varying levels of team experience yielded similar results.

Table 2.

Mean Leadership Skill Levels for Team Participants and Non-Participants

Leadership Dimension	Team Participants		Non-Participants		t
	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	
Planning	2.24	.76	2.38	.87	-.959
Analysis	2.69	.75	2.51	.80	1.214
Judgment	2.22	.62	2.36	.78	-1.081
Delegation	1.92	.78	2.03	.87	-.709
Maximize Performance	2.33	.89	2.40	.92	-.350
Individual Leadership	2.86	.97	2.79	.78	.396
Teamwork	3.02	.69	2.60	.88	2.989**
Communication	3.46	.61	3.51	.63	-.443
Written Communication	3.19	.42	3.34	.55	-1.759*

* $p < .1$ ** $p < .01$

Table 3 lists the correlations between length of team participation and leadership skill levels. This analysis provides information relative to two of the research questions – Q2: Are increasing levels of participation associated with increasing levels of leadership and Q3: Does the nature of the sport affect the skills developed? The only sports individually analyzed were those in which some participation was reported by at least 15% ($n = 25$) of the study's participants.

Table 3

Correlation Between Number of Seasons Sport Participation and Leadership Skill Level ($n = 141$)

Variables	M	SD	Plan	Anal	Judge	D'gate	Max Perform	Ind'l Leader	Team Work	Comm	Written Comm
Total Seasons	5.67	5.27	-.027	-.010	-.021	-.143	-.051	-.006	.129	-.019	-.126
Total Interactive Sports Seasons	3.66	4.46	.030	.000	-.008	-.117	-.007	-.049	.091	-.031	-.117
Total Coactive Sports Seasons	2.01	3.00	-.090	-.017	-.024	-.072	-.077	.082	.085	.014	-.042
Basketball	0.86	1.78	-.055	-.037	.066	-.094	-.003	.111	.009	.152	-.009
Baseball / Softball	0.85	1.83	.072	.040	.040	-.032	.117	-.088	.053	-.156*	-.076
Football	0.96	2.11	-.087	-.044	-.033	-.084	-.118	-.056	.079	-.018	-.193**
Soccer	0.54	1.45	-.033	.000	-.150*	.022	-.007	-.094	-.079	-.072	.053
Track / CC	0.71	1.66	-.028	-.040	-.050	-.033	-.015	.145	.168**	.093	-.128

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

In order not to ignore the potential effects of less popular sports, each of the 23 sports was classified into one of two categories: coactive or interactive. Interactive sports are those where task interactions are essential for group success (e.g., baseball, football, soccer, basketball). Coactive sports are those where task interaction among the individual team members is not an element of the sport (e.g., golf, tennis, swimming, track). This categorization is relatively common in the sports study discipline (Carron, Colman, Wheeler, & Stevens, 2002; Munroe, Estabrooks, Dennis, & Carron, 1999).

The resulting correlations reveal no systematic association between the number of seasons of sports participation and the level of any particular leadership skill. Only increased participation in track/cross country was associated with an increased level of teamwork ($r = .168, p < .05$). Increased participation in football was associated with significantly lower skills in the area of written communications ($r = -.193, p < .05$). Increased participation in baseball and softball was negatively correlated with communication skills ($r = -.156, p < .01$), while increased soccer participation was negatively associated with judgment skills ($r = -.15, p < .01$). Grouping sports into the interactive and coactive categories did not result in increased participation having any statistically significant association with any leadership skill level.

Summary

Few differences exist between sports participants and non-participants regarding the leadership skills measured in this study. Team participants differed significantly from non-participants in only two skills: teamwork and written communications. Sports team participants demonstrated higher teamwork skills. Those who did not participate in school sports demonstrated higher written communications skills. Increased levels of participation are not associated with differing levels of leadership skills. The nature of the sport is not generally associated with skill development.

Discussion

The current research demonstrates only limited support for the adage that sports builds leaders. We posit three distinct reasons for this weak link. First, the primary purpose of participating on a sports team is not leadership development. The activities are designed to develop physical skills and the strategy associated with a particular sport. Kaagan (1998) points out that effectively designed leadership development activities consist of correctly selected learning challenges, ordered in a specific sequence. Team coaches select activities and order them in a manner to develop athletic, not leadership skills.

