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Emerging Leadership Journeys (ELJ) is an academic journal that provides a forum for emerging scholars in the field of leadership studies. Contributors to this journal are Ph.D. students enrolled in the Organizational Leadership program in Regent University's School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship. Representing the multidisciplinary field of leadership, ELJ publishes, bi-annually, the best research papers submitted by Ph.D. students during the first four terms of their doctoral journey. These selected papers reflect the students' scholarly endeavors in understanding the phenomenon of leadership and in advancing the field of leadership studies ontologically, epistemologically, and axiologically. To stimulate scholarly debate and a free flow of ideas, ELJ is published in electronic format and provides access to all issues free of charge.

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From the Editor

Mihai Bocarnea
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This second issue of *Emerging Leadership Journeys* (ELJ) includes five of the best research papers submitted by students in their fourth semester of the Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership Program. In this issue, Thomas Adams examines the moderating effect of prayer on the relationship between supervisory support and an employee's perception of the workplace. In his empirical study, Matthew Earnhardt tests the applicability of a servant leadership theory to the military context. Loventrice Farrow uses qualitative research to explore the experiences of minority women leaders as mentees and the impact of these experiences on their careers while Sharon Norris investigates the relationships among need for autonomy, general self-efficacy, and self-leadership strategies. Finally, Kelly Rouse Riesenmy studies the moderating role of follower identification on the relationship between a leader's self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership and the followers' similar leadership behaviors. I am thankful to all of the grading professors who serve as ELJ editorial members for their support and especially to Dr. Dail Fields for this selection and the guidance he provided to the authors. I am also grateful to the production staff, Mrs. Julia Mattera, Mr. Billy Mims, and Mrs. Sarah Stanfield, and my colleague on the editorial staff, Mrs. Nicolette Neville, for all of their support with this second issue of *Emerging Leadership Journeys*.



Impact of Prayer on the Relationship between Supervisory Support and Employee's Perception of Workplace Equity

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This research study advances the body of knowledge of leadership studies by examining the impact of prayer on the relationship between supervisory support and employee perception of organizational equity. Studies have shown a positive correlation between prayer and motivation. Equity theory is an organizational development theory which focuses on the employee perception of workplace fairness and equity to determine the level of employee satisfaction. Three surveys, the Supervisory Support, the Multidimensional Prayer Inventory, and the Distributive Justice Index, measured the impact of prayer on the relationship between supervisory support and the perception of workplace equity of business professionals. Leaders equipped with an increased knowledge in this area will have a better understanding of factors that influence perceptions of equity in the workplace which contribute to overall employee satisfaction.

Equity theory examines and articulates the process in ascribing fairness to the exchange relationship between an employee and employer. The exchange between the two is not purely an economic matter, although significant, as there are elements of justice involved that supervene economics and underlies perceptions of equity or inequity (Adams, 1963). Equity theory is a motivational theory that describes employee behavior (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2005). Previous studies illustrate motivating environments seem to have a significant positive relationship on employee job satisfaction and worker performance (Katzell, 1980; Prichard, Dunnette, & Jorgenson, 1972).

Faith, spirituality, and prayer have been correlated to an increase in motivation (McCullough, 1995; Masters, 2005). The vast majority of adult Americans, over 90%, engage in prayer (Laird, Snyder, Rapoff & Green, 2004). Statistically, one expects the majority of employees in any given organization to pray. Prayer plays a particularly important role in motivation (Marsden, Karagianni, & Morgan, 2007; Neyrinck, Vansteenkiste, & Lens, 2006) and

as a component of spirituality is positively related to an enhanced outlook on life (Conti et al., 2003; Masters, 2005; Seskevich, Crater, & Lane, 2004).

Purpose of Study

While literature provides data regarding employee motivations and perceptions, prayer has not been examined as a motivating factor as it relates to employees perceptions of workplace equity. This study examined prayer as a moderating variable on the relationship between supervisory satisfaction and employee perception of workplace equity.

Statement of Problem

Research exploring prayer as it relates to employees perception of workplace, fairness, and equity has yet to be addressed. This research aimed to fill the gap in the body of knowledge by examining the relationship between prayer and intrinsic motivational factors of successfully adapted and adjusted employees. Managers and employees will find this study useful as they increase their understanding of motivational factors involving increased worker productivity.

Theoretical Foundation

Prayer. In a review of the literature, prayer is a complex, multidimensional construct (Ladd & Spilka, 2002). James, as cited by Harrison (1999), defined prayer as every kind of inward communication with the power recognized as divine. In general, prayer is an address to God (Balentine, 1984). Although there has been ambiguity in defining prayer, there have been contemporary research findings that document positive correlates of the benefits of prayers including greater purpose in life, enhanced marital satisfaction, existential well-being, religious satisfaction, increased hardiness, and recovery from alcohol dependence (McCullough, 1995). These findings are based on an individuals' prayer (address) to God.

Findings in a study that measured visualization, intercessory prayer, and expectancy for critically ill patients (Conti et al., 2003) demonstrated that patients who expected to receive prayer reported feeling significantly better than patients who expected to receive positive visualization. The effects of prayer and positive visualization could not be distinguished from the effect of expectancy.

Masters (2005) conducted an empirical research study on the effects of a form of prayer on a wide array of conditions and outcome variables, including rheumatoid arthritis, cardiac disease, substance abuse, and measures of mental health including self-esteem, anxiety, and depression. The study did not provide strong evidence, but did uncover a relationship between prayer and the tested conditions.

Nelson, Quick, and Quick (1989) examined characteristics of executives who were identified as successfully handling stress in their workplace and prayer was a strategy identified that the executives used as coping strategies. Richter et al. (2002) examined factors that successful participants in a smoking cessation study used and prayer was one of the methods that a majority of the successful quitters used. Similarly, Marsden et al. (2007) identified prayer as a positive motivating factor for women completing a treatment regimen in a healthcare facility.

In work settings, spirituality and prayer had a positive correlation to intrinsic motivation and goal setting among managers from across service industries (Biswas & Biswas, 2007).

Furthermore, results of a 2005 study (Duffy & Bluestein, 2005) indicated that individuals who pray as part of an overall spiritual relationship with a higher power and are religious due to intrinsic motivation tend to be more confident in their ability to make career decisions and are open to exploring a variety of career options.

Equity theory. Adams' article, "Toward an Understanding of Inequity" (1963), has widely been credited as the genesis of equity theory. The theory examines and articulates the process in ascribing fairness to the exchange relationship between an employee and employer. The exchange between the two is not purely an economic matter as there are elements of justice involved that supervene economics and underlies perceptions of equity or inequity (Adams).

Equity theory expands on the anxiety and frustration produced by cognitive dissonance and attributes the dissonance to the perceived inequity a person ascribes to a social exchange process.

With this understanding of dissonance as the foundation of equity theory, equity theory explains how people's perceptions of how fairly they are treated in social exchanges at work (e.g., amount of pay increase each year, how well their supervisor treats them, etc.) can influence employee motivation (Ivancevich et al., 2005).

Equity theory is often used in conjunction with other social comparison constructs such as equity-sensitive theory and self-efficacy theory (O'Neil & Mone, 1998). Equity-sensitivity is an individual difference that characterizes how individuals react to situations perceived to be equitable or inequitable. Whereas equity theory characterizes the process of an individual perceiving if a social exchange relationship is fair, equity-sensitivity explains the differences in individual reactions to the inequity. Benevolent, entitled, or equity-sensitive are the different reactions. O'Neil and Mone suggested that this construct had a positive impact on job satisfaction and intent to leave with health care employees.

Inequity in external referents (similar positions outside the organization) was not weighted as heavily by workers in terms of impacting job satisfaction and organizational commitment because of the variety of pay scales that exist in various organizations. Inequity in external referents did correlate to a stronger intent to leave the organization. Workers used individual versus referent groups and a magnification or cumulative effect occurred. If a worker's pay equity was compatible internally, but in comparison to an external referent group of workers is under-rewarded, the worker will more than likely have a perception of inequity. As identified earlier, this is clearly different than when a worker compares pay to an individual external referent. The findings suggest that the use of group referent may enhance the validity of the perception that an individual is underpaid or overpaid to a greater degree than an individual referent (Shore, Jordan, & Tashchian, 2006).

Shaw and Gupta (2001) conducted a study on pay fairness and job performance, job search intent, health complaints, depression, and life satisfaction with respect to the exacerbation of financial need. This study demonstrated that the worker's level of financial need was an exacerbating effect on the worker's perception of pay fairness and job performance, depression, and health complaints.

Much of the literature examines the turnover process as an indication of equity theory and job satisfaction (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001; Huselid & Day, 1991; Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Sixma, 1994; Williams, 1990) from the person/worker point of view.

A study conducted in 2001 (Van Dierendonck, Buunk, & Schaufeli, 2001) reviewed burnout and inequity among human service professionals. Consistent with equity theory, the

human service professionals who felt more deprived or advantaged in the social exchange relationships with the clients resulted longitudinally in greater emotional exhaustion (burnout).

Other variables that impact perceptions of equity among workers are working conditions, job assignments, and pay level. A high-incentive laden working environment (Katzell, 1980), whereby pay is based on production tends to have a strong correlation between equity and job satisfaction as opposed to low-incentive conditions (flat base pay).

With respect to race and gender as variables to pay equity, Tang, Tang, and Homaifar (2006) found that: (a) income contributes to pay satisfaction in all groups (men, women, and Caucasian) except African Americans; (b) pay equity and total pay satisfaction was significant across gender and ethnicity; and (c) African Americans and women scored significantly higher on a LOM (Love of Money) scale than Caucasian men. The study theorized that African Americans and women may feel poorer financially and psychologically because they had to have lower incomes historically, have experienced financial hardships, and are more obsessed with money than men and Caucasians.

Supervisory Support

Taking a distributive justice approach, O'Neil and Mone (2005) cited several studies that examine referent selection by examining several factors that influence employee's perception of equity among them supervisory behavior. Research has shown the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationship have links to work outcomes (Golden & Veiga, 2008). Employee perceptions of supervisory support have a high correlation to positive job outcomes (performance, satisfaction, intent to stay, organizational commitment, and citizenship behavior) and tend to be a significant influencer of an employee's perception of well-being (Hooper & Martin, 2008).

The review of the literature substantiates the concepts of equity theory and identifies the relationship between positive perceptions of pay equity and increased perception of job satisfaction among workers. As previously identified under the review of literature concerning prayer, individuals who exhibit prayer have an increased sense of motivation to achieve goals. Prayer, as a religious coping effort, can have a significant impact in addressing problems (Carver et al., 1989) and reducing stress and anxiety (Moberg, 2005). A study by Turton and Francis (2007) identified a positive correlative between prayer and work-related psychological health. Further, Bacchus, and Holley (2004) found that individuals use prayer to find personal strength, peace, and guidance to cope with stressful situations in the workplace. When combining employee's perception of workplace equity with prayer as a motivating factor and coping mechanism, it can result in employees who experience inequity in their jobs not being dissatisfied as a result of the role prayer plays in motivating them in achieving goals and coping with workplace stress. Thus, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H₁: Employees with a higher existence of prayer have a higher sense of workplace equity.

H₂: The level of prayer moderates the link between supervisory support and employee perception of workplace equity.

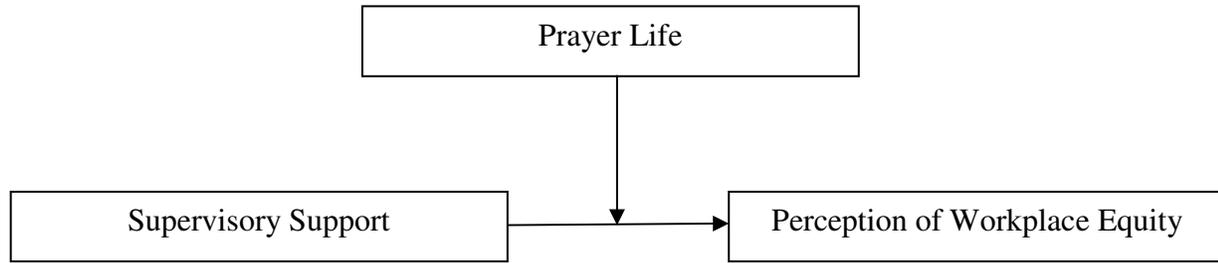


Figure 1. Examining whether the level of prayer moderates the relationship between supervisory support and employee's perception of workplace equity.

Method

Research Design

A survey was constructed to determine the moderating effect prayer life has on the relationship between supervisory support and employee perception of workplace equity. The survey instrument consists of three surveys that have been modified for this study. The Multidimensional Prayer Inventory (MPI) (Laird et al., 2004) measures the existence and frequency of prayer among employees; Supervisory Support (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990) measures employee's perception of the support they are receiving from their supervisor, and the Distributive Justice Index (Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998) measures employee perception of equity in the workplace.

Sample

An online survey was distributed using four professional networking listservs. One of the listservs was geared at African American business professionals and the other three listservs were geared towards African American males who are members of a Greek Fraternity. The surveys bore no identifying marks and the responses were anonymous, apart from those participants who chose to leave an email address for entry into a raffle for participation. The participants were given three weeks to complete the survey. After 21 days an email was sent to all participants on the listservs encouraging those who had not already done so to complete the survey and notifying them that the survey's active weblink would expire in seven days. Seventy-one surveys in all were received. Fifteen of the surveys were discarded because the respondents only completed the first three questions of the survey (demographic information). The final number of participants was 56.

Measurements

Perceptions of Supervisory Support. The Supervisory Support scale by Greenhaus et al. (1990) assessed employee perception of supervisory support received in the workplace. This nine item survey used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*). The coefficient alpha measured .95 which indicates strong reliability

Multidimensional Prayer Inventory. The Multidimensional Prayer Inventory (Laird et al., 2004) measured the existence and frequency of prayer among the participants. The 21-item instrument consisted of Quantitative and Qualitative items. The coefficient alpha measured .95. Previously the 15 prayer type items, collectively known as the Qualitative Prayer Scale, was tested to assess reliability. The Cronbach's alpha was .92. The validity of the Qualitative Prayer Scale was measured using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Both measures supported the use of factor analysis (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin = .88; Bartlett's $\chi^2 = 1017, p < .001$). Frequency per week, frequency per day, and duration were known as the Quantitative Prayer Scale. The Quantitative Prayer Scale was inter-correlated with the Qualitative Prayer Scale and correlations were significant ($p < .01$).

Distributive Justice Index. This modified version of the Distributive Justice Index, as developed by Mansour-Cole and Scott (1998), assessed the degree of perceived fairness in an employee's work situation compared to co-workers. The coefficient alpha measured .94 and was positively correlated to job satisfaction.

The survey was piloted to a group of 10 professionals. Feedback was received regarding the flow of the survey and the ease in understanding questions and directions. As a result, minor changes in the response category were made to the Distributive Justice Index.

Data Analysis Procedures

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 15 Grad Pack was used to analyze the data. The results of each individual survey were coded to a variable describing the survey (i.e., SupSat for Supervisor Satisfaction, Pralife for Prayer Life, etc.) and a moderating variable was created to represent the combined relationship of prayer life and supervisory satisfaction on workplace equity. Descriptive analysis was performed and a correlation matrix assessed the relationship between workplace equity, supervisory support, and prayer life while controlling for gender, age, and ethnicity. A multiple regression analysis was conducted using prayer as a moderating variable on the relationship between workplace equity and supervisory satisfaction.

Results

Descriptive statistic. Table 1 presents means, correlations, and reliability coefficients, where applicable, for all study variables. The reliabilities for the scales were very good, with alphas ranging from .93 to .95. Gender was both positively correlated with ethnicity and negatively correlated with workplace equity at a significant level ($p < .05$). Supervisory support and workplace equity were negatively correlated at a significant level ($p < .01$).

Regression analysis. Separate 3-step, hierarchical regression analyses were performed for each outcome variable. In Step 1, three control variables were entered: gender, age, and ethnicity. Race, gender, and age are demographic differences that may impact perceptions of equity in the work place (Shore et al., 2006). Prayer life was also entered as a control variable as its moderating effect on the relationship in question was observed. As Table 2 shows no variables in this step were significant predictors of employee perception of workplace equity. In Step 2 supervisory support was entered was a significant predictor for workplace equity ($p < .01$). In Step 3 the moderating variable prayer life was entered into the model. This variable was not a significant predictor of workplace equity.

Table 1
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for all Variables

Variables ^a	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender	1.18	.39						
2. Age	3.39	1.04	-.04					
3. Ethnicity	1.07	.53	.29*	-.18				
4. Workplace Equity	3.27	.88	-.27*	-.02	-.18	(.94)		
5. Supervisory Satisfaction	2.82	1.14	.25	.23	.04	-.45**		
6. Prayer Life	4.28	1.25	.08	.19	.14	-.01	-.12	(.93)

^a For gender, 1 = male and 2 = female. For age, 1 = 0-17, 2 = 18-29, 3 = 30-39, 4 = 40-49, 5 = 50-59, 6 = 60+. For ethnicity, 1 = African American, 2 = Latino/ Hispanic, 3 = Asian American/Pacific Islander, 4 = Native American/ American Indian, 5 = White, 6 = Other.

