

This issue of the *International Journal of Leadership Studies* contains the sort of variety and “out-of-the-box” research that we hope to present on a regular basis. The first article is an unusually comprehensive review of the attributes of this thing called leadership. The table of information is very rich and should serve as a guide for students of leadership around the world. We were fortunate that Bruce Winston and Kathleen Patterson decided to bring this to IJLS. Mikhail Grachev and Mariya Bobina next present a look at leadership in Russia. The communist legacy combined with the new spirit of freedom in this country makes the study and description of leadership particularly challenging. Carl Oliver presents a study showing how crisis leadership can reveal much about a leader's values and moral development. Both the underlying theoretical thinking and the methodology of this paper present some great ideas for further studies. Next, Carole Murphy and her colleagues provide insight into the challenging process of a joint educational venture in South Africa. This case study is interesting reading in itself. However, I was intrigued by the scenarios it triggered and the aspects of this type of venture that we often don't consider in advance. Myra Dingman provides a Practitioner's Forum on the hot topic of executive coaching, a developing field also ready for considerable study.

Julia Mattera, our managing editor, and Doris Gomez, our web guru, have created a professional presentation. I hope you enjoy this issue. Let us hear your comments and suggestions for making IJLS even better.

Dail Fields
Editor

Executive Coaching: What's the Big Deal?

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Do you have a coach? Do you know someone who has a coach? If you answered “yes” to either of these questions, then you are somewhat familiar with the biggest buzz in personal and leadership development in the 21st century since training exploded in the 20th century. In 2003, *The Economist* estimated that organizations were already spending upwards of \$1 billion worldwide providing coaches for their employees and expected the growth to double within 2 years (“Corporate Therapy”). A report by Shuit in 2005 estimated there were 40,000 coaches working throughout the world and suggested that the business of coaching in the United States alone had grown to \$1 billion per year. If you have no idea what the big deal about coaching is, then here is a crash course on executive coaching that is sweeping the nation and the world.

Historically, the term “coach,” found in the English language, came from the early 1500s and referred to a type of four-wheeled, horse-drawn carriage. A coach assisted the travel of a person from one location to another. Over the centuries, a coach became an instructor or trainer for individuals: athletes, performers, and public speakers would all use a “coach” to improve their performance. In the 1980s and 1990s, the term coach added another significant meaning; it represented a new relationship between an individual who sought to change a behavior or attitude, reach a desired goal, or improve upon some aspect of their life with the professional help of a trained “coach.” Executive coaching followed shortly with the added dimension of coaching a leader in an organization – ultimately seeking to understand the complexities of the executive’s organizational culture, goals, and climate, and to combine these with the already complex nature of any human being’s home life and relationships. Although one clear definition does not exist, it is generally agreed that executive coaching is a one-to-one interaction between a coach and an executive in a helping relationship offering experiential learning and dialogue that facilitates an executive’s desire to reach specified goals and may affect individual self-, job-, and organization-related outcomes. Ultimately, beyond individual growth and results, the effects of executive coaching are intended to extend to improved organizational performance – hence the reason that organizations, across the United States, are funding this type of interaction that could potentially cost billions of dollars.

Why is Executive Coaching a Big Deal?

Coaching had a bad wrap when it earnestly began in the 1980s. For many years, coaching had been used as a kind of discipline or “last effort” for underachieving executives in the corporate world. Although this is one purpose of coaching, today coaching covers a multitude of purposes. Carter (2001) presented a list of some of these purposes:

1. Coaching supports the induction or appointment of a senior person into a more senior, or different role.
2. Coaching accelerates the personal development of individuals defined as “high potential,” or individuals from a minority group identified for affirmative action.
3. Coaching underpins the effective implementation of organization change, through supporting teams and individuals.
4. The coach is seen as a critical friend or independent sounding board to a senior individual.
5. Coaching supports senior individuals engaged in wider personal effectiveness programs, such as 360-degree appraisal or development centers.

With leadership viewed as a source of competitive advantage in today’s learning organizations shrouded in a culture of constant change, coaching is impacting executives in ways previously disregarded in areas of “soft skill” development.

What are the Outcomes of Executive Coaching?

Most notably, due to the personal and intimate relationship formed in an executive coaching relationship, outcomes occur in areas of individual growth and learning including improved self-awareness, self-efficacy, and sometimes extra-organizational areas like improved work and family balance or other personal relationship management issues. Even though these types of outcomes seem disconnected with organizational goals, all have been shown to improve job satisfaction and, in some cases, organizational performance. Evidently, organizations are paying for coaching services in order to see real return on investment in tangible outcomes such as personal performance and satisfaction, productivity, and organizational effectiveness improvement – all that have been studied as outcomes in the coaching literature over the past decade.

The Nuts and Bolts of Executive Coaching

With an estimated 40,000 coaches in the world, many different executive coaching methodologies exist. To summarize the executive coaching process, it is composed of six common components that can be combined in different orders:

1. Formal Contracting—a form of “contract” or agreement between the coach and executive, or the coach, executive, and the organizational sponsor (if necessary).
2. Relationship Building—sessions dedicated to developing a “fit” between the coach and executive while building mutual trust and respect
3. Assessment—this includes any form of review by the coach of the executive’s strengths, weaknesses, and overall developmental needs

4. Getting Feedback and Reflecting—receiving the results of the assessment and setting the stage for goal-setting
5. Goal-Setting—determining the goals and outcomes that the executive seeks to achieve while in the coaching relationship and developing the action plan to achieve the goals
6. Supportive Implementation and Evaluation—this includes the beginning of the formal coaching sessions, a schedule for evaluating the plan often using specified time frames, and termination (see Figure 1).

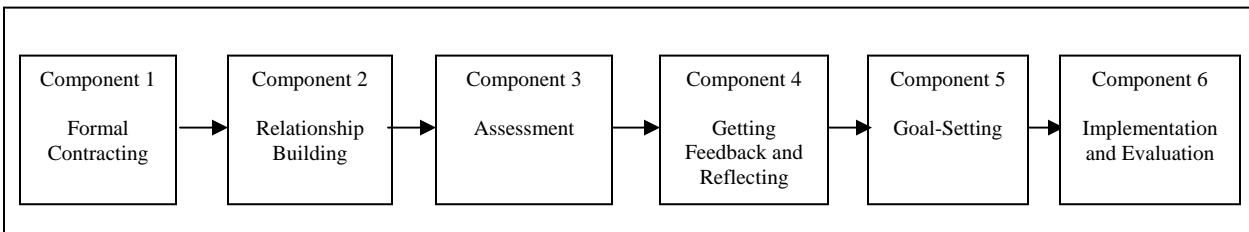


Figure 1. A common 6-component executive coaching process (see Dingman, 2004 for complete details).

The second key to a successful coaching experience is the coaching behaviors of the coach who is trained in (a) interpersonal skills, relating to the structure of the sessions created by the coach; (b) different communication styles, the coach's style of communication and listening skills used to direct conversations relating to the executives' goals; and (c) instrumental support which is defined as attributes of a successful coaching intervention referring to dimensions of how well the coach leads the executive through a successful intervention.

The costs of coaching also fluctuate, but according to Carter's (2001) example from a study in England, coaches charged up to 2000 Euros per day (approximately \$2500 US dollars) while the average daily fee of management consultants was 975 Euros (approximately \$1250 US dollars). Further, coaching is time-specific (a set amount of meetings and length), short-term (typical is 3-12 months in length), goal-oriented, practical, and measurable due to assessments and pre-, mid-, and/or post-session evaluations.

Executive coaching is about the relationship and the interactions between the executive and the coach. The executive drives the agenda with the guide of the coach, but the main goals are always for the coach to ask the right questions to encourage self-awareness in particular areas, not to manipulate the answers or give advice. In a world dominated by work and staying "connected" to your job at all times through technology, it is evident that loneliness exists at the top management level within organizations, and the loss of dialogue and conversation is often regarded as unnecessary means to organizational performance and goals. This is where executive coaching steps in to bridge the gap that is growing in corporate offices across the world: the need to reconnect with the human side of leading; reassess personal behaviors, attitudes, and decisions; and set goals to bring about positive change in a supportive and caring environment—transforming lives one at a time. That is the big deal about executive coaching.

About the Author

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An Integrative Definition of Leadership

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This study addresses the problem of varied definitions of leadership and focuses on the possibility that as part of the social science tradition, the results of other leadership definitions focused only on isolated variables. A review of the leadership literature showed that parsimony may be a problem in understanding leadership. In contrast to parsimony, the study uncovered over 90 variables that may comprise the whole of leadership. The authors then proposed an integrative definition of leadership encompassing the 90 plus variables that may help researchers and practitioners to more fully understand the breadth and scope of leadership. As more research uncovers new insights into leadership, this integrative definition will need to be upgraded, and as well, this integrative definition could be used as a base for leadership development programs.

A search of the Expanded Academic Database in 2003 of published articles using the term “leadership” returned over 26,000 articles. One might wonder if we (as researchers, scholars, consultants, and leaders) were not the cause of this problem in that we have examined the parts of leadership, but not the whole. We reflected on the story of the blind men describing the elephant and the different accurate descriptions that each blind man gave, yet each was insufficient to understand the whole. How would the blind men’s descriptions change if the elephant started walking? The movement of the trunk is different than the movement of the tail which is different than the movement of legs, which is different than the movement of the side of the elephant, which is different than the movement of the ears. While the 26,000 articles talk about leadership, there seem to be a lot of blind men describing a moving elephant.

Why were we blind in our past view of leadership? Perhaps our training in research and the exploration in the social sciences caused us to miss the whole as we probed the parts. Social science research often uses reductionism in studying and understanding social phenomena, with studies focusing on relationships among selected variables. This is not a bad thing to do and has helped us understand hundreds, if not thousands, of social science concepts. However, in the case of the study of leadership, this approach has taken us away from the whole. And it is this whole that we seek to understand. This is not the first attempt to study the whole of leadership as Rost (1993) reviewed leadership definitions, only to end up with the same social science research reductionist flaw when he concluded his work with a five-point definition of leadership. Barker (2002) also reviewed the leadership definitions used to date, only to also conclude that leadership is about two things—process and behaviors. Thus, the purpose of this current presentation on a whole definition of leadership is to present a whole or complete leadership definition as it exists

today. As new findings occur in leadership research we may come to understand leadership differently, but for now, this current definition helps us understand the whole of leadership.

Working as a team, we reviewed 160 articles and books that contained a definition, a scale, or a construct of leadership. While it is likely we did not find every document written, we stopped when we reached “saturation,” consistently finding redundant material in the literature. With each of the 160 documents containing 1 to 25 constructs, or statements, describing or defining leadership we compiled 1,000-plus constructs/statements that we categorized into 91 discrete dimensions and one labeled as miscellaneous (see the Appendix for a list of the dimensions and sources). Since each dimension represents a part of the “elephant,” we needed to assemble the dimensions back to a whole. For research, this integrative definition is problematic in that the next phase of this project required that we build an integrative model of all the dimensions and show how each element affects the others. While it is problematic in that it is difficult to deal with a model of 90+ dimensions, it is imperative that we find a way to do it. Like Kuhn’s (1996) work on scientific revolution explains—when the current paradigms do not explain the observed phenomena it is time for a different approach. Yet, even these 90+ dimensions are not sufficient to understand leadership. While many of the dimensions that occur in an integrative definition are virtuous, we have not had a clear theory of virtuous leadership—until now. To help the reader follow along with the dimensions of this integrative definition we first present the definition by itself and then follow the definition with separate sections examining each key thought in more depth. In this integrative definition we use complex and compound sentences in order to show the connectedness and interrelatedness of the concepts and dimensions.

An Integrative Definition of Leadership

A leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organization’s mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organizational mission and objectives. The leader achieves this influence by humbly conveying a prophetic vision of the future in clear terms that resonates with the follower(s) beliefs and values in such a way that the follower(s) can understand and interpret the future into present-time action steps. In this process, the leader presents the prophetic vision in contrast to the present status of the organization and through the use of critical thinking skills, insight, intuition, and the use of both persuasive rhetoric and interpersonal communication including both active listening and positive discourse, facilitates and draws forth the opinions and beliefs of the followers such that the followers move through ambiguity toward clarity of understanding and shared insight that results in influencing the follower(s) to see and accept the future state of the organization as a desirable condition worth committing personal and corporate resources toward its achievement. The leader achieves this using ethical means and seeks the greater good of the follower(s) in the process of action steps such that the follower(s) is/are better off (including the personal development of the follower as well as emotional and physical healing of the follower) as a result of the interaction with the leader. The leader achieves this same state for his/her own self as a leader, as he/she seeks personal growth, renewal, regeneration, and increased stamina—mental, physical, emotional, and spiritual—through the leader-follower interactions.

The leader recognizes the diversity of the follower(s) and achieves unity of common values and directions without destroying the uniqueness of the person. The leader accomplishes this through innovative flexible means of education, training, support, and protection that provide each follower with what the follower needs within the reason and scope of the organization's resources and accommodations relative to the value of accomplishing the organization's objectives and the growth of the follower.

The leader, in this process of leading, enables the follower(s) to be innovative as well as self-directed within the scope of individual-follower assignments and allows the follower(s) to learn from his/her/their own, as well as others' successes, mistakes, and failures along the process of completing the organization's objectives. The leader accomplishes this by building credibility and trust with the followers through interaction and feedback to and with the followers that shapes the followers' values, attitudes, and behaviors towards risk, failure, and success. In doing this, the leader builds the followers' sense of self worth and self-efficacy such that both the leader and followers are willing and ready to take calculated risks in making decisions to meet the organization's goals/objectives and through repeated process steps of risk-taking and decision-making the leader and followers together change the organization to best accomplish the organization's objectives.

The leader recognizes the impact and importance of audiences outside of the organization's system and presents the organization to outside audiences in such a manner that the audiences have a clear impression of the organization's purpose and goals and can clearly see the purpose and goals lived out in the life of the leader. In so doing, the leader examines the fit of the organization relative to the outside environment and shapes both the organization and the environment to the extent of the leader's capability to insure the best fit between the organization and the outside environment.

The leader throughout each leader-follower-audience interaction demonstrates his/her commitment to the values of (a) humility, (b) concern for others, (c) controlled discipline, (d) seeking what is right and good for the organization, (e) showing mercy in beliefs and actions with all people, (f) focusing on the purpose of the organization and on the well-being of the followers, and (g) creating and sustaining peace in the organization—not a lack of conflict but a place where peace grows. These values are the seven Beatitudes found in Matthew 5 and are the base of the virtuous theory of Servant Leadership.

The Definition in More Detail

The following sections present the definition in more detail and tie the elements of the definition to past research that is representative, but not exhaustive, of the items in Table 1.

A leader is One or More People...

The great man theory presents the case that leaders are individuals endowed with great characteristics and heroic abilities. In addition, trait theory describes individual leaders as people who have specific characteristics that help or enable the person to be a good leader. While the great man theory implies that people are somehow endowed with some "essence" of leadership, trait theory provides a base for measurable and testable characteristics such as virtues, race, gender, height, appearance, psychological factors, efficacy factors, cognitive factors, and

emotional factors to name a few categories. According to Bass and Stogdill (1990) the focus of both the great man theory and trait theory is on the individual.

However, leadership may be provided by a collection of persons (Hambrick, 1987). For example, top management teams represent a group of people who complete all the tasks and processes of leadership but do so as a collective rather than an individual. Traits still apply to leadership teams according to Richard and Shelor (2002), but the literature seems to be silent on the idea of “great” theories in its application to leadership teams. Since a collective of leaders increases the complexity of the leadership process compared to a single leader, the role of traits, as evidenced in research by Carpenter (2002), becomes more important with teams than with individuals.

Who Selects, Equips, Trains, and Influences

Selects... Before employees become followers of the leader(s), it is first necessary to bring the employees into the organization. Collins (2002) posited that a key activity of great leaders is getting the right people “on the bus.” This notion of getting the right people into the organization is explained more fully by the concept of person-organization fit. Person-organization fit can be extended to virtual organizations according to Shin (2004) by examining person-environment fit rather than person-organization fit, thus, the notion of the “right” people for the organization applies whether in a virtual or physical organization.

DePree (1989), as well as Murphy (1996), emphasized the importance of selecting the right people in order to achieve organizational success in the future. This idea was emphasized and strengthened by Chamberlain (2004) in that Chamberlain called for leaders to consider the “calling” or “vocare” that the potential new employee felt and to ensure that the calling could be fulfilled in the organization. Chamberlain’s work ties the person-organization fit concept to the person-job fit concept. These two “fit” concepts are similar but exist in a sequence in that the leader must first select the employee for the organization and then decide with the employee what job is best for the employee. This latter process is what Collins (2002) referred to as getting the right people “in the right seats on the bus.”

Brown, Ledford, and Nathan (1991) along with Kristoff (1996) included the notion of values alignment, or symmetry, of the employees’ values to the organization’s values as a key element in person-organization fit. Support for this idea can be found in McGregor’s (1960) seminal work in that McGregor posited that people would expend as much energy at work as they would at play if the organizations’ values and goals were aligned with their own. It is also the responsibility of the leader according to Arnot (1999) to not allow the alignment or symmetry to become so strong that a cult-like relationship occurs between the follower and the organization.

...Equips... Leaders equip followers by providing appropriate tools, equipment, and other resources so that the followers can be successful in their completion of assigned tasks. This is theoretically defined through Bandura’s (1997) concept of self-efficacy that when moderated by the availability of resources and support of the organization becomes “means efficacy” which is part of general self-efficacy. For more detail on general self-efficacy and means efficacy, see Eden (2001) and Chen, Gulley, and Eden (2001). No matter how capable or efficacious employees/followers are, without sufficient resources it is difficult or impossible to complete the work of the organization.

...Trains... In addition to providing the necessary resources, leaders provide training for followers in order to improve the success of the followers in completing the tasks of the organization. Belasco and Stayer (1994) commented on the importance of providing training but also added the need for helping employees/followers to learn quickly. In turbulent environments such as what Vaill (1996) referred to as permanent white water, the rapid rate and lower predictability of change calls for a requisite change in skills with the speed of change as a factor contributing to overall success of the organization. Maccoby (1981) advocated continuous training not only to prepare the employee/follower for task accomplishment but as a means of increasing the person's self-efficacy and self-esteem. This notion of improving one's self-esteem through training was echoed by Spears and Lawrence (2002) as well as Patterson (2002) and Winston (2002).

...And Influences... When new employees have similar values (alignment and/or symmetry) as the organization, have access to the requisite resources, and have the necessary training to do their jobs well, it is not difficult to influence the employee to accomplish the task. This claim is based on the work by Hersey (1997) in which Hersey claimed that if the person is interested in doing the work and has the skills to do the work the leader only needs to direct but not manage in detail. Influence, according to Shartle (1956), as well as Hemphill and Coons (1957), is the process of moving the employee toward the shared employee/organization goals. Capezio and Moorehouse (1997) added to the idea of influence by showing that leaders cause followers to think and feel positively towards the organizations' goals. According to Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961); Cribbin, (1981); and DuBrin, (1997), all influence occurs through communication whether the communication is in the form of speech, written documents, or demonstrated by behavior. However, leaders influence followers primarily through interpersonal interactions.

Although Zaleznik (1992) implied that influencing employees is a clear demonstration of the leader's power in the organization, Whyte (1943) advocated influence should avoid the invocation of power and relative status. Both Zaleznik and Whyte may be saying the same thing in that power may refer to the power followers give leaders through the follower's willful compliance to achieve the organization's goals as directed by the leader. This would fit Whyte's call to not have to invoke positional power.

One or More Follower(s) Who Have Diverse Gifts, Abilities, and Skills

As in the notion that leadership may be by one or more people, organizational followership may be by one or more people, although usually one would consider that a leader or a team of leaders would have more than one follower. The idea of a single follower is important though since leaders consider each follower according to the transformational leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994) as well as the leader-member exchange theory (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

...Gifts... Selecting the right people as well as placing the person in the right job requires that leaders determine the potential employees' gifts, abilities, and skills. DellaVechio and Winston (2004) posited that the seven motivational gifts presented in the twelfth chapter of the Book of Romans in the New Testament provide a set of gifts that exist as a profile of all seven gifts in each person. Leaders would do well to select people who possess certain gift profiles

such that all gifts are represented in the organization to the same extent as exists in the general population, thus giving the organization a balance of the gifts. Also, certain gift mixes align better with certain jobs than do other gift mixes, thus it is wise for leaders to assign people to jobs which are best aligned with the person's gift mix.

...Abilities... According to the Highlands Company Ability Battery brochure, "Everyone is born with natural abilities regardless of education or experience and that by the age of fourteen the natural abilities of each individual have matured enough to be defined and measured" (http://www.highlandsco.com/documents/Ability_Battery.pdf). The Highlands Ability Battery measures 19 natural abilities. While the seven motivational gifts show driving characteristics of the individual, natural abilities define what each person can do easily and well. In addition to the Highlands Ability Battery, the Strong Campbell Interest Battery and other batteries are available for use by leaders when assessing followers.

Darcy and Tracy (2003) emphasized the importance of understanding a person's abilities. Darcy and Tracy's work examined the use of vocational interest batteries along with the big five personality tests and cognitive ability tests to help understand the individual. Darcy and Tracy cautioned the user of interest batteries to be aware of social desirableness in which the person taking the battery provides responses that may not be accurate but intend to make the person look good to the test giver.

...And Skills... Pettigrew (1988) included the understanding of employees' skills and the accurate deployment of employees based on these skills as a strategic tool of the leader. Skills are the function-related knowledge and physical skills that contribute to the success and efficiency in completing tasks.

And Focuses the Follower(s) to the Organization's Mission and Objectives

Bass (2000) implied that transformational leaders "move followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of their group, organization or community, country or society as a whole" (p. 21). However, Bass later stated that servant leaders "select the needs of others as [their] [highest] priority" (p. 33). Although this seems that Bass' comment about servant leaders might imply that the servant leader does not focus the followers' efforts to the achievement of the organization's mission and objectives, but it would do so if the organizations' values and mission were in-line with the followers' values and mission. This alignment is part of McGregor's (1960) Theory Y and helps bridge the difference in foci between transformational and servant leadership.

Influence and persuasion are considered by Yukl (1994) as two of the primary functions of leaders. It is presumed in Yukl's comments that the leader is influencing and persuading followers to work towards the completion of the organization's mission and objectives. DuBrin (1997) echoed this sentiment in that, according to DuBrin, the leader causes others to act or respond in a shared direction. The presumption here is that DuBrin refers to this "shared direction" as the completion of the organization's mission.

Since leaders, according to Sadler (1997), Nanus (1989), and Harris (1989), are action-oriented it is logical to presume that this action-orientation, or as Cox and Hoover (1992) would claim as "achievement-orientation," would be toward the good of the organization. However, it is possible that the focus of the leader might be on self, which would be inline with agency

theory (Donaldson & Davis, 1991) that predicts leaders, acting as agents, are self-serving and seek to have the employees of the organization meet the needs of the leader. However, for the purpose of this definition of leadership, leaders who seek their own good and not the good of the organization would be classified as “bad” leaders, whereas leaders who focus on the good of the employees and the good of the organization would be classified as “good” leaders. This latter view of leaders is in keeping with the idea of leaders as stewards (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997) in which the leader as steward serves the needs of the organization rather than the needs of the self.

The notion of the leader focusing the followers toward the organization’s mission and objectives would include the process of strategic planning in which the leader provides guidance (Staub, 1996) and mobilizes followers to shared aspirations regarding the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). According to Jacques and Clement (1994) as well as Ulrich, Zenger, and Smallwood (1999) the leader sets the purpose and direction of the organization and then, according to Shartle (1956) and Seeman (as cited in Rost, 1993) influences the followers toward a shared direction. Hemphill and Coons’ (1957) belief that leaders direct the activities of a group toward shared goals reinforce this contention.

Tannenbaum et al. (1961) along with Kotter (1990) and Syrett and Hogg (1992) implied that leaders make frequent use of communication skills to influence followers to align with the organization’s mission and work toward the accomplishment of the organization’s objectives. Heskett and Schlessinger (1996) implied that leaders seek to touch the followers’ hearts, which would fit well into the transformational leadership’s concept of idealistic influence (Bass, 2000) and Kouzes and Posner’s (1995) concept of encouraging the heart. Both idealistic influence and encouraging the heart would be accomplished through rhetoric using formal and informal communication channels.

While Crabb (1839) and Zalenik (1992) implied that the leader’s use of influence focuses on the follower’s actions and thoughts, Katz and Kahn (1978) explained that the process of influence went beyond the mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization. This notion of going above and beyond the call is aligned with McGregor’s (1960) notion of Theory Y in that followers commit as much energy at work as at play if the values and mission of the organization is the same as the organization. It is the effort above the minimum that leads to exemplary performance.

Causing the Follower(s) to Willingly and Enthusiastically Expend Spiritual, Emotional, and Physical Energy

...*Spiritual*... This part of the definition relies on McGregor’s (1960) Theory Y concept of the followers willingly expending as much energy at work as at play. In addition, recent research/discussion of spirituality at work (Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson, 2003; Porth, McCall, & Bausch, 1999; Vaill, 1998, 1999) has increased the awareness of and the interest in the spiritual component of followers in organizations. The notion of spiritual, emotional, and physical energy ties to the Greek concept of the three parts of human: (a) spirit, (b) mind, and (c) body.

Burack (1999) specifically tied the importance of spirituality in the workplace to McGregor’s (1960) Theory Y and Ouchi’s (1980) Theory Z. In tying spirituality to these two theories Burack showed the importance of spirituality in the followers’ sense of achievement and

well-being, thus, tying the leader's influence on the followers' spirituality that leads to increased follower-innovation.