Second, while it is possible that the sporting fields and arenas could serve as a venue for experience-based learning of leadership skills, several of the key elements necessary for learning are not present. Thomas and Cheese (2005) outline three key phases of experience-based learning: preparing, developing, and preserving. Proper preparation requires assessment of strengths and weaknesses, personal values, and learning style. Developing involves practice of the skill, while preserving involves feedback and revision of learning objectives. Consistent with the preservation factor, Connaughton, Lawrence, and Ruben (2003) point out that good leadership development programs encourage the students to reflect on their leadership processes both inside and outside of the classroom. We argue that while the typical sports team experience may develop leadership-related skills, systematic attention is paid not paid to preparation or preservation. Bredemeier and Shields (2006), in a literature review focusing on sports as a social experience and character development conclude that “sports can build character, but only if coaches deliberately seek to do so and are adequately informed regarding the educational processes required” (p.6). Anecdotal evidence from our study participants during debriefing revealed that feedback from coaches centered on sports-related skills. Even participants designated as a team captain rarely received feedback from a coach regarding their leadership role. If anything, team leaders reported that they tried to model their own leadership behaviors for those of the team coach.

Finally, leadership behaviors developed through sports may not be transferable to classroom, much less the boardroom. Just as the classroom teaching of abstract leadership constructs is criticized for its lack of transferability to in the workplace, so too the skills learned in a competitive athletic contest may not transfer to a corporate setting. McKenna (2004) argues that managerial skills “cannot be developed in isolation of context” (p. 674). Athletes may only see their field-developed skills as applicable to sports, and therefore do not use or practice them in the workplace.

Human resources managers, especially those involved with campus recruiting should consider the results of this study in their decision-making. The authors’ experience with campus recruiters is that many of them put a high premium on recruiting college athletes because they believe that experience increases their leadership skills, especially teamwork and motivation skills. An executive recruiter of CFOs stated that he looks for “people who have been in athletics at a high level” (*Today’s Finance Leaders*, 2002). The findings of this study caution recruiters and other persons making personnel decisions against using this past behavior as an indicator of these or any other leadership skills. By showing a preference for athletes, persons who would be a good fit in the job may be bypassed unnecessarily. Further research on this topic will focus on whether sports develop skills in certain types of persons and not others (e.g., males v females) and its effect on skills not measured in an assessment center.

Appendix A

Fundamentals of Leadership Dimension Definitions

Planning and Organizing/Work Management – Establishing a course of action for self and/or others to accomplish a specific goal; planning proper assignments of personnel; appropriate allocation of resources.

Analysis/Problem Assessment – Securing relevant information and identifying key issues and relationships from a base of information; relating and comparing data from different sources; identifying cause-effect relationships.

Judgment/Problem Solving – Committing to an action after developing alternative courses of action that are based on logical assumptions and factual information as well as take into consideration resources, constraints, and organizational values.

Maximizing Performance – Establishing performance goals; coaching performance; providing training; evaluating performance.

Individual Leadership/Influencing – Using appropriate interpersonal styles and methods to inspire and guide individuals (i.e., direct report, peers, and superiors) toward goal achievement; modifying behavior to accommodate tasks, situations, and individuals involved.

Teamwork/Collaboration – Working effectively with team/work group or those outside the formal line of authority (e.g., peers, senior managers) to accomplish organizational goals; taking actions that respect the needs and contributions of others; contributing to and accepting the consensus; subordinating own objectives to the objective of the organization or team.

Communication – Expressing ideas effectively in individual and group situations (includes nonverbal communication); adjusting language or terminology to the characteristics and needs of the audience.

Written Communication – Expressing ideas clearly in memoranda and letters that have appropriate organization and structure; correct grammar and language; terminology adjusted to the characteristics and needs of the audience.

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Biography

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Youth Leadership Development Through School-Based Civic Engagement Activities: A Case Study

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Abstract

Leadership development through a civic engagement activity in a local FFA chapter is explored. Through a case study design, researchers illuminate a project that encouraged youth leadership development through the creation and execution of a civic engagement project in their own local community. Holistically, FFA members viewed the project as a resounding success. Leadership development was experienced at many levels - individual, chapter, and community. FFA members felt particularly engaged when seen as partners with the community. This was accomplished through developing networks and participating in the planning, decision making, and execution of the project. The primary barrier cited was a lack of engagement from all chapter members. Implications include the important role civic engagement plays in youth leadership development, employing civic engagement projects to assist in developing higher level leadership skills, and the need for further research partnerships between career and technical student organizational members and local community citizens.