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

Table 2
Results of Regression Analyses

Independent variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>
Step 1			
Age	-.58	.32	-.26
Gender	-.02	.12	-.02
Ethnicity	-.18	.23	-.12
Prayer Life	-.04	.10	-.06
Step 2	-.31	.11	-.41**
Step 3			
Prayer Life X	-.06	.11	-.41

Note. $R^2 = .10$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .25$ for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .26$ for Step 3.

** $p < .01$.

Discussion

Prayer as a Moderating Variable

H₁: Employees with a higher existence of prayer have a higher sense of workplace equity.

Prayer life and workplace equity were not shown to have significant correlation. This is somewhat surprising given the amount of research available that shows a correlation between prayer and increased motivation (Marsden et al., 2007). Further, Nelson et al. (1989) provided the basis for testing this relationship with the identification of prayer as a coping mechanism for business executives. Referencing Table 1, the mean Workplace Equity score was 3.27. The majority of respondents were either generally neutral towards the equity they receive on the job. This may have had a neutralizing effect on prayer. If the respondents overall felt fairly neutral about their jobs, they may not have seen the need for prayer to help them cope with their employment. The coping mechanism of prayer may be exacerbated by a high sense of unfairness or stress on the job.

H₂: The level of prayer moderates the relationship between supervisory support and employee's perception of workplace equity.

Prayer life did not moderate the relationship between supervisory support and workplace equity. In Table 1, similar to the response for workplace equity, the mean for Supervisory Satisfaction was 2.82. With 1 (*the best*) and 5 (*the worst*), the respondents were generally agreed that they were satisfied with the extent and support of supervision they receive. As a result, the respondents may not have felt prayer was needed to alleviate a stressful work situation. Consistent with previous research, supervisory satisfaction, and workplace equity were found to have significant correlation (Hooper & Martin, 2008).

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although four listservs were used to obtain respondents for the survey, the sample was a very homogenous group. The overwhelming majority were men (81%) and African American (99%). The age group 30–39 represented the largest response rate at 38%. This was 13% higher than the next closest age group. The respondents were not representative of a broad age range as 80% of them were between the ages 18–49. Of the respondents, 47% responded as Protestant-Baptists and this may have skewed the prayer life scale. The industries (banking/financial, real estate, education, nonprofit, etc.) the respondents are employed in were not captured on the survey. This information could prove useful to determine correlations.

A more comprehensive sample should be obtained for further research. In addition, as Ladd and Spilka (2002) emphasized, prayer is a complex multidimensional construct. The relationship between an individual's prayer life and situations in the workplace that are characterized and identified as stressful need further empirical data so that leaders and managers of increasingly diverse work forces have tools that equip them with producing and leading a healthy functioning and productive workforce.

About the Author

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Testing a Servant Leadership Theory Among United States Military Members

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Servant leadership, first proposed by Greenleaf (1970), is an emergent leadership theory postulating a leader must serve first. Patterson (2003), building on transformational and previous servant leadership research, developed a model of servant leading based on the following: (a) agapao love, (b) humility, (c) altruism, (d) vision, (e) trust, (f) empowerment, and (g) service. This study tests Patterson's theory of servant leadership in a military context by investigating the relationship between the seven constructs in Patterson's servant leadership model. Multi-rank and service military members' perception of servant leaders was assessed using the servant leadership instrument developed by Dennis and Bocarnea (2005). Patterson's servant leadership model was supported by the study. The study pioneers servant leadership research in the military.

Servant Leadership in the Military

Servant leadership, first proposed by Greenleaf (1970), is an emergent leadership theory postulating that a leader must serve first. As discussed by Yukl (2002) "a servant leader must attend to the needs of followers and help them become healthier, wiser and more willing to accept their responsibilities" (p. 424). In other words, a servant leader places the needs of the followers above the leader's own personal interests. As an emerging theory, servant leadership has been the subject of few studies (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004; Winston, 2004). In an effort to address a gap in servant leadership theory, Patterson, building on the foundation of transformational and previous servant research, developed a model of servant leading based on the following: (a) agapao love, (b) humility, (c) altruism, (d) vision, (e) trust, (f) empowerment, and (g) service. Patterson's servant

leadership model still requires testing in varied contexts as only a few studies (Bryant, 2003; Dillman, 2004; Dingman, 2006; Koshal, 2005; Nelson, 2003; Serrano, 2006) have tested Patterson's theory. It is therefore useful to investigate Patterson's servant leadership model in the military context. This research was carried out by utilizing Dennis & Bocarnea's (2005) Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument to further test Patterson's assertions.

Literature Review

Servant leadership, as well as transformational leadership, has received significant attention in the academe in recent years as an alternative leadership theory, particularly with the focus on the leader-follower relationship being "central to ethical leadership" (Northouse, 2001, p. 257). Transformational leadership, developed by Burns and servant leadership introduced by Greenleaf has roots in charismatic leadership (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). Servant leadership emerged from transformational leadership and they are similar in scope, although transformational leadership's focus is the primary benefit of the leader, while servant leadership's focus is on the benefit of the follower (Farling et al., 1999). This distinction has been the focus of a study by Parolini (2007) who discovered five major distinctions between transformational and servant leadership including: (a) focus on the individual or organizational needs, (b) inclination to lead or serve, (c) allegiance and focus toward individual or organization, (d) conventional or unconventional approach to influence, and (e) attempt to give or control freedom through influence and persuasion. As the literature (Farling et al.; Parolini; Stone et al., 2004; Washington, 2007; Whetstone, 2002) supports a distinction between transformational and servant leadership, the need arose for a separate model for servant leadership. Patterson (2003) developed a model of servant leading based on the following: (a) agapao love, (b) humility, (c) altruism, (d) vision, (e) trust, (f) empowerment, and (g) service discussed below.

Agapao Love

Patterson (2003) originated the idea of agapao love for her model of servant leadership. As stated by Patterson, "This love is shown by leaders who consider each person as a total-person-one with needs, wants and desires" (p. 8). Furthermore, Williams (2004) stated when speaking of this form of love, that it is "patient, kind, demonstrates humility, respectfulness, selflessness, forgiveness, honesty, and commitment" (p. 8). Agapao love in practice in an organization involves the leader gaining influence through service of the employee (Russell & Stone, 2002) and placing the importance of the employee over the organization (Patterson). As stated by Gomez (2004) "the servant leader is a person who desires to sacrifice themselves out of love for others" (p. 148). Finally, Stone et al. (2004) described the servant leader, one who possesses agapao love, as one who does not hold "a particular affinity for the abstract corporation or organization: rather, they value the people who constitute the organization. This is not an emotional endeavor but rather an unconditional concern for the well being of those who form the entity" (p. 355).

Humility

Humility, according to Button (2005), is to lower one's status in relation to another and is related to one's own self-awareness. Humility is not about someone who lacks self-esteem, but

rather someone who recognizes their own standing and is unassuming and humble (Bower, 1997). Patterson (2003) saw humility as a virtue that rejects self-glorification; further postulating that a person who possesses humility cannot esteem themselves therefore, maintaining a diminished self-focus. Kallasvuo (2007) further described humility as one of service to the organization and a vital quality of a leader. Fairholm and Fairholm (2000) agreed that humility is a vital part of leadership stating “self-interest plays no part in leadership, except as a counterpoint to the sense of self-worth that service to others engenders” (p. 105). Humility, allows leaders to see beyond their own ambitions and recognize the value of the follower to an organization (Winston, 2003).

Altruism

Altruism is seen by Patterson (2003) as a link between good motives and good behavior. Karra, Tracey, and Phillips (2006) defined altruism as “a moral value that leads individuals to act in the interests of others without expectation of reward or positive reinforcement in return” (p. 863). Thompson (2007) further defined altruism as total unselfish concern for others, a form of self denial. According to Scruton (2007), altruism ranges from performing unselfish acts to sacrificing one’s life for another, such as “the lioness who dies in defense of her cubs” (p. 39). Berry and Cartwright (2000) linked altruism and servant leadership by stating that “it seeks a radical equality of persons by requiring all to be servants for some greater good than the individual’s ego” (p. 342).

Vision

Patterson (2003) referred to vision as the “idea that the leader looks forward and sees the person as a viable and worthy person, believes in the future state of each individual, and seeks to assist each one in reaching that state” (p. 18). In servant leadership, a leader is a designer, steward, and teacher vested in each individual for the purpose of growing the individual within the organization (Taylor, 2007). Vision is seen as a way to “inspire others, to motivate action and to move with hope toward the future” (Farling et al., 1999, p. 53). Though Winston (2003) disagreed with Patterson’s use of the term vision, he described Patterson’s view when he stated, “Vision is worked out by the leader finding the various interests and goals of the employee as it relates to what the follower wants to do and the leader then modifies the organization’s procedures and methods to fit” (p. 3).

Trust

Fairholm and Fairholm (2000) described trust as essential to an organization and a key element for the leader and follower to unite around, “If unity is not achieved leadership degenerates into management and control, power politics and compromise” (p. 102). Gomez (2004) further stated that servant leaders elicit trust in the follower by “responding to crisis by owning the problem” (p. 149). Russell (2001) and Story (2002) agreed that integrity and trust leads to credibility and is essential to servant leadership, while Omoh (2007) stressed mutual trust between leader and follower. Patterson (2003) viewed trust as a way for the leader to empower to follower and the organization. Winston (2003) suggested that vision and trust occur concurrently in Patterson’s model.

Empowerment

Russell (2001) viewed empowerment as the essential element of servant leadership and is a major goal of the leader. Russell and Stone (2002) affirmed that empowerment is achieved through pulling rather than pushing individuals along. Farling et al. (1999) stated that servant leader's values are what empower followers. Patterson (2003) stated that empowerment is "letting people do their jobs by enabling them to learn, grow and progress and it means allowing for self direction and freedom to fail; all of this multiplies the followers' strengths and trust" (p. 24). Patterson further stated that this allows the follower to make their dreams a reality. Winston (2003) clarified that the freedom is not limitless but is "progressive with the new follower being empowered in small amounts and allowing the follower to learn and grow to the point of being capable and willing to handle larger levels of empowerment" (p. 4).

Service

Farling et al. (1999) concluded that service is an essential element to servant leadership and service is a primary function of leadership. Russell and Stone (2002) and Winston (2003) further explained that leaders emulate a service model for followers. Patterson's (2003) model states that "the servant leader is called to serve and see life as a mission of service, and this calling to service induces an acceptance of responsibility for others" (p. 25). The servant leader is commanded to serve their employees and is committed to their well-being. Spears (1995) commented that "great leaders must first serve others, and that this simple fact is central to his or her greatness" (p. 3).

Patterson's Servant Leadership Model

Figure 1 outlines Patterson's (2003) servant leadership model concepts from agapao love to service. The model illustrates the role of the leader and how agapao love begins the process, works through humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and ends with service. This, according to Winston (2003), is incomplete as the model only addresses the leader's relationship to the follower.

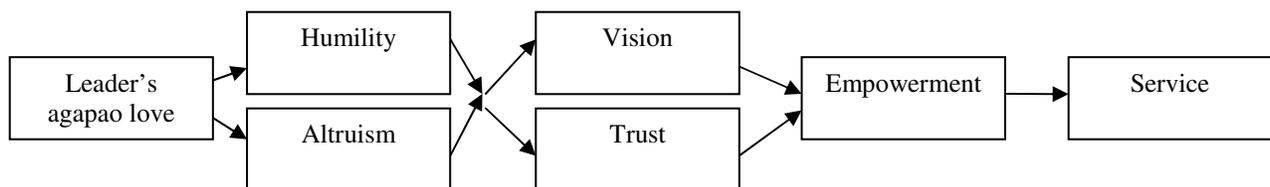


Figure 1. Patterson's (2003) Servant Leadership Model.

Servant Leadership Model Research Hypotheses

The main purpose of this study is to add to the body of knowledge on servant leadership by testing the causal relationships of Patterson's (2003) servant leadership model and validating Patterson's constructs of servant leadership in the military context. Based on the literature review, six research hypotheses (H) were used to explore servant leadership:

- H₁: A leader's agapao love is positively related to his or her humility.
 H₂: A leader's agapao love is positively related to his or her altruism.
 H₃: A leader's humility and altruism are positively related to his or her vision for the followers.
 H₄: A leader's humility and altruism are positively related to the leader's trust in the follower.
 H₅: A leader's vision and trust are positively related to his or her empowerment of the followers.
 H₆: A leader's empowerment of the followers is positively related to the leader's service to the followers.

Additionally, the following research questions (RQ) were asked concerning the role of gender, military rank, and military service on the servant leadership concepts. Military rank was subdivided among the rank structure delineated in Table 4. Finally, military service comprised of all five military services: (a) Air Force, (b) Navy, (c) Army, (d) Marine Corps, and (e) Coast Guard.

- RQ_{1.1}: Is there a difference in agapao love by gender?
 RQ_{1.2}: Is there a difference in humility by gender?
 RQ_{1.3}: Is there a difference in altruism by gender?
 RQ_{1.4}: Is there a difference in vision by gender?
 RQ_{1.5}: Is there a difference in trust by gender?
 RQ_{1.6}: Is there a difference in empowerment by gender?
 RQ_{1.7}: Is there a difference in service by gender?
 RQ_{2.1}: Is there a difference in agapao love by rank?
 RQ_{2.2}: Is there a difference in humility by rank?
 RQ_{2.3}: Is there a difference in altruism by rank?
 RQ_{2.4}: Is there a difference in vision by rank?
 RQ_{2.5}: Is there a difference in trust by rank?
 RQ_{2.6}: Is there a difference in empowerment by rank?
 RQ_{2.7}: Is there a difference in service by rank?
 RQ_{3.1}: Is there a difference in agapao love by military service?
 RQ_{3.2}: Is there a difference in humility by military service?
 RQ_{3.3}: Is there a difference in altruism by military service?
 RQ_{3.4}: Is there a difference in vision by military service?
 RQ_{3.5}: Is there a difference in trust by military service?
 RQ_{3.6}: Is there a difference in empowerment by military service?
 RQ_{3.7}: Is there a difference in service by military service?

Method

The methodological approach was quantitative in nature with the main objective being to investigate Patterson's servant leadership model and its casual relationships in the military context. The study was cross-sectional with questionnaires as the primary means of data collection.

Sample

The sample for the research was selected from a Department of Defense facility located in Colorado comprised of all five military branches. The facility was selected for its breadth of experience ranging from first time enlistees to senior personnel. The sample size reflects the composition of the military and is proportionate to the number of service personnel in the facility. Due to the nature of the facility, Air Force and Navy contingents have greater representation through the sample size. A total of 200 military members participated in the study and the ranks and services are delineated in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1
Sample Size by Service

Service	<i>n</i>	Percent
Air Force	75	37.50
Navy	75	37.50
Army	40	20.00
Marines	5	2.50
Coast Guard	5	2.50

Table 2
Rank by Percentage

Service	(n/Percent)	E-1-E-3	E-4-E-6	E-7-E-9	Officer
Air Force		25/33.33	35/ 46.67	8/10.67	7/ 9.33
Navy		25/33.33	35/46.67	8/10.67	7/ 9.33
Army		13/32.50	19/47.50	5/12.50	3/ 7.50
Marines		2/40.00	2/40.00	0/ 0.00	1/20.00
Coast Guard		1/20.00	3/60.00	1/20.00	0/ 0.00

Data Collection

Data was collected via a personal distribution method due to the convenience of distribution and the rapid turnaround in data collection. Confidentiality was assured for all participants in the research study. The instrument was disseminated to participants via a service representative and each participant was provided 20 minutes to complete the instrument and return the survey to the service representative. The representative ensured equal distribution of the questionnaire along current military demographics outlined in Tables 1 and 2 above.

Instrument

The instrument chosen for the current study was Dennis and Bocarnea's (2005) servant leadership instrument. The intention of the instrument according to the authors is to have "the ability to predict or give instrument to the concepts of Patterson's theory of servant leadership so that a servant leader can measure his or her effectiveness as a servant leader" (Dennis & Bocarnea, p. 612). With the permission of the authors, demographic information on the instrument was modified to reflect information related to the military. The instrument has been shown to be internally reliable with Alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .89 to .92 (Dennis, 2004) for four factors. Though future research has been suggested by the authors to strengthen the instrument, Dennis and Bocarnea and Irving (2005) have established the validity of the instrument.

Results

In order to test the causal relationships between Patterson's (2003) servant leadership model (hypotheses H₁–H₆), simple and multiple regression analyses were run.