...*Emotional*... The leader seeks to cause the follower to expend emotional, or affective, energy toward the organization's objectives, which is similar to what Kouzes and Posner (1990) referred to as encouraging the heart. When the follower has passion toward the completion of the organization's objectives, the follower has greater commitment toward achieving the objectives. Recent work on hope in the organization by Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May (2004); Reed and Winston (2005); and Winston, Bekker, Cerff, and Reed (2004) showed the importance of Snyder's (Shorey & Snyder, 2004) hope theory to the leader-follower interaction. According to Shorey and Snyder, hope is evident in both goal-direction and pathway thinking by followers. Winston, Bekker, Cerff, and Reed (2004) added to this understanding by tying the notion of hope to followers' desires to expend energy through the use of Vroom's (1964/1994) expectancy in that followers consciously and specifically think about the probability of achieving a reward if the physical energy is expended and if the reward will be of real value to the follower. It is this emotional energy focused on the reward (intrinsic or extrinsic) and the belief that the reward can be achieved that helps drive the follower toward completing the organization's objectives.

...*Physical*... Vroom's (1964/1994) expectancy theory contains with it the notion of physical effort or task direction in that the follower seeks to achieve the objective through physical effort. This same notion exists in many motivational theories such as Locke and Lathan's (1990) goal-setting theory, House's (1996) path-goal theory, as well as, Yukl's (1994) multiple-linkage model. Task is central to many, if not all, motivational theories in that the focus of motivation, or influence, or persuasion is to motivate followers to achieve organizational objectives.

This physical energy can and usually is done in coordination with other followers according to DuBrin (1997) and Waitley (1995) as well as Prentice (1961) who described the role of the leader as one who accomplishes a goal through the direction of human assistants by gaining collaboration among followers. While this integrative definition has over 90 elements in it, the comprehension of the definition has to see the integrated whole. For example, the marshalling of followers' physical efforts can only be successful if the values of the organization and the followers are aligned and that sufficient training has occurred to insure adequate competence (Jaques & Clement, 1994).

In a Concerted Coordinated Effort to Achieve the Organizational Mission and Objectives.

The notion of collaboration mentioned above helps frame the leader's efforts to achieve a concerted coordinated effort by followers. The metaphors of conductor (Wis, 2002) and jazz band leader (DePree, 1993) help explain this part of the definition. When the organization is best served by a mechanistic high degree of direction then the metaphor of conductor is appropriate in that the followers, like the members of a symphony go about their tasks in a very prescribed standard manner with all followers doing exactly what the conductor requests. But, when the organization is best served by a flexible more open style of leadership then the notion of a jazz band leader helps explain how followers go about the execution of their tasks in a manner that

allows each follower to express behaviors in a manner that includes personal expression but at the same time fluidly meshing with the other followers.

Both forms of leadership produce a concerted coordinated expression of follower behaviors although each form occurs in a very different manner. While the two metaphors are extremely different the value of the metaphors could be expressed in various degrees of difference. The environment is a key element in deciding which form should be used. Stable predictable environments where opportunities are not considered important in short time frames would be more suitable for the symphony conductor metaphor whereas an environment that is unpredictable and opportunistic would be better served by the jazz band metaphor. The leader's level of trust (Essex & Kusy, 1999; McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995) and confidence (Giblin, 1986) in the followers also would play a role in that lower levels of trust and confidence would support the symphony conductor metaphor while higher levels of trust and confidence would support the jazz band leader metaphor.

Deming (1986) posited that a major problem for leaders and organizations was each follower doing his/her best. While this seems illogical that people should not do their best it makes sense when considering the need for a concerted coordinated effort. Followers must work together in a balanced method in order to achieve the greatest collective level of effectiveness. While individuals may not be able to perform to their individual bests, the whole of the organization achieves more when everyone works together. Systems theory contributes to the understanding of a concerted coordinated effort in that a system is a collection of integrated and coordinated processes and subsystems working in harmony to achieve stated objectives. Buzan, Dottino, and Israel (1999) as well as Daft and Lengel (1998) included in their discussions of leadership the requirement of leaders to build group synergy and a sense of unity that ties well to the notion of a concerted coordinated effort. In addition, work by Kouzes and Posner (1995), Cox and Hoover (1992), Kanter (1997), and Jacobson (2000) emphasized the idea that leaders work to foster collaboration among followers by presenting and promoting cooperative goals as well as helping followers to understand how to collaborate.

The Leader Achieves this Influence by Humbly Conveying a Prophetic Vision of the Future in Clear Terms that Resonates with the Follower(s) Beliefs and Values

Smith and Zepp (1998) along with Moldovan (1999) in their studies of Martin Luther King, Jr. compared King to Ghandi and pointed out that both leaders presented a description of the future to their followers in terms that caused followers to see both leaders as humble, yet intense about their beliefs. This is in keeping with Collins' (2002) determination that great leaders are humble but have fierce resolve toward the organization's vision.

Bower (1997) claimed that business CEO's, to be effective, need to move from a management-based orientation to a leadership-based orientation in which the leader can gain trust, exercise justice, and have the confidence to be humble. Bower's comment is more telling than is evident on the surface. Leaders need to be confident in order to be humble. This seems like a paradox in that confidence might be more logically tied to pride than to humility, but it is, in fact, a sense of confidence that removes the fear that so often prevents the leader from being humble. Little has been written on the notion of leaders and humility and is possibly why humility is a key element in the emergence of servant leadership and authentic leadership conceptual models showing up in the literature now. Avolio et al. (2004) pointed out that

“humble servants of their followers engage the deepest levels of commitment” (p. 18). Both servant leadership and authentic leadership concepts embrace the notion of humility in leaders.

Daft and Lengel (1998) posited that leaders must create an image in the minds of the followers that the followers belong to something bigger and more important than just an individual job. This can be done through the use of rhetoric and picturesque speech creating an image in the mind of the follower as to what the future could be if the followers work to achieve the described future. This is supported by both DePree (1989) and Chatterjee (1998) who stated that leaders define and express reality. Schein (1992) claimed this can be accomplished if the leader demonstrates extraordinary levels of perception as insight into the realities of the world.

By describing a preferable future (Bell, 1997) the leader can present the desired future in contrast to the present. This allows the leader to develop a sense of dissatisfaction with the present in the followers’ minds. Kanter (1996) stated that part of the role of the leader is to see new possibilities, and Kotter (1990) added to this by saying that a role of the leader is to communicate new directions to the followers. Bradshaw (1998) continued the clarification by adding that leaders enable continuous change and movement toward some desired destination. The role of the leader in this process was emphasized by Tichy and Devanna (1990) who showed that effective leaders must see themselves as change agents. Yeung and Ready (1995) added the notion of “strategic change” to the role of leaders thus emphasizing the conscious focus of the leader on the direction of change.

Change can be uncomfortable for people and to this end Murphy (1996) implied that leaders have a responsibility to heal wounds that are inflicted by change. The idea of healing will be discussed later in the definition but needs to be presented here as well in that the actions of the leader can be a contributing cause of pain, discomfort, and wounding. While it is sometimes necessary to create discomfort as a predecessor to change, the leader needs to be observant and ready to assist in the healing process.

Caroselli (2000), Taffinder (1997), Conger and Kanungo (1998), as well as Kouzes and Posner (1995) emphasized the need for the leader to challenge the status quo, both of the current state of the organization and the processes by which the organization achieves its objectives. Ideas and concepts are sometimes best presented through the use of rhetoric, picturesque speech, metaphors, similes, and poetic language. Miles (1997), Kotter (1990), along with Tannenbaum et al. (1961) described the leader as someone who uses the communication process and rhetoric as a means of influencing followers. Heskett and Schlesinger (1996) implied that leaders need to communicate in such a manner as to touch the heart of followers. This is a characteristic of charismatic leaders according to Bass and Avolio (1994) but it is necessary that the leader use this characteristic judiciously so as to not create a corporate cult (Arnott, 1999).

Such that the Follower(s) can Understand and Interpret the Future into Present-time Action Steps.

It is important for leaders to not only speak the vision but also that followers can understand what to do in order to make the vision become a reality. This requires the followers to move the image of the vision into tactical steps that can be accomplished in the short- to medium-term. Terry (1993) and Moxley (2000) both, but in different terms, indicated that the role of the leader includes the ability to call forth authentic action by followers and to determine strategies that followers can execute in order to achieve the organization’s vision.

While little empirical research has been done on the notion of followers creating present-time action steps, conceptual writings exist from researchers such as Bennis (1989) who proposed that a role of the leader is to give direction to vision and ideas so that followers can work on achieving the vision. In addition to Bennis, Ulrich et al. (1999) called for leaders to set direction so that the vision could become a reality. Kotter (1990) and Kanter (1995) both independently called for similar leadership efforts in that the leader should establish a direction. This can best be done by helping the followers see what must be done in the short and intermediate-term through strategies and tactics to achieve the vision.

Kent, Crotts, and Aziz (2001) presented a description of the leader as one who marshals, energizes, and unifies people toward the pursuit of the vision. Beck and Yeager (2001) added to the idea of marshalling by stating that leaders need to challenge people to reach to a vision. The idea of followers actively working to achieve the vision goes beyond the concept of inspirational motivation, as described in transformational leadership, or the motivational rhetoric of charismatic leaders. Followers have to “see” the incremental steps that connect the present to the future with each follower understanding his/her individual role in the concerted coordinated effort.

In this Process, the Leader Presents the Prophetic Vision in Contrast to the Present Status of the Organization

The field of futures studies includes the concepts of past-present-future or hindsight-insight-foresight as a means of relating and connecting the past as a cause agent for the present and how present actions influence and affect the future. Futurists use the terms possible futures, probable futures, and preferable futures to help distinguish between what could occur, what might occur, and what is the desirable future. While futurists do not claim to be able to predict the future, futurists do claim that within limits, strategies and tactics can work to affect a desirable future. Environmental forces and wild card events (unanticipated climatic events) may hinder or promote the achievement of the preferable future. The leader presents the preferable future as the vision of the organization and emphasizes how the future differs from the present in order to create a sense in the followers’ minds of dissatisfaction with the present. This promotes the followers’ commitment of spiritual, emotional, and physical energy toward the realization of the vision. For, if the vision is similar to the present, there is little reason to commit energy beyond the maintenance level.

Stipek (1988), although writing about what prevents motivation rather than how to motivate, touched on the concept of showing the future as different from the present in that Stipek pointed out that people will not be motivated to work toward future goals unless there is a difference between the present and future and unless the present activities are shown as being related to the attainment of future goals. Callahan (2002) contended that it is not so much “dissatisfaction” with the present but, rather, “discontent” with the present relative to a preferred future that motivates people to behave.

Beckhard and Harris (1987) provided more depth into this notion of dissatisfaction as they used Gleicher’s model:

$$\text{Dissatisfaction} \times \text{Vision} \times \text{First Steps} > \text{Resistance to Change}$$

to show how dissatisfaction and vision and the clarity of action steps work collectively to reduce the resistance to change. Since Gleicher's model uses multipliers in the right-hand side of the equation, if any of the three variables is missing then the right-hand side of the equation falls to zero, thus, showing that all three elements must be present.

And through the Use of Critical Thinking Skills, Insight, Intuition, and the Use of Both Persuasive Rhetoric and Interpersonal Communication including both Active Listening and Positive Discourse, Facilitates and Draws Forth the Opinions and Beliefs of the Followers

In prior paragraphs this integrative definition has referred to the leader's communication skills and this current part of the definition looks at the leader's communication skills preceded by critical thinking and logic. Although communication permeates the leader's day-to-day behaviors it is at this point of the integrative definition that it is emphasized.

...Critical thinking skills... Critical thinking skills include the concepts of logic and reasoning the leader uses to evaluate facts, build information from facts, and hopefully, derive wisdom as to the meaning of the environmental factors. Critical thinking skills include the ability to build and discern inductive or deductive arguments, to determine if the data is qualitative or quantitative and how much reliance can be placed on any argument. Cederblom and Paulsen (1997) explained the ability to build an argument using systematic methods as well as the ability to interpret an argument and recognize how the argument was built is a key factor in superior communication.

The reason the leader needs critical thinking skills is that higher levels of critical thinking skills are predecessors to higher abilities to form persuasive arguments as presented by Cederblom and Paulsen (1997) and noted in the lives of Martin Luther King, Jr. and Ghandi by Moldovan (1999). Novelli and Sylvester (1993) contended that "Critical thinking facilitates cast problems in ways that point to non-obvious solutions" (pp. 142-143), which would precede the communication of solutions or the group-development of solutions.

...Insight... Schein (1992) emphasized the need for insight by declaring that leaders need to demonstrate extraordinary levels of perception and insight into the realities of the world. This notion was also a premise of Wadsworth (1997) who included insightful thinking in the description of great leaders. Argyris (1993) implied insight is important for leaders but not sufficient, in that, according to Argyris, double-loop learning is a problem-based method that does not rely on insight alone; yet, Argyris implied that insight is important for leaders.

Senge (1990) implied insight when he posited leaders must have the capacity to help bring forth new realities for followers. Insight is a precursor for innovation and creativity due to new understandings, or deeper understandings, of the phenomena around the leader that cause the leader to develop new approaches to problems and opportunities. *The American Heritage Dictionary* provides two definitions for "insight": (a) the discovery of what was previously hidden and (b) the ability to grasp the true nature of a situation. Leaders follow the latter definition as they seek to understand the nature of things and the deeper premises and causes of systems' behavior.

...Intuition... Intuition is similar to insight but relies on less empirical evidence. While insight determines the true nature of a situation, intuition is, according to *The American Heritage*

Dictionary, the act of knowing or sensing without the use of rational processes. Thus, intuition is more of a trait rather than a learned skill. However, Kerfoot (2003) would disagree with the notion that intuition is not a learned trait, although the definition and use of intuition by Kerfoot is more inline with insight. The similarity of insight and intuition leads to difficulty in working with the concepts. For example, the leader who sees the underlying nature of a situation but is unaware of the cognitive processes at work in finding the underlying nature may attribute the finding to intuition rather than insight. Intuition may be a subtle version of insight. Kerfoot and other writers such as Truman (2003) write about intuition in the nursing practice. Truman linked intuition to experience and relied on Hansten and Washburn's (2000) definition of intuition to "define intuition as a 'clinical sensing' based on experience and accumulated knowledge but not always supported by logical evidence" (p. 185) that shows the similarity and differences between insight and intuition. Janesick (2001) added to the notion of the relatedness of insight and intuition by defining intuition as "a way of knowing about the world through insight and exercising one's imagination" (p. 532), thus showing insight as a subset of intuition.

Perhaps the most researched idea of intuition comes from Jung's psychological archetypes that form the base for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). One of the MBTI's four dimensions is the sensing-intuition dimension. Of interest, though, little research, according to Bass and Stogdill (1990) show a preponderance of either the S or the N types among effective leaders. Jung claimed that intuition was a form of perception via the unconscious. This may possibly be a result of the 75-25% occurrence of sensing-intuition in the general population and that there are many applications for details-focused sensors in leadership as there are big picture-focused intuitionist in leadership. The focus for this integrative is that leaders need both insight and intuition to be the most effective.

...Persuasive rhetoric... Rhetoric is the process of using language effectively, and persuasive rhetoric is the process of effective persuasion. A review of the literature on leadership and rhetoric implies to the observer that rhetoric is more in the domain of political communication than general communication, and it should not be restrained to the political arena. If rhetoric is about the effective use of language and leaders use language (written, spoken, aesthetic, non-verbal, etc.), then leaders must continually engage in the practice. Gellis (2002) goes further to imply that the study of leadership should be done through a rhetorical lens.

...Interpersonal communication... Tannenbaum et al. (1961) implied leaders communicate in one-to-one or one-to-few situations. Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, and Gully (2003) confirmed the value of interpersonal communication in a study that showed a relationship between higher job performance and more frequent communication with the supervisor. Their study also showed lower levels of job performance with less frequent communication with the supervisor. Lee (2001) added to the breadth of the value of interpersonal communication by concluding from his study that followers in high-quality leader-member exchange relationships perceived greater fairness in distributive justice that, in turn, led to followers' perception that communication between leaders and followers in the work groups was more cooperative.

Campbell, White, and Johnson (2003) posited that leader-follower rapport is a cause of both positive and negative interpersonal communication. To this end, this integrative definition references the positive side of interpersonal communication in that leaders, while not ignoring mass communication, must use one-to-one and one-to-few communication methods to clearly

present to the follower what needs to be presented in a manner that helps the follower understand and contribute to the achievement of the organization's objectives.

...Active listening... Active listening is the process of hearing the follower's emotions and intent as well as the spoken words. Rutter (2003) conducted an active-listening intervention in a British boat building firm as a means of changing the leader-follower interaction that hopefully would lead to improved job performance. The results of the intervention showed that performance did increase as did the quality of leader-follower relationships.

McGee-Cooper and Trammell (1995) proposed that leaders should engage in deep and respectful listening in order to fully understand the followers' ideas and thoughts. Deming (1986) added to this by implying that leaders should listen to followers without judging the quality or intent of the message until hearing the full message. By not passing judgment as the follower speaks, according to Michalko (2001), creativity is more likely to occur in followers.

...Positive discourse... Positive discourse, such as what Cooperrider and Srivastva (1987) proposed in their Appreciative Inquiry approach to action research helps create a positive environment in which followers can comfortably express themselves as the following quote from McManaman (2005) illustrates:

We have the power to sow a spirit of anxiety, or fear, or anger, or joy into the hearts of listeners by the words we choose to employ. Indeed, our words express an attitude that is within, and they bring a portion of that interior world of ours to those to whom they are addressed. We are, however, affected further by the quality of our words—we are either the first beneficiary or first victim of the words we utter. That is why we ought to be especially careful of the words we speak over ourselves.

Through the use of positive discourse leaders can establish an environment of joy and as McManaman noted, become the first beneficiary of the communication. Deming (1986) would concur with McManaman in that Deming declared that one of the tasks of leadership is to create joy in the workplace.

...Draws forth the opinions and beliefs of the followers... It is through active listening and positive discourse that followers feel free to express their opinions and beliefs. Followers choose to be innovative and to present/explain their innovation because followers want to. By creating an environment that is without fear, followers are willing to express themselves according to Ryan and Oestreich (1998). By creating an environment in which followers are willing to express themselves the organization benefits from the increased number of ideas and insights. Sims (2005), in a critique of Donald Trump's leadership style on the television show *The Apprentice*, stated, "Effective leaders encourage followers to speak their mind; they don't demand blind obedience."

In addition to innovation, when the leader can draw forth the beliefs of the followers the leader can check to see the values of followers and the leader are aligned, which ties back to the earlier values alignment subsection of this integrated definition. Although leaders may not enjoy hearing dissent among followers, when leaders encourage followers to express their opinions problems in the organization can be revealed and resolved.

Such that the Followers Move through Ambiguity toward Clarity of Understanding and Shared Insight

Ambiguity occurs when there is a lack of clear direction by the leader or by the decision-making process. Eisenberg (1984) posited that ambiguity is a necessary component for creative problem solving; however, for followers to understand how to act in order to achieve the future state of the organization's vision, it is necessary for the follower, with, or without, the help of the leader to work through ambiguity and achieve clarity of action. As part of the creative problem-solving process the followers have to resolve role ambiguity so that the employees as a whole can work in a concerted effort. This means that followers have to be comfortable with the idea of different and ever-changing roles in a volatile every changing environment, such as Vaill (1998) would call "permanent whitewater." This becomes a systems issue when the employee's family is included as an environmental variable and is incorporated in the idea of work-family and family-work conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

That Results in Influencing the Follower(s) to See and Accept the Future State of the Organization as a Desirable Condition Worth Committing Personal and Corporate Resources toward its Achievement.

The prior subsections all lead to this summative result—followers committed to working toward the accomplishment of the organization's objectives.

The Leader Achieves this Using Ethical Means and Seeks the Greater Good of the Follower(s) in the Process of Action Steps such that the Follower(s) is/are Better off (including the Personal Development of the Follower as well as Emotional and Physical Healing of the Follower) as a Result of the Interaction with the Leader.

Syrett and Hogg (1992) implied that leaders should emphasize ethics while Stettner (2000) contended that leaders must have ethics. While it may seem that Stettner, Syrett, and Hogg may be saying the same thing, it may be essential here to infer that leaders should first have ethics and then emphasize ethics in order to increase the level of the authenticity. Crosby (1997) added to this idea of the leader's ethics in that the leader should enforce ethical conduct in the organization. These three elements of having ethics, emphasizing ethics, and enforcing ethics tie to Ulrich et al.'s (1999) as well as Kanter's (1995) contention that leaders need to have integrity and show that the espoused theories are the same as the practiced theories in the leader's life.

...Seeks the greater good of the follower(s)... Transformational leadership as presented by Bass and Avolio (1994) implies that leaders lead followers to levels of higher morals. In addition, transformational leadership implies that the followers are better off with the four I's of (a) inspirational motivation, (b) idealized influence, (c) individualized consideration, and (d) intellectual stimulation.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) argued that "to be truly transformational leadership, it must be grounded in moral foundations" (abstract), and that through authentic transformational leadership "both the leader and the led are transformed—sharply changed in performance and outlook" (para 20). Of interest though is Bass' (2000) contention that while transformational

leaders seek to improve and influence the followers the leader's motive is to benefit the organization but that in servant leadership theories the leader's motive is to benefit the follower. Patterson (2002) and Winston (2003) both implied that servant leaders will seek the benefit of the followers even at the expense of the organization.

...As well as emotional and physical healing of the follower... The notion of healing is expressed in two forms: Spears and Lawrence (2002), who advocated physical healing possibly needed as a result of stress or a debilitating illness, and a contrast to Murphy (1996), who emphasized the role of the leader in healing wounds inflicted by change. This sentiment of healing is echoed by Kerfoot (1999), who said that "the environment in which people work must be one of healing and not anger, competition or lack of support" (p. 106). Kerfoot went on to say that for this healing environment to occur the leader must use holistic rather than mechanistic thinking. Writing about patient care facilities, Kerfoot claimed that "excellence in patient care thrives in settings where the souls of the caregivers, patients, and families can all grow" (p. 106).

Greenleaf (1970) wrote that healing is one of the ten characteristics of a servant leader, and he indicated that within the servant leadership model there is the opportunity for healing the leader and the followers of broken spirits and emotional damage. This notion of healing and restoration to health ties to transformational leadership in which both the leader and follower are better off because of the leader-follower interaction.

The Leader Achieves this Same State for Him/Herself as He/She Seeks Personal Growth, Renewal, Regeneration, and Increased Stamina—Mental, Physical, Emotional, and Spiritual—through the Leader-Follower Interactions.

This part of the definition flows logically from the prior section in that the literature cited in the prior section shows that both the leader and follower benefit from the action. While servant leadership may imply that the leader sacrifices the "self" for the follower, this part of the definition implies that the leader must also benefit from the interaction and that if sacrifice occurs, there is a balance in what is gained. This may take the form of financial or time sacrificed by the leader that in return yields gains in intrinsic rewards for the leader. Transformational leadership implies, according to Burns (1978), that both the leader and the follower lift each other to higher levels of morality and motivation.

The Leader Recognizes the Diversity of the Follower(s) and Achieves Unity of Common Values and Directions without Destroying the Uniqueness of the Person.

Terry (1993) helped support this focus on diversity by pointing out the value of deep diversity that exists across the breadth of the human community. A particularly poignant quote from Terry's work is "Unity should give us access to diversity; it should never seek to make diversity irrelevant" (p. 5). The obviousness of diversity is all around us, and its existence is hard to ignore. Deming (1986) pointed out that people are different from each other. This seems to be a statement of the obvious but is also the crux of the problems that leaders encounter. Leaders need to first recognize that people are different and that these differences in gifts, abilities, and skills referenced earlier in this integrative definition are what provide the requisite resources for the achievement of the organization's goals (Fitz-enz, 1997). Smith (1996) made this statement emphatically in that leaders should not only seek, but cherish diversity.

But what of diversity in values? Here is where the “yes, but...” comes into play. The definition states that there must be a unity of common values and directions. This begins with the earlier part of the definition in that leaders must select people to work in the organization whose values are aligned with the values of the organization. McDonald and Gantz (1992) referred to followers establishing a psychological attachment to the organization when the values are aligned. This integrative definition presumes that where there is a psychological attachment between leader and followers there is a tolerance for the differences other than values. Leaders have the task of using the followers’ diverse gifts, abilities, and skills to achieve the organization’s objectives without the unintended consequence of conforming to the non-value-based characteristics of the follower. This requires active management by the leader to insure that diverse followers show respect and acceptance of the followers that are different in one way or another.

The Leader Accomplishes this through Innovative Flexible Means of Education, Training, Support, and Protection

There is a difference between education and training as well as between support and protection. The leader uses all four elements to prepare followers to work towards meeting the needs of the organization while also preparing the followers for life in general.

...Education... Education is the process of gaining insight and understanding about life. Education focuses on the intellection understanding of the world around us rather than how to do tasks. In addition to this general understanding, education should also focus on critical thinking skills such that followers can engage in creative problem solving. Critical thinking skills include the ability to form the question and issue under review (Cederblom & Paulsen, 1997). Lombardo and Eichinger (1999) posited that leaders should be able to think through problems and Harung, Alexander, and Heaton (1999) added to this notion by proposing that leaders should possess excellent critical thinking skills. If leaders should possess critical thinking skills how much more effective will the whole organization be if followers possess critical thinking skills as well.