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Civic engagement can take on many forms within the community, including volunteerism, participating as an elected official, and even involvement in civic and nonprofit organizations. More specifically, civic engagement can be defined

as the commitment of individuals to collectively identify an issue within their community, create and execute solutions to address the issue, and ultimately create and sustain interest in their community (National FFA Organization, 2006). A majority of today's youth (67%) indicated that they do not have adequate opportunities to serve their communities (America's Promise, 2009).

While the purposes and contexts vary among youth organizations, in general they seek to provide events and experiences which help adolescents become contributing adults and leaders to society. *Understanding Youth Development: Promoting Positive Pathways of Growth* (1997), a report for the United States Department of Health and Human Services, indicated that when adolescents feel competent, connected, and have a sense of control they are more likely to exhibit positive developmental behaviors. Interactions identified as most productive in producing these outcomes include those that:

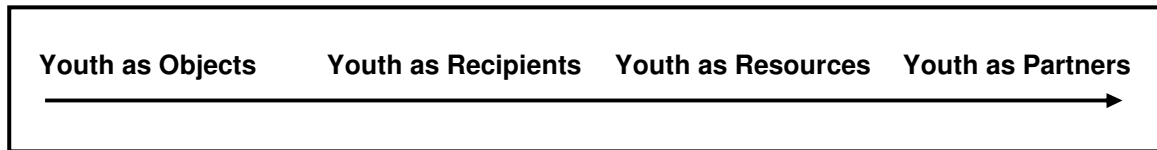
- provide recognition for their productivity.
- involve interactions with adults who monitor and supervise behaviors and activities.
- consistently involve caring adults who provide emotional support, encouragement, and practical advice.
- create exchanges between adolescents and adults based on the acceptance of adolescents as individuals.

The National FFA Organization seeks to create opportunities for adolescents to engage in a variety of experiences, events and activities to develop leadership skills and provide interactions which lead to positive youth development. Civic engagement is a specific focus for the National FFA Organization (National FFA, 2006). The role of the advisor influences members and impacts the outcomes related to growth and development of the members. Although research examining leadership through FFA participation has been conducted, very little has examined the youth-adult interactions and the context in which leadership behaviors through civic engagement occur through FFA involvement.

Role of Youth in Society

Lofquist (1989) developed a spectrum of attitudes that adults may hold regarding the role of young people in society. The continuum (see Figure 1) represents attitudes where young people are viewed as Objects (Do this because I know best), as Recipients (Do this because it is good for you), and Resources (Do this because you can make a contribution). The Innovation Center for Community and Youth Development (2001) added a characterization of youth as Partners to Lofquist's original continuum. As Partners, youth share leadership and decision-making roles with adults.

Figure 1
A Spectrum of Adult Attitudes toward Youth



The view adults take toward young people tends to shape the nature of the leadership programs they design. In some programs, leadership is taught through formal routines that emphasize compliance. The leader is in charge and followers are objects to be directed. Many adults view teens as problems to be solved and not potential community leaders (Zeldin, et al., 2000; Gilliam & Bales, 2001). At other times, youth run activities designed by well-meaning adults gaining knowledge and skills for later life. Programs where young people are treated as Resources promote growth in knowledge, skills and self-esteem. Sometimes youth are treated as full partners with adults, therefore making decisions and taking actions targeted to solve a community need (Peiter, Nall, & Rennekamp, 2005).

Context of Leadership Activity

Ayres (1987) identified four key developmental phases through which individuals engaged in a leadership curriculum should progress (see Figure 2). First, individuals develop knowledge of themselves, who they are, what they believe, and how they function. Progressively they move to mastering skills for working with others, refining skills working with groups or organizations and finally focusing on leadership within the context of communities, systems, and society. As the arena in which leadership is being practiced continues to broaden, individuals use knowledge and skills learned at previous levels to be effective in the new context. The fourth level in this model focuses on community, recognizing that the ultimate goal of individual and group development is to serve the common good beyond the individual or organization.