Research Hypothesis

Simple regressions tested hypotheses H₁, H₂, and H₆. The results were as follows: H₁ is supported: A leader's agapao love is positively related to his or her humility [$R^2 = .46$, $F(1, 199) = 168.96$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $\beta = .67$]; H₂ was supported: A leader's agapao love is positively related to his or her altruism [$R^2 = .50$, $F(1, 199) = 205$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $\beta = .71$]; H₆ was supported: A leader's empowerment of the followers is positively related to the leader's service to the followers [$R^2 = .20$, $F(1, 199) = 49.86$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $\beta = .45$].

Multiple regressions were run to test H₃, H₄, and H₅. The results were as follows: H₃: A leader's humility and altruism are positively related to his or her vision for the followers [$R^2 = .33$, $F(2, 199) = 49.85$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$; $\beta_H = .36$; $p > .05$; $\beta_A = .22$, $p > .05$]; H₄: A leader's humility and altruism are positively related to the leader's trust in his followers [$R^2 = .45$, $F(2, 199) = 80.68$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $\beta_H = .42$ $p > .05$; $\beta_A = .32$, $p > .05$]; H₅: A leader's vision and trust are positively related to his or her empowerment of the followers [$R^2 = .48$, $F(2, 199) = 91.41$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $\beta_V = .35 > .05$, $\beta_T = .45 > .05$].

Figure 3 presents the results of the causal relationship shown in Patterson's (2003) servant leadership model.

- H₁: $F(1,199) = 168.96$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .46$, $\beta = .67$
 H₂: $F(1,199) = 205$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .50$, $\beta = .71$
 H₃: $F(2,199) = 49.85$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .336$, $\beta_H = .36$, $\beta_A = .22$
 H₄: $F(2,199) = 80.68$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .45$, $\beta_H = .42$, $\beta_A = .32$
 H₅: $F(2,199) = 91.41$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .48$, $\beta_V = .35$, $\beta_T = .45$
 H₆: $F(1,199) = 49.86$, $p < .05$; $R^2 = .20$, $\beta = .45$

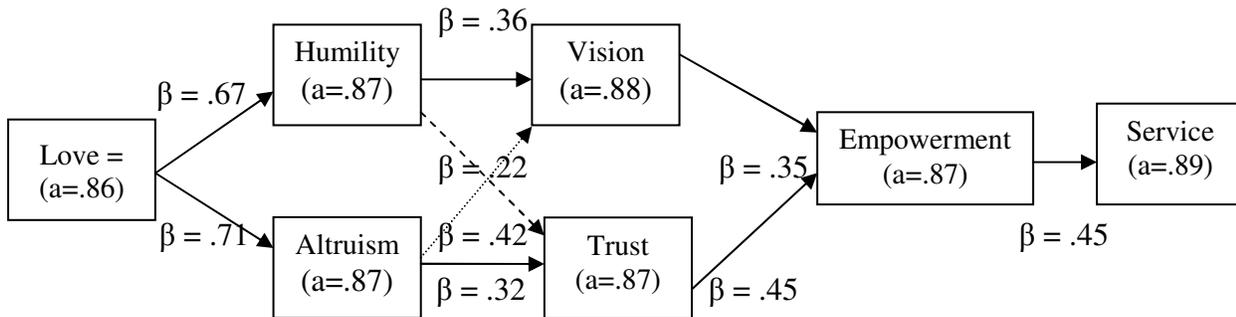


Figure 3. Graphic representation of the results in the tested servant leadership model.

Research Questions

To answer research questions 1.1-1.7, (RQ_{1.1}- RQ_{1.7}: Is there a difference in agapao, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, or service by gender?), *t*-tests were conducted on each of the seven constructs. The results of these tests did not yield significant differences. Research questions 3.1-3.7 (RQ_{3.1}- RQ_{3.7}: Is there a difference in agapao, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, or service by military service?), conducted by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) did not yield significant differences, similar to research question one. Research Questions 2.1-2.7, (RQ_{2.1}- RQ_{1.7}: Is there a difference in agapao, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, or service by rank?), conducted by ANOVA, yielded a significant difference for only the vision construct (RQ_{2.4}) with $F(3,196) = 3.44, p = .01 < .05$.

Summary of Results

To summarize the results of the study for the military context, the causal relationships proposed in Patterson's servant leadership model (2003) were supported. Furthermore, gender and military affiliation were not found to determine differences in servant leadership characteristics. Military rank, however, did have a significant difference for the vision construct. These findings appear to support the portability of the servant leadership theory and add to the body of research in the military context.

Discussion

As proposed by Winston (2004), the Patterson model shows "the causal relationships between the variables in order to build a process model of servant leadership, in moving the literature one step farther" (p. 602) and this study adds support to Patterson's (2003) model. This study validates Patterson's assertion that the constructs of (a) love, (b) humility, (c) altruism, (d) vision, (e) trust, (f) empowerment, and (g) service exist within the military context. This study further postulates that gender, rank, and military service have no effect on the seven constructs, with the exception of vision and rank. The study is an important addition to servant leadership, as it adds further validity to Patterson's model of servant leadership. As discussed by Joseph and Winston (2005), servant leaders help employees grow through empowering workers, honoring

commitments, and building trust and respect within the workplace. This study adds to the theoretical framework by enhancing the understanding of servant leadership, although the study's intention is not to present servant leadership as the only leadership model available to organizations.

The present study offers numerous directions for future research. Though the current study explores servant leadership within the military, a small cross section of the military was utilized for this current study. Patterson's (2003) theory would be enhanced through exploring a larger cross section of the military through the use of different geographical areas and expanded career fields. Though the current study did ask military officers to participate in the study, the majority of the officers were junior, with very few participants from the senior officer ranks. Patterson's model should be tested in a myriad of organizations and cultures to ensure the theory's portability. Finally, alternate servant leadership models should be tested to unify the understanding of servant leadership.

About the Author

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EMERGING
LEADERSHIP
JOURNEYS

The Experiences of Minority Women Leaders as Mentees in U.S. Organizations

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Mentoring has been described as an important aspect of organizational socialization and career development that can positively influence career success. If minority women leaders generally do not have influential or powerful mentors, what are the implications for their career development and presence in senior leadership positions? Studies show that in most organizations, women of color do not fare well when it comes to mentoring and as a result, they overall lack the same level of career development and influential connections as Caucasians. This qualitative study explored the experiences of minority women leaders as mentees and the impact of this experience on their careers. The study found that career and psychosocial functions of the mentoring experience were consistent across age and ethnic background, and that informal mentoring was preferred over formal programs.

Generally, researchers point to the lack of mentoring in the work lives of minority women and suggest that this shortfall tends to limit the presence of minority women in senior positions (Athey, Avery, & Zemsky, 2000; Bahniuk & Hill, 1998). The lack of mentoring and the subsequent lack of opportunities and substantive career movement to the top, beyond the “concrete ceiling,” are said to be barriers for minority women in U.S. companies (Catalyst, 2004). The term, “concrete ceiling,” is similar to the term, “glass ceiling,” defined as those artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization into management level positions, only denser and not as easily shattered (Moore & Jones, 2001).

Some researchers claim that it is not that minority women are not being mentored at all, but believe that they do not have the right types of influential mentors and sponsors who can have an impact on their journey to the top of organizations (Catalyst, 2004). While there is abundant research about mentoring in organizations, there is little that specifically focuses upon the experiences of minority women leaders as mentees.

Research that focuses on minority women and work is particularly significant now because the face of America is changing. The U.S. Census Bureau (1999) has predicted that

Caucasians, long considered the majority, will drop below 50 % of the population by the year 2050. However, experts say that new data suggests that this shift could come far sooner. Moreover, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2007) projects that over 27 million minority women will be in the workforce by 2010. Although still lagging behind Caucasians, college enrollment and graduation rates among minorities are rising steadily according to the American Council on Education's 2008 report on the status of minorities in higher education. The report also shows that 42% of African Americans and 37% of Hispanic college enrollees are women. American workplaces may become increasingly populated by educated minority women who may no longer want to be held just below the concrete ceiling for leadership positions.

Mentoring may be just one facet of career development for leaders, but research suggests that mentoring leads to increased performance and promotion rate, early career advancement, greater upward mobility, higher income, greater job satisfactions, enhanced leadership ability, and perceptions of greater success and influence in an organization (Bahniuk & Hill, 1998).

This qualitative study explored the experiences of minority women leaders as mentees in American business environments and the impact of the mentoring relationships on their career and psychosocial development.

Definitions

Mentoring is commonly defined in the literature as a relationship, often internal within an organization, when a more experienced person (the mentor) provides support and a role model for a less experienced person (the mentee) (Bahniuk & Hill, 1998; Beyene, Anglin, Sanchez, & Ballou, 2002; Hansford & Ehrich, 2006). The mentoring relationship can be one that is formal as in organizationally structured mentoring programs with established processes or informal, those relationships that emerge from social relationships and networks (Beyene et al.).

For the purpose of the study, women of color and minorities refers to non-Caucasian women as defined by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission: African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islanders, Hispanic/Latin, and Native American. Leader refers to those who have staff reporting to them, are organizational officers, or who manage an organizational function.

Research Questions

This qualitative study explored:

1. What are the formal and informal experiences of minority women leaders as mentees in American organizations?
2. What are the career and psychosocial benefits for minority women leaders who participate in mentoring as mentees?
3. How do their experiences as mentees influence the careers of minority women leaders?
4. What are the types of support minority women leaders receive through formal or informal relationships as mentees?

Method

Data Collection

In order to answer the research questions, the data needed to describe the lived experiences of the participants as mentees in formal and informal mentoring relationships.

Data were collected from 7 participants using a semi-structured interview framework. A semi-structured interview format was used to allow for flexibility and openness leaving the dialogues open to exploration (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The interviews, which lasted from 24 to 48 minutes, employed a series of open-ended questions that provided a frame of reference for the interviewees, but at the same time minimally restrained their answers and expressions (Kerlinger & Lee).

The interviews were conducted by phone and recorded. Some participants were not comfortable with interviewing in their work environment, so some interviews took place during non-work time and outside of the work environment. As the solo researcher, I conducted the interviews and transcribed the recordings for analysis. Notes were taken during the interview to reflect my perceptions of the individuals as they recounted experiences and expressed their thoughts and feelings about being mentored.

Interview questions (see Appendix A) were drawn from the literature and categorized by behavior and experience, opinions, feelings, what the participants have seen or heard, participant knowledge, and individual demographics. The questions were reviewed by a professor and the diversity department of my employer.

Funnel questions were used to reach specific points of the mentoring experience. Warwick and Lininger (as cited by Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) pointed out that funnel type questions allow free response, narrow down to specific questions and responses, and also facilitate the discovery of respondents' frames of reference. For example, when asked about her perception of mentoring, one participant's response was very short, reflecting one concept, coaching. To discover her expectations of her mentoring relationship with her manager, I asked what behaviors she expected when approaching her manager. This approach took her perspective beyond the single concept of coaching to guidance, suggestions, and the ability to bounce ideas off someone.

Demographic information of the participants was collected, but only some of the information (age, race, industry, time in current position, length of service in the organization, and current work status) was used in this report to preserve anonymity of participants. Appendix B provides a profile of all 7 participants, and their comments are identified by a corresponding number throughout the report.

Participants

A racially diverse mix of minority women leaders was sought for the study. I looked for women from different organizations and industries who are Asian, Black, African American, Hispanic, and Native American who have held or currently hold leadership positions. Finding a racially diverse slate of minority participants was more difficult than anticipated, particularly finding Asian, Hispanic, and Native American women in leadership positions. Two Hispanic women were scheduled for interviews, but neither was able to participate. I believe that a diverse mix of participants allows for in-depth descriptions of experiences across race, ethnicities,

cultures, organizations, and geographic locations and reduces the possibility of researcher bias. The participant search resulted in a small sample of 7 racially and culturally diverse minority women leaders.

The participants were identified through referrals from business associates and my own personal acquaintances. Two of the participants are my personal acquaintances. Another participant works at the same company where I work, but I have never met her personally. I used the snowball or chain sampling approach by asking participants if they knew of others that I should talk to. The rest of the participants were either referrals from acquaintances or other study participants.

Several African American women surfaced through a women's forum at a technology company and resulted in one full interview and one partial interview which was interrupted by technical difficulties. Before directly contacting the women, I gained permission from the forum's leader who distributed an email to the African American women who are part of the forum. Four women agreed to participate, however not all responded to my email request to establish a time or to my follow-up phone calls.

An Asian participant was the result of a referral and she recommended two other women. Participants include women aged 31 to 58, currently in or retired from leadership positions in U.S. organizations (see Appendix B for participant profiles). Study participants are located in Connecticut, Illinois, and New York. Industries include technology, education, financial services, and marketing information. All participants, except one, had some type of formal or informal organizational mentoring experience.

Informed Consent

An informed consent protocol (see Appendix C) was developed to inform participants of the purpose of collecting information and how it would be used. Participants were provided with an email prior to the interview and told at the start of the conversation what the interview would entail and how responses would be handled (Patton, 2002). All participants agreed to the interviews, but before the actual interview started, some wanted to reaffirm that their names or company names would not be used.

Analysis

Each interview was transcribed verbatim and analyzed separately before conducting a cross-interview analysis (Patton, 2002). The data were coded and organized into topics based on the literature review and Kram's (1985) work on mentoring behaviors to create a framework for describing what was collected. Two dimensions of mentoring support emerged from Kram's work on mentoring, and these have been the basis for most mentoring research: (a) psychosocial benefits, which refer to aspects of mentoring that enhance a sense of competence, identity, and effectiveness in a professional role. These aspects may include role modeling, counseling, friendship, acceptance, and confirmation; and (b) career-related aspects that enhance career enhancement. These benefits may involve coaching, protection, sponsorship, or challenging assignments. Direct quotes are used throughout the report to reflect participant thoughts and perceptions about their mentoring experiences.

Findings

The study found that participants had a preference for informal mentoring relationships and that their mentors were mostly Caucasian women. The participants observed that there were certain differences between women and men mentors, but did not offer up preferences for either gender. They felt that women were good mentors, but that they may not have the same level of influence as men. The women in the study believed that women were easier to talk to, attempted to have more discussions, and tried to find out more about the mentee. They felt that men tended to be more business focused and straight forward in their approach to mentoring.

Overall, study participants believed that mentoring has had a positive impact on their career development and found that mentors provided support in the form of counseling and advice, protection, sponsorship, and friendship.

The women involved in the study defined mentoring in terms that correspond to Kram's career and psychosocial benefits of mentoring. Study participants defined mentoring as assisting/helping, guidance, coaching, advice, counseling, sharing ideas, obtaining feedback, and supporting.

Achievement and career success are typical of what a mentoring relationship can provide with exposure, protection, guidance, and coaching (Kram, 1985). Analysis of the text revealed that study participants were looking for psychosocial functions (role modeling, counseling, and friendship) in the mentoring relationships, but that they also placed additional emphasis on career benefits such as advice and guidance from their mentors more frequently.

Preference for Informal Mentoring Relationships

One of the themes emerging from the women's experiences with formal and informal mentoring was a preference for informal mentoring relationships. The study found that the informal mentoring relationships, as experienced by these women, tended to fulfill many of the career and psychosocial functions of mentoring as identified by Kram (1985). In these informal relationships as mentees, study participants experienced career functions such as sponsorship, coaching, and visibility. They also experienced the psychosocial functions such as friendship, encouragement, counseling, listening, and role modeling. Hopkins and Grigoris (2005) concluded that mentees believe informal mentoring relationships best support their development, and this study's results seem to support that conclusion.

Formal programs, which can provide a more structured focus on mentoring, while beneficial, were viewed as time consuming, process driven, and in some cases, less effective than informal mentoring. Study participants also viewed formal mentoring programs as too dependent on the mentor's availability, which tends to be limited since most of the mentors are senior executives.

All of the study participants cited time as the enemy of both formal and informal mentoring relationships, but especially formal relationships surrounded by processes and constraints felt by both mentees and mentors.

My organization has a formal program, but I have never filled out the forms. For some reason I think if you go ahead and look at the list of people, identify a mentor, fill out the forms and discuss how often we should meet and blah, blah, blah. It is too much like a task. I am sure the relationship will become like 'let's just talk about 10 minutes' and that

is it. I think choosing a mentor naturally... makes it easier, less of a project or task. (Participant 3)

When you make things too formal...it is hard. Sometimes if you make things a little less formal it makes things easier. If you brand someone as a formal mentor it is more responsibility for that person. Informal mentoring is more frequent than the formal one where you have to fill out forms, identify a potential mentor, contact them, and on a scheduled basis talk to them. That is a bit more rigid. I do actually have two or three people I would call mentors and there is nothing formal about it. (Participant 2)

I have been a mentee in both types of mentoring (informal and formal) and I think the informal type was more to my style. (Participant 1)

I have not worked in a single company that had a formal mentoring program. I have worked in very large organizations with a lot of discussion about mentoring, but none had a formal program. My experiences have been largely informal. (Participant 6)

My (formal) mentoring experience was a little bit tough because the senior executives' schedules are limited and it was hard for me to reach them at times. We had the initial meeting and then some meetings afterward, but by the end of my first program, my mentor left the organization and they were not able to find another person for me. Another time, I had a mentor but it was hard for me to reach out to them. I reached out in many different ways, but they did not really like to reach out to me. (Participant 7)

There is a formal process and you can sign up for a mentor. There are no guidelines and it is up to the mentee to keep the relationship going. I signed up for it, but there were not a lot of people (mentors) doing it. You have to personally select people and latch on to them. I have a mentor that I personally selected about 3 or 4 years ago. (Participant 5)

Who are the Mentors?