...Training... Training, in contrast to education, seeks to help the person perform tasks better—more efficiently and more effectively. Training is specific whereas education is general. Cross (1996) made an interesting, albeit provocative, distinction between education and training in that a set of parents may be glad that their daughter is engaging in sex education in school but may not be pleased to learn that their daughter is engaging in sex training in school. Education helps the employee understand “about” the topic whereas training helps the employee “do.” Training involves personal involvement and completion of actions with the goal of increasing both the effectiveness and efficiency of task completion at the end of the training session. Training may not always requires hands-on activity during the training session but would prepare the employee to engage in self-directed hands-on activity following the training session. For example, employees may receive training in how to set a computer calendar function to remind them of upcoming events, and the employee would engage in the hands-on portion after returning to his/her office and his/her own computer.

...Support... Support occurs in two forms: (a) physical/financial resources including time and (b) perceived organizational support that is more affective in nature. For the first form of

support leaders must provide employees with the resources to pursue both education and training. This includes financial support for tuition, books, travel, and other requisite elements as well as sufficient time (release from work assignments) to successfully complete the education and training. This, as noted in the next section of the definition is balanced against the available resources of the organization and the value of the education/training to the organization. While it may be of benefit for an employee of a 40-employee organization to complete a bachelor's degree in marketing, it may not be of benefit for an employee to complete a Ph.D. in marketing. The leader has the responsibility to communicate to the followers what resources are available and how the resources may be requested.

The second form of support, the affective notion of perceived organizational support (POS), as articulated by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) in their review of the POS literature, imply that POS is a form of social exchange in which followers ascribe human-like characteristics to the organization and presume that leaders, acting as agents/stewards of the organization, when giving promotions, pay increases, and other rewards for reasons other than externally controlled, such as unions and federal requirement, do so as a means of building goodwill and meeting the followers' socio-emotional needs. There is reciprocity of effect here in that followers seek to meet the needs of the organizational leaders, acting as agents/stewards of the organization as well. With regard to POS and training, Wayne, Shore, and Liden's (1997) study showed that training, when presented to followers by the leaders as a discretionary practice resulted in an increase perceived organizational support by the followers.

...Protection... Tied to the affective notion of perceived organizational support is the notion of protecting followers from external agencies, even within the organization. The leader may have to be a buffer between followers and the higher-level authorities in the organization in much the way that a military sergeant may buffer the enlisted soldiers from the officers. While in a perfect world all would work to the good of all, our organizations are fraught with demands upon the time and resources of our employees that may not be of real benefit to the employees, and it is the role of the leader to reduce the impact upon followers from outside interference. While there are some major protection issues that leaders might face such as reducing the impact of layoffs and mergers, most of the protection issues are small events that occur on a weekly or monthly process such as reducing time wasted in meetings, asking employees to do non-value-added work, etc.

That Provide each Follower with what the Follower Needs within the Reason and Scope of the Organization's Resources and Accommodations Relative to the Value of Accomplishing the Organization's Objectives and the Growth of the Follower.

...Within reason... The leader examines the follower's requests and determines what he/she can provide relative to cost/benefit relationship. For example, if an employee needs a new car to make sales calls and the sales that result from the use of the car yield less than the value of the car, the provision of the car is not a reasonable decision. The leader has an obligation to provide information to the follower regarding the reasonableness of the decision and how the leader reached the decision.

...Scope... The leader has to consider the request for resources within the scope of the organization's operations. If providing the resource moves the organization, or contributes

toward moving the organization away from the focus and scope that the organization stated as its goal, then the resource should not be given. Thus, the leader has to consider the request in light of how the resource “fits” the organization.

...Organization’s resources... Leaders must be aware of the resources that the organization has or has access to and according to Rusaw (2001) organize a wide range of resources. Bradshaw (1998) referred to this process as an “art” that the leader crafts through the process of acquiring, linking, and focusing resources on the organization’s objectives. Waitley (1995) intensified this focus by referring to leaders as “champions” of resources; however, resources for on-going operations are not the limit of the leader’s focus. Kanter (1996) suggested that leaders need to provide resources for process innovation and Fitz-enz (1997) added to this by calling on leaders to provide the resources needed for continuous improvement.

...Value of accomplishing the organization’s objectives and the growth of the follower. This part of the definition calls for the leader to weigh the value to the organization against the value to the follower. This is in contrast to the statement in the earlier section referring to cost/benefit analysis and provides the decision point that separates transactional/transformational leaders from servant leaders. Recall earlier in this document that servant leaders seek the good of the follower over the good of the organization. There may be times when the leader decides to allocate resources that do not meet the cost/benefit analysis of value to the organization, but the leader knows that the follower will gain from the experience of using the resource(s). This relates to the earlier statement in the definition that the follower and the leader must be better off because of the leader-follower interaction. However, this does mean that the leader ignores the principles of stewardship but rather that the leader carefully considers the merits of providing the resource(s) requested from all possible viewpoints.

The Leader, in this Process of Leading, Enables the Follower(s) to be Innovative as well as Self-Directed within the Scope of Individual-Follower Assignments and Allows the Follower(s) to Learn from His/Her/Their Own, as Well as Others’ Successes, Mistakes, and Failures along the Process of Completing the Organization’s Objectives.

This part of the definition looks at how the leader’s behaviors help develop followers to be more productive and self-directed.

...Innovative... Innovation is the process of taking new ideas that develop through creative processes and producing new products, services, processes, methods, etc. Since innovation only occurs at the discretion of the follower (no studies were found that indicated that innovation could be forced or coerced from followers) it seems logical that the leader must create an environment in which followers are encouraged and supported to try new ideas, thus the reference in the definition to mistakes and failures so that the follower is not afraid of taking risks. But, note in the definition that this willingness to take risks may be limited to the scope of the assigned work areas.

The notion of the need for innovation is supported by Buzan et al. (1999) who implied that an innovative workforce can help the organization distinguish itself from the rest of the industry and increase the competitive edge in the global economy. The idea of the leader needing

to be creative in order to help encourage followers to be creative is endorsed by Bennis (1997) and Bennis and Goldsmith (1997) as well as Harung et al. (1999).

In addition to developing new products/services for the global marketplace, innovation can be of value in solving problems within the organization. Snyder, Dowd, and Houghton (1994) implied that the fresh ideas which emerge from brainstorming and creative thinking as well as critical thinking (Harung et al., 1999) helped solve long-standing problems and open issues in the organization. This is supported by Cox and Hoover (1992), Lombardo and Eichinger (1996), and Kanter (1995) who endorsed the idea of seeing problems from new angles as a means of increasing insight.

...Self-directed... Sims and Manz's (1995) concept of self-leadership fits well with this part of the definition due to the followers becoming more self-reliant and more productive as they progress toward self-leadership. According to Manz and Neck (2004) self-leadership is a process in which leaders exercise self-influence to motivate and direct personal behavior in all aspects of their lives. This, in other words, creates the ultimate form of intrinsic motivation and removes the need for extrinsic rewards.

In addition to the notion of self-directed leadership, followers can and should become self-directed learners. This is one of the requirements of a learning organization in that learning occurs through individuals by individuals and shared in the organizational community. Self-directed learning, according to Knowles (1975), occurs when followers who initiate learning processes learn more and learn better than followers who wait passively for someone to teach them what they need to know and followers who initiate learning processes and see improvement as a result increase their sense of confidence and competence.

...To learn... The literature offers advice and research findings for leaders with regard to being concerned for the growth and capability of followers (Eales-White, 1998; Jacobs, 1997; Shelton, 1997; Spears & Lawrence, 2002) and encourages followers to learn (Belasco & Stayer, 1994; DePree, 1989; Syrett & Hogg, 1992). The purpose of transformational leadership's factor of intellectual stimulation may be a step towards the overall learning of the follower (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Giblin (1986), Waitley (1995), and Deming (1986) supported the notion of both the leader and the follower achieving higher levels of knowledge.

...Mistakes and failures... McGee-Cooper and Trammell (1995) made the claim that the leader needs to create an environment in which the follower feels safe to make mistakes and to learn from those mistakes. In addition, Kanter (1995), Smith (1996), as well as Kouzes and Posner (1995) implied that followers should be allowed to learn from both mistakes and successes.

The Leader Accomplishes this by Building Credibility and Trust with the Followers through Interaction and Feedback to and with the Followers that Shapes the Followers' Values, Attitudes, and Behaviors towards Risk, Failure, and Success.

This part of the definition builds on the prior sections and shows how credibility and trust develop/evolve rather than being required. It is the safety and comfort of credibility and trust that followers' values can be shaped.

...Credibility... Kouzes and Posner (1993), in discussing the behavioral aspects of credibility, stated that credible leaders do what they say they will do. Jesus, in the Sermon on the Mount, called for people to make there “yes a yes and their no a no.” This is the base of credibility—to be reliable. To know that you can believe what you hear. Through repeated observations of the leader doing what he/she says that he/she will do, the follower begins to trust the leader. Trust begins in small amounts and increases over time with positive experiences and decreases over time with negative experiences.

Followers’ willingness to increase efforts toward the completion of the organization’s objectives increases as the followers’ belief that the leader will provide the offered and requisite support increases. As each experience occurs in the organization the followers evaluate the past and determine the level of faith in the leader’s future action. It is this faith that becomes trust.

...Trust... As experiences produce observations with positive, and expected, outcomes and as observations of the leader’s credibility results in greater faith in the future, outcomes of the leader’s intention to behave, the followers’ level of trust grows. Likewise, if experiences do not produce expected, credible outcomes, then the followers’ level of faith in the leader declines. Bennis (1997) admonished leaders that it is the role of the leader to inspire and generate trust, and Kouzes and Posner (1993) provided the behavioral methods for accomplishing this as leaders doing what they say they will do. In this fashion, it seems that followers “ascribe” trust to the leader as the leader “earns” the trust through repeated credible behaviors. Deming (1986) wrote that leaders create an environment that encourages trust and in doing so builds a culture in which accountability (Wood & Winston, 2005) allows for the public disclosure of the leader’s behavior and the organizational expectation of consequences to be a result of that behavior.

Sonnenberg (1994) posited that when trust is high in an organization morale is higher, turnover is lower, performance is higher, information is shared more freely, criticism is accepted more freely without retaliation and innovative ideas are more frequent. Sonnenberg cautioned, though, that trust does not come about easily. Trust must be “sought, nurtured and reinforced” (p. 14) and, he added, can be destroyed by a single negative event. Followers, who make themselves vulnerable and experience negative results, tend to reduce trust at a faster rate than they build trust.

The followers’ act of “trusting” results in condition of vulnerability for the follower just as an act of faith leaves a person vulnerable to the possibility of the faith being placed erroneously and necessitating the acceptance of the repercussions of the leader not performing as expected (credible). Gregersen (2003) assisted this connection of trust with faith and risk of negative consequences through the use of the formula: “risk = probability (of events) × the size (of future harms)” (p. 344). In this formula as the probability of negative events goes down, so does the perceived risk. As risk goes down, willingness to engage in behavior by the follower goes up.

...Shapes the followers’ values, attitudes, and behaviors towards risk, failure, and success... As the followers’ perception of the danger of failure reduces and the level of trust/faith increases the follower is willing to engage in behavior that could lead to failure, but since the outcome of the failure is minimal, the followers are willing to try. It is through this willingness to fail that followers develop and perfect innovative practices and efforts. In addition to the followers’ attitude toward failure is the followers’ attitude toward success. Success should bring celebration and joy, but humility should be evident as well. Success can bring pride and

arrogance and it is the role of the leader to help shape the organization's values and attitude toward success through the leader-follower interaction.

In doing this, the Leader Builds the Followers' Sense of Self Worth and Self-Efficacy such that Both the Leader and Followers are Willing and Ready to take Calculated Risks in Making Decisions to Meet the Organization's Goals/Objectives and through Repeated Process Steps of Risk-Taking and Decision-Making the Leader and Followers Together Change the Organization to Best Accomplish the Organization's Objectives.

This part of the definition is inline with Kelley's (1992) contention that although 20% of the organization's success can be attributed to leaders, the remaining 80% is attributed to other factors, among which the followers rank the highest. Although Kelley does not specify the percentage of success attributed to followers, he implied that it is higher than the amount ascribed to leaders. The notion of the followers' sense of self-worth and self-efficacy ties to the earlier portion of the definition that implies both the follower and leader should be better off for having interacted together in the leader-follower process.

...*Self worth*... Earlier in this definition the notion of the followers being better off because of the interaction with the leader was raised and is now carried forward in this portion. Simmons (1996) proffered that leaders seek to release intelligence, creativity, and initiative in followers. As followers see the result of their intelligence, creativity, and initiative there is an increase in the understanding by the follower of what he/she can do. When the follower suffers from a psycho-social disorder that prevents the normal process of trial-success-self worth then the leader has the responsibility to help the follower into counseling so that the follower can be restored to full functioning behavior. Under normal conditions, though, the leader seeks to bring out the best in people as supported by Rusaw (2001), who contends that leaders activate the talents in others. Taken in small increments of leaders trusting and empowering others this helps generate confidence in followers who may be frightened about the process or the responsibility and the accompanying risk of failure, according to Bardwick (1996). Belasco and Stayer (1994) commented that leaders need to coach the development of personal capabilities and in this same vein of thinking McFarland, Senn, and Childress (1993) contended that leaders seek to empower followers to become leaders in their own right.

...*Self-efficacy*... Bandura (1995) postulated:

People who have a low sense of efficacy in given domains shy away from difficult tasks, which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. (p. 11)

Thus, it is important for the leader to help the follower develop an accurate assessment of the follower's self-efficacy and where the follower accurately depicts his/her inability to accomplish some task to help the follower through training and education to be better at the task.

Self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1995) is the followers' accurate self-appraisal of capabilities and plays a role in the followers' goal setting. Higher self-efficacy is related to higher goals set by the followers. Bandura postulated that when followers have a realistic self-worth and a realistic self-efficacy then the goals that followers set for themselves or accept from

the leader will result in balanced efforts and expectations of success. However, if levels of self-worth and efficacy are beyond what the follower believes is accurate, Bandura cautioned that the follower may suffer bouts of depression.

...Take calculated risks... It is this sense of balance in self-worth, self-efficacy, trust from the leader, empowerment by the leader, provision of resources, and the willingness to accept failure should failure occur that the follower is willing to take calculated risks. The “calculation” portion of this part of the definition refers to the mental evaluation of the probability of success or failure and the gains/losses from either end state. While it is doubtful that followers actually “run the numbers” when calculating the risks there is a weighing of the positives and negatives that occurs. This process is supported in Vroom’s (1964/1994) expectancy theory as well as Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) theory of reasoned action.

...Repeated process steps... This part of the definition implies the leader-follower interaction is an iterative cyclic process in which each leader-follower interaction affects the next interaction. The process begins with small amounts of trust by the leader and acceptance of responsibility by the follower and if the outcome is successful then both increase the amount of trust, risk, resources, and responsibility. If the outcome is not successful then reduced amounts of trust, risk, resources, and responsibility occur. The process may go through upward and downward movements with the leader and follower watching both the short-term and long-term results.

...Leader and followers together change the organization... This portion of the definition fits well with Kelley’s (1992) concept of followership in which Kelley claimed that about 20% of the success of the organization is due to the leader and that the remainder was largely influenced by the follower, although Kelley did not venture a guess at the percentage attributable to the follower per se. The overall concept that is derived from this part of the definition is that leaders and followers work together through cyclic process steps of trust, empowerment, risk, and responsibility seeking to attain the organization’s objectives and in so doing seek to help the organization adapt to internal and outside environmental forces.

The Leader Recognizes the Impact and Importance of Audiences Outside of the Organization’s System and Presents the Organization to the Outside Audiences in such a Manner that the Audiences have a Clear Impression of the Organization’s Purpose and Goals and can Clearly See the Purpose and Goals Lived Out in the Life of the Leader.

This portion of the definition begins to move the organizational system boundaries out beyond the organization itself and includes the greater environment to include but not limited to suppliers, legislators, regulators, clients, investors, and observers.

...Outside audiences... Rhetoric and leadership was the focus of studies by Emrich, Brower, Feldman, and Garland (2001) as well as Althouse (2001) and Delgado (1999) with the emphasis on the use of rhetoric by world leaders to affect the attitudes and impressions of outside audiences about the respective organizations. In the case of these three studies the organization was a large socio-political organization, and the leader’s actions can be generalized to all organizations of any size. The leader has within his/her role the requirement to present the

organization to outside constituencies. While the organization may have a public relations operations or employ the services of a contracted public relations firm the responsibility still rests on the leader. Arlene (2001), in a study of Steve Jobs at Apple computer, emphasized the use of rhetoric by charismatic leaders to manage the impressions of the audiences. While Arlene limited the discussion to charismatic leaders the idea of impression management seems to apply to all leaders in that there is some form of charisma in all leaders, albeit that some have sufficient charisma to be called “charismatic” leaders. Gardner and Avolio’s (1998) earlier work includes the notion of the leader using rhetoric to promote the organization, as a whole, to both employees and outside constituents.

...Clear impression... Earlier sections of the definition presented how the leader communicates the vision and values of the organization to the followers and in much the same way but using different means and images the leader must present the organization to the outside constituencies in such a manner that there is a clear image of the organization in the constituent’s minds. It is worth noting that impression management requires the development of a clear impression in both the good and the bad information—whether the impression is to promote the positives of the organization or to repair damage caused by negative information about the organization. During any communication event with the outside constituencies it is the leader’s responsibility to present the image of the organization.

...Lived out in the life of the leader... In Arlene’s (2001) study of Steve Jobs, Arlene points out that the promotion of the organization and the promotion of the leader seem to occur simultaneously in that the leader finds difficulty in separating self from the organization. Here is where integrity reenters the definition in that there must be alignment between what the leader says and what the leader does. In the panel discussion “Four pioneers reflect on leadership. (CEOs Max DePree, Bob Galvin and Bob Haas and educator Warren Bennis)” the four panelists listed integrity as the number one element for leaders to be aware of and to promote in themselves. von Maurik (1997) added to this by proposing that integrity be one of four competencies by which leaders should be evaluated (wisdom, integrity, sensitivity, and tenacity). Although it is beyond the scope of this definition to delve into von Maruik’s work, it is interesting to note the ontological nature of the four competencies rather than the axiological or pragmatic nature of most leadership measures.

In so Doing, the Leader Examines the Fit of the Organization Relative to the Outside Environment and Shapes both the Organization and the Environment to the Extent of the Leader’s Capability to Insure the Best Fit between the Organization and the Outside Environment.

This portion of the definition focuses the role of the leader on the macro view of the organization as a whole and how it fits within the greater environment. The approach comes from the organizational ecology field of study.

...Fit of the organization... Hannan and Freeman (1989) posited that the inertia of organizations prevent organizations from adapting to changes in the environment, thus leading to the demise of organizations that no longer fit the environment or are surpassed by more competitive organizations that fit the environment better. It is because of this that leaders must

continually monitor the changes in the environment and review the current and probable future organization-environment fit. Singh (1990) supported this notion of an organization being able to adapt to a changing environment and the emphasis on the learning organization shows up in Bruderer and Singh (1996) that leads to the notion that the leader is a catalyst for organizational learning, even at the macro level.

...Shapes both the organization and the environment... If the environment was not shapeable through the actions of the leader we could stop at the notion of the leader as a macro learner, but leaders of organizations can and do shape the environment through lobbying efforts aimed at shaping legislative actions as well as shaping property tax rates through the offering of incentives of employment and growth. Leaders represent the organization to the various local, regional, national, and global environments and seek to create favorable environments or minimize the effect of negative environmental changes. Hartog and Verburg's (1997) analysis of charismatic leaders' speeches showing how one of the effects of the rhetoric was to shape external environments support this.

The leader, then, seems to be an artist shaping both the organization and the environment within the constraints of environmental determinism, as proffered by Richardson (1995) who examined the role of highly deterministic environments on the demise of unresponsive/unaware organizations, thus the leader as an aware responsive organizational leader seeks to build both the hearth and home of the organization.

The Leader throughout each Leader-Follower-Audience Interaction Demonstrates His/Her Commitment to the Values of: (a) Humility, (b) Concern for Others, (c) Controlled Discipline, (d) Seeking what is Right and Good for the Organization, (e) Showing Mercy in Beliefs and Actions with all People, (f) Focusing on the Purpose of the Organization and on the Well-Being of the Followers, and (g) Creating and Sustaining Peace in the Organization—Not a Lack of Conflict but a Place Where Peace Grows.

This portion of the definition comes from Winston's (2002) work on the Beatitudes, found in Matthew 5. Winston notes that the order of the beatitudes presented in Matthew 5 are in the same rank-order of leadership problems he encounters in his consulting and leadership coaching experiences. For a complete review of the values please see Winston's (2002) complete work.

...Humility... In addition to humility being the focus of the first beatitude, Collins (2002) commented that his research showed that the "great" leaders demonstrated humility. Winston (2002) commented that humility is observed in the leader through the leader's "teachable-ness." Leaders in learning organizations, according to Senge (1990), seek the teachable moments in time when ideas and concepts can be taught to others. According to Winston, the same occurs for leaders if leaders are to be taught by employees.

...Concern for others... The second value is sincere concern for followers as well as for all constituencies. Regarding followers, leaders seek to provide at least a living wage, according to Winston (2002), rather than a minimum wage that may not allow the employee to have a reasonable life. This is not to imply a lavish lifestyle for all, but a minimum living wage so that followers are not required to live below the poverty level. This concern extends on to suppliers

and constituents in that negotiated deals are good for all parties. Leaders demonstrate concern for others by working with employees who have personal illness or family issues that require the employee to perform at less than desired levels in the workplace, while this does not mean a perpetual sub-optimal performance but rather a tolerance and understanding of short-term impacts. Placing employees in the right job that best uses the employee's gifts, abilities, and skills, as mentioned earlier in this definition, is another way that leaders demonstrate concern for others.

...Controlled discipline... According to Winston (2002), controlled discipline is a leadership value that is demonstrated through consistent controlled behavior that is highly predictable. Leaders seek to find the underlying causes of problems and seek solutions rather than blame and persecution. The problems of workplace bullying can be seen at the websites <http://www.workplacebullying.co.uk/> and <http://www.bullybusters.org/> as well as a report at http://agency.osha.eu.int/publications/reports/402/en/index_33.htm in which it is reported that 8% of all employees surveyed indicated that they had suffered some form of workplace bullying.

Discipline, according to Winston (2002), is needed but may more beneficially take the form of training and work-process adjustments. When leaders demonstrate the value of controlled discipline, employees are more willing to take risks since the risk of damage from failure is either lessened or easier to forecast.

...Seeking what is right and good for the organization... Winston (2002) commented that leaders demonstrate this value by not seeking their own good as one might find in agency theory but, rather, behave in ways that benefit the organization, which is more in line with Davis et al.'s (1997) stewardship theory. While leaders who exhibit this value do not shy away from receiving rewards and recognition, the rewards and recognition are always the result of the leader's focus on the organization and on the employees rather than the leader's focus on self-aggrandizing actions.

...Showing mercy in beliefs and actions with all people... Leaders seeking the good of the employees, as well as the organization, when making decisions about employee performance demonstrate mercy, according to Winston (2002). If leaders know the underlying causes of the behavior leaders can then make more informed decisions. Deming (1986) commented that 85% of all the problems in organizations are caused by the system with only the remaining 15% of the problems caused by people. Deming inferred, without directly stating it, that employees make mistakes either by trying to do their best at something but acting in ways that are not balanced with the rest of the organization. When failure is ultimately caused by the organization's system, mercy must be shown to employees.

Sometimes people fail, but with support, training, work reassignment, etc. the employee can be returned to a productive successful state. This is the work of the leader in that the leader has to know the condition of the people and the reasons for performance. Employees, knowing that the leader will have mercy and controlled-discipline, are more willing to take calculated risks.

...Focusing on the purpose of the organization and on the well-being of the followers... Collins (2002) also pointed out that great leaders have a fierce resolve to do what needs to be done in and for the organization. Winston's (2002) work illustrates that leaders who demonstrate

what Collins calls “fierce resolve” have an intense focus on the purpose of the organization. This can be tied back to the sections in this definition that look at the leader’s actions to convey the organization’s purpose to followers and seek to align the followers’ values and commitments to the organization such that followers willingly commit energy to the accomplishment of the organization’s objectives.

...Creating and sustaining peace in the organization—not a lack of conflict but a place where peace grows. This value may on first glance appear to be in the wrong location in the rank-order of the seven values. What Winston (2002) found in his study of the beatitudes is that an environment in which peace can be created and sustained requires all the prior six values to be in place and fully practiced. Peace, or ongoing conflict resolution, can not occur, according to Winston, if the leader is not teachable in order to learn about the other parties, or is concerned about the well-being of others, or has controlled discipline in his/her action, or seeks what is good for the organization and people, or values/displays mercy or is focused on the organization.

Peace is not the absence of conflict but the successful and intentional management of tension and the resolution of conflict. According to Winston (2002), employees who work in an organization in which the leader demonstrates this value of peace indicate that they can focus more energy on the accomplishment of the organization’s objectives. Employees report less emotional trauma, less anxiety, and less depression related to work/organizational experiences.

Is the Definition Complete?

While the best summary of the prior sections would be to simply restate the definition in its compact form, we prefer to suggest that you re-read the compact definition now and see if the wholeness seems more obvious. We wrestled with the title of this document and moved through terms such as Zen and holistic as a means of showing the completeness of the definition but, at the same time, we did not want to imply that this is the end of the definition of leadership. The definition of leadership will continue to develop as scholars, researchers, and practicing leaders gain greater insight into the concept.