Figure 2
Context of Leadership Activity



Leadership Development in Agricultural Education

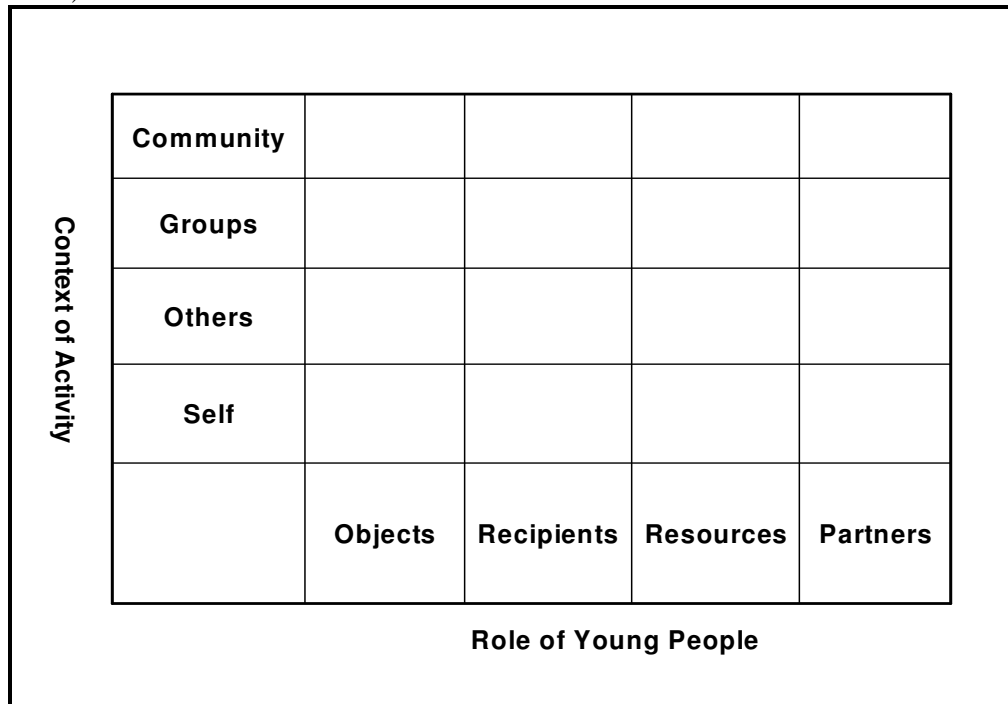
As a premier agriculture youth leadership organization, FFA has prepared future leaders through local, state, and national activities. The FFA mission states “The National FFA Organization is dedicated to making a positive difference in the lives of young people by developing their potential for **premier leadership, personal growth and career success** through agricultural education” (National FFA, 2005).

Peiter Horstmeier and Nall (2007a) examined the role of youth in the context of FFA leadership activities. When examining the role of members engaged in leadership activities, FFA members agreed strongest that youth were treated as Partners as opposed to Objects, Recipients, or Resources in their FFA leadership activities. However, youth’s partnership experiences focused on self-development leadership activities. In addition, Peiter Horstmeier and Nall (2007a) found a decrease in each level of the continuum when leadership experiences develop members’ leadership skills from self to community. This indicates youth are provided less opportunities for involvement in leadership activities focusing on developing skills at a higher level, particularly (Peiter Horstmeier & Nall, 2007a).

Furthermore, Peiter Horstmeier and Nall (2007b) examined chapter leadership activities through qualitative methods. Youth participating in focus group interviews focused less on being treated as objects and instead concentrated the discussion on being resources and partners. Through this lens, participants could easily identify personal benefits from participation in FFA activities. In addition, students easily described the activities which helped them develop leadership skills in the context of understanding self. However, as the dialogue moved towards community it became more difficult for FFA members to describe benefits; in fact, students had the most difficulty identifying skill development in relation to community. Obviously, students are well attuned to how FFA involvement benefitted them on a personal basis, but lost the implications as they progressed towards community.

The theoretical framework of this study is based merging the two leadership theories of Lofquist (1989) and Ayers (1987) as created by Peiter, Rennekamp, and Nall (2005). This conceptual map displays the relationship between the context of chapter leadership activities and youth leadership member role, and is displayed in Figure 3.

Figure 3
Conceptual Map for Theoretical Framework (Peiter, Rennekamp, & Nall, 2005).



Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this case study was to examine the outcomes of a project from the National FFA Civic Engagement Initiative. More specifically, this research was intended to bring to light the thoughts, feelings and perceptions regarding civic engagement of the FFA members who developed and participated in this project. Therefore, the guiding research questions for this qualitative study were:

R1: How would you describe your chapter's civic engagement project?

R2: Would you consider your project a success or failure? Why or why not?

R3: Do you think this project benefited you as a person?

R4: Do you think this project benefited your FFA Chapter?

R5: Do you think this project benefited your community?