Bahniuk and Hill (1998) indicated that “regardless of the race or gender of the mentee, white males are the most frequent mentors in organizations” (p. 4). They suggested that in many organizations, same-race mentoring predominates due to complications and taboos and while, “white mentees virtually have no mentors outside of their race, black mentees form the majority of their developmental relationships with whites” (Bahniuk & Hill, p. 4). The present study seems to support some of Bahniuk and Hill’s premises, but not all. While the interviews revealed predominance of Caucasian mentors, study participants also have had African American mentors. The women indicated that their mentors were usually senior executives like vice presidents whether inside or outside of their organizations.

My mentor is a vice president. I think she has been here 15 years and she was the first or second woman manager. I actually sought out an African American female who was a vice president, but she was leaving the company and recommended the woman who is my current mentor. Even though she is not African American, the same things that are

going on in my head are going on in hers. This actually helped me because I learned to go out of my comfort zone. (Participant 5)

The person who mentored me was the head of the organization. He is Caucasian.” (Participant 6)

My mentors are all executives in senior positions who have been with the company between 17 and 25 years. My mentors are two males and one female. One male mentor is African American, but the other two are Caucasian. (Participant 3)

I have had one male and one female mentor and they were both white. (Participant 1)

Four of my mentors were women and one was a male. They are Caucasians. There are no Asian senior executives in my location. (Participant 7)

God is my mentor. Maybe it was not a wise thing that I did not have a ‘flesh and bone’ mentor. I wish I did. I need someone who I can learn from to be my mentor. My standards for a mentor may have been too high. I just talk to God a lot. Things were not always easy for me. If I had a person as a mentor, there might have been situations where someone could have spoken on my behalf. (Participant 4)

Does Race Matter?

Not having a same race mentor did not seem to matter to most of the participants in the study. It seemed that the senior leadership in the participants’ organizations was comprised of largely Caucasian men, with an occasional woman. While bothersome to some, this was accepted as reality and did not seem to have an impact on the women’s desire to progress in their careers or commitment to their organizations.

I think race does matter...it matters a bit more than gender. I have observed that the African American affinity group here is very tight. I noticed that there is a very strong mentoring environment. If you have a problem you can talk to someone. I do not know that there is something similar for Caucasians. (Participant 3)

There are only three of ‘us’ in the whole company of 7,000 employees: African American women in management and I am a supervisor. (Participant 5)

There are no Asians at the senior executive level in my location. It is very hard to find Asian leaders here. The Chinese people can run a country, but they cannot be leaders here. That does not make sense. (Participant 7)

When we walk into a room, the first thing we do is look around and make a quick assessment of who is there to see if anybody else looks like us. If we do not see anybody, we have to figure out where we fit in and if we are being heard or taken seriously. I do not think white people do that. They just walk in and it is a room. (Participant 1)

Are There Differences Between Men and Women Mentors?

The opinions of the study participants indicated that there is a difference between male and female mentors, but they showed no strong indication of preference for either gender. However, the study participants did relate their experiences with both to point out perceived differences.

Sometimes people will say that mentoring is harder with women or even some women have issues with women in power...especially African American women. I wonder how do you get past that because as times change and we take on these positions, there will be more women of color in powerful positions and how do you work with them and not against them? There are a lot of influential African American women. It could be that we have not been in leadership positions as long and our positions seem tentative. (Participant 1)

I feel that women are a little bit easier to talk to sometimes. Males are more like A-B-C-D. A woman may take a more personal approach to mentoring. I think that women are just as influential as men, but in a different way. I think men may be more willing to mentor than women because I think women have a certain sense of insecurity unless they are extremely secure in their positions. Men characteristically have more secure positions. (Participant 2)

Initially I thought women would be the best mentors, but I cannot differentiate. I do think that women can be influential mentors, but you can learn a lot from male mentors because you operate in their environment. They know the ins and outs better than anyone else, so you can leverage that. (Participant 3)

I think that women are probably the best mentors. However, I have observed that most women, as good as they would like to be, may not be empowered to do what they need to do for their mentees. (Participant 4)

It is kind of hard to say. I think women are good mentors in general because you need the caring aspect. I am an emotional person, but I do not want a mentor who is too emotional. We can be good mentors... it just depends on the person you are talking to. I think women can be influential based on the opportunities they have been given and what they do with the opportunities. (Participant 5)

There are definitely some differences. Women attempt to discuss more... I would tend to say they are more apt to find out more about you and share their experiences and struggles of being a woman. My male mentor tends to be straight to the point... no dancing around. Men give you the overall picture. We have had great discussions, but he is more business related. It is not that women are not business oriented, but they like to take time to know you better. Both have their good points. (Participant 7)

Support from Mentors

What type of support do minority women leaders receive through formal or informal mentoring relationships? The women in the study found that having a mentor who was not their manager provided more openness and the ability to discuss topics and have conversations that might not be feasible with a manager. As one participant pointed out, “There are some ideas that you cannot share with your current manager or your department and that do not really give you too much growth in other sections” (Participant 7).

The participants also found value in the advice and support that their mentors provided on introductions, office politics, cultural, and gender issues. The support that study participants received from their mentors included teaching and advising, along with introductions to people and organizations which served to boost mentee visibility and put them in positions where they were noticed. Gouillart and Kelly (1995) maintained that of all the forms of personal development, none is more effective than learning on the job under the guidance of a mentor, “therefore assigning high caliber individuals to mentor-guided life-forming projects remains the most effective way of accelerating individual development” (p. 430).

Counseling/Advice

Regarding receiving counseling or advice from mentors, this is what the participants had to say:

The first time I used my mentor was when I got my first manager’s survey (a multi-rater assessment). I was so upset because I got some negative feedback. I thought I was supposed to get 100%, but she explained to me that I should not take these kinds of things personally and that I still had a good survey. I used to take things very personally. (Participant 5)

I learned good mentoring skills from a mentor early in my career. He and I sat down at lunch and he said, ‘here’s what I will do for you if this is what you want’. He laid out a mentoring program for me and I said I want it. (Participant 6)

My supervisor is very helpful. I can always count on her to push me up to the next level. She will always find time for me if I need help. If I go to her, I look for guidance and suggestions. You cannot go talk to your mentor with no ideas. Basically, you go to talk to bounce ideas to see if there is some improvement or certain solutions. (Participant 2)

An African American mentor coaches me on how to navigate through corporate America. My parents are from Senegal and I grew up in France, so I knew very little about American culture. Through my other mentor, I have learned to be more collaborative and more patient and to try to integrate different points of view, even the ones that initially do not seem rational to me. He is quite blunt and will come out and tell me after meetings that this is how I should address specific groups and these are the considerations I have to take into account. I hope I have improved (he told me that I have), but he cannot advise me on cultural issues because he is Caucasian and we do not see eye-to-eye on certain things. (Participant 3)

I believe that your mentor is someone from whom you would seek guidance and I need someone to tell me or guide me in a direction. I just talk to God a lot. I feel like the world of information technology can be a wilderness and you are navigating through a lot of things and you really do not know what the outcome is going to be. I have learned to totally depend on God. (Participant 4)

Protection

An African American participant in the study, who was a former corporate vice president, reflected on an experience when her mentor interceded on her behalf when she was being excluded:

Basically the person (a Caucasian male) did not acknowledge me, although we had to work together. He did not return phone calls and was generally uncooperative. My mentor went to him and demanded that he apologize to me and strongly suggested that he started cooperating. Then I was able to get my work done. (Participant 6)

Visibility/Sponsorship

When asked regarding visibility and sponsorship from mentors, the participants' comments were as follows:

My mentor took me with him to meetings when we had to design and develop new things. He even developed tests for me to take before he would let me go into the room with senior management. I practiced and prepared to take the tests. My mentor arranged for me to meet all of the division presidents and tour the field where I learned the business so I could talk the business with white males. That gave me an edge. (Participant 6)

My mentor suggested things I should do or organizations to become involved with. I received a lot of support with introductions to people and key organizations and I was able to show my stuff in front of other people that maybe in the course of my regular job I would not have been exposed to. I was able to get a bigger picture and bigger assignments. This was very helpful to my career. I went on to become president of a mentoring organization. I wished I had the same opportunity in my other positions. (Participant 1)

I got sponsored by a couple of people, which is very nice because you usually get one and if you have two or three who submit your name, it is a big plus. (Participant 3)

My mentor wrote a letter of recommendation when I applied for another position. I did not get the job though. When we first started she said she was more than willing to get me into meetings and help me meet people and she has done that. I am still learning that even though you shake hands and go to lunch it does not fully open doors for you. It helps push them open, but you have to do some work yourself. (Participant 5)

Right now I am working on an Asian leadership conference where I work with other companies. Our president and chairman are going to attend along with other Fortune 100 companies. I was recommended by someone who is not my mentor, but who wanted to give me a chance to do this. (Participant 7)

Friendship

Reflecting on the role of friendship in the mentoring relationship, these were the participants' comments:

My mentor and I would do periodic calls and if we happened to be in the same city, we would meet for lunch or dinner. Although this was a formal program, he was very instrumental in my career development and this resulted in a lot of good things for me and the organization. Our relationship bonded him to the organization and us to each other. He was good at guiding and giving me counsel. I will send him an e-mail occasionally. (Participant 1)

In one company, the black senior vice president did not really have time to mentor me, but she garnered a lot of respect for my abilities and she became a kind of mentor by giving me advice. We continued the relationship when she left the company and she and I are friends to this day. (Participant 6)

Mentees Becoming Mentors

Do minority women who have been mentored mentor others? Maxwell (2005; as cited by Brown, 2005) emphasized the importance of leaders developing other potential leaders through mentorship by arguing that there is no success without a successor. Vincent and Seymour (1995) conducted a study to compare the demographics of mentors and non-mentors and developed a profile of a typical mentor. Their research showed that senior corporate women have proven surprisingly reluctant to take on mentoring roles. With the exception of one participant, the women who participated in the study said that they have mentored or are mentoring others both formally and informally.

In informal mentoring, researchers have found that mentors or mentees may choose each other because of similar goals and interests. Some study participants indicated that they had chosen mentors or that they had been chosen as mentors based on similarities such as graduating from the same school, similar industry, professional associations, and race. Most of the relationships were informal and study participants claimed that they had also been approached by others of differing race and gender who sought advice and counsel.

One study participant hesitated to be considered a formal mentor because she said that "I would really want to be a good mentor and I would if asked, but I really do not want to unless I know I have the time and energy to do it. If I sign up to do it, I would really try to do my best" (Participant 2).

Discussion

Mentoring has been heralded as essential to business success and as an invaluable resource to help women overcome obstacles in the workplace. Over the last few decades, mentoring relationships became especially important for women and minorities who have been traditionally denied contacts enjoyed by Caucasian men (Gibson, Tesone, & Buchalski, 2000). With the exception of one individual, the mentoring experiences of the women interviewed for this study converge in several ways. Their mentors were senior executives; they generally preferred informal mentoring relationships; and all have had one or more Caucasian mentor. The research found no difference in preferences with respect to age or ethnicity or a preference for mentors based on race or gender. Although both Chinese participants indicated additional cultural barriers that gave false impressions of their abilities, they adapted quickly to their environments through observations. The African women were dynamically different. While they were from different countries originally, I expected to discover some commonalities in their mentoring experiences, but since one claimed God as her mentor, it was difficult to synchronize their experiences.

The career and psychosocial functions of the mentoring experience were consistent across age and ethnic background, although an analysis of one participant's interview revealed a higher incidence of career functions than others. The participant who had not been mentored as defined in this research understood the value of mentoring and noted some mentoring needs in line with Kram's (1985) research that would have been helpful to her.

Conclusion

Minority women leaders may not suffer from the lack of mentoring, but it is obvious that there is a dearth of same-race role models with whom they can identify. What is also relevant to the research of the career success of women of color is the organizational culture into which their success is embedded, often identified by relationship factors such as the presence of mentors and role models as being vital (Roan & Rooney, 2006). Absence of access to such resources has been identified as inhibiting women's career development (Adler et al., 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1990; Smeltzer & Fann, 1989; Travers & Pemberton, 1997).

The women agreed that it was not easy for them in corporate America and overall, they believed that mentoring was useful. Among the things they would have liked to see in the mentoring of minority women, was the ability to provide actionable feedback and not just have a program for meeting and gathering to keep them quiet. They also believed that the process and structure of formal mentoring programs needed to change to something more proactive that would foster continual activity with a quasi-structured program. This study shows that minority women leaders are engaged in informal and/or formal mentoring relationships as mentees, so this defies the research that proposes that minority women as a whole suffer from lack of mentoring. Could there be other reasons for the absence of minority women leaders in the top tier? Minority women leaders have been persistent in their career growth although there are few role models in senior level positions. "I know minority women who have made it to top level roles, but it is tough and they have suffered. These women have said the same thing I am saying and that is you cannot fold under the pressure" (Participant 6).

According to study participants, minority women have to become more focused and open in their interactions with other minority women for alignment and support for their mutual development.

I think minority women do not see other minority women as a means to get them to where they need to go, so they do not align themselves with them. I am not saying it is good or bad, it is survival. (Participant 6)

As mentors we can do much better. You tend to gravitate to people who are similar to yourself and it is good in that way, but sometimes you can learn things from other people who are different from you. (Participant 7)

Sometimes women have issues with women that have power, especially women of color in their same race. (Participant 1)

I think to be a good mentor you have to be well-rounded. I have met some women who make a lot of money and they were very narrow-minded. Sometimes I do not think people like to (mentor) since they did not come from the same background as you. (Participant 5)

Implications for Organizations

Minority women leaders may thrive better in informal mentoring relationships rather than through formal ones. While the careers of the women in the study may have benefited from formal mentoring programs, these programs may not provide access to mentors that they would naturally select. “Willing mentors may not know about the program or be afraid to commit to a formal program,” one participant commented.

Senior executives may seem like ideal mentors, but it is no secret that the very nature of their jobs may limit the time they are able to spend in effective mentoring relationships. There may also not be enough willing and available senior executive mentors to go around. In formal programs, organizations should look beyond senior executives for mentors. Affinity groups seem to provide options for informal mentoring opportunities. Organizations can take advantage of the social networking that takes place in these groups to recruit potential mentors and promote the concept of mentoring.

The race and gender of their mentors are not “deal breakers” for the women who participated in the study and neither do they hesitate to mentor others of different gender and races on an informal or formal basis. This “trickle-down” effect can help individual development, support diversity strategies, help retain talent, and subsequently support organizational development.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is the absence of a greater variety of racially diverse women. Hispanic and Native American women are not represented and the Asian women are both Chinese. This may limit the ability to generalize the study across race. The study could be stronger with more racial representation.

Suggestions for Further Research

Further research is needed to compare the experiences of minority women leaders to Caucasian women leaders in order to assess differences and similarities. It is also recommended that mentoring experiences of minority women at entry and mid-levels be explored. Further research is also needed to identify the practices of mentors that contribute to fulfilling the career and psychosocial needs of mentees and in particular minority women leaders. Additional research is also needed to compare the prevalent mentoring practices in informal and formal relationships and the impact on individual, career, and organizational development.

About the Author

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Appendix A

Interview Questions

Semi-structured interview questions were drawn from the literature and categorized by behavior and experience, opinions, feelings, what the participants have seen or heard, participant knowledge, and individual demographics.

- What is mentoring?
- Do you think your organization encourages mentoring?
- Are you aware of any formal mentoring programs in your organization?
- Do you currently or have you participated in a formal mentoring program?
- Were you a mentor or mentee?
- How did you become part of the program?
- What are the eligibility requirements for formal mentoring at your company?
- How did you find out about the program?
- Why did you decide to participate?
- Have you had a mentor outside of a formal mentoring program?
- What was your mentor's job/position?
- Describe the mentoring relationship?
- What was good about your mentoring experience?
- What would you have liked to change?
- What type of support did you receive from your mentor?
- What was the impact of mentoring on your career development?
- How did you feel about the impact of mentoring on your career?
- How have your mentors supported your development and/or career movement?
- What type of projects did you work on that can be attributed to sponsorship or exposure from your mentor?
- What do you think about women as mentors?
- Do you think women mentors are viewed as influential as men?
- Tell me what I would see if I looked at senior management at your company
- Social networking: If I were a fly on the wall at your organization, what social experiences would I observe you having in a typical week?
- What would you like to see happen with mentoring for women at your company?