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Appendix

Leadership dimensions

1. Encouragement	<p>Encourage the heart (LPI Leadership Practices Inventory; Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Support (Ragins, 1989)</p> <p>Cheerlead, support, and encourage more than judge, criticize, and evaluate (Blanchard, 1996)</p> <p>Provide encouragement needed for continuous improvement (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Encourage and reinforce (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Improves self-encouragement and mental skills (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p>
2. Risqué	<p>Takes risks (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998; Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Wilson, O'Hare, & Shipper, 1990)</p> <p>Risk taker (KA-I; Shaskin & Burke, 1990)</p> <p>Ability to take risks (Cain, 1998)</p> <p>Make tough decisions (Cain, 1998)</p> <p>Seize opportunities (Bradford & Cohen, 1984)</p> <p>Making and taking risks—creating opportunity (Taffinder, 1997)</p> <p>Seizing chances when presented (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Personal risk (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)</p> <p>Experiments and takes risks (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Take initiative beyond job requirements (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p>
3. Active	<p>Fast (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Kanter 1995)</p> <p>Participate actively (Kent & Moss, 1990)</p>
4. In front	<p>Be first (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Symbolize company to the outside world (Deal & Kennedy, 1982)</p> <p>Enhance the company's image (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>To go before (Richardson—New Dictionary of the English Language, 1844)</p> <p>A guide (Buzzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999; Cox & Hoover, 1992; DePree, 1989; Edinger, 1967; Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990; Richardson—New Dictionary of the English Language, 1844; Rost, 1993)</p> <p>Conductor (Richardson—New Dictionary of the English Language, 1844)</p> <p>Represent the organization (Plachy, 1987)</p> <p>Control actions (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>
5. Feedback	<p>Provide feedback (Staub, 1996) (SMP)</p> <p>Giving feedback (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Focus on strengths (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Provide specific and frequent feedback to improve team performance (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Remain open to criticism (Gastil, 1997) (Smith, 1996) (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Advocates feedback (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Observe themselves-feedback (Smith, 1996)</p>

6. Trust	<p>Build trust (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Builds trust by reducing fear (Ryan & Oestreich, 1998)</p> <p>Trust subordinates (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Trust associates (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>About trust (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>Trust (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999; Wilson, George, Wellens, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Trusting staff to deliver (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p> <p>Inspires trust (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Generates trust (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Develops trust across a network of constituencies (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Creates an environment that encourages trust (Deming, 1986)</p>
7. Flexible	<p>Flexible (Kanter, 1997)</p> <p>Flexible about people and organizational structure (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Conceptual flexibility (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Principled flexibility (Staub, 1996)</p>
8. Inform	<p>Information sharing (Daft & Lengel, 1998; McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Share information (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Inform every employee (Barnes, 1996)</p>
9. Brings people together	<p>Creating connections (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Partnerships (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Perceives others as part of the same whole rather than as separate</p> <p>Goal for people to feel a sense of belonging to something bigger and more important than just an individual job (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Possess willingness and ability to involve others (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Elicit participation (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Ability to convince others—including those you cannot interact with face-to-face to support you (Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>Helps people to see themselves as components in a system (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Connects people to the right cause (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Create enthusiastic support for the goals of the business (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Strategic alignment (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Break down barriers (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Partnership building (Essex & Kusy, 1999) (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Feels personal value comes from mentoring and working collaboratively with others (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p>
10. Togetherness	<p>Reduce barriers by encouraging conversations (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Break down barriers between departments/people (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Encourage openness (Bradford & Cohen, 1984)</p> <p>Promote openness (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Synergizes stakeholders (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Seeks synergy (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Build group synergy (Buzzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Builds an sense of unity (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p>

	<p>Sees similarities rather than differences (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Common ground (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Sense of community based on what people share (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Always says we rather than me (Vaughn, 1997)</p> <p>Building community (Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p>
11. Clarity	<p>Increase clarity and agreement (Bushe, 2001)</p> <p>Refine our perception of what we aspire (Chatterjee, 1998)</p> <p>Perceives-defines-expresses reality (DePree, 1989)</p> <p>Demonstrate extraordinary levels of perception and insight into the realities of the world (Schein 1992)</p> <p>Clear objectives (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>
12. Lead the way	<p>Formulate and define purpose (Bernard, 1938)</p> <p>Leaders are in front of those they lead (Grint, 2000)</p> <p>The head of the firm (Fairholm, 2001)</p> <p>Knows where it is going (Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Focused (Kanter, 1997)</p> <p>Determination (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Meyer, House, & Slechta, 1998; Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Determines where business is going with broad internal and external objectives (Timpe, 1987)</p>
13. Coordination and collaboration	<p>Concerned with transformation of doubts into cooperation (Long, 1963)</p> <p>Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Collaborators (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Kanter, 1997)</p> <p>Brings out people's abilities to coordinate (Jacobson, 2000)</p> <p>Gets people to move along with him/her and each other with competence (Jaques & Celment, 1994)</p> <p>Causes others to act or respond in a shared direction (DuBrin, 1997)</p> <p>Champions of cooperation-understanding-knowledge (Waitley, 1995)</p> <p>Collaborative and interdependent (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Coordinator (Quinn, 1988)</p> <p>Advocate partnering and collaboration as preferred styles of behavior (Fitzenz, 1997)</p> <p>Understands benefits of cooperation and losses from competition (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Build collaborative relationships (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
14. Builds teams	<p>Build trust (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Build teams (Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Crosby, 1997; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Build self-managing teams (Bridges, 1996)</p> <p>Team builders (Ragins, 1999; Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Build a team spirit (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999)</p> <p>Build relationships with people (O'Conner, 1997)</p>
15. Achieves	<p>Achievement (Donnithorne, 1994; Stogdill, 1950)</p> <p>Makes things happen (Harris, 1989; Nanus, 1989; Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>To cause progress (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>

	<p>A tool to achieve results (Olmstead, 2000)</p> <p>Achievement orientation (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>
16. Creative	<p>Creative (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>Creative and innovative ability of work force will help their company break away from the pack and remain competitive in global economy (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Creative thinking (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999)</p> <p>Creativity indefinitely (Buzan, Dottio, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Is an original (Bennis, 1997)</p>
17. Innovative	<p>Innovate (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Develop fresh ideas to long-standing problems and open issues (Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Innovating (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>High level of innovation (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>
18. Fresh Thinking	<p>Think in new and fresh ways (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997)</p> <p>Brings the organization out of the box (Jacobson, 2000)</p> <p>Capacity of a human community-people living and working together to bring forth new realities (Senge, 1990)</p> <p>Initiating (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>Developing perceptual alternatives (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Open mind that welcomes the novel and unusual ideas (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Ignite innovation (Corbin, 2000)</p> <p>Meet the challenge of oneself to improve (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997)</p> <p>Make improvements continuously (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Greatest effort and most insightful thinking (Wadsworth, 1997)</p> <p>Conceptual skills (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Uses intuition and foresight to balance fact-logic-proof (McGee-Cooper & Trammel, 1995)</p> <p>Stays current with emerging trends (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
19. Problem-solver	<p>Solve problems that arise (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Acknowledge problems openly (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Urge consideration of counterintuitive alternatives (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997)</p> <p>Avoids role of chief problem-solver (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Sound analytical and problem-solving skills (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Make decisions that solve problems (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Initiation of acts that result in consistent pattern of group interaction directed toward solution of mutual problems (Hemphill, 1949)</p>
20. Customer	<p>Exhibit strong customer orientation (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Focus on customers (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Visualize the business through the customers eyes (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Respond to customer needs (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p>
21. Character	<p>Character that inspires (Montgomery, 1961)</p> <p>Character (Bennis, 1997; Danzig, 1998; Donnithorne, 1994)</p> <p>Emotional stability (Auguinis & Adams, 1998)</p>

	Demonstrates personal character (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)
22. Plans/guides/ directs	<p>Provide guidance (Staub, 1996)</p> <p>Mobilize to shared aspirations (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Sets purpose/direction (Jaques & Clement, 1994; Kotter, 1990; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Influence shared direction (Seeman, 1960; Shartle, 1956)</p> <p>Establishes direction (Conger, 1992)</p> <p>Directing activities of a group toward shared goals (Hemphill & Coons, 1957)</p> <p>Development of a clear and complete system of expectations (Batten, 1989)</p> <p>Act in ways that results in others acting or responding to a shared direction (Shartle, 1956)</p> <p>Process of arranging a situation (Bellows, 1959)</p> <p>Articulate strategy (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Giving direction (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990; Mileham & Spacie, 1996)</p> <p>Sets the purpose or direction (Jaques & Clement, 1994)</p> <p>Direct and command (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Sets clear and agreed goals (Eales-White, 1998)</p> <p>Set standard of performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982)</p> <p>Planning and organizing (Managerial Practices Survey)</p> <p>Regulate the course (Rost, 1993)</p> <p>Call forth authentic action in response to issues (Terry, 1993)</p> <p>Determine strategy (Moxley, 2000)</p> <p>Make things happen (Harris, 1989; Nanus, 1989; Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>Bias toward action (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Employs dynamic planning (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
23. Understands skills of followers	<p>Knows the work of subordinates (Donnithorne, 1994)</p> <p>Skillful deployment of personal qualities (Pettigrew, 1988)</p> <p>Takes responsibility for knowing-understanding-enabling the creative people in the organization (DePree, 1989)</p> <p>Discover-unleash-polish diverse gifts (DePree, 1989)</p>
24. Is a guide	<p>Guide and structure collective behavior patterns (Edinger, 1967)</p> <p>Guide the organization (Wadsworth, 1997)</p> <p>Guides a traveler/hand that leads/head that conducts (Crabb, 1839)</p> <p>Guide a group to consensus (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990)</p> <p>Guide group in a beneficial direction or valuable destination (Wadsworth, 1997)</p> <p>To guide (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Guide the workforce so they feel valued (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Guide organization to new levels of learning (DePree, 1989)</p>
25. Deals with change in organizations	<p>Course of action is changed (Bogardus, 1934)</p> <p>Work in systems that are trying to change (Vaill, 1998)</p> <p>See new possibilities (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>To take charge to make things happen (Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>Seek change (Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>Coping with change (Kotter, 1990)</p>

	<p>Communicates new direction (Kotter, 1990)</p> <p>Influence planned change (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Build bridge to positive and productive change (Meyer, Houze, & Slechta, 1998)</p> <p>Help organizations adapt to change (Jacobson, 2000)</p> <p>Helps individuals, departments, and organizations adapt to change (Jacobson, 2000)</p> <p>Enable continuous change and movement toward some desired destination (Bradshaw, 1998)</p> <p>Identify themselves as change agents (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)</p> <p>Promote change (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Manage changes required to realize the vision (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Leaders change first (Change Mentor, 2001)</p> <p>Serve as a catalyst and manager of strategic change (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Willingness to change (Greenleaf, R. K., edited by Beazley, Beggs, & Spears, 2003)</p> <p>Institutionalizes change (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Propensity for instituting change (McLean & Weitzel, 1992)</p> <p>Manage change (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood 1999)</p> <p>Involve others in planning, introducing, implementing and integrating change (Change Mentor, 2001)</p> <p>Heal wounds inflicted by change (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Make change happen and work as change agent (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Embraces change (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Coordinating leadership tasks in change cycles (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Embraces change (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Enlarges capacity for change (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
26. Group interaction	<p>Directing group activities (Halpin & Winter, 1952, Hemphill, 1949)</p> <p>Acts that help the group achieve objectives (Cartwright & Zander 1953)</p> <p>Group functions (Cartwright & Zander 1953)</p> <p>Assist a group (Boles & Davenport 1975)</p> <p>Build self-managing project teams (Bridges, 1996)</p> <p>Moving a group in a direction through mostly noncoercive means (Kotter, 1990)</p> <p>Build teams (Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood 1999)</p> <p>Promote teamwork (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Get everyone to pull together (Bradford & Cohen, 1984)</p> <p>Directing and coordinating activities of others (Bhal & Ansari, 2000)</p> <p>Fuse together two or more groups or philosophies-producing unity (McLean & Weitzel, 1992)</p> <p>Create a unified will to pursue direction (Kent, Crotts, & Aziz, 2001)</p> <p>Build group synergy (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Support team effort (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Create work teams (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Support the team even during a loss (Kanter, 1995)</p>

27. Unifies	<p>Mutual stimulation (Pigors, 1935)</p> <p>About joining and coming together (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Attract to persuade (Richardson, 1844)</p>
28. Deals with performance	<p>Monitors and reviews performance (Eales-White, 1998)</p> <p>Deal with incompetence (Smith, 1996)</p>
29. Is an example	<p>Humility (Collins, 2002)</p> <p>Fierce resolve (Collins, 2002)</p> <p>Is a Models for followers (Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Be an example (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>A model (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Go ahead of (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Show the way (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Guide (Cox & Hoover, 1992; DePree, 1989; Edinger, 1967; Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990; Wadsworth, 1997)</p> <p>Create a path (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard, 1996)</p> <p>Deals with own discouragement as one way of modeling (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Provide role models (Deal & Kennedy, 1982)</p> <p>Model the way (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Mentor (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995; Quinn, 1988)</p> <p>Show the way to induce to follow (Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Leads by example (Vaughn, 1997)</p> <p>Models values (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
30. Servanthood	<p>Serves (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Laub, 1999; Russel, 2001; Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Motivated by desire to serve others (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Helpful individuals (Jacobson, 2000)</p> <p>Are generous and magnanimous (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Do unto others-serve (Smith, 1996)</p>
31. Persuade	<p>Impress will on those led (Moore, 1927)</p> <p>Make people like it (Titus 1950)</p> <p>Persuasion (DuBrin, 1997; Hollander 1978; Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p>
32. Empowerment	<p>Share power and control (Maccoby, 1981; Schein, 1992; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Empower and engage employees (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Not fear the strengths in subordinates (Drucker, 1997)</p> <p>Releases intelligence, creativity and initiative of others (Simmons, 1996)</p> <p>Activating talents of others (Rusaw, 2001)</p> <p>Concern for empowerment (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Influences people to think-feel-take positive action to achieve goals (Capezio & Moorehouse, 1997)</p> <p>Empower each individual team member to take actions that are needed to achieve vision (Beck & Yeager, 2001)</p> <p>Transfers ownership of work to those who execute the work (Belasco & Stayer, 1994)</p>

	<p>Create an environment of ownership (Belasco & Stayer, 1994)</p> <p>Empower others to do their best (Yeing & Ready 1995)</p> <p>Empowers others to be leaders (McFarland & Senn, 1993)</p> <p>Effective delegation by setting goals and trust staff (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p> <p>Empowers all to win (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Create more autonomy and participation so workers have control (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Enable others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Leaders are exhilarated by identifying and enhancing their people's strengths (Batten, 1989)</p> <p>Delegation (Ragins, 1989)</p> <p>Distributes responsibility (Gastil, 1997)</p> <p>Enable every employee (Barnes, 1996)</p>
33. Challenge the status quo	<p>Challenges the status quo diplomatically (Caroselli, 2000)</p> <p>Challenges the status quo positively (Caroselli, 2000)</p> <p>Challenging the process (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Does not maintain the status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)</p> <p>Challenge the norm (Taffinder, 1997)</p> <p>Go beyond the status quo (Taffinder, 1997)</p> <p>By confronting and challenging the status quo-searches for opportunities (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Busts the bureaucracy (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Breaks down hierarchy (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Maintain a sense of outrage (willing to take the heat and pressure from above to correct wrongs) (Smith, 1996)</p>
34. Power	<p>Power to influence thoughts and actions of others (Zalenik, 1992)</p> <p>Power over decision-making process of community life (Lowery, 1962)</p> <p>Ability to use power effectively (Koontz & Weiheich, 1990)</p> <p>Ability to use power in a responsible manner (Koontz & Weiheich, 1990)</p> <p>Power (Ragins, 1989)</p> <p>Exert power through dignity (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Personal power (Fairholm, 2001)</p> <p>Share power (Maccoby, 1981; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999; Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Participative approach to management and willingness to share power (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Power of the authority of the office (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Power of knowledge (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Power of personality (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation (Moore, 1927)</p> <p>Position of authority (Olmstead, 2000)</p>
35. Technical	<p>Technical competence (Bennis, 1997; Hinkin & Tracey, 1994; Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Technology foresight (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Comfortable with advanced technology (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Advance technology transfer and venturing (Harris, 1996)</p> <p>Display technical skills (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p>

36. People-oriented	<p>Identify, evoke, and use the strengths of all resources in the organization—the most important of which is people (Batten, 1989)</p> <p>Relational (Edinger, 1967)</p> <p>Interpersonal (Moloney, 1979; Schriesheim, Tolliver, & Behling, 1978)</p> <p>Interpersonal interaction (Schriesheim, Tolliver, & Behling, 1978)</p> <p>Read and understand others (Staub 1996)</p> <p>Skill in building relationship with others (O'Connor, 1997)</p> <p>Generates confidence in people who were frightened (Bardwick, 1996)</p> <p>Concern for well-being (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Focus on relationship (Humphrey, 1987)</p> <p>Friendly (Kanter, 1997; Tyagi, 1985)</p> <p>Reciprocal relationship (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Caring (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Focus on interpersonal interactions to increase organizational effectiveness (Schriesheim, Tolliver, & Behling, 1978)</p> <p>Responsibility to represent followers needs and goals they want to achieve (Plachy, 1987)</p> <p>About people (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Maccoby, 1981; Mileham & Spacie, 1996)</p> <p>Knowing people are the primary asset of any organization (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Engage the whole person (Corbin, 2000)</p> <p>Emotional side of directing organizations (Barach & Eckhardt, 1996)</p> <p>Interpersonal skills (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994)</p> <p>Sensitivity to members needs (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)</p> <p>Treats with respect (Tyagi, 1985)</p> <p>Change people's physical state of being (Blanchard)</p> <p>Create emotion by generating certainty in people who were vacillating (Bardwick, 1996)</p> <p>Concerned with what others are doing (Grint, 2000)</p> <p>Helps people see themselves (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>People skills (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Understands people (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Sensitive to what motivates others (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Guide workforce so they are valued as part of the team (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Believe in people (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)</p> <p>Nurturing humane organizations and communities (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Support individual effort (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Guidance (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Nurture the right relationship processes (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Studies results with the aim to improve his/her performance as a manager of people (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Humanity (Napolitano, & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Tries to discover who—if anybody—is outside the system and in need of special help (Deming, 1986)</p>
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	<p>Take care of people (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Thank people (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Appreciate people (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Recognize people (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Recognition (SMP)</p> <p>Show compassion (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Nurture the leader-follower relationship (emotional) (Smith, 1996)</p>
37. Diversity	<p>Richness of deep diversity—that will lead to deeper unity (Terry, 1993)</p> <p>Confronts diversity at every turn (Terry, 1993)</p> <p>Reaches across boundaries (Terry, 1993)</p> <p>Understands that people are different from each other (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Fully utilize people regardless of race, gender, ethnic origin, or culture (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Seek and cherish diversity (Smith, 1996)</p>
38. Self	<p>Control actions (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Improves self-encouragement and mental skills (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p>
39. Independent	<p>Work well alone (Handy, 1989)</p>
40. Facilitator	<p>Facilitator (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990; Quinn 1988)</p> <p>Facilitates by asking questions, drawing people out to guide group to consensus (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990)</p>
41. Culture	<p>Ability to act in a manner conducive to responding to and arousing emotion (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990)</p> <p>Promote culture (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994)</p> <p>Serve as a catalyst and manager of culture change (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Integrate different cultures, sectors, and disciplines (Drucker, 1997)</p> <p>Build or create culture (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Maintain and support the culture (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Posses skills in analyzing cultural assumptions (Schein, 1992)</p> <p>Consciously promote a clearly articulated, stimulating culture (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Protect culture from perils of crisis (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Listening to followers without judgment increases followers' creativity (Michalko, 2001)</p> <p>Creates an environment that encourages trust, freedom, and innovation (Deming, 1986)</p>
42. Environmentally aware	<p>Environmental sensitivity (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)</p> <p>Make sense of happenings in their world that otherwise would not make sense (Pfeffer, 1977)</p> <p>Aligns assets and skills of the organization with the opportunities and risks presented by the environment (Timpe, 1987)</p> <p>Ability to block out the unnecessary and concentrate on the necessary (Cain, 1998)</p> <p>Are expected and perceived to make contributions to social order (Hosking, 1988)</p> <p>Demonstrates uncompromising environmental responsibility (Kanter, 1995)</p>

43. Training	<p>Concern for growth (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Promote training and development (Syrett & Hogg, 1992)</p> <p>Maximizes the capability of people to fulfill purpose (Jacobs, 1997)</p> <p>Coach the development of personal capabilities (Belasco & Stayer, 1994)</p> <p>Encourages others to learn quickly (Belasco & Stayer, 1994)</p> <p>Deliberately causing people-driven actions in a planned fashion (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Coach people (Vaughn, 1997)</p> <p>Willing to teach skills (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Develop followers (Eales-White, 1998)</p> <p>Guide the organization and people to new levels of learning and performance (DePree, 1989)</p> <p>Concerned with self-development and the development of others (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Commitment to growth of people (Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Promotes continuous learning (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
44. Communication	<p>Provide a system of communication (Bernard, 1938)</p> <p>Influence through communication (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961)</p> <p>Influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961)</p> <p>Frequency of communication tied to job performance (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003)</p> <p>Articulate vision-values-strategy (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Align people by communicating (Kotter, 1990)</p> <p>Frequently communicate (Syrett & Hogg, 1992)</p> <p>Unshakeable commitment to communication (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p> <p>Active listening improves the leader-follower relationship (Rutter, 2003)</p> <p>Positive communication leads to positive actions (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987)</p> <p>Encourage followers to speak their mind (Sims, 2005)</p> <p>Good communication skills (Miles, 1997)</p> <p>High quality interpersonal communication leads to high quality leader-follower interaction (Campbell, White, & Johnson, 2003)</p> <p>Provide open communication and information to personnel-customers-suppliers (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Actively communicate a wide range of information to employees (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Creating and communicating meaning in formal and informal forums (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Use language to touch the heart (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Have communication skills (Stettner, 2000)</p> <p>Engages in dialogue (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
45. Humor	<p>Uses humor to take the edge off during stressful periods (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995)</p> <p>Utilize humor to keep perspective (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p>

	<p>Uses a funny story to turn an argument in his or her favor (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995)</p> <p>Makes us laugh at ourselves when we are too serious (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995)</p> <p>Uses amusing stories to defuse conflicts (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995)</p> <p>Uses wit to make friends of the opposition (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995)</p> <p>Use humor (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Use humor to lift others up (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p>
46. Self-confident	<p>Dares to be themselves (Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Self-awareness (Bennis, 1997; Bushe, 2001)</p> <p>Self-esteem (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Self-confidence (Aguinis & Adams 1998; Napolitano & Henderson, 1998; Roberts, 1990)</p> <p>Secure sense of strengths (Miles, 1997)</p> <p>Possess a belief in self (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Self-confidence with humility (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Understands oneself (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Determination (Cox & Hoover, 1992; Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Submit self to mirror test and find comfort with person there (Drucker, 1997)</p> <p>Self-efficacy (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999)</p> <p>Confidence (Meyer, Houze, & Slochta, 1998)</p> <p>Determination to achieve (Meyer, Houze, & Slochta, 1998)</p> <p>Awareness of self (Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Conscious of weaknesses and strengths (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Disciplined and determined (Snyder, Dowd, Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Decisive (Implicit-leadership-theory measure) (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999; Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Conviction (Bardwick, 1996; Taffinder, 1997)</p> <p>Focused and disciplined (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Welcomes criticism and fights paranoia (brutally honest with self) (Smith, 1996)</p>
47. Optimistic	<p>Identify and combat discouraging fictional beliefs (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Models optimistic philosophy (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Optimism (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Enthusiasm (Vaughn, 1997)</p>
48. Knowledge	<p>Superior intelligence (Crabb, 1839)</p> <p>Think deeply (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Possess learning agility for self-knowledge (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997)</p> <p>Think through problems (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997)</p> <p>Critical thinking skills (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999)</p> <p>Knowledge (Deming, 1986; Giblin, 1986; Waitley 1995)</p> <p>Learns fast (Belasco & Stayer, 1994)</p>

	<p>Analytical thinking (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Learn from mistakes and successes (Kanter, 1995; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Learn from failure (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Crystallized thinking (Meyer, Houze, & Slecta, 1998)</p> <p>Expertise (Bardwick, 1996)</p> <p>Think strategically (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Learns unceasingly (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Logic (Auguinis & Adams, 1998)</p> <p>Seeks opportunities to learn (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Seek broad business knowledge (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Practice insight by seeing things from new angles (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Expands information and access to new knowledge (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
49. Influence	<p>The role of the manager/leader is to motivate (McGregor, 1960)</p> <p>Interpersonal influence (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961)</p> <p>Process of influencing the activities of an organized group (Rauch & Behling, 1984)</p> <p>Process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988)</p> <p>Attempt at influencing the activities of followers (Donnelly, Ivancevich, & Gibson, 1985)</p> <p>Art of influencing others to maximum performance (Cohen, 1990)</p> <p>Influence through communication (DuBrin, 1997)</p> <p>Influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1978)</p> <p>Leadership requires power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people (Zalenik, 1992)</p> <p>Influence process to get people to willingly do what must be done and do well what ought to be done (Cribbin, 1981)</p> <p>Process of influencing the activities of an organized group (Stogdill, 1950)</p> <p>Influence over movements and actions of others (Crabb, 1839)</p> <p>Influence attempts that avoid the invocation of power and relative status (Whyte, 1943)</p> <p>Influencing people toward cooperation (Tead, 1935)</p> <p>Ability to persuade or direct men (Reuter, 1941)</p> <p>Influencing activities or an organized group to goal setting/achievement (Stogdill, 1958)</p> <p>Influence behavior toward desired end (by word or deed) (Engstrom, 1976)</p> <p>Acts which influence to shared direction (DuBrin, 1997; Seeman, 1960; Shartle, 1956)</p> <p>Influences decisions and actions of others (Lowry, 1962)</p> <p>Influence agent (Edinger, 1967)</p> <p>Influence actions of others in shared approach (Gibb, 1959)</p> <p>Process of influence-persuasion (Hollander, 1978)</p> <p>Two-way influence relationship (Hollander, 1978)</p>