R4: Would you do this project again? Why or why not?

Methods and Procedures

This study used qualitative methods to gather and interpret data. Research subjects were chosen purposefully in order to maximize the potential of finding the issues that occur in the context under study (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993). For this study, participants were identified as FFA Chapter members receiving a Civic Engagement Initiative Grant funded by the National FFA Organization in the 2006-2007 academic year. Understanding that within naturalistic inquiry there is no concrete rule for sample size and that the key is to look more for rich information than volume (Erlandson, et al., 1993), this study focused on member role and context of leadership experiences within civic engagement leadership activities.

All chapter advisors in these grant funded chapters were contacted in Fall 2007. Criteria for participation with this case study included member availability and participation with the civic engagement initiative project. After examining type, level of youth involvement and one community engagement, this chapter was selected in order to highlight positive outcomes of a community engagement project. Their project focused on relief efforts and agricultural education with a community affected by Hurricane Katrina.

Upon selection of the FFA chapter for the study, structured interviews with chapter members took place in October 2007 at the National FFA Convention held in Indianapolis, Indiana. To assure accuracy of data, a tape recorder was placed in the center of the table and two assistants were seated at opposite corners to take notes. Researcher bias can never be fully removed; however, an awareness of personal biases were acknowledged and checked with peer reviewers. Biases include former membership of the FFA and professional experience with leadership development and the agricultural education profession. The researchers acknowledge that their experience in leadership development and agricultural education domains help to conceptualize the study including interview selection questions and interpretation of the data.

Five members involved in the civic engagement project were interviewed as a group for this case study. The welcome and all questions used were scripted to ensure all objectives were met. Questions for the chapter case study began with students explaining their civic engagement project. Students reflected on their experiences and described their involvement. Youth also identified the influence of other members, advisor(s), and community members in their civic engagement project experience.

Context of FFA member's leadership activities were also investigated through the case study interview. Questions were structured to examine activities from the context of leadership development with one's self, other individuals, groups, and communities. Follow-up questions were used to encourage dialogue and lead participants to discuss the role of the youth-adult interaction. For analysis of student responses, students were assigned a number code (1-4) and pseudo name. To maintain confidentiality, student responses were identified in the findings and are noted by their assigned pseudo name. Once the interview respondents were identified and interviews transcribed, content analysis was conducted.

Finally, because within the qualitative research paradigm the findings of a study cannot be stripped from the social context, the examples provided allows readers to draw their own decisions on the transferability of the findings to their own social construction (Hodder, 1994).

Results and Findings

The purpose behind this study was to illuminate a project that encouraged youth leadership development and civic engagement through the development and execution of their civic engagement project. As such, we will use the aforementioned study questions to provide detail, and will begin with a description of this chapter's civic engagement project:

The first research question sought to describe the civic engagement project. The project of choice was a week-long interactive day camp to teach kids about agriculture in their own local community. The *Agventures* camp was held in the summer of 2007 and began as a desire to help members of their community, who were Katrina victims. The students wanted to provide a learning opportunity, as well as an escape, for young, school-age children in the area; it was to assist parents by providing a learning *day care* of sorts for one week in the summer. The planning began shortly after Hurricane Katrina in 2005, and culminated in the summer of 2007. The weeklong camp was divided into a number of learning workshops each day, with activities integrated into each. The school-age students were divided up according to age, and alumni and community members, as well as FFA members, taught the workshops. Ultimately it was seen as a community building exercise; this was clearly illustrated through different service learning projects done as a part of the camp, involving community members in the leadership of the program, and providing benefits for younger community members in the area.

A second study question asked students to describe whether they considered their civic engagement project to be a success or a failure. All the students involved expressed they felt their program was a resounding success, and they gave a wide

range of reasons why. On a personal leadership development level, several individuals stated the camp made them step outside of their comfort zones and make some quick decisions, particularly when addressing the facilitation and management of the camp. Other leadership skills developed included stress management and composure, organization, effective communications, and being an effective role model for children.

Addressing success from a broader standpoint, students also believed their program helped more holistically by working to develop ties within their FFA chapter and ultimately, their own community. Within the FFA chapter, students felt more united and that they had given something back to their community. As this project had Katrina victims as well as other families in mind, they were excited to have made a difference in the world.