Appendix B

Participant Profiles

1. African American participant, age 54. She is a former vice president in the marketing information industry. She held that position for a year and a half. Prior to that, she was a vice president in the cable industry for 20 year. She recently became an entrepreneur.
2. Chinese American participant, age 45. She is a corporate credit manager in the financial industry. She has been with her current company for more than 11 years, but in her current position for one year.
3. African participant originally from Senegal, but grew up in France, age late 30s. She is a senior manager in the financial industry. She has been with her current company for two and a half years. She has a background in construction and civil engineering.
4. African participant originally from Nigeria, age 51. She is a director of technology, training and staff development in the education industry. She has been in her current job approximately one year. She was also an information technology director in her previous position, where she had been employed for 14 years. She does not have a mentor.
5. African American participant, age 31. She is a sales supervisor in the technology industry and has been in her current position for five years. She has been with the company for eight and a half years.
6. African American participants, age 58. She worked as a senior vice president in the financial industry and was in this position for 3 years. She has been a practitioner for 36 years.
7. Chinese American participant, age 39. She is an assistant vice president in the financial industry and has been with the company close to 10 years. She has been in her current position less than one year.

Appendix C

Informed Consent Protocol

An informed consent protocol was developed to inform participants of the purpose of collecting information and how it would be used. Participants were provided with an e-mail prior to the interview and told at the start of the conversation what the interview would entail and how responses would be handled (Patton 2002).

You are invited to participate in a qualitative research study about the formal and informal mentoring experiences of women of color leaders in U.S. workplaces. If you decide to participate, between June 23 and July 28 you will be interviewed by phone or in person in a process that should take approximately 30-45 minutes.

The interview will be recorded and transcribed to ensure accuracy. The data will be analyzed and reported primarily as an educational assignment for a grade, but already this topic is gathering interest from business professionals. No names or company affiliations will be identified in the report, and certain demographics may be collected during the interview such as age, race, and occupation. Those demographics will appear in the report.

This research is important because while there is abundant research that validates the virtues of mentoring as an attribute of effective leadership, there is little that specifically focuses upon the formal and informal mentoring experiences of women of color in leadership positions in the U.S. Not only will this study add to the body of knowledge on women of color and mentoring in the business environment but it can be helpful to organizations that are committed to building the presence and increasing retention of women of color in leadership positions.



An Examination of Self-Leadership

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The increased competition that some organizations face requires change from traditional management to shared leadership. Employees who possess personal attributes such as need for autonomy and general self-efficacy may be more likely to take responsibility and work effectively in empowered environments. These employees may also be more likely to make efforts to improve their individual performance, such as making use of self-leadership strategies. This study examines individual differences that may influence the use of self-leadership strategies. The results of the study show a positive significant relationship between general self-efficacy and use of natural reward, constructive thought, and general self-leadership skills. The study finds women are more likely than men to use behavior-focused, natural reward, constructive thought, and general self-leadership skills.

The increased competition that some organizations face requires a change from traditional management of employees with command-and-control leadership to shared leadership among employees in the organization (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Pearce, 2007). Rather than top-down structures where leaders make decisions, some contemporary organizations need employees to take more responsibility and participate in decision making (Costello, Brunner & Hasty, 2002). These changing conditions require leaders who are capable of helping employees become self-leaders and followers with interest in sharing leadership responsibility (Stewart, Manz & Sims, 1999).

Employees who possess personal attributes such as need for autonomy and general self-efficacy may be more likely to take responsibility, participate in decision making, and practice self-leadership strategies. Previous research by Yun, Cox, and Sims (2006) has shown that individuals differ in the way they respond to opportunities to share leadership responsibility. People with need for autonomy and general self-efficacy may be more likely to view themselves as capable and expect success (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Shelton, 1990; Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, &

Rogers, 1982; Yun et al.). They may also desire control and influence over their work and may want to make decisions related to their jobs (Yun et al.). Individuals with high general self-efficacy may also be more likely to believe they can accomplish what they want to accomplish (Maddux, 2002). Individuals characterized as self-leaders direct their own efforts, persist in situations of adversity, personally motivate themselves, and continually renew thinking patterns (Manz & Sims, 1989).

Self-leaders may be more likely to engage in innovative behaviors in the workplace (Carmeli, Meitar, & Weisberg, 2006), and self-leadership represents a self-influence process that involves self-direction and self-motivation (DiLiello & Houghton, 2006; Manz & Neck, 2004). Individuals who use self-leadership strategies enhance their personal effectiveness through behavior-focused, natural reward and constructive thought strategies (Manz & Neck; Manz & Sims, 2001; Prussia, Anderson, & Manz, 1998). Behavior-focused strategies help facilitate behavior management. Natural reward strategies helps individuals shape perceptions and build enjoyable aspects into activities and constructive thought strategies create positive ways of thinking (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

In environments where employees are encouraged to act on their own behalf and take greater control (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Staples, 1990; Prussia et al., 1998), the strategies of self-leadership may be useful for achieving the necessary self-direction and self-motivation to perform well (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Therefore, practitioners and researchers alike may benefit from gaining insight about what influences the use of self-leadership strategies. The present study attempts to answer one overarching research question: Are there individual differences that influence the likelihood that a person will use self-leadership strategies?

In this empirical study, this research question is examined with a sample of graduate students from a small, liberal arts university in the Midwest. Previous self-leadership studies have focused on theoretical propositions regarding autonomous action and general self-efficacy on self-leadership (e.g., DiLiello & Houghton, 2006; Manz, 1986; Markham & Markham, 1995; Neck & Houghton, 2006). No previous study has examined the influence of general self-efficacy on self-leadership; although, an association between self-leadership and general self-efficacy is proposed conceptually (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Williams, 1997). The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between need for autonomy and general self-efficacy on self-leadership, to determine the extent to which these individual differences influence the use of self-leadership strategies. A model of the hypothesized relationship among need for autonomy, general self-efficacy and self-leadership strategies is shown in Figure 1.

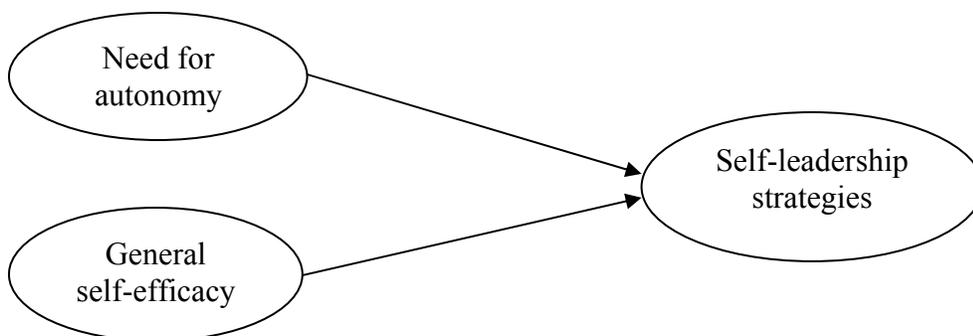


Figure 1. Model of hypothesized relationship among need for autonomy, general self-efficacy, and self-leadership strategies.

Model Development

Are there individual differences that influence the likelihood a person will use self-leadership strategies? Answering this research question is the focus of this study. This empirical study tests the relationship between need for autonomy and general self-efficacy on self-leadership.

Self-Leadership

The theoretical foundation of self-leadership is built upon social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997) explains how people can influence their own cognition, motivation, and behavior (Yun et al., 2006). Social cognitive theory explains that people and their environment interact continually (Satterfield & Davidson, 2000) and behavioral consequences serve as sources of information and motivation (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 2001). Self-leadership explains how self-leaders think and how they behave according to cognitive, motivational, and behavioral strategies (Kraft, 1998; Prussia et al., 1998; Yun et al., 2006).

The three strategies associated with self-leadership include behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies (Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Prussia et al., 1998). Behavior-focused strategies heighten self-awareness and facilitate personal behavioral management through methods such as self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment, self-observation, and self-cueing (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Natural reward strategies help people build pleasant and enjoyable features into their activities so that the tasks themselves become naturally rewarding (e.g., Manz & Neck, 2004). Natural reward strategies increase intrinsic motivation, self-determination, and feelings of competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Constructive thought strategies create positive habitual ways of thinking and negative destructive self-talk is replaced by optimistic self-talk (Seligman, 1991; Neck & Houghton, 2006). Constructive thought strategies can change thinking patterns (Prussia et al., 1998) and positively impact outcome expectations (Boss & Sims, 2008).

Need for Autonomy

Need for autonomy influences self-leadership and helps motivate autonomous action (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Edmunds, Ntoumanis & Duda, 2006; Yun et al., 2006) as explained by the self-determination theory (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). Self-determination theory explains that the degree of a person's self-motivation is determined by the extent to which his or her behavior or actions are autonomous or controlled (Deci & Ryan, 2000). External forces that pressure an individual to engage in particular behaviors describe controlled actions, whereas freely initiated behaviors that emanate from within a person explain autonomous actions (Edmunds et al., 2006; Reeve, 2002).

Deci and Ryan (1985) explained that autonomously-oriented individuals make choices using the information available to them and they regulate themselves as they pursue self-selected goals. Self-determined choices are considered motivational behaviors when the choice of action flows freely, intuitively, and spontaneously (Cziksztentmihalyi, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). When constraints exist or situations in the environment limit choices, autonomously-oriented people may make a "choiceful accommodation" (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In this way, the limitation is

transformed into another piece of information that is used in making decisions (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In other words, the rejected options are fully considered and the person experiences freedom to select among all the choices available. Deci and Ryan (1985) explained autonomous action involves making flexible, genuine choices and genuine choice means truly entertaining more than one option.

People have a natural need for autonomy as well as a natural need to freely choose their behaviors (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1975; Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, 2007). In essence, human agency, rationality, and autonomy are conceptually linked in a theory of human need (Tao, 2004). Mill (1998) promoted the idea that people should be free to make choices. Kant (1959) indicated that self-governance and self-legislation are connected with morality; therefore, the capacity to exert control through choice is a foundational requirement of respect for persons (Tao). "Judgment is given to men that they use it" (Mill, 1998, p. 23).

The need for autonomy refers to a person's desire to engage in activities of his or her choosing (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Edmunds et al., 2006). People with a desire or predisposition to take responsibility, act independently, and make decisions about their job have been characterized as employees with a high need for autonomy (Kupfer, 1990; Mathis & Jackson, 2006; Yun et al., 2006). Need for autonomy explains expectations about making independent choices, participating in the decision process (Yun et al.), taking autonomous action, and choosing for oneself both what to think and what to do (Kupfer, 1990).

The need for autonomy on the job refers to the extent to which individuals desire freedom and discretion in their work (Mathis & Jackson, 2006). Research studies support the proposition that employees with high need for autonomy desire to make independent choices and participate in decision making (Harrell & Alpert, 1979; Yun et al., 2006). Making independent choices and participating in decision-making have been found to represent characteristics of educated, ambitious people who want to be managers and leaders (Harrell & Alpert). Yun et al. tested the interaction between need for autonomy on self-leadership, and they found a positive relationship between these constructs; therefore, this study proposes a positive relationship exists between need for autonomy and use of self-leadership strategies.

H₁: There will be a positive relationship between need for autonomy and use of self-leadership strategies.

General Self-Efficacy

Social cognitive theory provides insight regarding self-efficacy and explains where self-efficacy comes from and how it develops (Maddux, 2002). The theory postulates people are active shapers of their environment, not merely passive reactors (Bandura, 1986, Barone, Maddux, & Snyder, 1997). Self-efficacy beliefs develop over time and through experiences (Maddux, 2002). Self-efficacy refers to beliefs about personal capability to produce a desired effect by individual action (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy helps explain the behaviors people will engage, how long they will persist, and how much effort they will expend to reach their goals (Satterfield & Davidson, 2000). People with high self-efficacy may be more likely to overcome difficulties through self-initiated change, more likely to be goal-directed and more persistent in the achievement of that goal (Maddux, 2002). In essence, the self-assessments that people make

in determining personal capacity to perform refer to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1991; Gist, 1987; Neck & Houghton, 2006).

People with general self-efficacy tend to deal more effectively with difficulties and persist in the face of failure (Cordery & Burr, 2005; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Judge & Bono, 2001). They may also be more confident in their fundamental abilities to cope, perform, and be successful (Cordery & Burr; Judge & Bono). DeRue and Morgeson (2007) posited that individuals with general self-efficacy attribute success to ability and failure to insufficient effort. Chen, Gully, and Eden (2004) indicated that general self-efficacy is a motivational belief or judgment about personal capabilities that influences personal action in a wide variety of situations.

General self-efficacy refers to an accumulation of life successes that have emerged as a result of previous experience (Bandura, 1977; Chen et al., 2001). Rather than a malleable state-like belief, general self-efficacy represents a stable, trait-like belief (Chen et al., 2004). Various self-leadership studies identify specific task self-efficacy as a construct influential in the use of self-leadership strategies (e.g., Prussia et al., 1998). Yet, Neck and Houghton (2006) recommended that researchers should investigate the relationship between self-leadership and general self-efficacy. Previous research studies have also suggested a theoretical relationship exists between general self-efficacy and self-leadership (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Williams, 1997). Conceptually, general self-efficacy may influence self-leadership (Neck & Houghton, 2006). The present study empirically tests the relationship between general self-efficacy and self-leadership to determine if general self-efficacy beliefs influence the use self-leadership strategies.

H₂: There will be a positive relationship between general self-efficacy and self-leadership.

Method

Sample

Graduate students ($N = 124$) enrolled in summer courses at a small, liberal arts university in the Midwest were invited to participate in the study. Participation was voluntary but encouraged and responses were anonymous and confidential. The actual sample consisted of 121 graduate students representing a 97.5% participation rate. The average age of participants was approximately 36 years ($SD = 9.67$), and the sample was made up of 59.5% females and 40.5% males. The average tenure of participants was 6.68 years ($SD = 6.78$) with a range of tenure between 1 and 30 years.

Procedures

A single stage sampling procedure was utilized for drawing the convenience sample from the population of interest (Creswell, 2003). A questionnaire was used for collecting data from graduate students. Permission was obtained from graduate faculty for administering the survey and students received informed consent information along with procedures for the study. An attempt was made to increase the likelihood of obtaining the true score on need for autonomy, general self-efficacy, and self-leadership strategies rather than scores with systematic error by

reducing evaluation apprehension (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Respondents were assured of anonymity, and they were informed that there was no right or wrong answers (Podsakoff et al.). The questionnaires were administered in a group setting at the start of class sessions and respondents took approximately 15 minutes to complete the survey.

The study took place in face-to-face classrooms among graduate students enrolled in summer courses at a small, liberal arts university located in the Midwest. A questionnaire with closed-ended statements was administered in paper-and-pencil format. The survey included closed-ended statements with fixed responses. Responses were obtained to measure need for autonomy (Yun et al., 2006), general self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2001), and self-leadership (Houghton & Neck, 2002). Self-report information was also gathered from respondents regarding gender, age, and tenure. In order to address issues of self-report bias, Podsakoff and Organ (1986) suggested that researchers may reorder the items on the questionnaire so the criterion variable follows the independent variables. This scale reordering procedure was intentional as an attempt to reduce self-report bias, because all the variables in the study were obtained from the same respondents using a single survey.

Measures

Self-leadership strategies. The criterion or dependent variables in the study include the three self-leadership strategies namely behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies, along with an overall measure of general self-leadership. The dependent variables were measured using the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSLQ) developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). There are 35 item statements in the self-leadership scale measuring behavior-focused, natural reward, and cognitive thought strategies. Self-leadership strategies were scored using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 (*not at all accurate*), 2 (*somewhat accurate*), 3 (*a little accurate*), 4 (*mostly accurate*), and 5 (*completely accurate*). There are nine subscales in the RSLQ. Behavior-focused self-leadership can be measured with five subscales identified as self-goal setting (5 items), self-reward (3 items), self-punishment (4 items), self-observation (4 items), and self-cueing (2 items). Natural reward self-leadership is measured with a single 5-item scale. Constructive thought self-leadership is measured with three subscales, including visualizing successful performance (5 items), self-talk (3 items), and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (4 items). A single measure of self-leadership was also computed with the average scores of behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought strategies, and this single measure is referred to as general self-leadership.

A sample item statement from the behavior-focused dimension is, "I establish specific goals for my own performance." A sample item statement from the natural reward dimension is, "I find my own favorite way to get things done." A sample item statement from the constructive thought dimension is, "I visualize myself successfully performing a task before I do it." The reliability of the scale was established by Houghton and Neck (2002) in two studies with respondents from two introductory management courses at a large southeastern university, and they reported internal consistency with the coefficient alpha ranging from .74 to .93. For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha was .88 for behavior-focused, .78 for natural reward, .88 for constructive thought, and .93 for general self-leadership. Table 1 displays the self-leadership strategies and Cronbach's alpha for the present study.