	<p>Influential increment over and above mechanical compliance (Katz & Kahn, 1978)</p> <p>Influence members that is successful (House & Baetz, 1979)</p> <p>Influence activities of an individual or group (Stogdill, 1950)</p> <p>Influences group activities (Rauch & Behling, 1984)</p> <p>Influence behavior of another individual or group (Hersey, 1997)</p> <p>All about influence (Maxwell, 1993)</p> <p>Influence planned change (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Influences dreams (Danzig, 1998)</p> <p>Influences individuals or groups to think (Capezioo & Moorehouse, 1997)</p> <p>Influence between leader and follower (Hollander, 1978)</p> <p>Influence activities of organized group (Rauch & Behling, 1984; Stogdill, 1950)</p> <p>Ability and willingness to influence others so they respond willingly (Clawson, 1999)</p> <p>Influence outside of formal authority (Blank, 1995)</p> <p>Social influence that aids and enlists support to accomplish (Chemers, 1997)</p> <p>Interpersonal influence directed to attaining goals achieved through communication (Donelly, Ivancevich, & Gibson, 1985; DuBrin, 1997; Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961)</p> <p>Influence people so that they will contribute (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990)</p> <p>Influencing actions of individuals, groups, and organizations to get results (Olmstead, 2000)</p> <p>Organizational influence (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994)</p>
50. Goal-oriented	<p>Influence toward goal achievement (Sogdill, 1958)</p> <p>Toward goal achievement (Donelly, Ivancevich, & Gibson, 1985)</p> <p>Efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Moloney, 1979)</p> <p>Toward the attainment of some goal or goals (Donelly, Ivancevich, & Gibson, 1985)</p> <p>Inspires as to goals (Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants (Prentice, 1961)</p> <p>Successfully marshals his human collaborators to achieve particular ends (Prentice, 1961)</p> <p>Gets them to move along together with competence (Jaques & Clement, 1994)</p> <p>Influences goal setting and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1950, 1958)</p> <p>Stimulates accomplishment of goals (Davis, 1942)</p> <p>Organized efforts to achieve goal setting and achievement (Stogdill, 1958)</p> <p>Cooperation toward goal (Tead, 1935)</p> <p>Cement unifying men for cooperative action to achieve given objectives (Titus, 1950)</p> <p>Cure behavior towards objectives (Edinger, 1967)</p> <p>Move towards production goals (Boles & Davenport, 1975)</p> <p>Influence to common objectives or compatible goals (Gibb, 1959)</p> <p>Aimed primarily at attaining goals (Hollander, 1978)</p>

	<p>Influence to goal attainment (Moloney, 1979)</p> <p>Elicit goals (Staub, 1996)</p> <p>Adopt personal-active attitudes toward goals (Zalenznik, 1989)</p> <p>Causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990)</p> <p>Accomplish common task or goal (Chemers, 1997)</p> <p>Achieve organizational goals (Meyer, Houze, & Slechta, 1998)</p> <p>Responsible to accomplish tasks (Fairholm, 2001)</p> <p>Helps the group to achieve its goals, increase effectiveness (Bushe, 2001)</p> <p>Accomplish the leaders agenda (Crosby, 1997)</p> <p>Provide transcendent goals (Batten, 1989)</p> <p>Evaluates progress towards objectives (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Goal clarification (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994)</p>
51. A force	<p>Principal dynamic force (Davis, 1942)</p> <p>Key dynamic force (DuBrin, 1997)</p> <p>Competitiveness (Roberts, 1990)</p>
52. Values	<p>Rational exchange of values (Schlesinger, 1967)</p> <p>Articulate values (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Operate from a set of inspiring core values and beliefs (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Define, shape, and use core values (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Common ground based on shared values (Daft & Lengel, 1998)</p> <p>Values based (Meyer, Houze, & Slechta, 1998)</p> <p>Ensure structures and systems in organization reflect values (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Higher states behavior in terms of principles, values, and intentions (Kent, Crotss, & Aziz, 2001)</p> <p>Have values and beliefs that serve as basis for direction and action (Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Show tolerance of diversity and intolerance of performance, standards, and values (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>They are value driven (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)</p> <p>Models values (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Well-integrated values system (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Live the values of “my unit” (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Develops core values (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
53. Resourceful	<p>Resourcefulness (Giblin, 1986; Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Adaptive (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p>
54. Loyalty	Loyalty (Roberts, 1990)
55. Mission	<p>Create a path-finding mission (Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard, 1996)</p> <p>Ensure structures and systems in organization reflect mission (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Alignment of the workforce to the mission (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p>
56. Commitment	<p>Commitment from people (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Gain commitment from members (Conger, 1992)</p> <p>Develop commitment to carry vision (Oakley & Kurg, 1994)</p> <p>Voluntary commitment of followers (Nanus, 1989)</p> <p>Encourage commitment (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p> <p>Mobilize individual commitment (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p>

57. Manages	<p>Manage systems and keep them as stable and serviceable as possible (Vaill, 1998)</p> <p>Set standards (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Understands and conveys to other the meaning of a system (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Takes a systems approach (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Pumps life and meaning into management structures and brings them to life (Barach & Eckhardt, 1996)</p> <p>Align and ensure the match between organization and strategy (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Engender organizational capability (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Fully commit to a long-term strategy of building a valuable institution (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Assembly and reassembly of organizational components, including projects-teams-locations (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p> <p>Effective management of risk (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Active management by exception behavior (Waldman, Ramirez, & House, 2001)</p> <p>Good management (Fairholm, 2001)</p> <p>Management skills (Humphrey, 1987)</p> <p>Blend multiple organizational models (Corbin, 200)</p> <p>Understands a stable system (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Manage projects through cross-functional teams (Barnes, 1996)</p> <p>Manage cross-functional purposes (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p>
58. Listening	<p>Listening (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996; Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Attentive to what is said (Tyagi, 1985)</p> <p>Listens (accepts ideas, criticisms, feedback) (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Listen more than tell (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Asks what and why (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Listens deeply (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Listens respectfully (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Most likely to listen first (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Listens and learns without passing judgement (Deming, 1986)</p> <p>Listens without judgment (Deming, 1986; McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p>
59. Resources	<p>Organize resources—human people (O'Connor, 1997)</p> <p>Organize wide range of resources (Rusaw, 2001)</p> <p>Art and process of acquiring, energizing, linking, and focusing resources of all kinds (Bradshaw, 1998)</p> <p>Focus on resources (Bradshaw, 1998)</p> <p>Champions of resources (Waitley, 1995)</p> <p>Have resources needed to form networks (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Provide resources needed for continuous improvement (Fitz-enz, 1997)</p> <p>Dedicate resources to process innovations (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Cultivate diverse resources (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
60. Energy	<p>Energizes (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Nanus, 1989; Senge, 1990)</p> <p>Breathes life into the organization (Senge, 1990)</p>

	<p>Active (White, Hodgson, & Crainer, 1996; Zelenznik, 1989)</p> <p>Ensure energy is released and sustained across initiatives (Taffinder, 1997)</p> <p>Energy (Danzig, 1998)</p> <p>Fast (Kanter, 1998)</p> <p>Participate actively (Kent & Moss, 1990)</p>
61. Attractive/approachable	<p>Attract followers (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Friendly (Kanter, 1997; Tyagi, 1985)</p> <p>Easy to approach (Tyagi, 1985)</p> <p>Approachable (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Visible and approachable (Smith, 1996)</p>
62. Healing	<p>Healing-oneself and others (Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Heal wounds inflicted by change (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>The organizational environment must be one of healing (Kerfoot, 1999)</p> <p>Healing is one of the characteristics of servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1970)</p>
63. Selection of people	<p>Selects the right people (Murphy, 1996)</p> <p>Knows future lies in the selection-nurturance-assignment of key people (DePree, 1989)</p> <p>Select the most talented team members available (Kanter, 1997; Shin, 2004)</p> <p>Values alignment (Brown, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Kristoff, 1996)</p>
64. Responsible	<p>Responsible (Fairholm, 2001)</p> <p>Responsible attitude (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Uses power responsibly (Koontz & Weilhrich, 1990)</p> <p>Responsibility (Aguinis & Adams, 1998; Roberts, 1990)</p>
65. Dedicated	<p>High dedication to the job (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p>
66. Time management	<p>Use time effectively (Smith, 1996)</p> <p>Manage time and resources (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p>
67. Networks	<p>Networking (MPS)</p>
68. Ethics	<p>Emphasize ethics (Syrett & Hogg, 1992)</p> <p>Have ethics (Stettner, 2000)</p> <p>Display professional ethics (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Sanctioning conduct (enforcing ethical conduct-laws-norms) (Crosby, 1997)</p>
69. Integrity	<p>Integrity (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Leadership acts with integrity (Kanter, 1995)</p> <p>Exudes integrity (Smith, 1996)</p>
70. Courage	<p>Courage (Roberts, 1990; Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Courageous individuals (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)</p> <p>Passion and courage (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
71. Reflection	<p>Reflects feelings (Dinkmeyer & Eckstein, 1996)</p>
72. Emotion	<p>Create emotion by generating action where there was hesitation (Bardwick, 1996)</p> <p>Create emotion by generating strength where there was weakness (Bardwick, 1996)</p> <p>Create emotion by generating expertise where there was floundering (Bardwick, 1996)</p>
73. Human resources	<p>Human resources frame (Bolman & Deal, 1991)</p> <p>Human resources management (Gratton, Hope-Hailey, Stiles, & Truss,</p>

	1999)
74. Conflict resolution	Negotiate resolution to conflict (Murphy, 1996) Resolves conflict diplomatically and finds common cause (Kanter, 1995) Interpersonal competencies to resolve conflicts in a constructive manner (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999) Resolving residual conflict in formal and informal courts (Crosby, 1997)
75. Decision-making	Make decisions (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999) Making decisions and implementing decisions about legislative, executive, and administrative policy (Crosby, 1997) Decisiveness (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999; Roberts, 1990)
76. Disciplined	Develop self-discipline (Barnes, 1996) Well-organized life (Cox & Hoover, 1992)
77. Ambiguity	Tolerates ambiguity and paradox (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) Deal effectively with complex, ambiguous, and contradictory situations (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1997) Ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)
78. Effective	Effectiveness (Munroe, 1997) Lead effectively (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)
79. Boundaries	Sets parameters (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)
80. Internal	Inner locus of control (Harung, Alexander, & Heaton, 1999) Internal locus of control (Cox & Hoover, 1992) Intrinsic motivation (Cox & Hoover, 1992)
81. Financial	Broker (Quinn, 1988)
82. Personality	Personality in action under group conditions (Bogardus, 1934) Interaction of specific traits of one person and other traits of many (Bogardus, 1934)
83. Stays the course	Stay the course (not follow fads) (Deming, 1986) Constancy of purpose (Deming, 1986) Don't totally change direction (Deming, 1986)
84. Authentic	Authentic Leadership Model (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004) Authentic (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)
85. Inspires and motivates	Simulates, motivate, and coordinated the organization (Davis, 1942) Inspires others to go (Munroe, 1997) Motivates and inspires (Kotter, 1990) Motivates by satisfying basic human needs (Kotter, 1990) Causes people to respond with vigor (Danzig, 1998) Inspires people to understand the social, political, economic, and technological givens (Crosby, 1997) Produces movement in the long-term best interest of the group (Kotter, 1990) Recognize that people must motivate themselves (Cain, 1998) Inspire extra effort (Bradford & Cohen, 1984) Catalyze, stretch and enhance people (Batten, 1989) Motivates and coordinates (Davis, 1942)

	<p>Comprehend that humans have differing motivation forces at different times and situations (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990)</p> <p>Ability to inspire (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990)</p> <p>Motivation (Ragins, 1989)</p> <p>To cause to follow or pursue (Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Inspire enthusiasm (Vaughn, 1997)</p> <p>Inspires confidence (Montgomery, 1961)</p> <p>Inspire staff to discover natural creativity, express creative ideas freely (Buzan, Dottino, & Israel, 1999)</p> <p>Motivate themselves to draw on (Richardson, 1844)</p> <p>Create a motivational climate (Batten, 1989)</p> <p>Inspire others to lead (Humphrey, 1987)</p> <p>Inspiring (Kent, Crotts, & Aziz, 2001)</p> <p>Motivates (Davis, 1942)</p> <p>Conceptualization (nurture abilities to dream great dreams, think beyond the day today) (Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Motivates across generation boundaries (Essex & Kusy, 1999)</p> <p>Exhibit extraordinary levels of motivation to enable group members to learn change (Schein, 1992)</p>
86. Direction of the vision	<p>Determines direction (Timpe, 1987)</p> <p>Process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990)</p> <p>Leadership revolves around vision-ideas-direction (Bennis, 1989)</p> <p>Sets direction for vision (Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999)</p> <p>Create and describe the vision (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999)</p> <p>Create direction (Kotter, 1990)</p> <p>Consistently provide the organization a clear direction (Kanter, 1995)</p>
87. Inspires the vision	<p>Rally men and women to common purpose (Montgomery, 1961)</p> <p>Exhibit conviction in creating a vision (Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard, 1996)</p> <p>Marshalling, energizing, and unifying of people toward the pursuit of vision (Kent, Crotts, and Aziz, 2001)</p> <p>Challenging a team of people to reach to a vision (Beck & Yeager, 2001)</p> <p>Create a compelling vision (Shelton, 1997)</p> <p>Establishment of a thrust toward a purpose (Kent, Crotts, & Aziz, 2001)</p> <p>Inspiring a shared vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Create a vision with meaning (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Inspires pursuit of a shared vision (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
88. Articulates the vision	<p>Articulate tangible vision (Yeung & Ready, 1995)</p> <p>Convey vision (Syrett & Hogg, 1992)</p> <p>Looks at the horizon (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p>
89. Sells the vision (buy-in)	<p>Integrate agreed vision of the future (Simmons, 1996)</p> <p>Present vision so that others want to achieve it (O'Connor, 1997)</p> <p>Ability to get members of the organization to accept ownership of vision as their own (Oakley & Kurg, 1994)</p> <p>Infuses dreams-inspires vision (Danzig, 1998)</p>

	<p>Energizes and attracts people to enroll in a vision of the future (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>Focus on gaining understanding and buy-in from all parties (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p> <p>Shares big picture (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995)</p>
90. Guides the vision	<p>Provide guidance through shared vision (Stabu, 1996)</p> <p>Guides the vision (Munroe, 1997)</p> <p>Work into context by providing vision (Eales-White, 1998)</p> <p>Ensures structures and systems in organization reflect vision (Covey, 1996)</p> <p>Claim the future through reconnaissance (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996)</p> <p>Strongly define a sense of purpose and vision (Bennis, 1997)</p>
91. Visionary	<p>Transcend the vision (McLean & Weitzel, 1992)</p> <p>A broad view, a new territory of the organization's direction (Martin, 2001)</p> <p>Develop vision (Bradford & Cohen, 1984)</p> <p>Creates the big picture (Eales-White, 1998)</p> <p>Have a vision (Kanter, 1995; Snyder, Dowd, & Houghton, 1994)</p> <p>Ability to see clearly (Sadler, 1997)</p> <p>Knows the future (Heskett & Sclesinger, 1996; Spears & Lawrence, 2002)</p> <p>Has a long-range perspective (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Are visionaries (Tichy & Devanna, 1990)</p> <p>Has eye on the horizon (Bennis, 1997; Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997)</p> <p>Thinks completely (big picture) (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p>
92. Stamina	<p>Physical stamina (Roberts, 1990)</p> <p>Emotional stamina (Roberts, 1990)</p> <p>Perseverance (Danzig, 1998)</p> <p>Build stamina (Smith, 1996)</p>
93. Miscellaneous	<p>Pragmatic (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Preserve what makes the company special (Deal & Kennedy, 1982)</p> <p>Charisma (Danzig, 1998; Whetten & Cameron, 1983)</p> <p>Respectable (Maccoby, 1981)</p> <p>Is his/her own person (Bennis, 1997)</p> <p>Unconventional behavior (Conger & Kanungo, 1998)</p> <p>Enhance the quality of work life (Harris, 1989)</p> <p>Initiation and maintenance of structure (Stogdill, 1974)</p> <p>Consistently make effective contributions to social order (Hosking, 1988)</p> <p>Must be able to leverage more than his own capabilities (Bennis, 1989)</p> <p>Answers the question what is really going on (Terry, 1993)</p> <p>Balance (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998)</p> <p>Do the right thing (Bennis & Nanus, 1985)</p> <p>Create follower-ship (Staub, 1996)</p> <p>Be chief (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>To begin (Cox & Hoover, 1992)</p> <p>Capable of inspiring others to do things without actually sitting on top of them with a checklist (Bennis, 1989)</p> <p>Art of mobilizing others (Kouzes & Posner, 1995)</p> <p>Orchestrate a 360 worldview (Corbin, 2000)</p>

	<p> Talk more than others (Kent & Moss, 1990) Make federations of corporations (Bennis, 1997) Agile (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997) Astuteness (Giblin, 1986) Producer (Quinn, 1988) Compatibility (Giblin, 1986) Order the chaos (Corbin, 2000) Quality (Danzig, 1998) Give a point to the working lives of others (Birch, 1999) Hard work (Miles, 1997) Multi-tasking (Essex & Kusy, 1999) Values others input (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995) Accountability (Roberts, 1990) Pragmatic approach (Cox & Hoover, 1992) Persuasion (Spears & Lawrence, 2002) Break major tasks into bite size chunks (Gower) Tenacity (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) Empathy (Spears & Lawrence, 2002) Timing (Roberts, 1990) Credibility (Roberts, 1990) Handles emotion in self and others (Bergman, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999) Ensures that boundaries are porous and permeable (Bennis, 1997) Learn from adversity (Cox & Hoover, 1992) Descriptiveness (Bushe, 2001) Curiosity (Bushe, 2001) Appreciation (Bushe, 2001) Attitude of mind (Birch, 1999) Desire (Roberts, 1990) Procedural justice (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994) Autocratic (Leadership Scale for Sports, LSS) Dependability (Roberts, 1990) Type A personality (Cox & Hoover, 1992) Functionality (Ragins, 1989) Accountably to make it safe to learn from mistakes (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1995) Industriousness (Auquinis & Adams, 1998) Shifts paradigm (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) Summons old-fashioned work-place virtues like loyalty-commitment-on the job exuberance (Wadsworth, 1997) Promote an entrepreneurial spirit in innovative ventures (Harris, 1989) Judgement (Bennis, 1997) Excellence (Harris, 1989) (SLP) Self-renewal (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) Stewardship (Spears & Lawrence, 2002) Controls ambition and ego (Smith, 1996) Passion (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) </p>
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	Tests assumptions (Napolitano & Henderson, 1998) Open mind (Cont) (Schein, 1992) Reach out to partners (Schein, 1992) Does not expect perfection (Deming, 1986) Maintain high standards of dignity (Smith, 1992) Share their passion and expertise (McFarland & Senn, 1993)
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Russian Organizational Leadership: Lessons from the Globe Study

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This paper summarizes the authors' findings on organizational leadership in Russia through the GLOBE cross-cultural research program and further develops an interpretation of empirical data on Russian business leadership. The authors discuss factors of effective leadership rooted in the country's history, highlight relative scores on universal leadership attributes, interpret culture-contingent leaders' characteristics, and summarize the influence of culture on effective leadership in a transitional society.

Among the important applications of contemporary leadership theories is the articulation of organizational leadership in diverse societies. Leadership is defined by universal as well as country-specific/culture-specific characteristics. While much has been done on leadership attributes and behaviors in industrialized countries, it is clear that in countries in transition to democracy and the free market leaders follow their own customs to encourage, motivate, and enable others to contribute to the success of the organizations of which they are members.

In the last decade, scholars have discussed Russian culture and its impact on business and management practices (Elenkov, 1997; Grachev, 2001; Michailova, 2000; Naumov, 1996; Naumov & Puffer, 2000; Puffer, 1992). In particular, they have analyzed the profile of the Russian business leader and compared the values and behaviors of Russian to American entrepreneurs (Kats de Vries, 2000; Hisrich & Grachev, 2001). However, these findings were neither placed into a larger international comparative framework nor linked to universal leadership attributes for comparative purposes.

This paper presents findings on organizational leadership in Russia from the large-scale cross-cultural research program, Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE), conducted in 62 countries. The program is based on a culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory (CLT) that focuses on beliefs about effective leaders shared by members of an organization or society (House, 1997, 1999, 2004). GLOBE findings position Russia in a cluster framework (Bakacsi, Takacs, Karacsonyi, & Imrek, 2002) and summarize its cultural profile (Grachev, 2004) and its CLT leadership profile in a cross-cultural context.

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After reviewing the historically developed sources of effective leadership in Russia, the remainder of the article presents our empirical findings and relative scores on leadership dimensions that are universally perceived as contributors to or inhibitors from outstanding leadership.

Genesis of Russian Organizational Leadership

Modern societal culture in Russia is determined by three sets of factors: (a) traditional features, historically developed through centuries; (b) influence of the 20th century totalitarianism; and (c) radical revolution in values, beliefs, and behaviors through the transitional 1990s and early 2000s (Grachev, 2004). These factors may help to predict the profile of an effective Russian organizational leader.

Historically developed characteristics of Russian culture are rooted in Slavic history, Orthodox religion, specific features of natural environmental, and unique social capital. Holistic and influential, Slavic-Orthodox culture is regarded as one of the few “global cultures” (Huntington, 1993). Through the centuries, Russia has integrated basic values of both the West and the East – reason and inspiration. It has served as a bridge between Western and Eastern cultural traditions with a certain psychological dependence on both. Its national character combined such qualities as habitual, patient struggle with misfortune and hardship; the ability to concentrate efforts; the ability to cooperate across a large geographic distance, impersonal collectivism; humanism; and the search for truth (Chaadaev, 1991; Kluchevskii, 1904).

While Russia was growing through the centuries, its leaders were traditionally associated with the state, religion, or the military. The Russian Orthodox Church greatly influenced society, and several spiritual leaders were deified. Peter the Great, who began “Westernization” in the 18th century by autocratic and barbarian means, was an admired military leader. Business leaders in his time were traders who, along with the military, created Europe’s strongest military-industrial complex of those times. Later, the economic liberalism of Catherine the Great attracted the highest-ranking Russian nobles to entrepreneurship. The industrial revolution in the 19th century brought the real spirit of private initiative and leadership to Russia. Talented business leaders such as Morozov, Knopp, and Ryabushinski founded successful business empires in Russia and introduced many organizational innovations, including charitable initiatives.

In the 20th century under Communism, in contrast to the West, Russia appeared to have largely retained, even in periods of rapid industrial expansion, an autocratic or patrimonial system (single-centered). This sharply limited the autonomy of economic units in the use and disposal of resources and preserved for those in political control the right, if only *de jure*, to determine the pace and pattern of economic development (Guroff & Carstensen, 1983). Russian leadership characteristics were modified by specific Soviet (totalitarian) traits such as a perception of the environment as hostile and dangerous, supremacy of society’s goals over the individual’s, and a relativistic view of morality with an acceptance of double standards in life (Mikheyev, 1987). However, even within the Soviet command system, there existed a vigorous level of entrepreneurial response and positive leadership heritage, including military victories in the Second World War, courageous behaviors, and great technical projects.

In the 1990s, the transitional Russian economy was run by a small number of financial-industrial groups, arguably more powerful than the state. The stage of aggregating capital by selling state property (“privatization stage”) was over, and the new epoch could be defined as the

stage of “managing capital effectively,” with the oligarchs – leaders of industrial and financial empires – displaying a new leadership model for the Russian economy.

Later, in the early 2000s, the political and economic landscape experienced a new shift. With the rise of a state bureaucracy supported by security corps, the government confronted disloyal oligarchs and selectively re-evaluated the results of the “wild” privatization of the 1990s. One of the major consequences of these changes was strengthened state control over economic development at the expense of democratic institutions. Russian President Vladimir Putin coined the term “managed democracy” to define the unique Russian path to economic prosperity. Bureaucratic rules limited entrepreneurial initiative, creativity, and the ability to successfully and ethically interact with Russia’s counterparts in the global economy.

The heterogenous kaleidoscopic culture of Russia’s current transitional society is different from the homogenous Soviet culture. Business leaders and managers in Russia are motivated by one or a combination of the following business philosophies: *bureaucratic*, based on active initiatives under state-run bureaucratic supervision; *pragmatic*, based on maximum profitability on a technocratic basis; *predatory*, based on achieving success through tough suppression of rivals including Mafia connections, growth by any means, and cheating on partners, consumers, and the state; and *socially responsible*, based on linking business to the promotion of national interests, the resolution of social problems, and universal human values (Ageev, Gratchev, & Hisrich, 1995).