A further benefit to the FFA chapter included promoting agriculture awareness throughout the community. Agriculture awareness is a major goal of the participating FFA chapter, and the subject matter of the camp (agriculture) helped to promote agriculture awareness to kids who may never have otherwise been exposed to this subject matter. This assisted in encouraging the development of links between agriculture and the community, and was particularly important in developing future agriculture stakeholders.

Todd stated:

Our chapter is also big on ag awareness and the elementary school and the younger kids because our city is starting to become urbanized, so we do some other ag awareness activities and it was really cool to get to see the kids to get to understand...milk comes from a cow and not the grocery store.

Alexis stated:

Our chapter is very community oriented; we have done so many projects just specifically for the education of the children in our community and for senior citizens and the farmers.

On a larger scale, students also mentioned several aspects that were successful at the community level. Partnering up with the community was instrumental in encouraging the development of relationships and networks between the students and community members. Other community members began to recognize the students as engaged within their community and as such, they began to appreciate and become more familiar with FFA as a youth leadership development organization. Becoming a more recognized and integral part of the community, providing agriculture knowledge and expertise as well as leadership development, and earning community support were other byproducts of facilitating a successful camp.

Alexis stated:

Definitely a success. It was so awesome because it's something where when we work with the community that's something you know that we really love to do...and the kids had so much fun.

Joe stated:

It's great, like I said you're working with your community, not just with them, you are actually helping them.

Sue stated:

Our community is like so supportive, it's amazing...we are always in the paper and on the news and so our community is very familiar with what we do, and what our organization stands for. They have always been supportive in everything we do and I think that's part of the reason why we got such a big turnout.

While FFA members could clearly articulate the individual and groups successes that resulted from participating in this civic engagement project, they were equally astute in communicating the challenges they encountered. The primary challenge experienced as a part of this project was a wide-spread lack of engagement from members in the entire FFA chapter. While the whole chapter was encouraged to assist in the development and management of the *Adventures* camp, realistically this project was developed and put on by the officer team and a select group of other volunteers.

For the third research question, students were asked how this project benefited them, their FFA chapter, and the community. The benefits to the students involved, as well as the FFA chapter and community were expressed in a variety of ways. Students said a Partnership was developed with the community through working on this project, and the partnership has continued even after the project's culmination. Once communication of the project reached the community, community members began volunteering to help in a variety of roles. Through working with the FFA chapter on this project, many community individuals noted a better understanding of what FFA does beyond volunteering. Partnerships were also developed with other community organizations, including the local Waffle House, who provided supplies and volunteer hours toward the project.

Sue stated:

Working with the families and the community is something that just comes naturally to our chapter...we are like their support group and they're like ours. We can lean back on our community if we need help and they know we will help if they need it.

Joe stated:

We also had a lot of our alumni and parents and community members come and help us. Our community is good for that...when we do something they want to help because they know it's going to reach a child somewhere.

Alexis stated:

Our high school has a lot of organizations that are great organizations, but we are one of the main ones that get out into the community all the time, and it's not always for the same things.

As an FFA chapter, students say they bonded and became much closer as a group. Several FFA members who were less involved before the project became much more involved in chapter activities post-project. Increased participation and motivation was perceived because students felt like they were giving something back as a group – they were partners with each other as well as their community.

Todd stated:

All together as a chapter we came up with all the activities...and the members were so excited because they helped plan it and put it on, and so they really wanted to help. We even had members from other chapters come and help, some close towns to us...

Alexis stated:

Our chapter became more united, we had some students that just, you know, participated at the chapter level and they did stuff, but I mean they didn't go all out, and when they were able to go to the camp they were able to see what all we did, and able to bond with those kids and work hard.

Sue stated:

In the past we worked with our community, and so we had a lot of members of our community well-acquainted with us and wanting to help... it was them and past members that...wanted to get back involved.

The individual benefits for students were strongly tied with reasons that contributed to project success. Development of leadership skills, forming closer relationships FFA members, and networking throughout the community were all benefits cited as direct results of interaction while participating in the civic engagement program.

Todd stated:

Yes, definitely it was awesome. It helped me grow as a leader.

Joe stated:

I think it helped everybody to deal with stressful situations...you really just had to compose yourself and be structured so it helped everybody be able to function.

Alexis stated:

You have to learn how to bring, learn how to talk to (children)...with children you have to bring it down a lot and. so it tests your skills as a leaders and as a teacher to be able to do that.