Table 1
Self-Leadership Strategies and Cronbach's Alpha (N = 121)

Self-Leadership Strategies	Cronbach's Alpha, α
Behavior-focused	.88
Natural reward	.78
Constructive thought	.88
General self-leadership	.93

Need for autonomy. Need for autonomy was measured with a scale developed by Yun et al. (2006), and the scale measures a person's desire or predisposition to be independent and free of external control. There are three items statements in the scale. Need for autonomy was scored using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 (*definitely not true*), 2 (*not true*), 3 (*neither true nor untrue*), 4 (*true*), and 5 (*definitely true*). A sample statement from the need for autonomy scale is, "In my ideal job I would find solutions to my own problems at work without consulting my supervisor." The scale was used by Yun et al. (2006) in a self-leadership study and they reported the scale to be slightly lower than the desired .70 ($\alpha = .68$). Yun et al. (2006) tested the need for autonomy on self-leadership and found a positive and significant relationship. For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha was .69.

General self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was measured using the New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) scale developed by Chen et al. (2001). There are eight item statements in the general self-efficacy scale that measures an individual's perception of ability to perform across a wide range of situations (Chen et al., 2001; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, & Kern, 2006). General self-efficacy was scored using a 7-point Likert scale with 1 (*strongly agree*), 2 (*somewhat agree*), 3 (*agree*), 4 (*neither agree nor disagree*), 5 (*disagree*), 6 (*somewhat disagree*), and 7 (*strongly disagree*). A sample statement from the general self-efficacy scales is, "In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me." The reliability of the NGSE scale was tested by Chen et al. (2001) with 323 undergraduate students from a large mid-Atlantic university and their study reported internal consistency with the coefficient alpha ranging from .86 to .90. For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Control variables. The participants were selected using a non-random sampling procedure; therefore, the selection process for the study may pose a threat to internal validity (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999). In an effort to strengthen internal validity of the study, gender, age, and tenure were control variables. Participants provided information regarding gender, age, and tenure through self-report when completing the self-administered questionnaire. In a previous study examining the relationship between self-leadership skills and innovation at work, job tenure, age, and gender were controlled and Carmeli et al. (2006) found these control variables significantly contributed to the variance in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .08$; $F = 2.46$, $p = 0.03$).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Responses from the survey were entered into SPSS (Version 15.0) statistical software and were used to compute descriptive statistics. The means and standard deviations are shown in Table 2 for the control, predictor, and criterion variables of the study. Need for autonomy and

self-leadership strategies were measured using a 5-point Likert scale and general self-efficacy was measured using a 7-point Likert scale.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics (N = 121)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Gender ^a	1.41	.49
2. Age	35.58	9.67
3. Tenure	6.68	6.78
4. Need for autonomy	3.98	.67
5. General self-efficacy	6.14	.70
6. Behavior-focused	3.95	.60
7. Natural reward	3.91	.66
8. Constructive thought	3.61	.72
9. General self-leadership	3.76	.56

^aGender was coded 1 for female and 2 for male.

Correlations

A correlation analysis was performed for examining the nature and degree of relationship among the predictor and criterion variables of the study. The results of the Pearson *r* correlation analysis and internal consistencies are shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Correlations and Internal Consistencies (N = 121)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender ^a									
2. Age	.04	-							
3. Tenure	.01	.57**	-						
4. Need for autonomy	.01	.05	.26**	(.69)					
5. General self-efficacy	.00	-.04	.06	.18*	(.90)				
6. Behavior-focused	-.44**	-.11	.03	.03	.17	(.88)			
7. Natural reward	-.39**	-.24	-.10	.06	.38**	.62**	(.78)		
8. Constructive thought	-.29**	.07	.00	.06	.28**	.63**	.44**	(.88)	
9. General self-leadership	-.44**	-.11	-.03	.06	.33**	.88**	.81**	.84**	(.93)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are internal reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) for each measure.

^aGender was coded 1 for female and 2 for male.

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Need for autonomy and self-leadership. There is no correlation between the need for autonomy and general self-leadership (*r* = .06). Neither is there a correlation between need for

autonomy and behavior focused ($r = .03$), natural reward ($r = .06$) nor constructive thought ($r = .06$) self-leadership strategies.

General self-efficacy and self-leadership. There is a positive and significant correlation between general self-efficacy and general self-leadership ($r = .33, p < .01$). A positive but weak and non-significant relationship was found between general self-efficacy and behavior-focused self-leadership strategies ($r = .17$). Positive and significant relationships were found between general self-efficacy and natural reward strategies ($r = .38, p < .01$) and general self-efficacy and constructive thought strategies ($r = .28, p < .01$).

Self-leadership. There is a positive and significant relationship between behavior-focused and natural reward ($r = .62, p < .01$) and behavior-focused and constructive thought leadership strategies ($r = .63, p < .01$). There is also a positive and significant relationship between natural reward and constructive thought self-leadership strategies ($r = .44, p < .01$).

Other correlations. There was a correlation found between age and tenure ($r = .57, p < .01$) and a positive and significant correlation was found between need for autonomy and general self-efficacy ($r = .18, p < .05$). The results of the correlation analysis indicate there is a low correlation between the need for autonomy, general self-efficacy, and general self-leadership scales; therefore, the empirical data suggests these constructs of the model are both theoretically and empirically distinct.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

General self-leadership analysis. Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the contribution of specific theory driven variables in explaining the dependent variables. In order to control for possible confounding influences of extraneous variables, gender, age, and tenure were first entered into the hierarchical procedure and represent Step 1. Need for autonomy and general self-efficacy, the two additional predictor variables, were added in the next step and represent Step 2.

The combination of the variables in Step 2 significantly predicted general self-leadership, $F(5, 118) = 9.85, p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .27$. The beta weights suggest gender ($\beta = -.43, t = -5.49, p < .01$) contributes the most to the explanation of general self-leadership. General self-efficacy ($\beta = .33, t = 4.09, p < .01$) is the next significant contributor to the regression equation. The adjusted R^2 value for Step 1 is .18 indicating 18% of the variance in general self-leadership is explained in model one. The adjusted R^2 for Step 2 is .27 indicating 27% of the variance in self-leadership is explained by model 2. Since the adjusted R^2 value rises from 18% to 27% in model 2, model 2 provides a better explanation of the individual differences influential on general self-leadership. The regression analysis results for general self-leadership are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Hierarchical Regression Analysis - General Self-Leadership (N = 121)

General Self-Leadership	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Gender	-.49	.10	-.43**
Age	-.01	.01	-.11
Tenure	.00	.01	.04
Step 2			
Gender	-.49	.09	-.43**
Age	.00	.01	-.06
Tenure	.00	.01	-.01
Need for autonomy	.01	.07	.02
General self-efficacy	.26	.06	.33**

Note. $R^2 = .20$ for Step 1. Adjusted $R^2 = .27$ for Step 2.

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

Self-leadership strategies. The same hierarchical regression procedures were followed to examine the relationship between the predictor variables on behavior-focused, natural reward and constructive thought self-leadership strategies. When testing behavior-focused self-leadership strategies, gender ($\beta = -.43$, $t = -5.24$, $p < .01$) and general self-efficacy ($\beta = .17$, $t = 2.04$, $p = .04$) significantly contributed to the regression equation, $F(5, 118) = 7.01$, $p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .20$. The hierarchical regression analysis results for variables explaining behavior-focused strategies are shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Hierarchical Regression Analysis - Behavior Focused Self-Leadership (N = 121)

Behavior-Focused	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Gender	-.53	.10	-.43**
Age	-.01	.01	-.16
Tenure	.01	.01	.13
Step 2			
Gender	-.53	.10	-.43**
Age	-.01	.01	-.14
Tenure	.01	.01	.11
Need for autonomy	-.01	.08	-.01
General self-efficacy	.15	.07	.17*

Note. $R^2 = .21$ for Step 1. Adjusted $R^2 = .20$ for Step 2.

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

When testing natural reward strategies, gender ($\beta = -.38, t = -4.87, p < .01$), age ($\beta = -.20, t = -2.08, p = .04$), and general self-efficacy ($\beta = .36, t = 4.58, p < .01$) significantly contributed to the regression equation, $F(5, 118) = 10.96, p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .30$. The results for variables explaining natural reward self-leadership are shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Hierarchical Regression - Natural Reward Self-Leadership (N = 121)

Natural Reward	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Gender	-.50	.11	-.38**
Age	-.02	.01	-.24*
Tenure	.00	.01	.04
Step 2			
Gender	-.50	.10	-.38**
Age	-.01	.01	-.20*
Tenure	.00	.01	-.01
Need for autonomy	.02	.08	.02
General self-efficacy	.34	.07	.36**

Note. $R^2 = .20$ for Step 1. Adjusted $R^2 = .30$ for Step 2.

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

When examining constructive thought strategies, gender ($\beta = -.30, t = -3.46, p < .01$) and general self-efficacy ($\beta = .29, t = 3.30, p < .01$) significantly contributed to the regression equation, $F(5, 118) = 4.88, p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .14$. The hierarchical regression analyses for the variables explaining constructive thought self-leadership are shown in Table 7.

Table 7
Hierarchical Regression Analysis - Constructive Thought Self-Leadership (N = 121)

Constructive Thought	B	SE B	B
Step 1			
Gender	-.43	.13	-.30**
Age	.01	.01	.11
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.06
Step 2			
Gender	-.43	.13	-.30**
Age	.01	.01	.15
Tenure	-.01	.01	-.11
Need for autonomy	.03	.10	.03
General self-efficacy	.30	.09	.29**

Note. $R^2 = .09$ for Step 1. Adjusted $R^2 = .14$ for Step 2.

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

Hypothesis Testing Results

A relationship was not found between need for autonomy and general self-leadership ($r = .06$). Neither was a relationship found between need for autonomy and behavior-focused self-leadership ($r = .03$), natural reward self-leadership ($r = .06$), nor constructive thought self-leadership strategies ($r = .06$); therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

There was a multivariate relationship between general self-efficacy and general self-leadership ($r = .33, p < .01$). A positive and significant relationship was also found between general self-efficacy and natural reward ($r = .38, p < .01$) and constructive thought self-leadership strategies ($r = .28, p < .01$). Since a significant relationship between general self-efficacy and behavior-focused self-leadership was not found ($r = .17$), hypothesis 2 was only partially supported.

The study further examined the relationship between need for autonomy and general self-efficacy on self-leadership including behavior-focused, natural reward, constructive thought, and general self-leadership after controlling for gender, age, and tenure. The results revealed the need for autonomy did not significantly contribute to the general self-leadership, behavior-focused, natural reward, or constructive thought strategies. General self-efficacy did significantly contribute to general self-leadership ($\beta = .33, t = 4.09, p < .01$), behavior-focused ($\beta = .17, t = 2.04, p = .04$), natural reward ($\beta = .36, t = 4.58, p < .01$), and constructive thought self-leadership strategies ($\beta = .29, t = 3.30, p < .01$).

Additional Analysis

The data of the present study revealed that there were differences in the general self-leadership scores between females and males in the study sample. The average general self-leadership score for females was 3.96 ($SD = .43$), and the average general self-leadership score for males was 3.46 ($SD = .59$). In an independent samples t -test with unequal variances, the analysis showed that the general self-leadership scores for males and females differ significantly, $t(80.98) = 4.99, p < .01$. This study found that women are more likely than men to use general self-leadership strategies.

The study also found that women are more likely than men to use behavior-focused, $t(85.48) = 5.04, p < .01$, natural reward, $t(80.97) = 4.35, p < .01$, and constructive thought self-leadership strategies, $t(84.45) = 3.13, p < .01$. This analysis revealed that there were differences in the general self-leadership, behavior-focused, natural reward, and constructive thought self-leadership scores of men and women in the study sample, and these differences were significant.

Discussion and Future Research

The results of this study indicated that a positive and significant relationship existed between general self-efficacy and natural reward, constructive thought, and general self-leadership strategies. General self-efficacy represents stable, trait-like beliefs (DeRue & Morgeson, 2007), and various experiences of failures or successes in different situations may help to develop these generalized beliefs (Bosscher & Smit, 1998). Natural reward strategies explain intrinsic motivation and how individuals motivate themselves by building enjoyable aspects into their activities (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Constructive thought strategies involve positive ways of thinking (Neck & Houghton; Seligman, 1991). Strong self-leaders with high

general self-efficacy may motivate themselves and use positive thinking to reframe experiences so they are better equipped to handle organizational challenges (Jones & Kriflick, 2005).

Social learning theory posits that people influence their own cognition, motivation, and behaviors (Bandura, 1977, 1997; Yun et al., 2006). For the respondents in this study, the self-leadership strategies associated with cognition and motivation were associated with general self-efficacy. General self-efficacy significantly predicts both natural reward strategies associated with motivation and constructive thought strategies associated with cognitive processes. Future researchers may consider whether state-like self-efficacy beliefs would be more likely to influence behavior-focused self-leadership strategies, whereas trait-like general self-efficacy beliefs may be more likely to influence the use of natural reward and constructive thought self-leadership strategies.

The correlation analysis revealed a weak association between general self-efficacy and behavior-focused strategies ($r = .17$). Only after controlling for gender, age, and tenure did general self-efficacy make a contribution to behavior-focused self-leadership. After controlling for gender, age, and tenure through regression analysis, general self-efficacy significantly contributed to behavior-focused self-leadership ($\beta = .17$, $t = 2.04$, $p = .04$). Wong-McDonald and Gorsuch (2004) found that people who were intrinsically motivated were less likely to use a self-directing style when compared with people who were extrinsically motivated. While externals displayed a more behavior-focused self-directing style, intrinsically motivated people internalized their beliefs and then lived by them (Wong-McDonald & Gorsuch). Future researchers may consider locus of control as another possible predictor variable that may help further explain the individual differences that influence the use of self-leadership strategies.

The results of this study also indicated that there was a significant difference between the self-leadership scores of men and women. The women in the study scored significantly higher than men. Some researchers suggested that women in leadership may possess a gender advantage over men in the workforce due to their more collaborative and generally more empowering approach to leadership (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2003). Others (e.g., Vecchio, 2003) questioned claims of gender advantage and suggested that researchers need to increase objectivity and empirical rigor before making claims about gender advantages in leadership. Nevertheless, differences exist between women and men and women constitute “a growing majority in the workforce” (Furst & Reeves, 2008, p. 373). Based on a meta-analysis, Eagly and Johnson (1990) suggested that gender may influence leadership style because they found women were generally more democratic in their leadership style, while men were more autocratic. A study of gender differences and self-leadership was not the focus of this study, but future researchers may consider an intentional examination of gender on self-leadership. Controlling for gender represented one of the strengths of this study. In each of the regression analyses, gender significantly contributed to the regression equation.

The individual was the unit of analysis for this study and the number of participants needed for the study was considered a priori. Power analysis refers to the determination of sample size before conducting a study (Rubin & Babbie, 1989). A rule of thumb for researchers analyzing data using multiple regression analysis is a 20:1 sample size meaning 20 participants for each independent variable. Using this rule of thumb as a guide, there were five predictor variables (gender, age, tenure, need for autonomy, and general self-efficacy) indicating a sample of 100 would be preferred for this study. The significance level for the study was set at .05 with a power of .80; therefore, the minimum R^2 that could be found statistically significant with a sample of 100 was .12 (Cohen, 1988). For the present study, 121 respondents participated in the

study; therefore, the preferred sample size was exceeded. The sample size represented another strong point or strength of this study.

Limitations of the Study

One potential limitation of the current study was the procedure utilized for selecting participants. Survey respondents were students enrolled in graduate courses during the months of June through August. The sample was not randomly selected. Non-random sampling procedures may threaten internal validity of research studies because there may be unknown confounding variables that influence the participants in the sample (Rubin & Babbie, 1989). Future researchers may be interested in confirming the results of this study with a randomly selected sample.

Another limitation of the study was the collection of the independent and the dependent variables from the same sources using the same method. This raised the issue of common method variance. With this type of research design, the correlation between measures may be attributed to the same-source data rather than a real underlying relationship (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In order to address the issue of common method variance, a Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was conducted by performing an exploratory factor analysis on all the variables of the study. Podsakoff et al. (2003) indicated that this single-factor test is a technique widely used for addressing the issue of common method variance. An examination of the unrotated factor structure of the variables was conducted and the single-factor analysis revealed that no single factor accounted for the majority of the covariance. There were 12 factors that emerged with values greater than one, accounting for 74.28% of the variance in the independent and dependent variables. The first factor accounted for 26.05% of the variance. A single factor did not emerge from the factor analysis and one general factor did not account for the majority of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003); therefore, it did not appear that common method variance represented a problem for this study. Future researchers may attempt to reduce common method variance through research design by collecting data from multiple sources and multiple methods or collecting data from the same subjects at different times (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Conclusion

Changes in the workforce may require some organizations to redefine the work environment (Pascarella, 1984). Some organizations are moving away from top-down, command-and-control leadership to shared leadership (Arnold et al., 2000; Pearce, 2007). Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggested that organizational effectiveness improves when superiors share power and control with subordinates. Yet, sharing power and control requires a change in mindset, relationships and structure in many organizations (Gupta, 2007). These changing environments require employees willing to accept more responsibility and make efforts to improve their individual performance, such as making use of self-leadership strategies.