The current transitional economy makes the carriers of those business philosophies very diverse, with a variety of economic and political interests. In the literature, a number of similar typologies exist to differentiate these carriers. While the typologies often do not go far beyond informal observations, they help to better explain the diversity of the Russian management community.

Our typology identifies Old Guard, New Wave, and International Corps by linking their root characteristics to the stages of Russian business history (Ageev et al., 1995). The first group, the Old Guard, consists of those who proved their talents as leaders in large-scale projects such as managing technological innovations. The Old Guard exploit their access to key decision-making centers and information and use bureaucratic connections and control of resources. These people still keep leading positions in large industrial corporations or in internationally competitive sectors of the economy (oil-and-gas, aerospace, shipbuilding, and others). The second group, the New Wave, emerging from economic reform, follows a different road to economic independence by searching for innovations and reflecting advanced economic thinking. They are leaders of the former shadow economy, which has been being increasingly legalized and are former Communist party functionaries or military officers who successfully transformed into businessmen. A large proportion of this group is young people, hungry for entrepreneurial success. Another group of people, who can be called Unwilling Entrepreneurs, are forced to take initiatives due to fear of unemployment and are now involved primarily in small-scale trade transactions. Finally, there is a group of foreign businessmen (International Corps) that operates in the Russian market, including representatives of the Russian diaspora.

A similar system of categorizing Russian business leaders is suggested by M. de Vries (2000). He identifies two groups separated by a substantial generation gap. In the first group he places young enthusiastic, talented people who recognize the opportunities of the new open society. This group includes former black marketers turning to legitimized business and the children of Party nomenklatura. The administrators and bureaucrats who used to supervise the Soviet economy in the past make up the second group. However, this second group is not

homogeneous. One subgroup includes a well connected business elite, retaining privileged positions. The other subgroup among the older generation is focused on self-preservation, making superficial adjustments to maintain their status, often giving only lip service to the new economy.

Globe Design and Russian Sample Composition

This paper summarizes findings on Russian effective leadership as a part of a large-scale cross-cultural research program called GLOBE*. The theoretical base that guides the GLOBE research integrates implicit leadership theory, value/belief theory of culture, implicit motivation theory, structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness, and integrated leadership theory. The central GLOBE proposition is that attributes and entities that distinguish a given culture from other cultures are predictive of the practices of organizations of that culture and predictive of the leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted, acceptable, and effective in that culture.

The GLOBE cultural dimensions design was based on previous works by Hofstede (1984) and McClelland (1985) and also included the theoretical findings of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and Triandis (1995). Cultural values and practices were measured on a 7-point response scale with respect to nine cultural dimensions that display high within-culture and within-organization agreement and high between-culture and between-organization differentiation: societal collectivism, family collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, power distance, performance orientation, future orientation, uncertainty avoidance, and humane orientation.

Several statistical procedures were applied to define the properties of the GLOBE cultural scales (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). The determination of cultural aggregation was justified by measures that compare the observed variance within a society to the variance expected if there is no within-society agreement. The ICC(1) statistic provided information on the appropriateness of aggregation, comparing the variance between societies with the variance within societies. The reliability of scales was assessed with respect to two random error sources (internal consistency and interrater reliability).

In a similar way, and consistent with the way implicit leadership theories of individuals have been measured in previous research, GLOBE combined trait and behavioral descriptors to reflect relevance to leadership effectiveness (Dunnette & Hough, 1991). These items were also measured on a 7-point scale from a low of "This behavior or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being an outstanding leader" to a high of "This behavior or characteristic greatly contributes to a person being an outstanding leader." Respondents reflected on a given definition of effective leadership as the ability of an individual to motivate, encourage, and enable others to contribute to the success of the organization of which they are members.

GLOBE provided evidence that people from different cultural groups (societies) share a high level of agreement on their beliefs about effective leadership and that significant statistical

* The authors served as GLOBE Country Investigators and conducted other GLOBE-related research on leadership. In particular, they contributed to the earlier research that explored leadership in 22 countries and further attested to the existence and importance of a CLT profile (Den Hartog et al., 1999). This research confirmed that attributes of charismatic-transformational leadership are universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership. The other research highlighted cultural and leadership predictors of corporate and social responsibility of top management in 15 countries (Waldman et al., 2006).

differences exist among cultural groups in their beliefs about leadership. These shared beliefs may be described by the CLT leadership profile. GLOBE research has also identified 21 specific leadership attributes and behaviors that are universally viewed as contributors to or inhibitors from effective organizational leadership. Based on second-order maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis, the following factors that constitute six global leadership dimensions were identified. Two were found as universal contributors to effective leadership: charismatic/value-based and team-oriented. Two factors were found as culture-sensitive contributors to effective leadership: humane and participative. Two were culture-sensitive impediments to effective leadership: autonomous and self-protective. Internal consistency and interrater reliability, computed by using a linear composite reliability formula (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), displayed acceptable level of these scales – average internal consistency reliability = .84, and average interrater reliability = .95 (House et al., 2004, p. 136). And the countries were also placed into bands (high A – low D) in such a way, that their scores within the same band were statistically not significantly different from each other.

Within the GLOBE research we operationally measured the Russian cultural and leadership profile by assessing questionnaire responses from 450 middle managers in three industries (telecommunications, food processing, and financial services) with respect to (a) the values they endorse and (b) reports of practices of entities in their societies.

The main GLOBE survey was conducted in Russia in 1996-1998. Responses were received from 450 managers in food processing, telecommunication, and banking/finance, 150 managers from each industry. These managers represented different parts of the country – Far East, Siberia, the Urals, Southern and Northern Russia, and large cities of Central Region. The average age of respondents was 38.8 years, and the gender composition of the sample was 61.7% men and 38.3% women. The average employment profile of managers was as follows: number of years employed – 16.8 years, management experience – 7.4 years, and employment in current organization – 8.6 years. Forty percent were members of professional organizations, 15% were actively involved in trade and industry associations, and 5% had jobs in multinational corporations. Surveyed managers worked in production and engineering (42%), administration (28%), sales and marketing (15%), human resource management (8%), R&D (5%), and in planning and other functions (2%). The average educational level (15.5 years) of respondents was very high. The university/college background was 61% technical and 39% were in economics, planning, and finance. Twelve percent of all respondents received some training in Western management concepts and techniques.

Russian CLT Profile

The overall profile of a Russian organizational leader on globally endorsed leadership dimensions is displayed in Figure 1. Appendix 1 and 2 contain quantitative data.

Charismatic/Value-Based Orientation

According to GLOBE, charismatic/value-based leaders have the ability to inspire and motivate others and facilitate high performance outcomes on the basis of firmly held core values. The aggregate score for universal positive leader attributes for Russia, summarized in Charismatic/Value-Based Leadership dimension, is relatively low (5.66) with rank 47 in band D. This was interpreted as only slightly contributing to outstanding leadership. One major reason for

the low score on value-based leadership is the current societal transformation in Russia; many beliefs that dominated under Communism are eroding, and the value structure has been transforming radically in the last two decades. Different groups with different leadership philosophies and values are replacing the homogenous Soviet system. But transformative new values and beliefs that go far beyond technocratic or predatory philosophies have not yet emerged in the corps of business leaders and managers. The Russian score on this dimension is lower than the East European mean (5.74), lagging behind other countries in the cluster.

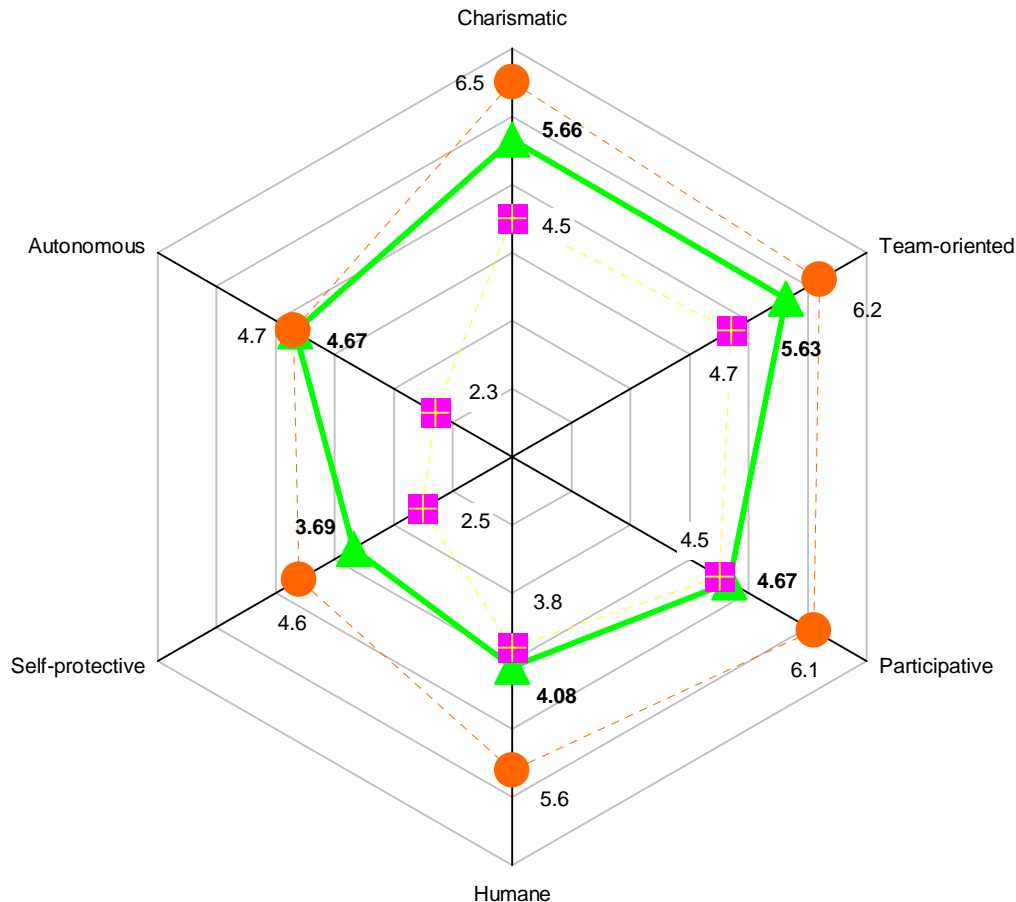


Figure 1. Global culturally endorsed implicit leadership (CLT) scores for Russia (circles – maximum mean, squares – minimum mean within 62 countries).

The first order dimensions for Charismatic/Value-Based Leadership display Visionary (6.07) as the prioritized dimension in considering effective leadership in Russia. Considering the relative vacuum of societal values and the high uncertainty regards the economy and society, the ability of leaders to formulate a vision on the organizational level is critical for the followers in the organization.

In the range of factors slightly contributing to effective leadership, we found Performance-Oriented (5.92), Inspirational (5.89), Decisive (5.86), and Integrator (5.72). Self-

Sacrifice (4.28) had no impact on outstanding leadership. When we compared Russia's scores and other countries' scores on this second-order CLT dimension, we placed Russia in the A band on Decisive; in the B group on Visionary, Performance Orientation, and Integrity; and in the C band on Self-Sacrificial.

Team Orientation

Emphasis on effective team development and collective implementation of a common goal is central to the GLOBE interpretation of the second universal contributor to effective leadership. This second order dimension did not display an optimistic assessment of Russia, as well. Its Team-Oriented score was 5.63 with rank 46 in the C band. In the East European cluster it was lower than the group mean (5.88). While Russia has been long stereotyped as a collectivist country, GLOBE cultural scores display its transition to a more individualistic society. The vector of teamwork and group dynamics in such a society is not high or critically important to effective organizational leadership.

The first order scores prioritize the issues. While Administrative Competence is contributing to effective leadership in Russia (6.03), the other dimensions only somewhat contribute to effective leadership: Team-Oriented (5.15), Team Integrator (5.56), diplomatic (5.01), and Malevolent (reverse score 1.85). Russia's comparative scores placed the country in the A band on the Administratively Competent dimension, but only in the C band on critical factors such as Team Orientation and Malevolence. On the other two dimensions, Diplomatic and Team Integrator, Russia fits the B band.

Humane Orientation

On this CLT dimension GLOBE research highlights supportive and considerate behavior that includes compassion and generosity. However, Russia's low score (4.08) may be interpreted as having limited impact on outstanding leadership. This placed Russia with rank 60 into the D band. In the Eastern European cluster the score was lower than the group mean (4.67). In a transitional economy dominated by survival behaviors, with high corruption and bureaucracy, humanistic values exist in a limited number of companies that emphasize socially responsible philosophies.

First order dimensions related to this global CLT dimension are Modesty and Humane Orientation. In the case of Russia, the score on the former was 4.25 (no visible impact on effective leadership) and on the latter was 3.92, which slightly inhibits outstanding leadership. Both scores placed Russia into C band on these first order dimensions.

Participative Orientation

Involving others in making and implementing decisions, according to GLOBE, universally contributes to effective leadership. The Russian score on this dimension, however, is very low (4.67), placing the country in the D band. Within the Eastern European cluster, the Russian score was also lower than the group mean (5.08). Two major reasons support these findings. First, vertical structures and authoritarian decisions are effective in modern transitional Russia. Second, many successful Russian business networks depend on personal connections

with bureaucracy and/or find themselves under the control of cruel criminal structures that leave no space for open, reciprocal, and trustful interaction and participation in decision-making.

Two first order dimensions explain contribution to Participative orientation. One was the high Autocratic score (4.16, reverse score). It placed Russia into A band and did not contribute to effective leadership. The other was Non-Participative (2.82, reverse score). Its relative value inhibiting from effective leadership was also high (B band). Hence, participation did not play an important role in defining effective leadership.

Autonomous

The second order dimension, Autonomous, displays independent and individualistic leadership. Many Russian business leaders emphasize their uniqueness and their autonomous performance. The score on this CLT (4.63) placed the country in band A. The first-order dimension score (Autonomous, 4.04) explained this CLT as inhibiting outstanding leadership. In the Eastern European cluster the Russian score was higher than the group mean (4.20).

Self-Protective

This CLT dimension corresponds to universal negative leadership attributes and focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual. In the case of Russia, this culture-sensitive impediment slightly negatively contributes to effective leadership. The Self-Protective score for Russia (3.69) placed the country in the A band with rank 17 and was about the same as the Eastern European mean (3.67). Since this was the reversed score, the negative impact on the universal CLT was quite visible.

The Self-Protective score is based on several first order dimension factors. Status Conscious (4.75) had no impact, and Conflict Inducer (3.90) had minimum influence on effective leadership. The other first order dimensions somewhat inhibiting people from being outstanding leaders were: Self-Centered (2.48), Face Saver (2.67), and Procedural (2.98).

On the comparative frame Russia found itself in B bands on Status Conscious, Self-Centered, and Conflict Inducer; in C band on Face Saver; and in D band on Procedural. The very low score on the Procedural dimension indicates that being procedural is likely to be a greater inhibitor from effective leadership in Russia than in most countries included in the GLOBE sample.

Conclusions

This research shed light on the current profile of organizational leadership in Russia. The GLOBE project was one of the first major attempts to collect an empirical data set on Russian leadership and culture and to rely on internationally recognized and reliable research methods. The findings presented herein seem to have quite important implications for both researchers and practitioners.

The comparative analysis on the GLOBE cultural scales showed contemporary Russia as having several extreme scores: very low in Uncertainty Avoidance, Future Orientation, Performance Orientation, and Humane Orientation; and very high in Power Distance. In particular, in a behavioral set of findings, extremely low Uncertainty Avoidance could be considered favorable for entrepreneurship activities unless one links it to the very low Future

Orientation. This can be interpreted as a lack of vision in management and entrepreneurship and as a primary focus on survival and short-term business development. Low Performance Orientation makes it difficult to encourage managers to focus on continuous improvement and learning. Low ranking on Humane Orientation raises doubts about long-term investments in human resources. High Power Distance indicators explain the tough bureaucratic measures in crisis management and in restructuring enterprises and industries (Grachev, 2004).

In terms of global CLT dimensions Russia displays a clear picture of what makes its current leadership effective. Relatively more important attributes are Visionary and Administrative Competency. They are followed by Decisive, Performance Orientation, and Inspirational. Integrity, Team Integration, Collaborative, and Diplomatic somewhat contribute to outstanding leadership. At the same time Self-Sacrifice, Modesty and Human Orientation, Status Consciousness, and Conflict Inducer do not make a difference.

Our GLOBE results suggest that universal positive leadership attributes such as Charismatic/Value-Based Leadership (visionary, decisive, and inspirational) and Team Oriented Leadership are considered as slightly contributing to outstanding leadership in Russia. The latter mainly means to be administratively competent and collaborative oriented. However, the level of such influence is much lower than in most other countries. The other two dimensions that nearly universally contribute to leadership – Participative and Humane orientation – have only limited impact in Russia. What matters is a good “image” (linked to success competency and personal and social recognition) and acting as a “facilitator” (attract people, settle disputes, and control the situation) which seems to be the Russian manifestation of Participative Leadership. Humane Orientation is seen as relatively neutral to outstanding leadership whereas status consciousness and conflict inducing behaviors (Self-Protective leadership) are positively endorsed. Universal negative leadership attributes such as Self-Protective and Autonomous are relatively important in inhibiting effective leadership. For an outstanding leader in Russia, Autonomous leadership (individualistic, independent, and unique) is linked to “action-oriented” leadership endorsed in Russia (act with no hesitation, real fighter, enduring, and self-sacrificial).

Summarizing these findings, the paper displays the *profile* of an administratively competent manager, capable of making serious decisions and inspiring his/her followers to meet performance targets. To some extent he/she relies on teams and, through diplomatic and collaborative moves, succeeds in integrating efforts of his/her members. However, in his/her actions there is not much interest in humane orientation to others or modesty in personal behavior. He/she may sacrifice a lot and does not care about saving face. Status is not very important to the Russian organizational leader. Altogether one may consider that Russia is seeking its own way for effective leadership concepts and practices.

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APPENDIX A

Global Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership (CLT) Dimensions: Russia in Cross-cultural Space

Global Culturally Endorsed Implicit Leadership (CLT) Dimensions	First-order Dimensions	Russian Score	Score for Eastern European Cluster	Range for Mean Values for 62 Societal Cultures
Charismatic/Value-based (universal contributor to effective leadership)	Visionary, Inspirational, Self-sacrifice, Integrity, Decisive, Performance oriented	5.66	5.74	4.5 – 6.5
Team Oriented (universal contributor to effective leadership)	Collaborative team orientation, Team integrator, Diplomatic, Malevolent (reverse score), Administratively competent	5.63	5.88	4.7 – 6.2
Participative (culture-sensitive contributor to effective leadership)	Autocratic (reverse score), Non-participative (reverse score), Delegator	4.67	5.08	4.5 – 6.1
Humane (culture-sensitive contributor to effective leadership)	Modesty, Humane orientation	4.08	4.67	3.8 – 5.6
Self-protective (culture-sensitive impediments to effective leadership)	Self-centered, Status conscious, Conflict inducer, Face saver, Procedural	3.69	3.67	2.5 – 4.6
Autonomous (culture-sensitive impediments to effective leadership)	Individualistic, Independent, Autonomous, Unique	4.67	4.20	2.3 – 4.7

APPENDIX B

Summary of First-order Leadership Dimensions for Russia

Leadership Dimension	Indicator	Group ranking (band)	Leadership Dimension	Indicator	Group ranking (band)
Performance Orientation	5.92	B	Procedural (formerly bureaucratic)	2.98	D
Autocratic	4.16	A	Administratively Competent	6.03	A
Modesty	4.25	C	Self-centered	2.48	B
Charismatic III (Self Sacrificial)	4.28	C	Autonomous (Formerly Individualistic)	4.04	A
Team I: Collaborative (Team Orientation)	5.15	C	Status Consciousness	4.75	B
Decisive	5.86	A	Charismatic II (Inspirational)	5.89	C
Diplomatic	5.01	B	Malevolent	1.85	C
Face-saver	2.67	C	Team II: Team Integrator	5.65	B
Humane Orientation	3.92	C	Conflict Inducer	3.90	B
Charismatic I (Visionary)	6.07	B	Non-Participative	2.82	B
Integrity	5.72	C			

Catastrophe's Impact on Leaders' Caring and Justice: Changes in Moral Reasoning Orientation

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Vision statements articulated by 7 national leaders before and after a catastrophe were examined to identify post-catastrophe changes in moral reasoning orientation, a worldview that frames thinking about moral conflicts and what factors deserve priority when resolving them. Moral reasoning orientation was found in 95.2% of those vision statements and both caring and justice orientation always were present. Gilligan's (1993) linear model with caring at one pole and justice at the opposite pole emerged as a useful model if holistic scoring is used and showed the vision statements usually were justice oriented and became more justice oriented after a catastrophe. Holistic scoring results were supported by some triangulating evidence.

**Earthly power doth then show likest God's
When mercy seasons justice (Shakespeare, 1597/1997, p. 311).**

A catastrophe inherently creates an urgent challenge for leadership. Here, *catastrophe* is used to describe a major crisis realized suddenly and so serious that the leader's organization, or a significant part of it, may not achieve fundamental goals or even survive. Confederate capture of Fort Sumter challenged Abraham Lincoln. Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor challenged Franklin Roosevelt. Argentina's attack on the Falkland Islands challenged Margaret Thatcher.

Vision statements, as a standard tool leaders use to focus organization members on achieving a desired goal, may be especially significant when a catastrophe has occurred. A useful research design might view the catastrophe as an *intervention* and measure its effect by comparing vision statements the same leader articulated before and after the catastrophe. Psychological theory predicts there will be measurable differences in those texts (Satterfield, 1998; Suedfeld & Bluck, 1988; Suedfeld & Tetlock, 1977; Wallace & Suedfeld, 1988; Winter & Stewart, 1977).

Overt changes in the content of vision statements over time frequently are analyzed publicly in the news media. A number of theories posit the existence and measurability of latent characteristics such as moral reasoning stage, moral reasoning orientation, explanatory style, and rumination. A common theme of such theories is that examination of latent characteristics reveals important truths that otherwise might be overlooked and yields helpful insights into human and organization behaviors (Post, Walker, & Winter, 2003). Theory-based examination of

latent characteristics may use structured content analysis to appropriately sample thought content that leaders produced under particular conditions (Smith, 1992).

Moral Reasoning Orientation

This study focused on organization-level analysis of one particular latent characteristic of the vision statement: its moral reasoning orientation. Moral reasoning orientation is an important lens to use because it describes a worldview that frames thinking about moral conflicts and what factors deserve priority when resolving them.

Gilligan drew attention to moral reasoning orientation in 1982. Piaget (1976, 1997) and Kohlberg (Colby & Kohlberg, 1987) had based their research into moral reasoning development stage on an assumption that moral reasoning orientation frames conflicts in terms of justice. The considerations identified with justice included laws, standards, rules, principles, obligations, duty, commitment, and fairness. Gilligan (1993) discovered a group of women she believed used a different moral reasoning orientation: caring. The considerations identified with caring included alleviating burdens and suffering, fostering the welfare of another, maintaining and restoring personal relationships, interdependence, and avoiding conflict.

Gilligan (1993) demonstrated that which orientation is used, caring or justice, can lead to different decisions and outcomes. Gilligan used as an example a classic situation devised by Kohlberg that is known as the Heinz dilemma. Heinz' wife has a terminal illness but a recently developed drug might save her. The manufacturer's price for the drug is cost of manufacture plus a 900% profit, and that total is double the money Heinz was able to raise using his best efforts. The manufacturer refuses to reduce his profit or let Heinz pay later. When framed as a justice issue, this dilemma can give priority to life over property and give Heinz justification to steal the unaffordable drug to save the life of his wife. Oppositely, when framed as a caring issue, this dilemma can eschew theft and require seeking some way to buy the drug, some way to pay the unaffordable price, because the circumstance of Heinz stealing, being caught, and going to jail would create harm for the wife by making it impossible for Heinz to care for her over the long term.

Lyons (1982) designed a procedure to identify moral considerations and categorize them as justice or care (Gilligan, 1988; Gilligan & Attanucci, 1988). Johnston (1988) demonstrated that adolescents of either gender could access either orientation, caring or justice, and could switch between them. This study assumed that leaders are no different. They, too, can access either caring or justice and switch between them. Which do real leaders' vision statements express when they face a real catastrophe?

Definitions and Considerations

Vision Statements

To qualify as a vision, a statement must (a) be accessible to substantially all organization members or their designated representatives, (b) present an image of the future organization, and (c) present an improvement more attractive than other perceived alternatives. Although other criteria have been offered, they often prove unhelpful or sometimes wrong. For example, "specific," "realistic," and "credible" are not valid criteria because a useful vision statement may

be quite the opposite: fuzzy, faith-based, values-based, belief-based, radical, bold, and unconventional (Bass, 1998; Schein, 1992).

Level of Analysis

Since leaders' statements may be influenced by other people, level of analysis is an important consideration. This study focused on catastrophes and vision statements related to 7 pivotal national leaders who clearly have advisors and do not act alone (Basler, 1953; Bush, 2003; Campbell, 2003; Frum, 2003; Gelderman, 1997; Hughes, 2004). It is difficult to discern precisely whether the advisors' influence is large (Kennan & Hadley, 1986) or small (National Archives and Records Administration, 2001). Presidents have been so deeply involved in the preparation of their vision statements that observers opine that advisors cannot sneak words into the president's mouth. The usual presidential speech is prepared by 5 to 20 people and that extensive group input means the speeches do not voice just personal ideas of the president but instead represent at least the advisory group and some say the nation and its people (Medhurst, 2003). Eight other scholars provided evidence supporting that view in the same volume (Ritter & Medhurst, 2003). Frum reported personal experience as one of George W. Bush's speechwriters and described a process designed intentionally to allow many people to contribute ideas and words that are integrated into the coherent vision voiced by the president.