The final research question asked students if they would do their project again. They answered with a resounding yes. If funding was not received from original sources, students talked about using chapter funds or even doing fundraising projects in support of continuing the project. Students articulated how worthwhile the project was; one that gave back to the people of their community and helped strengthen their community in the process. Continuing to develop that partnership with their community was also seen as an important reason to continue doing civic engagement projects, even projects beyond this case study.

Sue stated:

It's way worth it. I would do it again, we will do it again. One thing I hope for the kids that came to our camp in that when they are filling out their schedules to go to high school that they will consider agriculture and consider what they can do just like what we did for them.

Conclusions/Recommendations and Implications

FFA members can get excited about helping out their community, and are even more motivated when they have a stake in what's being done. Allowing them to take the lead on developing, planning, executing, and debriefing a project gets them involved and gives them ownership over the entire process. Encouraging service learning projects, linking them to community-based or leadership development courses, and ultimately developing more civic engagement opportunities like this for all Career and Technical Education students is a great way to begin encouraging civic engagement.

Leadership development at a personal level can also be encouraged through participation in civic engagement projects. Putting students in a real life situation where the decisions made determine the success of the program encourages them to think critically and more holistically. The same cause and effect relationships can be witnessed as found within other types of experiential learning, such as

service projects or internships. Aspects such as stress management, communication, being a good role model, and organization were just some of the skills students experienced through this civic engagement project.

To more fully capitalize on the benefits and advantages of student participation in a civic engagement project, there needs to be more engagement from the entire chapter. Involvement and participation from the officer team is critical in creating a cohesive unit; however, it is important to motivate chapter members to also contribute to the overall project. Encouraging students to engage within their community is important for all members; it is not just those who hold visible leadership roles within the organization. As educators, by supporting students to become more civically engaged at a younger age, we make the potential for civic engagement later in life more feasible.

For civic engagement projects to be successful, it is important for the members to be seen as partners with the entity they are serving (in this case, the community). FFA members expressed a strong partnership with community volunteers, FFA alumni, and even other community groups throughout the project. Contact and communication were initiated by the FFA members; however, due to a strong history of collaboration many of the members said they knew they could count on active participation from community members. This activity supports the leadership role and context theoretical framework as established by Peiter, Rennekamp, and Nall (2005).

However, participation from the community is not all that is necessary for effective civic engagement projects. As Loftquist (1989) stated earlier, to make the most effective use of partnerships, youth need to share leadership and decision-making roles with the adults. From the beginning planning stages to the final facilitation, FFA chapter members were encouraged to take a strong role in planning and decision-making. This illustrates several points. Students who are encouraged to take major roles within the planning, facilitation and execution of a project are not only going to be more motivated for future civic engagement possibilities, but their own leadership skills are also being developed through this process. This helps to push student development into another level – from self and interpersonal leadership skill development into the group and even community leadership skill development. As students take on more responsibility and move into more complex leadership situations such as those within a group or community then different skills are tested and required to be successful. Through the experiential learning from this project, many students pushed themselves out of their comfort level and were encouraged to develop more of the complex leadership skills.

In the end, civic engagement projects should not only be looked upon as opportunities for personal development, but should also be noted for their

contribution to the community as a whole. For rural communities to remain there is a call for local leadership to take charge and guide the way into the future. Leadership development must occur, not only with adults but also with young people, so they will be prepared to meet the challenges of the future within their schools and communities. A new generation of leaders is needed to build local partnerships for managing change in today's diverse communities (Tabb & Montesi, 2000).

Leadership skill development is particularly important when it is operationalized through civic engagement. Strong leadership experiences leads to strong communities. By encouraging more youth driven civic engagement projects such as these within FFA or any Career and Technical Education student organization, the link between leadership skill acquisition and actually applying the leadership skill is created. When members use the leadership skills they have acquired to become civically engaged, they not only build leadership skill, but also improve their local communities through the use of various skills.

Designed as a case study, this analysis was meant to illuminate the details surrounding this specific civic engagement project conducted by these local FFA members. While the results, conclusions, and implications are meant to be useful in illustrating the value of civic engagement projects to youth leadership development, they are not in any way meant to be generalized across any other situations or audiences.

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Le Culminant

The Editor wants to remind any interested authors to submit articles to leader@tamu.edu as soon as possible for review in the Summer 2009 issue.

Note that the style guidelines for JOLE have undergone revision recently. As always...suggestions to the Editor are welcomed and they are often implemented!

***"Reading furnishes the mind only with materials of knowledge;
it is thinking makes what we read ours ."***

- John Locke