Organizational environments moving away from traditional management to shared leadership need employees willing to lead themselves. Employees with high general self-efficacy may be more likely to positively impact outcome expectations (Boss & Sims, 2008) and use natural reward and constructive thought self-leadership strategies. The results of this study also

revealed women in this sample were more likely than men to use behavior-focused, natural reward, constructive thought, and general self-leadership strategies.

Spiritual Formation

Self-leadership describes people who take personal responsibility, direct their own efforts, motivate themselves, and renew their thinking patterns (Manz & Sims, 1989). In the Scriptures, Christians are exhorted to develop beyond childish ways while remaining childlike. Childish ways may represent an attitude that waits for others to make decisions rather than venture out and make personal choices. 1 Corinthians 13:11 says, “When I was a child, I used to speak like a child, think like a child, reason like a child; when I became a man, I did away with childish things” (NASB). While some may argue that a childlike stance means letting other people take care of the needs of an organization, Christians know that it can be childish to wait for others rather than to take responsibility. Jesus does not encourage people to remain helpless. Maturity requires that people step out into areas that may be new or unknown with trust in God. Being childlike encourages people to remain open to new possibilities and ask big questions. As people step out and gain new skills, their general self-efficacy may also increase. As general self-efficacy beliefs develop and strengthen, people may be more likely to use self-leadership strategies. Self-leaders may also be more likely to adjust to changing conditions and people with general self-efficacy may be willing to consider new ideas and take new paths. In this way, individuals with general self-efficacy and who use self-leadership strategies may be more willing to follow the Lord into new places. Jean-Pierre de Caussade (1986) stated, “God’s action is forever new. It never retraces its steps, but always marks out new paths” (p. 129).

About the Author

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The Moderating Role of Follower Identification in the Relationship Between Leader and Follower Visionary Leadership

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The findings from this cross-sectional study on 27 corporate employees reveal relationships between leader and follower leadership behaviors and follower identity with the leader. A positive relationship was found between the leaders' follower-centered leadership and followers' follower-centered leadership, and the leaders' capable manager leadership and followers' capable manager leadership. Furthermore, correlations reveal that identification with the leader is positively related to the leaders' self-confidence leadership, leaders' follower-centered leadership, and leaders' capable manager leadership. The results did not support the hypothesized role of follower identification with the leader as a moderator between leader self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership, and the followers' leadership behaviors in the same domains. Visionary leadership and follower identification in research and practice are discussed.

Visionary leadership is a theoretical synthesis of concepts from transformational leadership integrated with elements from motivational, power, and learning theories (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Transformational leadership is the basis from which visionary leadership begins and is expanded by describing leader traits and behaviors within the situational contexts of leading. Visionary leaders' influence is not clearly understood although it is speculated to involve followers' personal identification, resulting from the leader's self-confidence and use of power to benefit the follower. Another way in which visionary leaders are thought to enhance follower identification is by clearly articulating organizational values and beliefs. Then, the leader's behaviors support these principles and the standards and attitudes are then shared consciously throughout the organization. As the follower pursues organizational goals and the visionary leader provides the necessary example and resources to do so, the follower becomes empowered. By empowering the follower to attain shared goals, the follower begins to identify with the leader and organization, thus the espoused values and goals of the leader become self-referential

or self-defining for the follower (Edwards, 2005). As such, visionary leaders are thought to be well-positioned to transform followers into leaders (Sashkin & Sashkin).

Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) found a strong relationship between transformational leadership, followers' identification with the leader and the organization, and indicators of followers' empowerment. Their research showed that transformational leadership behavior was positively related to personal identification with the leader. Moreover, their work suggests that transformational leadership primes relationships between the leader and follower that results in follower interdependence and identification with the leader.

Followers who identify with their leader often do so because they see their leader as embodying the same values and goals as the organization. Essentially, the leader's behaviors are the catalyst for motivating them to achieve the organization's goals (Luhrmann & Eberl, 2007; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). When the follower identifies and internalizes the leader's values and beliefs resulting in action, it is speculated that he or she will develop the same behaviors as the leader (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003).

Visionary leaders have the ability to clearly communicate the organizational vision. These leaders have personal characteristics that create follower self-confidence and trust. They empower their followers by creating an organizational culture that is caring and yet drives high performance (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). This study examines the relationship between leader visionary leadership behaviors and follower visionary leadership behaviors in three specific visionary leadership domains: self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership. It also investigates the extent to which follower identification moderates this relationship.

Research Problem and Question

The aim of this study is to better understand the relationship between three exclusive visionary leadership behaviors of the leader and follower, and the moderating effects of follower identification with the leader on these relationships. To this end, the research will inform the relationship between the leader and follower on self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership (prosocial), and capable manager leadership (organizational capabilities); and the interaction of follower identification with the leader on the relationship of these leader-follower behaviors. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) proposed that these three crucial visionary leadership behaviors (i.e., confidence, prosocial power behaviors, and organizational capabilities) are, "necessary for followers themselves to have the knowledge, skills, and abilities" (p. 129) so that they can work with leaders to achieve organizational goals. Although little is known about how followers develop into leaders (Fairholm, 2004; Sashkin & Sashkin), it is speculated that as followers cultivate these three characteristics of visionary leadership they will become leaders themselves. Thus, the question is posed: Do followers who identify with visionary leaders with these three behavioral characteristics demonstrate the same three visionary leader behavioral attributes themselves? If so, early identification of individuals with these visionary leader characteristics would facilitate the opportunity for further developing their leadership skills.

Theory and Hypotheses

The theoretical underpinning for visionary leadership is set forth by Sashkin and Sashkin (2003). Visionary leadership includes behaviors and characteristics marked by good

communication, trust, caring, creating opportunity (risk), self-confidence, empowerment orientation, vision (as an advanced cognitive ability), and organizational context (culture-building). Moreover, Sashkin and Sashkin proposed that visionary leaders have the ability to construct culture through empowering people to accomplished shared goals, in groups and teams, throughout the organization. This is important in identity building in that individuals who are high identifiers will enact specific behaviors if it coincides with the values, beliefs, and norms enacted by the group or leader (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Thus, visionary leadership has the attributes to promote high identification in the follower and it is speculated that this will result in followers who enact visionary leader behaviors.

While transformational leadership has been found to be related to followers' organizational identification (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001), to date very little research has focused exclusively on variables in visionary leadership and follower identification with the leader. A review of transformational leadership theory and identity theory suggests that such leadership may create followers' identification with the leader through clear communication (Yukl, 2006); trust (Connaughton & Daly, 2004); caring; creating opportunity (Luhmann & Eberl, 2007); and empowerment (Kark et al.). Moreover, it has been suggested that a followers' self-concept is a key mediating variable linking leader influence to follower behavior (Luhmann & Eberl). Interaction between the leader and follower is thought not to merely influence follower's self-concepts, but is a precondition for identity building.

Identification is thought to occur when an individual adopts attitudes, values, and behaviors to be connected with another person, group, or organization (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996). Thus, identification is socially constructed through interaction between leader-follower-organization (Luhmann & Eberl, 2007). The operational definition of personal identification used in this research project is based on Pratt's definition (Edwards, 2005) and modified to be specific to the leader instead of organization, "Identification with the leader occurs when an individual's beliefs about his/her leader become self-referential or self-defining" (p. 215). The main concept in this definition is the integration of beliefs about one's leader into one's identity. Therefore, since visionary leaders have behaviors that are thought to influence the follower, it is expected that followers' visionary leadership behaviors are positively related to leaders' visionary leadership behaviors. Moreover, it is proposed that followers' identification with the leader is related to leaders' visionary leadership behaviors.

H₁: Followers' visionary leadership behaviors, specifically self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership will be positively related to leaders' visionary leadership behaviors, specifically self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership.

H₂: Followers' identification with the leader will be positively related to leaders' self-confident leadership, leaders' follower-centered leadership, and leaders' capable manager leadership.

Visionary leaders have been found to have high levels of self-confidence (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Their self-confidence gives them the ability to act because they believe their actions will yield results. Furthermore, the visionary leader enables the follower to act and to get things done. The self-confidence of visionary leaders permits them to give followers authority to

accomplish their goals, take responsibility, and experience success. This may include allowing the follower to be a leader. Moreover, the leader exhibits credible confidence by demonstrating visible results of success. To this end, visionary leaders provide more opportunity to be successful in their assignments. Therefore, the hypothesis is:

H₃: Followers' identification with the leader will moderate the relationship between the visionary leader's self-confident leadership behaviors and followers' self-confident leadership behaviors. As followers identify with self-confident leaders, followers build personal self-confidence and act in a way that demonstrates visible results, follow-through, and credibility. Therefore, follower identification with the leader will strengthen a positive relationship between leader self-confident leadership behaviors and follower self-confident leadership behaviors.

It has been demonstrated that individuals with high organizational identification also share the organization's goals and are therefore motivated to achieve them for the collective good (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). To a great extent, visionary leaders may facilitate follower's identification because they become teachers to the followers. The leader desires for the follower to succeed and provides the knowledge and resources to accomplish the goals (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). By providing opportunities for followers to use power and influence, the visionary leader teaches the followers how to use power to benefit others and themselves. The visionary leader does not typically give one follower authority, but rather many. They accomplish this by explaining and modeling how to share influence and how to use power for others. This prosocial promotion of individuals for the collective good may be more likely to inspire others to become this type of leader (Haslam et al., 2001; Kark et al., 2003; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). The visionary leader shares power, demonstrating prosocial power for the good of the organization, and empowering the follower to take an active role in achieving the organizational goals. Thus, the next hypothesis is:

H₄: Followers' identification with the leader will moderate the relationship between the visionary leader's follower-centered leadership behaviors and followers' follower-centered leadership behaviors. Follower identification with the leader will strengthen a positive relationship between leaders' follower-centered behaviors and followers' follower-centered behaviors such that followers demonstrate prosocial power (e.g., use their influence to benefit others, help others succeed, and share power and influence with others). This is a result of the leader teaching the follower, by example, the value of shared power to accomplish organizational goals.

Identity theory suggests that an individual will develop and maintain identity based on the "sameness" with a group or individual (Cheney & Tompkins, 1987). The individual manifests this identity in the form of concrete decisions, behaviors, and commitments. It is therefore a social bond, a connection between the leader and follower linking the leader's goals and values to those of the followers that define followers' identity with the leader. Thus, theoretically it is possible for the visionary leader to transfer decisions, behaviors, and commitments to the follower by the follower identifying with the leader's capable manager behaviors. It is likely that the visionary leaders' capable manager behaviors of support, clarity in articulating goals, and provision of required resources will further shape the followers'

leadership skills (Janson, 2008). To this end, it is expected that through follower identification with the visionary leader's capable behaviors the follower will have capable manager behaviors. Therefore, the hypothesis is:

H₅: Followers' identification with the leader will moderate the relationship between leader capable manager leadership behaviors and follower capable manager leadership behaviors. Follower identification with the leader will strengthen a positive relationship between the leader's capable manager behaviors and follower's capable manager behaviors. Visionary leaders act as capable managers in that they teach the follower that their actions can produce results. Followers learn that they can control their actions and outcomes. Visionary leaders, as capable managers, develop and train followers and provide assignments for the follower to accomplish (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Through this mentor-mentored process it is hypothesized that identification with the capable leader will occur and the follower will demonstrate capable leader behavior.

Proposed Model

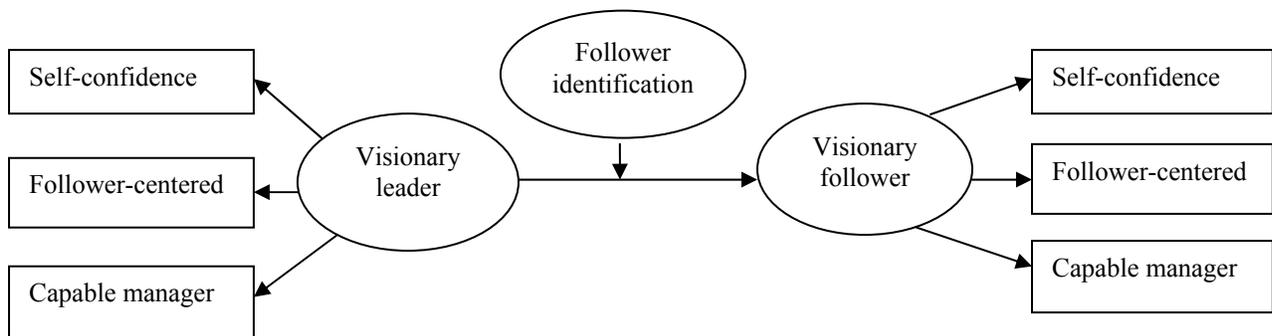


Figure 1. This study model argues that leadership is a process of influence and the effectiveness of the leader is dependent upon his or her ability to change the follower.

The main study variables (see Figure 1) are three constructs thought to be instrumental in transforming followers into leaders (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). These three visionary leadership characteristics are: confidence, follower-centered (prosocial power), and capable manager (organizational capability). These elements have been found to enable followers to develop personal self-confidence, apply skills that help others, and improve their ability to perform their jobs. In this way, the follower is not a subordinate who follows orders, but rather a self-directed leader.

Figures 1 and 2 are based on an integration model presented by Whittington, Pitts, Kageler, and Goodwin (2005). They argued that leadership is a process of influence and the effectiveness of the leader is dependent upon his or her ability to change the follower. It is in this change process that the current study assumes the follower begins to internalize and thus identify with the leader. The study variables are expected to be moderated by the followers' identification with the leader and subsequently followers will demonstrate the same leadership behaviors.

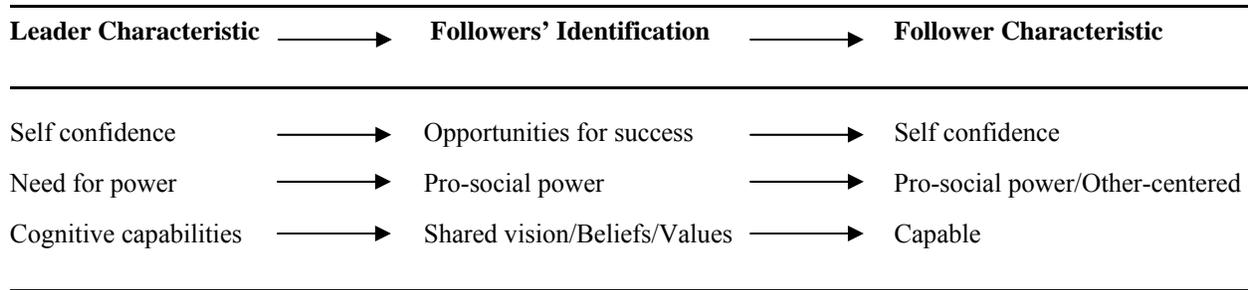


Figure 2. Path linkages between variables.

Method

Participants

The participants were 34 employees from the Human Resources (HR) department and Corporate Affairs department of a Fortune 500 company located in the Midwest United States. The departments are part of the executive offices in the corporate headquarters which employs more than 800 individuals. The corporate headquarters includes the offices for the CEO, executive board members, and vice presidents (VPs). The company has several hundred branches internationally. Participants were selected for inclusion in the study as part of the HR talent management project. These participants include 1 VP of Corporate Affairs, 3 staff VPs from HR, 9 managers, 6 supervisors, and 12 salaried employees. The total number of participants is 34, however due to missing values there are only 27 valid cases.

Valid cases are represented as leader-follower dyads. Each unit of analysis (leader-follower dyad) includes the follower’s rating of his or her leader’s leadership behaviors and characteristics and identification with his or her leader, and the leader’s rating of the follower’s leadership behaviors and characteristics. Figure 3 illustrates an organizational view of the leader-follower units of analysis.