Pivotal leaders are formal leaders whose choices appear to set direction for their entire organization. The literature recognizes that throughout history pivotal leaders who won widespread fame relied on a team of supporters (O'Toole, Galbraith, & Lawler, 2003). Under that condition, if analysis were attempted at the individual level to predict an individual leader's behavior or to interpret an individual leader's personality, the influence of advisors and consultants would be a confounding factor degrading interpretations and inferences. A fair criticism would be, who is being analyzed—the leader or advisors and speechwriters? However, if analysis is focused at the organization level and assumes the organization's leadership is composed of a formal leader working together with advisors and consultants, then the multiple influences on vision statements are not a confounding factor but part of the integrated phenomenon under study.

Shared Leadership

Analysis of leadership effected by multiple people, dispersed or shared leadership, found organized expression beginning in the 1990s, although elements existed earlier in the literature (Bryman, 1996; Pearce & Conger, 2003). One conceptual strength is recognition that even the most pivotal leader—perhaps especially the most pivotal leader—is unlikely to act alone.

An unresolved issue relates to two practical aspects of distribution of power: accountability and priority. With respect to accountability, Western culture tends to hold a single person accountable for the actions of an organization no matter how leadership is shared (O'Toole et al., 2003). With respect to priority, Locke (2003) opined that shared leadership should be very fragile, if it even exists, because people at the top will disagree and decision making will be paralyzed if no one has the final say.

As early as 1974, Stogdill addressed the distribution and sharing of leadership power. But a focus on power may miss the point. Shared leadership is dynamic, an interactive influence

process, whereby people lead each other to achieve the organization's goals (Pearce & Conger, 2003). That definition is silent on power; it is focused on interaction.

Human-Caused Catastrophes

This study focused only on human-caused catastrophes. Situational influences are widely recognized to be mediators of human behavior and this study assumes it is important to distinguish between catastrophes caused by nature and those caused by humans. While nature does cause catastrophes, human-caused catastrophes seem to evoke qualitatively different feelings. Nature seems not to be held culpable of wrongdoing in the way people who cause a catastrophe are.

Unobtrusive Measures

Not every research method is suited to catastrophe research. Direct observation is possible (Festinger, Riecken, & Schachter, 1956) but difficult because researchers are unlikely to have adequate access to the leader under emergency conditions. Repeating catastrophes to facilitate researcher access would be unconscionable. Covert simulations were attempted in the past; researchers sought high reliability by using high-impact deceptions (Amato, 1983; Aronson, 1992; Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1968; Milgram, 1969), but today those are unlikely to be approved by institutional research ethics boards. Direct observation, interviews, surveys, and overt simulations all face criticism because results are influenced by reactivity between the researcher and the participant. What people say and do when they know they are research participants may not be what they actually do when living through a real catastrophe.

Unobtrusive methods appear to be a good choice for catastrophe research (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 2000). For this study, content analysis of archival records offered opportunity to obtain data untainted by interaction between the investigator and the leader. This method also permits comparison of natural events across time and cultures (Oettingen, 1995; Peterson, 1992; Schulman, Castellon, & Seligman, 1989; Seligman, 1998; Webb et al., 2000). However, content analysis does not allow the control over variables that is available under laboratory conditions, and it can be affected by investigator bias or fuzzy interpretations. For those reasons, several procedural controls have been recommended, including adhering to strict criteria to identify passages extracted for analysis, using multiple raters to score the passages, keeping those raters blind to each other's scoring and to study outcomes, presenting passages to raters in random order, measuring intercoder reliability, and seeking triangulating evidence (Smith, Feld, & Franz, 1992; Webb et al.; Winter, 2003).

Research Question

When real leaders face a real catastrophe, what do their vision statements express, caring or justice? This study examined the vision statements of 7 pivotal national leaders to determine how a real catastrophe affected those visions by using content analysis to detect changes in moral reasoning orientation, a latent characteristic, that allow inferences about the effects of real-world catastrophes on those visions and the worldview used to frame thinking about moral conflicts and what factors deserve priority when resolving them. Three visions articulated before a

catastrophe were compared to three articulated afterward for consistency or changes in moral reasoning orientation. The same vision statements were scored twice by different rater panels, once holistically with forced choice between caring and justice, and once at proposition level with caring and justice scored separately.

Because Lyons (1988) and Johnston (1988) found people using both caring and justice orientations simultaneously, in this study both justice and caring orientations were expected likely to appear. That seemed especially likely because, for these leaders operating at the national level, the vision statements were likely to incorporate multiple advisors' ideas (Gelderman, 1997; Ritter & Medhurst, 2003; Suedfeld, Guttieri, & Tetlock, 2003; Winter, 2003). Since conditions of stress affect the influence various people exert in a group (Janis, 1982), changes in moral reasoning orientation in reaction to catastrophe also were expected. No prior research was located with empirical data predicting the direction of that change. If the hypothesis to be tested is based on the Piaget (1976, 1997) and Kohlberg (Colby & Kohlberg, 1987) assumption, moral reasoning orientation will be expected to frame conflicts in terms of justice.

The hypothesis tested is that these leaders' vision statements before a catastrophe will show both justice and caring moral reasoning orientations and that their vision statements after a catastrophe will show change and the direction will be toward more justice.

Method

Selecting Leaders and Texts

The 7 leaders were selected by identifying human-caused catastrophes with vision statements leaders articulated before and after the catastrophe (Table 1). A practical constraint was that archival vision statements may exist only for national leaders in the public sector. They may not exist for other leaders for multiple reasons. Perhaps those leaders' vision statements were not publicly voiced or documented, or perhaps post-catastrophe vision statements were avoided for legal reasons.

Table 1

Leaders and Catastrophes Selected for Study

Leader	Catastrophe	Catastrophe Date
George W. Bush	Terrorists attacked the United States	September 11, 2001
Margaret Thatcher	Argentina attacked the Falkland Islands	April 2, 1982
Golda Meir	Egypt and Syria attacked Israel	October 6, 1973
John F. Kennedy	Soviet Union deployed offensive missiles and aircraft to Cuba	October 16, 1962
Franklin Roosevelt	Japan attacked Pearl Harbor	December 7, 1941
Woodrow Wilson	Germany waged unrestricted submarine warfare	April 12, 1917
Abraham Lincoln	Confederates captured Fort Sumter	April 14, 1861

For each leader, an inventory identified prepared speech texts before and after the catastrophe that are available from official or authoritative sources. While a reality is that published texts exist in various forms that do not always match exactly, such as pre-delivery

news releases, speaking texts, as-delivered texts, and transcripts, the published texts from official or authoritative sources bear a rebuttable presumption that they are substantially correct and a foundation for the leader's reputation.

Examination of the texts listed on each inventory identified those meeting the criteria for a vision statement: accessible to substantially all organization members or their designated representatives, providing an image of the future organization, and providing an improvement more attractive than other perceived alternatives. Counting from the catastrophic event, the last three vision statements before the catastrophe and the first three after it were identified. Care was used to avoid subjective editing by rules of type, like whether the statements expressed national direction or policy, or by rules related to topic, like whether they addressed defense or welfare, war preparedness, or education improvements. This study examined each leader's pattern of actual vision statements of all types before and after a catastrophe. Each of the 7 leaders was represented by 6 vision statements, for a total of 42 visions in all.

Scorable Extractions

A content analysis study of moral reasoning orientation first requires extraction of scorable statements that strictly meet specified criteria. Following precedent that one researcher do all extraction because the process is tedious and requires meticulous examination of a large volume of text (Peterson, Schulman, Castellon, & Seligman, 1992), each vision statement was examined at least four times for extractable passages. For moral reasoning orientation, Lyons (1982) established extraction criteria. To be extractable, a text must contain: (a) a real-life moral dilemma, (b) an asserted solution, and (c) an explanation of the dilemma or an evaluation of that dilemma. Dilemma can further be split into two components: situation and conflict.

Extraction identified 115 scorable passages that were used for both Study 1 and Study 2. What varied between the studies was the unit of coding. For Study 1, the 115 extracts were used intact. They contained all three elements: a dilemma, an asserted solution, and an evaluation or explanation. For Study 2, the 115 extracts were divided into 470 stand-alone propositions. Usually these were one element: situation, or conflict, or solution, or evaluation. But sometimes one proposition could be subdivided into several stand-alone sub-propositions and occasionally solution and evaluation were inextricably intertwined.

Scoring

For presentation to raters, the 115 Study 1 extracts and the 470 Study 2 propositions were randomly sequenced using numbers drawn from a table of random numbers. Raters were instructed to score each extract by comparing content to a scoring aid showing considerations of caring and justice moral reasoning orientations (Table 2).

For Study 1, raters performed forced choice scoring with five options: justice (exclusively or overwhelmingly), justice dominates but caring appears, caring dominates but justice appears, caring (exclusively or overwhelmingly), or no justice and no caring. For analysis, those ratings were converted to numbers: + 2, + 1, - 1, - 2, or 0, respectively. After scoring, the extracts were grouped by vision statement and their mean became the vision statement's score (Figure 1).

Table 2

Considerations of Care and Justice

Considerations of Care	Considerations of Justice
Alleviate burden/suffering, Foster welfare of another, Maintain / restore interpersonal relationships, Avoid interpersonal conflict, Interdependence, Situation over principle, Effects on others, Etc.	Laws, Standards / rules / principles, Obligation / duty / commitment, Fairness, Others have their own contexts, Principle over situation, Effect on self, Etc.

For Study 2, raters scored each proposition twice, once for justice and once for caring. In both cases raters had three options: clearly present, uncertain, and clearly not present. For analysis, those ratings were converted to 2, 1, and 0, respectively; justice scores were assigned a positive sign and caring scores were assigned a negative sign. After scoring, the propositions were grouped by vision statement and their means, one for justice and one for caring, became the vision statement's scores (Figure 2).

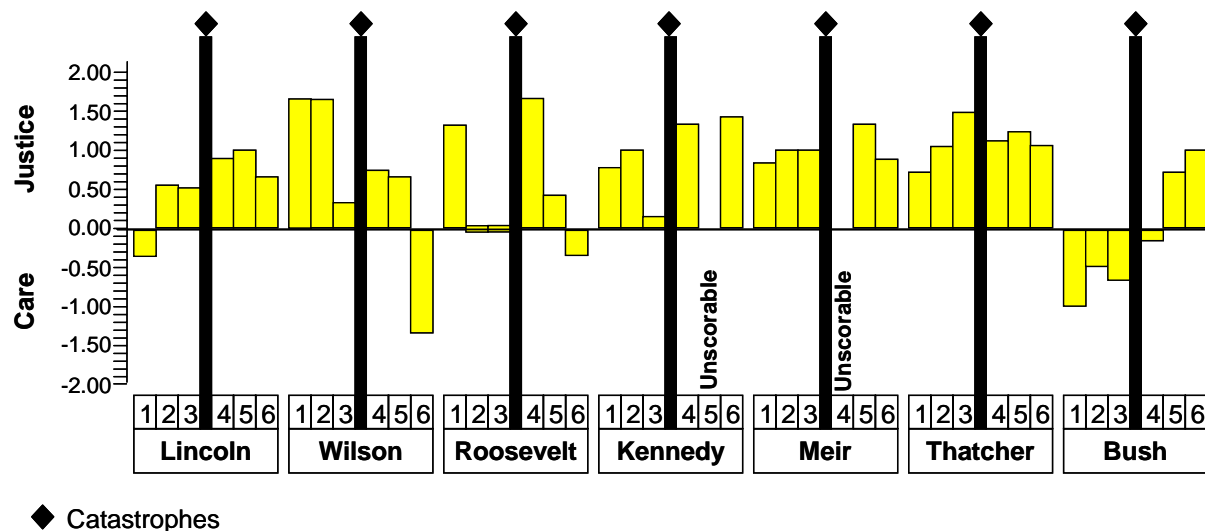


Figure 1. Moral reasoning orientation scores of 42 vision statements based on holistic scoring by raters who examined 115 scorable extracts in Study 1.

For both studies, students at California Lutheran University were employed as raters. They were primarily undergraduates but two Study 1 raters were in masters programs. They received orientation training and scored a number of practice texts to compare their scoring to "expert" scores. The raters were blind to each other's scoring and to study outcomes. They were not told who said each scorable item, but inescapable content clues sometimes may have allowed them to guess. [For example, who said, "Yesterday, December 7, 1941—a date which will live in

infamy . . .”? (Roosevelt, 1941/1950a).] Studies often delete such clues, but they were so vital to these vision statements that deletion was impossible here.

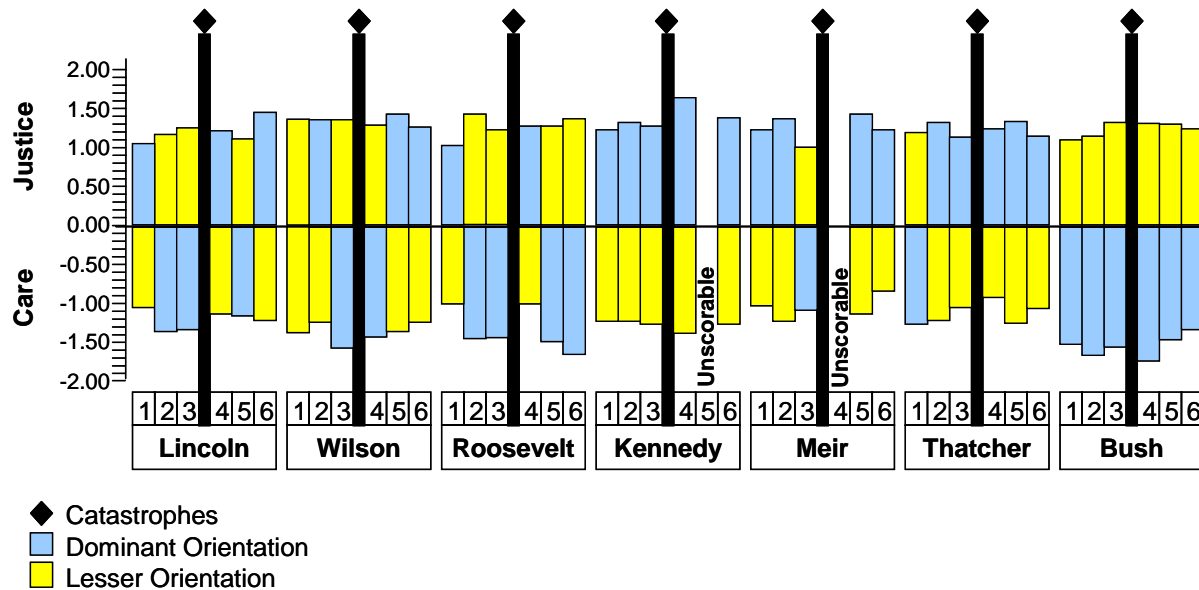


Figure 2. Moral reasoning orientation scores of 42 vision statements based on proposition scoring by raters who examined 470 scorable items in Study 2.

For Study 1, a panel of nine raters convened to score the 115 extracts in a one-session classroom environment. Each statement was scored holistically and independently by three of the raters. For Study 2, a panel of six raters scored the 470 propositions twice, once for the presence of caring and separately for the presence of justice. Each proposition was scored by all six raters, who worked independently at times and places of their own choosing over a period of several weeks.

Results

Intercoder reliability was good. For Study 1, Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951), $\alpha = .90$ when raters scored holistically and, for Study 2, $\alpha = .95$ for caring and $\alpha = .97$ for justice when raters scored them independently. While no measure of interrater agreement has won universal support (Jones, Johnson, Butler, & Main, 1983), including alternatives such as percent agreement, Pearson's r , and Cohen's kappa (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2004; Uebersax, 2002), Cronbach's alpha is an appropriate measure because an alpha approaching 1 indicates all raters applied scoring standards consistently and scores differed because raters' opinions differed (Jones et al.; SPSS, 1999). Cronbach's alpha also was adopted for this study for consistency with a larger, on-going study, of which this research is a part, and consistency with similar research previously completed by other investigators (Ballard & Suedfeld, 1988;

Schulman et al., 1989; Zullo, Oettingen, Peterson, & Seligman, 1988; Zullo & Seligman, 1990). Cronbach's alpha effectively measures how raters' scores co-vary (the ratio of inter-item covariance to the average item variance) and mathematically is equivalent to the average of all split-half estimates of reliability.

Cronbach's alpha does not measure rater accuracy or the reliability of raters' judgments. Questions of that sort must be answered by examining relationships between ratings and external events, the role of triangulating evidence (Jones et al., 1983).

Moral reasoning orientation was found in 95.2% of the vision statements. Of the 42 vision statements, only 2 had no content meeting the criteria to be extracted for moral reasoning orientation. They were John Kennedy's fifth vision statement, which lacked a real-life moral dilemma, and Golda Meir's fourth vision statement, which lacked an asserted solution.

Study 1

Whether Study 1 scores might be random was tested using a one-sample *t* test that compared the mean score of the actual single sample population to the mean score of a hypothesized random population and showed they are statistically different at the .01 level ($p < .0005$). The consolidated mean of Study 1 scores was 0.75, with a standard deviation of 0.82 and a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.60 to 0.90. Overall, justice orientation dominated the 40 visions. However, raters scored caring dominant in 7 visions, a variation significant at the .01 level ($p = .008$). Those visions' consolidated mean was -0.62, with a standard deviation of 0.42.

Comparing Visions 3 and 4 for each leader, the visions immediately before and after the catastrophe, showed a norm and a deviation. The norm: Five leaders (71.4%) showed an increase in justice orientation after a catastrophe (Meir excluded because Vision 4 was unscorable). A paired comparison *t* test, used to compare scores before and after the catastrophe, showed the change was significant at the .05 level ($p = .032$). The deviation: Margaret Thatcher showed an increase toward caring orientation, a change statistically significant because it was 0.37 and greater than the 95% confidence interval for the 7-leader dataset of 0.30.

Comparing Visions 1-3 to Visions 4-6, all visions before and all visions after the catastrophe, similarly showed a norm, a deviation, and an anomaly. The norm: Six leaders (85.7%) showed an increase in justice orientation after a catastrophe. A paired-comparison *t* test, comparing scores before and after the catastrophe, showed the change was significant at the .01 level ($p = .004$). The deviation: Woodrow Wilson showed an increase toward caring orientation of 1.19, statistically significant because it is greater than the 95% confidence interval for the 7-leader dataset of 0.82. The anomaly: George W. Bush changed dramatically from caring to justice. Comparing Bush's Visions 1-3 to his Visions 4-6 showed change toward justice significant at the .05 level ($p = .036$). From Vision 3 to 4 alone, his moral reasoning orientation increased toward justice by 0.5, statistically significant because it is greater than the 99% confidence interval for the 7-leader dataset of 0.43.

One possible explanation of the norms and deviations is that they indicate framing of vision statements to garner followers' support. No direct test of the explanation is available in the data. Triangulating evidence from Frum is that advisors urged George Bush to change his vision statements after Vision 4 when a poll showed only moderate trust. A poll after Vision 5 showed high trust (Frum, 2003).

For both studies, the number of items (extracts or propositions) scored for each vision was tallied so a paired-comparison *t* test could be used to evaluate whether variability in vision

scores was due largely to variability in the number of scorable items composing each vision. Restated, were the scores for visions containing many scorable items significantly different from the scores for visions containing only a few scorable items? The paired-comparison *t* test determined the statistical difference. Using *p* less than or equal to .05 as the standard, this test of Study 1 data showed variability in scores was not due to variability in the number of scorable items. Of the 40 scorable vision statements, 13 had fewer than two extractions, 15 had more than two, and the 12 with exactly two extractions could be split chronologically to add the first 7 to the low extractions group and the last 5 to the high extractions group. The paired-comparison *t* test for that split showed *p* = .873, so the difference between the low and high extraction groups was not statistically significant.

Generally, these American presidents showed considerable caring orientation even when justice dominated their visions. The two non-American prime ministers, Meir and Thatcher, showed higher justice orientation. One possible explanation is that the Presidents' environment called for a "presentation" style of speaking but Meir and Thatcher both spoke primarily in a parliamentary forum, perhaps using a discussion or debating style.

Another explanation might be image setting. Meir and Thatcher might have preferred the justice orientation in belief that it better created an image of invulnerability and powerful command. Such belief could be based on political experience, on antipathy toward gender stereotypes, or on advice from consultants. Triangulating information supporting the image-setting explanation included Bush's anomaly, his switch from caring to justice after 9/11 when Frum (2003) said advisors urged a change in his image, and biographer Campbell's (2003) comment that before Argentina attacked the Falkland Islands Thatcher already had taught the public to view her as the Iron Lady resolutely defending British interests and pride.

Study 2

One-sample *t* tests were conducted to determine if the Study 2 means, for caring and for justice, based on 470 propositions might be random. Means for the actual single sample population were compared to mean scores for a hypothesized random population; they were statistically different at the .01 level (*p* < .0005). For caring orientation, the consolidated mean was -1.28, with a standard deviation of 0.21, and a 95% confidence interval ranging from -1.22 to -1.35. For justice orientation, the consolidated mean was 1.28, with a standard deviation of 0.13, and a 95% confidence interval ranging from 1.24 to 1.32.

Overall, Study 2 data showed no statistically significant change when Vision 3 was compared to Vision 4 or when Visions 1-3 were compared to Visions 4-6. Dominant score was calculated for each vision by subtracting the caring score from the justice score. Whether the dominant scores might be random was tested using a one-sample *t* test that compared the mean of the dominant scores to the mean score of a hypothesized random population. This test showed the means are not statistically different (*p* = .414) and therefore the dominant scores appeared random. Likewise, a paired-comparison *t* test, comparing the dominant scores before and after the catastrophe, showed no statistically significant change when Vision 3 was compared to Vision 4 (*p* = .077), or when Visions 1-3 were compared to Visions 4-6 (*p* = .321).

However, three specific changes in the Study 2 data were statistically significant at the .05 level. Lincoln and Roosevelt showed decreases in the number of propositions scored caring from Vision 3 to Vision 4 (*p* = .022); corresponding, Study 1 holistic scoring reported justice orientation prevailed and became stronger. In contrast, Bush showed an increase in the number

of propositions scored caring from Vision 3 to Vision 4, a change of 0.18 that exceeded the 95% confidence interval (0.13). For Bush, Study 1 holistic scoring reported caring prevailed and became weaker, implying the holistic scorers based their judgment on something other than the quantity of caring propositions.

Study 2 found a correlation of .34 between caring and justice scores. Study 2 dominant scores showed a correlation to Study 1 scores of .51. Effect size, as a power analysis to quantify the impact of a particular intervention, showed the catastrophe caused a large effect ($d = 1.02$) in Study 1 when Vision 3 was compared to Vision 4. The Study 2 dominant scores for the same visions showed a medium effect ($d = 0.71$).

Discussion

Catastrophe's Impact on Leaders' Caring and Justice

How did these seven human-caused catastrophes, when viewed as “interventions,” affect the moral reasoning orientation of these 7 leaders' vision statements? The data generally supported the tested hypothesis that these leaders' vision statements before a catastrophe would show both justice and caring moral reasoning orientations and that their vision statements after a catastrophe would show change and the direction would be toward more justice. But the data also showed deviations that warrant explanation.

Study 1 showed that Gilligan's (1993) linear model, with caring at one pole and justice at the opposite pole, emerged as useful for vision statement analysis if raters have opportunity to holistically score the extracts and to judge what points deserve emphasis.

Raters' Study 1 results are consistent with overt content of the texts. With respect to text raters scored caring, for example, Lincoln's (1861/1953) first vision statement was made at an early stop on his train trip to be inaugurated in Washington, DC. He praised the political parties for uniting to greet him in Cincinnati. He hoped threatening national difficulties would simply pass away. He spoke of intent to leave citizens alone and to treat people as equals with good hearts. Those are concepts of the caring orientation. Woodrow Wilson's (1917/1983c) sixth speech, also scored caring, was unusual in focusing on Flag Day, a holiday Wilson first proclaimed for national celebration. Wilson already had committed the United States to fight in World War I and in this vision he spoke of the nation's young men about to carry the flag into battle. Wilson said the nation was forced into war, but instead of arguing for revenge and justice he argued for honor, freedom, self-government, and making the world safe for all people who live upon it. Those are caring concepts. Franklin Roosevelt's (1941/1950b) sixth vision celebrated the 150th anniversary of the ratification of the Bill of Rights. His nation was fighting World War II to preserve the rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, which are caring concepts.

Similarly, overt content showed justice themes in visions raters scored justice. Wilson's (1917/1983a) first vision expressed outrage at the injustice of German submarines sinking the steamer *Sussex*, an attack that killed several U.S. citizens, and demanded that Germany abide by the rules of international law and the universal dictates of humanity, which are justice concepts. Wilson's (1917/1983b) second vision sought formal authority and power from Congress to remain a legally neutral nation but to supply merchant ships with arms for their self-defense, all justice concepts. Roosevelt's (1941/1950a) fourth speech, following Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, presented a justice view that protested Japan's premeditated invasion and committed the

United States to prevail in absolute victory so the same form of treachery never again would endanger the nation.