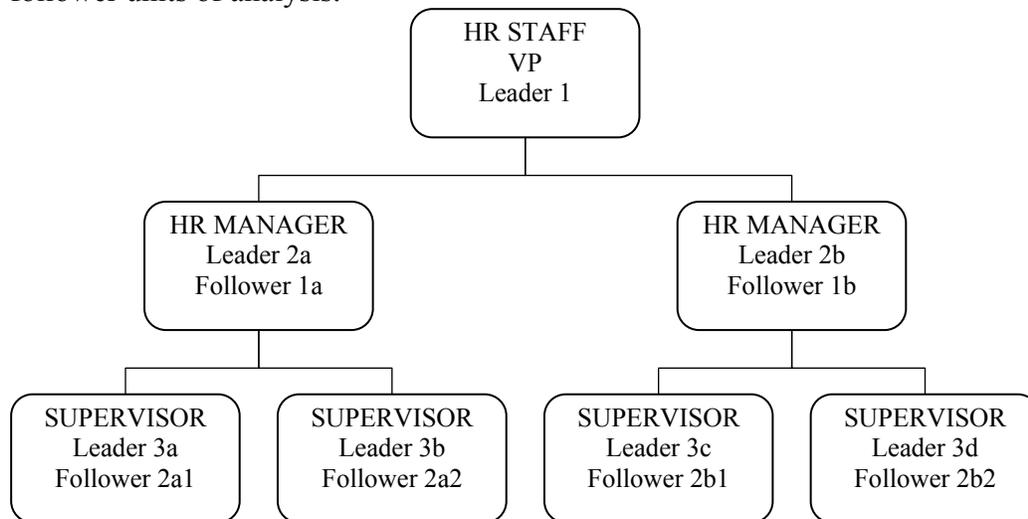


Figure 3. Leader-Follower Units of Analysis.

Of the 27 valid cases, 25% are male leaders in the leader-follower dyads and 75% female leaders. The average age of all the participants is 37 years. The mean number of years that participants had worked in their current dyadic relationship is 6.52 years, with a range of 18.3.

Sample size is an important issue for consideration (Cohen, 1992). According to Hair et al. (2006), the optimum sample size for a multiple regression analysis is a ratio of observations to independent variables (IV) that never falls below 5:1. While that is the minimum ratio, the desired level is between 15 – 20 observations per IV. Based on this general rule, the preferred sample size should have been at least 75 participants. Due to the HR project concept, the organization restricted the number of participants to those who are to be observed for talent management. Considering the value the research would contribute to the understanding about leadership practices, the decision was made to continue with the study as a springboard for further research.

Measures

The Leadership Profile. The Leadership Profile (TLP) is a 50-item comprehensive assessment of leadership characteristics and behaviors (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). The 50 items from the questionnaire form ten separate scales. Each scale measures a particular behavior or characteristic. The items from each scale cluster together in order to assess a single aspect of leadership. Each item is rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (*to a very great extent*) to 5 (*no extent*). TLP is administered electronically and accessed via a website. Table 1 summarizes TLP dimensions.

The reliability of TLP is acceptable. Test-retest reliability coefficients demonstrate that TLP yields consistent results over time (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Cronbach alphas support the internal consistency reliability of TLP (scale coefficients ranging from $\alpha = .70$ to $\alpha = .90$), thus indicating that the scales, “hang together” and are inter-correlated (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003).

For more than 13 years, validation research has been done on TLP (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003). Studies have demonstrated significantly meaningful relationships between TLP transformational leadership and performance. It has been found to be high in content validity. Examination of the five questions that comprise each scale reveals face validity such that the scale describes what it purports to measure.

In the current study, internal consistency reliability studies were performed to evaluate the three scales used to measure three main study visionary leader variables. These scales are visionary leader self-confidence, follower-centered, and capable manager. Each of the three TLP scales for both leaders and followers were evaluated separately. Table 2 displays Cronbach’s alpha for each scale for the leaders.

Table 1
The Leadership Profile Dimensions

Scale #	Domain
1. Capable Manager	The leader accomplishes tasks necessary for organization to function well in the short term. Capable managers make sure people have the knowledge, skills, and resources. (Transactional Leadership)
2. Reward Equity	The degree to which transactional leaders make clear and explicit their goals and performance expectations. (Transactional Leadership)
3. Communication	The ability to manage and direct the attention of others through clear and focused interpersonal communication. (Transformational Behavior)
4. Credible Leadership	The leaders' consistency over time in doing what they say they would do and establishing trust. (Transformational Behavior)
5. Caring Leadership	The degree to which the leader demonstrates respect and concern for others. (Transformational Behavior)
6. Creative Leadership	The leader's willingness to take risks in developing opportunities for others to successfully take action. (Transformational Behavior)
7. Confident Leadership	The extent to which the leader possesses and displays self-confidence and the extent he/she is able to instill the same self-confidence in followers. (Transformational Characteristic)
8. Follower-Centered	The degree to which the leader see followers as empowered partners rather than as pawns to be manipulated. (Transformational Characteristic)
9. Visionary Leadership	The leader's ability to define and clearly express an idea about the future for the organization, based on shared values and beliefs. (Transformational Characteristic)
10. Principled Leadership	Effectiveness of leader to develop and support certain shared values and beliefs among organizational members. (Transformational Characteristic)

Table 2
Leader TLP Scale Reliability Cronbach's Alphas in the study sample (N = 27)

Scale	Alpha	# of items
Leader Capable Manager (LCM)	.91	4
Leader Confident Leader (LCL)	.90	5
Leader Follower-Center Leader (LFCL)	.76	5

The internal consistency reliability for the follower TLP scales revealed adequate correlation among items. Moreover, Cronbach alphas demonstrated good overall scale reliability (see Table 3). Two items were dropped from FFCL scale (tlpv6 and tlpv38) and this increased the alpha from $\alpha = .687$ to noted $\alpha = .854$.

Table 3

Follower TLP Scale Reliability Cronbach's Alphas in the study sample (N = 27)

Scale	Alpha	# of items
Follower Capable Manager (FCM)	.84	4
Follower Confident Leader (FCL)	.89	5
Follower Follower-Centered Leader (FFCL)	.85	3

Supervisor-Related Commitment Questionnaire. The Supervisor-Related Commitment Questionnaire (SRCQ) was used to measure follower identification with the leader. SRCQ is a 9-item questionnaire describing employee commitment to a supervisor as defined by identification with the supervisor and internalization of the same values as the supervisor (Fields, 2002). Questions are rated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The SRCQ is a paper-pencil assessment that is self administered.

The reliability and validity of the Supervisor-Related Commitment Questionnaire in previous studies has been excellent (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996). Reliability coefficient alphas were $\alpha = .85$ for supervisor-related commitment based on identification and $\alpha = .89$ for supervisor-related commitment based on internalization. Supervisor-related identification and internalization were positively correlated, thus supporting construct validity (Becker et al.).

Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that commitment to a supervisor and commitment to the organization are mutually exclusive. In multivariate analyses, an important distinction was made that both supervisor-related identification and internalization were positively correlated with employee performance ratings, but was not correlated with organizational commitment (Becker et al.). This theoretical delineation is crucial in measuring identification instead of commitment since both are two distinct constructs (Cheney & Tompkins, 1987; Edwards, 2005).

In the current study sample, the SRCQ Cronbach's alphas for the identification scale is $\alpha = .839$ and for the internalization scale is $\alpha = .826$. The identification scale from the SRCQ is used to measure the identification study variable. The internalization scale was not used in this study because identification is the variable of interest.

Control variables. Information on demographics and background was collected. Prior research has tied demographic information to commitment phenomena (Becker et al., 1996). To this end, demographics are used to control for leader-follower similarities. Thus, the variables of gender, age, organizational position (manager, supervisor, salaried employee), and the frequency of day-to-day contact with the leader will be treated as control variables. The question about the

frequency of contact with the leader was presented as, “How often do you have contact with your supervisor?” and measured on a 3-point scale from (*not at all*) to (*sometimes*) to (*always*). Tenure at their current position was ascertained since prior research found it to be a significant predictor of organizational identification (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Procedure

The written instructions (including limits of confidentiality), TLP codes with website access, and SRCQ were distributed in individual envelopes assigned to each participant and given to managers at a management. At the meeting, managers were informed by the principal investigator (PI) and the HR staff VP about confidentiality and research concepts, and asked to distribute materials to the participants within their departments. Limits to confidentiality as it related to the talent management project were also discussed with the managers.

Questionnaires were coded and matched to each participant by the PI and only the PI had access to the coding log. After completion of the measures, participants were asked to return the SRCQ in the provided envelope to the staff VP. At the end of the reporting period (two weeks), the envelopes were collected by the principal investigator. Completed TLP raw data were electronically transmitted to the PI by the TLP website administrators.

Results

SPSS 15.0 (SPSS, 2006) was used to perform the statistical tests. The data was examined for outliers and screened for errors by reviewing the descriptive distribution and scatter plots of the main study variables. Scatter plots of the main study variables illustrated normal Q-Q plots and detrended normal Q-Q plots suggesting a normal distribution. Two outliers were discovered, however based on the 5% trimmed mean, these scores did not influence the overall distribution mean and therefore these cases were retained.

Table 4 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix for the main study variables. These correlations suggest statistically significant relationships between leader-follower capable manager leadership ($r = .38, p < .05$) and follower-centered leadership ($r = .61, p < .01$), but not self-confident leadership.

Thus, these findings provide partial support for hypothesis 1 by followers' visionary leadership behaviors having a statistically significant relationship with leaders' visionary leadership behaviors in two of the three leadership domains (capable manager leadership and follower-centered leadership). Moreover, followers' identification with their leader is significantly related to leader capable manager leadership ($r = .46, p < .05$), leader self-confident leadership ($r = .51, p < .01$) and leader follower-centered leadership ($r = .44, p < .05$). These findings support hypothesis 2.

Table 4
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Matrix of Main Variables (N = 27)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. ID	24.5	5.7	-							
2. Tenure	6.5	4.9	-.05	-						
3. LCM	15.7	3.8	.46*	-.31	-					
4. LCL	19.7	3.8	.51**	.07	.54**	-				
5. LFCL	17.0	4.1	.44*	-.25	.72**	.56**	-			
6. FCM	15.8	2.5	.24	-.10	.38*	.41*	.50**	-		
7. FCL	20.8	3.3	.09	-.05	.26	.17	.23	.63**	-	
8. FFCL	10.9	2.4	.37	-.09	.49**	.48*	.61**	.67**	.53**	-

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

For hypotheses 3 to 5, moderated multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the relationship between visionary leadership behaviors and follower visionary leadership behaviors and the interaction effects of follower identification. Due to the small sample size, the moderator regression analysis is performed separately for each of the scales.

Visionary leader confident leadership (LCL) did not predict visionary follower confident leadership (FCL), nor did the moderator variable (LCL multiplied by ID) (see Table 5). Thus, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Table 5
Summary of Moderator Multiple Regression Analysis for Follower Confident Leader (N = 27)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	-.04	.13	-.06
ID	.02	.11	.04
Step 2			
Tenure	-.05	.13	-.08
ID	-.02	.13	-.04
LCL	.12	.20	.16
Step 3			
Tenure	-.05	.14	-.08
ID	-.11	.55	-.20
LCL	.01	.72	.02
MODVCL	.01	.03	.26

Hypothesis 4 predicted a moderator effect of follower identification on the relationship between leader follower-center leadership and follower follower-centered leadership. Table 6 displays the results from the moderator multiple regression analysis. These results should be interpreted with consideration of the small sample size. The $\Delta R^2 = .081$, $F(1,21) = 3.25$, $p < .08$ was non-significant, yet the ANOVA confirms that ID, tenure, leader follower-center leadership, and the moderator variable are significant predictors of follower follower-centered leadership $F(4, 25) = 4.75$, $p < .007$. However, when the moderator (LFCL multiplied by ID) was computed in model 3, it was non-significant.

Table 6

Summary of Moderator Multiple Regression Analysis for Follower Follower-Centered Leader (N = 27)

Variable	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Tenure	.04	.09	-.07
ID	.16	.08	.37
Step 2			
Tenure	.03	.09	.06
ID	.05	.08	.13
LFCL	.35	.12	.57**
Step 3			
Tenure	-.06	.09	-.11
ID	.73	.38	1.67
LFCL	1.29	.53	2.11*
MODVFCL	-.04	.02	-2.68

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

The final hypothesis results did not support the prediction that follower's identification with the leader moderates the relationship between visionary leader capable manager and follower capable manager. Table 7 presents a summary of the moderator multiple regression analysis for follower capable manager.

Table 7
Summary of Moderator Multiple Regression Analysis for Follower Capable Manager (N = 27)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1			
Tenure	-.00	.10	-.00
ID	.11	.09	.25
Step 2			
Tenure	.06	.11	.11
ID	.03	.09	.07
LCM	.27	.16	.39
Step 3			
Tenure	.06	.11	.11
ID	.11	.30	.24
LCM	.40	.51	.60
MODVCM	-.01	.02	-.32

Discussion

The study's results found support for the first two hypotheses, but did not support the research hypotheses of a moderator effect of personal identification with the leader on the relationship between leader visionary leader behaviors and follower visionary leader behaviors, specifically visionary leader behaviors of self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership (prosocial power), and capable manager leadership. Even so, the results do confirm that a statistically significant positive relationship exists between the leaders' follower-centered leadership and followers' follower-centered leadership behaviors, and leaders' capable manager leadership behaviors and followers' capable manager leadership behaviors (see Table 4). Moreover, as shown in Table 4, the followers' identification with their leader was significantly related to their leader's self-confident leadership, follower-centered leadership, and capable manager leadership. While the study hypotheses were not supported, the statistically significant correlations among study variables suggests that with more statistical power from a larger number of subjects, the moderator effect may be detected.

The correlations between study variables are remarkable because it supports the idea that follower identification with leaders with self-confident leadership behaviors, follower-centered leadership behaviors, and capable manager leadership behaviors play a role in followers exhibiting the same leadership behaviors. It is also consistent with prior research that points to follower identification with leaders who show these kinds of leadership behaviors (Haslam et al., 2001; Janson, 2008; Kark, Shamire, & Chen, 2003; Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). More importantly, these findings are a springboard for further research on the concept that followers identify with visionary leaders who demonstrate these characteristics (Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003).

A major limitation in this study was the sample size. The optimum number of participants for the study would have been 75 leader-follower dyads. As a result of the limited number of participants, a decision was made to drop one of the control variables (i.e., frequency of contact) to increase statistical power in the multiple regression analysis. Tenure with the current leader

variable was used in the analysis and frequency of contact was excluded as a control variable because identity research indicates that tenure may predict bottom-up identification (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). For this reason, tenure was retained as a control variable in the study. Future research should control for frequency of contact in studying follower identification such that individuals seek a picture of self that evolves over time through contact with self-confirming feedback (Ashforth et al., 2008). Thus, the frequency of contact (negative or positive) may have an impact on identity formation.

Common method biases were addressed in the areas of source and timing of measurement in the study. Participants were asked to rate their leaders and leaders were asked to rate their followers. In many instances, the leader rated more than one follower. Some leaders not only rated followers, but were also followers who rated a leader (e.g., a supervisor rated both their employees and their manager). A two week timeframe was given to participants to complete TLP. They were asked to spread the completion of TLPs over the course of that timeframe and not complete the assessments all at once. The leader-follower dyad was used as a way to remedy common source bias. Even so, other rater biases such as leniency and acquiescence exist. Attempts were made to control these factors by assuring response anonymity.

One goal of this research is to better understand how visionary leaders impact their followers. Of particular interest is whether a follower who identifies with the visionary leader is likely to develop visionary leadership behaviors and characteristics. The implications of follower identification to the organization has been tied to organizational commitment (Meyer, Becker, & Van Dick, 2006), job satisfaction, well-being, turnover intentions (Martin & Eitropaki, 2001), and performance (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996). Even so, little is known about the benefits that occur as a result of the followers' identification to the leader.

While transformational leaders have behaviors and characteristics that engender follower identification (Connaughton & Daly, 2004; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Luhrmann & Eberl, 2007; Yukl, 2006), and visionary leaders have transformational behaviors and characteristics, very little is known about follower identification with visionary leaders. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) proposed that visionary leader self-confidence leadership, follower-centered leadership (prosocial power), and capable manager leadership (organizational capabilities) are critical behaviors for effective leader-follower relationships. Future research should include evaluating the mediating effects of follower identification with the leader on these three crucial visionary leader variables and follower visionary leader variables. Furthermore, a longitudinal study of this nature would provide data elucidating the transformation of the follower into leader.

As leaders recognize the values and vision that shape their followers' behaviors, they can better develop the follower and thereby present a united force for strengthening the achievement of organizational goals. This study was performed to inform important information about the moderating effects of followers' identification with the leader and the relationship between leader visionary leadership and follower visionary leadership. Moreover, it provides a starting point for better understanding about the degree that visionary leaders transfer knowledge to the follower and inspire them to think and behave in the same way. The information derived from the study could be used to guide future research, talent management, employee engagement, and leadership development.

About the Author

Kelly Riesenmy is a doctoral student at Regent University's School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship. Her background is in research and psychology. She has published research in the areas of psychiatric co-morbidity and addiction, the development of a psychometric measure of depression, and the psychosocial factors in HIV/AIDS. Her current research interests are in quality improvement methods in healthcare.

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