Frum (2003) provided evidence triangulating the change from caring to justice orientation that raters saw in George Bush's vision statements. Bush's (2001a) first three vision statements were part of a series of brief, pre-recorded Saturday morning radio addresses to the nation. These advocated social welfare and education reforms. The fourth vision statement immediately followed and addressed the 9/11 terror attacks, praised responses to the emergency, and promised reaction. Frum attributed the fourth statement principally to Bush's senior communication advisor, Karen Hughes, saying she discarded and replaced words others had drafted. Frum also criticized the caring, compassionate tone of that fourth vision statement and wished it had been a war speech, justice oriented, and recognizing Americans were victims of a massacre and were ready to go to war against everyone connected to the attack. Frum said such criticism caused Hughes to back away from drafting Bush's (2001b) Vision 5, the September 20 address to a joint session of Congress and to the nation, which was the first of his clearly justice-oriented visions. Michael Gerson chaired the drafting of that speech. The change in moral reasoning orientation coincided with an increase in popular support. A poll after 9/11 showed about half the country felt Bush could cope with the attacks. A poll after the September 20 address showed what Frum characterized as a level of trust never before achieved by any leader in American history. Bush's sixth vision statement, two days later, focused on overcoming the nation's economic plunge and Frum did not report who influenced it.

What emerged from Study 2 with clarity is confirmation that these raters saw both caring and justice in every vision statement when they were required to score those characteristics separately and examine every component of each vision extract. That scoring procedure prevented raters from applying qualitative human judgment about what deserved emphasis and instead applied a quantitative measure, mechanical counting of the number of elements in each category. Although speakers and writers sometimes say they emphasized a point by addressing it at length, the lack of high correlation between Study 1 and Study 2 results showed differences in sensemaking. The Study 1 results, which had some support from triangulating evidence, indicated these raters were able to use holistic judgments to make sense of visions and that using mechanical length or frequency, a procedure sometimes used in previous research (Lyons, 1988), did not always yield corresponding outcomes, a reality others also have observed (Jones et al., 1983; Lombard et al., 2004; Winter & Stewart, 1977).

While early research positioned justice and caring as if they were opposite ends of a single, linear scale (Johnston, 1988; Lyons, 1982), a meta-analysis by Jaffee and Hyde (2000) found some research measured caring and justice independently, which would allow moral reasoning orientation to be scaled in two dimensions. Liddell (1990) did measure them independently, concluded her instrument measured two different constructs, but did not report the scores plotted on a two-dimensional chart. This study explored two-dimensional plots but found them unproductive. Raters' holistic judgments as to which orientation prevailed were more useful. This outcome is consistent with Jaffee and Hyde's opinion that a useful direction for research would be to focus on how individuals integrate justice and caring and determine which is the right basis for action.

Generally, the vision statements of these leaders, when facing these catastrophes, changed toward increased justice orientation. The two exceptions, the visions expressed by Woodrow Wilson and Margaret Thatcher, may be explainable. Both remained predominantly justice oriented, but Wilson's framed going to war in Europe as a service to mankind and

Thatcher's framed going to war in the Falkland Islands as a service to Falkland Islanders, people who deserved self-determination. For both Wilson and Thatcher, the issue was not framed as defense of the homeland from overt attack (the issue for Lincoln, Roosevelt, Kennedy, Meir, and Bush), which would be a justice cause, but enhancement of freedom for other, distant people, a caring cause.

Justice versus Caring Moral Reasoning Orientations

When Gilligan (1993) documented the existence of caring orientation, she asked if Kohlberg's system for scoring moral reasoning stage was flawed by its reliance solely on justice orientation and its exclusion of caring orientation. Kohlberg argued his system was not flawed because even if dilemmas were presented as justice issues people could choose to resolve them by using caring orientation (Colby, Kohlberg, & Kauffman, 1987). But this study's data reinforce Gilligan's question. The Study 2 data on 40 visions indicated these 7 leaders always used both caring and justice considerations and measuring just one of the perspectives did not yield results that matched the Study 1 holistic judgments. Moreover, the Study 1 data showed that Lincoln, Wilson, Roosevelt, and Bush all articulated visions that raters scored as predominantly caring. Thus, caring emerged as both a frequent characteristic and an influential one, supporting Gilligan's position that reliance solely on justice orientation could yield flawed results.

Although 2 of the 7 leaders were women, Meir and Thatcher, the organization level of analysis used for this study means the outcomes contribute nothing to the idea originally raised by Gilligan (1993) that women may prefer the caring and men may prefer the justice orientation. The conservative view adopted here is that these organization-level vision statements were dynamically influenced by multiple advisors as part of a shared leadership process, so both men and women may have had significant input that shaped the vision statements.

Outliers

Two of the leader statements that qualified as visions contained no text meeting the criteria to be extracted for moral reasoning orientation scoring. The first was Kennedy's fifth vision, which followed so closely after his fourth vision that it might be seen as an auxiliary supplementing and assuming the listener still remembered the fourth vision. In Vision 4, Kennedy (1962a) announced discovery of offensive missile sites being prepared on Cuba and intention to stop that. In Vision 5, Kennedy (1962b) announced evidence that the missile bases were being dismantled and he presented no moral dilemma. The second vision lacking text qualified for extraction for moral reasoning orientation scoring was Meir's (1973) fourth vision. It was a broadcast to her nation that announced an attack on Israel by Egypt and Syria, asserting that defense forces were beating back the assault but presented no explanation or resolution of the dilemma, possibly assuming that listeners' patriotism would provide them all the explanation they required.

Conclusions

Results clearly showed these raters, when allowed opportunity to judge holistically as in Study 1, appeared to interpret what vision elements warranted emphasis even when the vision

statement gave other elements more space, time, or frequency of mention. Do organization members interpret their leaders' visions the same way? It is a testable research question, and the answer could influence leaders who, today, sometimes say they believed they emphasized a point by speaking on it at length or speaking about it frequently.

It is interesting that these raters found in Study 2 that all 40 of the scorable visions included both justice and caring elements. This is consistent with previous research that found both genders could access both justice and caring and switch between them and found people using both orientations simultaneously. It also is consistent with the theory that shared leadership is a dynamic, interactive influence process allowing multiple people to lead each other to achieve the organization's goals. That concept assumes multiple people will express multiple viewpoints that will influence others in the leadership group and be accommodated in visions articulated by the formal leader. Frum's observation of Karen Hughes' withdrawal from influencing Bush's vision statements at the same time this study measured a change in those visions from caring to justice moral reasoning orientation suggests the shared leadership dynamic was real in that situation and also that it potentially has important effect on leadership outcomes. Left for future research is the question of when is it beneficial for a vision statement to be caring and when is it better oriented toward justice?

A unifying perspective from organizational systems theory recognizes *levers* as a mechanism allowing a small effort by the leader to achieve a large effect on the organization. A vision statement can be seen as a standard tool that leaders intend to have exactly that effect. When visions change toward more caring or more justice, the reason might be reactive or proactive. A reactive rationale is that the situation influenced how the leaders framed their vision statements. A proactive rationale, drawing on the concept of systems levers, is that the leaders sought to influence the situation by choosing how to frame their vision statements, using them as a lever with large effect on their organization.

The data here confirmed the hypothesis that both caring and justice moral reasoning orientations appeared in these vision statements by these leaders before a catastrophe. The data confirmed that change occurred after a catastrophe and showed the change usually was toward increased justice with several clear exceptions that showed change toward increased caring. These measurements perhaps reveal a leadership lever in action.

About the Author

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Creating a Vision for Leadership: The University of Missouri and the University of the Western Cape Partnership

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This article describes a relationship between two universities that has resulted in a project to help disadvantaged principals in economically repressed areas of South Africa. More than 15 years ago, in the midst of a deeply divided society, the University of Missouri System made a momentous decision to support a Black university in Bellville, a suburb of Cape Town, South Africa called the University of the Western Cape (UWC). This support was important because UWC has prepared many of the Black leaders in South Africa, individuals who participated in the dismantling of the apartheid system.

While the United States was disinvesting in South Africa, the University of Missouri stood firm in its support of the University of the Western Cape. From its inception, the partnership has sponsored numerous faculty exchanges and shared resources and ideas. In this article we will discuss the development of a leadership academy for school principals in South Africa. Through this writing we share with the readers the problems and concerns of developing such a relationship.

After 4 years of building relationships to support the project and piloting leadership activities, funding was finally secured to sustain the project in the summer of 2005. This funding will give the writers an opportunity to gather primary data on the effects of professional development and/or training for principals as it relates to student achievement. Since there is very little data in the literature regarding the connection between the training of school principals and student achievement, this is a significant project for leadership both in the United States and South Africa.

This article describes a relationship between two universities that has resulted in a project to help disadvantaged principals in economically repressed areas of South Africa. More than 15 years ago, the University of Missouri System made a momentous decision to support a Black university in Bellville, a suburb of Cape Town, South Africa called the University of the Western

Cape (UWC). While the United States was disinvesting in South Africa, the University of Missouri stood firm in its support of the University of the Western Cape. From its inception, the partnership has sponsored numerous faculty exchanges and shared resources and ideas. This support was important because UWC has prepared many of the Black leaders in South Africa, individuals who participated in the dismantling of the apartheid system.

In 1999, the University of Missouri received a 4-year USAID grant entitled the Tertiary Education Linkage Project (TELP). As part of the School's Organizational Culture and Change section, a vision was jointly conceived by U.S. and South African educators for the establishment of a leadership academy to provide training, professional development, and mentoring for South African K-12 school administrators. As stated in the literature, the development of the Leadership Academy was seen as an important step in the preparation of educational leaders and effective schools (Barth, 1988; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fullan, 2001). The concept of the Leadership Academy is discussed later in this article.

For many years South Africa has experienced a severe shortage of teachers, classrooms, and other educational services. The political changes involved in moving away from government-sanctioned apartheid added tensions to the already deeply divided society, and the educational system itself was one of the hallmarks of a racially segregated country (Husen & Postlewaite, 1994). A partnership under these circumstances was a real leap of faith that education could bring about change and improvement, but because improving the "professional status of educators" was one of the 11 stated principles of South Africa's national education policy, the dialogue continued.

Early Development of the Partnership

During the first year of the TELP project, a team of faculty from the University of Missouri and the University of the Western Cape gathered at the University of Missouri-St. Louis to discuss and plan the future of the project. Involved in this initial discussion were Dr. Harold Herman from Western Cape; Dean Bernard Oliver, University of Missouri-Kansas City; and Dr. Carole Murphy and Dr. Kathleen Sullivan Brown of the University of Missouri-St. Louis.

The project took life and focus when Dr. Herman visited the fall conference of the Missouri Satellite Leadership Academy. The Missouri Satellite Leadership Academy is an organization that provides long-term, close-to-home professional growth activities for school leaders. Using the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards as the program goals (see the Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO] website address for ISLLC), participants have a unique professional development opportunity through school improvement, individual professional growth, collegiality, and personal skill development (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [MDESE], 2003). At this leadership conference, sponsored by the MDESE under Dr. Doug Miller, the director of professional development for the State of Missouri, Dr. Herman saw an exemplary leadership academy which fosters a highly successful mentoring program and, by definition, becomes a "collaborative work culture" (Fullan, 2001, p. 82).

Returning to South Africa after spending a year as a distinguished visiting professor in the United States, Dr. Herman was "greatly disturbed by the deep erosion of the culture of teaching and learning" in his country. He felt that educational leaders were embattled within the historically disadvantaged communities of South Africa and were in desperate need of help.

School leadership, especially in the poorer townships, was a chronically neglected area of the educational system. He began preparing the groundwork for establishment of a leadership academy that would address the pressing need for training of school leaders and aspiring school leaders in management and leadership roles. The academy would also provide a mentoring program that could help embattled principals by promoting “collaborative teams” (DuFour & Eaker, 1998, p. 26) and providing for individual as well as organizational growth. The University of the Western Cape, widely referred to as a “Peoples” university, has a proud tradition of engaging and responding to the needs of disadvantaged communities. This would be one of its biggest challenges (Herman, 2002a) because of the difficulty as Fullan (2001) described of “unlocking the mysteries of living organizations” (p. 46).

The Missouri Satellite Leadership Academy (Academy) was started in 1985 and was based on the work of Roland Barth (1990). The mission of the Academy is to positively impact student performance by inspiring and developing highly effective school leaders. In July 2005, the Academy began its twenty-first year of existence. The vision of the Academy is to collaboratively create opportunities for members of the educational communities to seek high levels of learning and performance for all. The goals of the Academy are

1. *Professional Growth*. Participants improve their education leadership skills and knowledge.
2. *School Improvement*. Participants use validated change strategies and practices to strengthen their own school improvement efforts.
3. *Collegiality*. Participants will establish a network among themselves to encourage and support each other in clarifying their roles and implementing changes.
4. *Continuous Improvement*. Participants are encouraged to be life-long learners and realize that improvements are essential characteristics of effective school administrators.

The Academy is a statewide, year-long program where administrators meet for a minimum of 18 days per year. Regional meetings are held throughout the year at one of the nine Regional Professional Development Centers (RPDC). Participants sign up for the program at their nearest RPDC. Four times a year, the approximately 200 Missouri administrators come together at the Lake of the Ozarks to share experiences and participate in learning communities. In 2004 the Academy was selected by Stanford University as the second best professional development program for principals in the United States (D. Miller, Director of Professional Development, DESE, personal communication, 2005).

Beginning a Dialogue among Educational and Governmental Leaders

In March, 2001, Dr. Doug Miller, director of professional development for the State of Missouri, and Dr. Tom Hensley of the University of Missouri-St. Louis, traveled to Cape Town and the University of the Western Cape to explain to local educational leadership constituencies how leadership academies functioned to support school leaders in Missouri. Despite the political complexities and the fractious nature of leadership development in the Western Cape township schools, the idea was received favorably.

The Missouri Leadership Academy model of collegial development fits well with the needs of South African principals who receive no formalized training before assuming their administrative roles. Collegial development is important because it allows participants to work in groups to share successful practices and to learn from each other. Members of the Academy also

have the opportunity to participate in the design of the curriculum. Williams (2002) stated that educators in South Africa have differing levels of competencies and expertise. Leadership development programs that recognize these differences are required. He also stated the “transformation of the South African educational system since 1994 has resulted in what one school principal referred to as ‘policy overload.’ In an effort to deal with the transformational initiative, educators have generally become strained and spent, and increasingly unmotivated and frustrated” (p. 92). The Missouri model provides the support necessary to administrators to prevent such burnout.

Dr. Herman enlisted the help of his colleague, Dr. Clarence Williams, another faculty member from the University of the Western Cape. Dr. Williams was asked to sponsor Miller and Hensley during their visit to South Africa. He prepared an extensive itinerary that included conversations with 64 individuals representing 17 entities such as schools, universities, government agencies, non-government organizations (NGO’s), consultants, and labor unions. Hensley & Miller (2001) wrote, “Our intent was not to bring a model of school leadership for the Western Cape to adopt,” but to introduce the concept of principal academies.

Administrator Certification in South Africa

Historically, in South Africa, certification is not necessary for a teacher to move into an administrative position in a school. The normal route is to be a teacher, a head of a department, a deputy principal, and then a principal. In some cases, especially after the flight of administrators into retirement during the rationalization process in the 1990s, teachers were moved into administrative positions with no prior training in administration. Herman (2002a, 2002b) and Williams (2002) felt strongly that the professional development being given Missouri principals was needed by teachers who are moving into administrative roles without any type of preparation. The point of establishing an Academy in South Africa is to give teachers who are moving into an administrative role the background they need to be successful. The South African Leadership Academy, although modeled after the Missouri Satellite Leadership Academy, will have to be developed by the participants if it is truly going to meet their individual needs.

When describing the more formalized certification process in Missouri, Hensley and Miller were careful to honor the history of educational leadership in South Africa and not make recommendations for a parallel certification process for school leaders. However, there seemed to be a general agreement that a separate process for certifying school administrators in South Africa would be desirable given the ambitious goals of the country’s new educational policy.

Influence and Role of the ISLLC Standards

Since Missouri is one of the original partner states involved in the development of the ISLLC standards for school administrators in the United States, the role of the Interstate School Leaders’ Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders was discussed and an article about the ISLLC Standards was distributed. Formed in 1996, ISLLC was a consortium of educational associations that

worked cooperatively to establish an education policy framework for school leadership...based on the premise that the criteria and standards for the professional practice of school leaders must be grounded in the knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning. The purpose of the ISLLC Consortium was to provide a means

through which states could work together to develop and implement model standards, assessments, professional development, and licensing procedures for school leaders. The overarching goals of ISLLC were to raise the bar for school leaders to enter and remain in the profession, and to reshape concepts of educational leadership. (CCSSO, 2003)

The ISLLC standards are now in use in at least 35 U.S. states. Missouri, as one of the states that assisted in the development process, used these six broad standards as the basis for the creation of its Leadership Academy. Each seminar given by Hensley and Miller in South Africa included recurring references to the historical, political, and professional perspectives of the Missouri Leadership Academy and the ISLLC philosophy of embedding school leadership in knowledge of teaching and learning. Throughout these discussions, the length of time (15 years) for the development of the Missouri program and the original limited scope—a peer mentoring and support group for administrators—were stressed. One had to keep in mind that the South African Constitution was only 10 years old at this time, 5 years younger than the Missouri Leadership Academy. The ISLLC standards can be used as a model from which South Africa can build its own standards.

Hensley and Miller found that a primary political consideration was the issue of equity with the inevitable dilemma of quantity versus quality dominating a region with limited resources. Some circuit managers (state department personnel) offered opportunities for growth in leadership while others did not. Some schools provided a culture that encourages personal professional growth while others did not. Computers played a major role in some schools and in others technology was sparse. Government initiatives were limited and a feeling of distrust extended towards the state department. Resentment also surfaced regarding the government's awarding contracts to NGOs and paying individuals with funds that could have gone to schools. Clearly political, economic, and social factors in the Western Cape in 2001 contrast with the generally supportive context in which the Missouri Leadership Academy was formed in Missouri in 1985.

In their report of June 25, 2001, Hensley and Miller observed that there was general acceptance of the idea of the leadership academy, that there were other initiatives that could form the basis of collaboration, and that equity and political issues remain major obstacles to leadership development in the region.

After careful consideration, Hensley and Miller (2001) recommended that the time was right for the initiation of a leadership academy. Further, they said:

Participants must be screened and selected carefully, and initial goals must be realistic, for it is crucial that this first attempt to establish an academy be successful. Skeptics will question the value of the academy just as they did in Missouri. A strong leadership core built upon school leaders will be essential to maintain a positive and consistent direction for the academy and at the center of this core should be an individual leader who is trusted and respected throughout the province.

Developing Support during Political Transitions

After Hensley's and Miller's departure from South Africa, Drs. Herman and Williams met to strategize how to proceed to get full local support to establish the Academy. Unfortunately, there was great political uncertainty and changes of leadership in the Western Cape government and Ministry of Education that required careful consideration in the context of planning and stakeholder participation. A new political coalition took over the Western Cape

provincial government at the end of 2001 and a new minister of education and superintendent general of education were appointed. Herman and Williams continued to hold conversations with numerous individuals from stakeholder groups in order to gain support for the project.

In October 2001, Herman wrote a proposal to the National Research Foundation (NRF) of South Africa to fund a project on Leadership Development in Schools. The idea was to get funds to assist research done through TELP on the Leadership Academy, but more particularly to focus on the school leadership cadre and professional development of teachers in the Western Cape. The NRF awarded R60,000 (about \$10,000 U.S.) for the project, which focuses on school-based interviews on leadership development.

Continued Faculty Exchanges

On September 30, 2002, Dr. Clarence Williams, University of the Western Cape, and Mr. Edwin Jansen, Principal of Kasselsvlei Comprehensive Secondary School, came to the University of Missouri-St. Louis to participate in the TELP Project exchange and to further their understanding of the leadership preparation in Missouri. Dr. Williams and Mr. Jansen spent 2 weeks attending academy meetings and visiting administrators who had participated in academy activities and their schools. To help Williams and Jansen understand the Missouri Professional Development for Leadership program, a flow chart was designed (Figure 1). Each piece is like that of a puzzle. Each piece depends on the other, and when they are put together they give one a clear picture of stakeholders that need to be involved in a systemic leadership preparation program. Faculty exchange visits and email conversations contributed toward developing a similar overview of leadership development stakeholders in South Africa.

On October 16, 2002, another leadership team consisting of Dr. Carole Murphy, chair of the Division of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, and Dr. Beverly Nance, director of the St. Louis Principal's Academy, traveled to Cape Town, South Africa to conduct additional workshops on leadership for approximately 75 participants throughout the country and to provide expert testimony regarding leadership academies.

Upon the arrival of Murphy and Nance, a planning meeting was first held to discuss lessons learned from previous exchanges and to design a plan that would further the initiation of a leadership academy in South Africa during this visit. Attending this meeting included: Murphy, Nance, Herman, Williams, and Mr. Joe September, the newly designated coordinator of the TELP Project.

According to Mr. September, historically there has always existed a need for institutionalized, comprehensive training of K-12 administrators of public educational institutions in South Africa. In addition, very little time, energy, and finances are spent by South African educational authorities on in-service training or mentoring of the heads of K-12 institutions (September, 2002a).

After discussing the needs of the participants at the in-service training given by Murphy and Nance, and after surveying a number of principals in the Cape Region, it was decided that training for principals would need to cover the following content: (a) organizational leadership and management, (b) instructional and curriculum leadership, (c) human resources management and leadership, (d) financial management and leadership, and (e) community leadership.



A major challenge for South Africa's schools is the dearth of aspiring principals. Over the last 5 years the educational authorities have embarked on severe staff cutbacks due to

national directives. Schools in advantaged areas responded by massively increasing their school fees. This is not a possibility for schools located in disadvantaged areas where unemployment rates are above 50%. This lack of funding means that teachers in these disadvantaged areas have 45 to 60 students in one classroom. This causes teachers to feel burned-out and ineffective. A major goal of any leadership academy in South Africa would be to address these motivational issues. Addressing these relevant issues would help in the process of recruiting new administrators.

Lack of financial resources extends to all phases of K-12 education and must be dealt with by K-12 administrators in South Africa, as in other educational settings. Many of the South African schools are old and require funds for repair. Some township schools experienced new safety and security problems and have found it necessary to hire security staff. The Western Cape Education Department openly acknowledged that they are aware that the amount allocated to particular schools is inadequate for the effective running of the school.

Regardless of these problems, each new generation of children must be taught, and schools must continue to do the best they can. With these challenges in mind, it was decided that the two workshops scheduled would focus on effective dialoguing. This is a system of mentoring discussed in a book by Ellinor and Gerard (1998) entitled *Dialoguing: Rediscover the Transforming Power of Conversation*. While dialogue does not remedy the problem of scarce resources, it does promote the more effective and efficient use of existing resources by allowing input from all stakeholders.

Presently, approximately 75 principals and key stakeholders who attended the workshops are participating in a survey that asks for their response to these and other questions of importance:

1. Is the establishment of a Leadership academy in the Western Cape a vision that needs to be pursued?
2. What benefits could the establishment of a Leadership academy have?
3. Who should be served by a Leadership academy?
4. Who could be involved in the establishment and management of a Leadership academy?

It is imperative that stakeholders in any such collaboration be involved in all areas of planning and needs assessment and for continual development of their sense of ownership of the process. It is no less than a miracle that all stakeholders participated in the two workshops given by UWC in October 2002.

Potential for Learning about International Dimensions of School Leadership

Barth (1988) and more recently Lambert (1998) and Senge (2000) have supported the idea of mentoring and leadership academies as a way to help public school administrators do a better job. In the United States every state has some type of certification process and most states have academies to support the professional growth and development of administrators. Creating a new system of academies in South Africa could provide a wealth of baseline research opportunities, leading to a major contribution to the literature on administrator preparation. In addition, this project will support South Africa in its attempt to improve education for all children at a time when “education for all” is a clarion call throughout the continent of Africa.

Project members feel that funding must be secured as soon as possible to enable the project to maintain momentum. Another grant will be submitted to USAID, as well as other

funding sources. The University of the Western Cape should remain the keeper of the vision, and stakeholders should be heard and their input acknowledged. In addition, research data should be kept from the inception of the program and a discussion begun regarding how this research should be gathered so that it is reliable and valid. Last, but not least, the association among the University of the Western Cape, the University of Missouri System, the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, and the Western Cape Education Department should continue and be nurtured for the mutual benefits in learning about the development of school leaders for our global society.

In the summer of 2005, the Shuttleworth Foundation offered their help in funding the South African Leadership Academy for the next 3 years. This will give the Academy the opportunity to secure additional funds and gather the primary data that has the possibility of making a connection between professional development for leaders and student achievement. Through the hard work of Herman and Williams, the Academy has now received the support of all stakeholders and is being housed at the University of the Western Cape.

Lessons Learned

Working internationally is always an interesting experience because of the differences in cultures and the ways things are handled. Below are some of the lessons learned over the past 5 years:

1. There is no formal preparation of school principals in South Africa.
2. There are no set standards for school principals in South Africa.
3. Working with developing nations and their political issues takes time. Stakeholders are suspicious of each other's motives and outsiders because of the former apartheid government.
4. One must deal with deep-seated feelings and emotions that have been created by apartheid.
5. Missouri has a quality model for training principals that can be used by South African principals.
6. Networking is a concern globally.
7. When surveyed, topics of concern for principals are similar in both the United States and South Africa.
8. Developing the Leadership Academy not only addresses education and quality leadership in schools, but also can address the economic and social development of South Africa.

Hopefully this will only be the beginning of a long and productive relationship for both parties concerned. Now with the initiation of the South African Leadership Academy in 2006 we can begin the collection of data to support the need for professional development for leaders. This data will give credence to the money being spent on professional development for leaders.

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