



AUTHENTICITY IN CHINESE LEADERSHIP: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY COMPARING WESTERN NOTIONS OF AUTHENTIC CONSTRUCTS WITH CHINESE RESPONSES TO AN AUTHENTICITY INSTRUMENT

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A great deal of theoretical discussion exists in the literature regarding authenticity in leadership. However, empirical studies attempting to resolve data-driven factors operationalizing the construct of authenticity in leadership are scarce. In this article, the authors introduce a discussion pertaining to Chinese leadership styles and relevance to existing authenticity in leadership theories. The vast theoretical arguments regarding authenticity in leadership are synthesized into a 49-item instrument, which was introduced and piloted with 200 Chinese university students. The Leadership Authenticity Rating Scale (LARS) achieved high reliability with Cronbach's *alpha* of .84. Data were factor analyzed using exploratory analysis, resulting in two factors contributing to the authenticity construct with reliability measures of .82 and .75 respectively. While cultural differences exist between Eastern and Western notions of leadership, evidence supporting the theory of authentic leadership as a part of the Chinese view of leadership is supported, indicating high potential for a common definition of authenticity regardless of ethnic orientation.

This article introduces the Leadership Authenticity Rating Scale (LARS), a 49-item instrument developed from a leadership authenticity literature review (Whitehead, in press). The LARS development followed the pattern outlined by DeVellis (2003) and Hinkin (2005) and attempts to operationalize authenticity in leadership. Using exploratory research techniques, the instrument was administered to 200 Chinese university students as a pilot test of the LARS in order to: (a) take a step towards psychometric adequacy, and (b) examine cross-cultural implications regarding a largely Western theory of authenticity and the construct of Chinese leadership.

The Chinese culture places high value on leaders, leadership processes, community, and sincere interpersonal interactions (Wenquan, Chia, & Liluo, 2000; Wong, 2001). Authentic leadership theory suggests attributions of self-awareness and understanding, empathy for others, building trust, and an affinity for building affiliation and supporting the community all lead to authenticity in leadership (Whitehead, in press). Parallels between Chinese leadership constructs and theorized authenticity constructs are introduced in this article. The importance of understanding a Chinese-authenticity connection is underscored by two key points: (a) U.S. firms suffer premature return of expatriate managers because of inability to discern the subtleties of foreign business environments (Katz & Seifer, 1996; Rawwas, 2003); and (b) managers capable of coaching in foreign environments have a positive organizational impact (Rawwas; Salters, 1997). Thus, examining authentic leadership in relation to Chinese leadership philosophies creates enhanced cross-cultural opportunities.

Authentic leadership theories received extensive theoretical development in leadership literature (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Bhindi & Duignan, 1997; Brumbaugh, 1971; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Cohen, Taylor, Zonta, Vestal, & Schuster, 2007; Duignan & Bhindi, 1997; Ferrara, 1998; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, Brown, & Evans, 2006; Starratt, 2007; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008; Woods, 2007). A brief summary of authentic theory follows. Authentic leaders possess commitment to self-core enhancement by being in tune with and true to self (Bhindi & Duignan, 1997; Starratt, 2007). However, authenticity concerns more than self-reflection and self-focus (Cohen et al., 2007; Ferrara, 1998). Authentic leaders retain an inner confidence (Brumbaugh, 1971; Goffee & Jones, 2000; Jensen & Luthans, 2006), exhibit rational psychological capital, and foster resilience in self and others (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Harland, Harrison, Jones, & Reiter-Palmon, 2005; Jensen & Luthans, 2006). Authentic leadership facilitates mutual value between leader and follower (Bhindi & Duignan, 1997), which results in increased resilience in self and others (Avolio et al., 1999; Harland et al., 2005; Jensen & Luthans, 2006). Therefore, developing authentic capacity in others also resonates as an attribution of authentic leaders (Goffee & Jones, 2000; Helland & Winston, 2005; Jensen & Luthans; Walumbwa et al., 2008) by removing privilege barriers (Goffee & Jones) and demonstrating interest in the talents of followers (Starratt, 2007; Woods, 2007). The result of the authentic self coupled with an authentic reach toward others increases trust (Bhindi & Duignan, 1997). Authentic leaders build hope-driven trust (Knowles, 1986) by fostering ethical behavior (Barnard, 1938; Novicevic et al., 2006) and avoiding appearances of hypocrisy (Goffee & Jones; Helland & Winston). Authentic leaders reach beyond self and followers by recognizing community and culture customs, histories, and traditions; thus, authentic leaders tend to create responsive social structures leading to self, follower, community, and organizational success (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Brumbaugh; Goffee & Jones; Helland & Winston; Spreier, Fontaine, & Malloy, 2006).

Unfortunately, few empirical studies operationalizing theorized constructs of authenticity have existed (Ilies et al., 2005) until recently. During the same time the LARS development and testing occurred, two other instruments also surfaced and are reported in the literature (Tate, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Unfortunately, neither the Tate nor the Walumbwa et al. instruments were included in the LARS content development because of timing and availability.

Tate (2008) examined authenticity in leadership, constructing an instrument from George's (2003) five dimensions of authentic leadership: self-discipline, lead from the heart, establish enduring relationships, practice solid values, and passion for a purpose. The instrument, administered to 69 US university students, was factor analyzed with loadings on three factors: (a)

self-discipline and ethical standards, (b) establishing positive relationships, and (c) passion for a purpose. An overall reliability alpha coefficient of .89 was reported. While these findings are promising, the study does not necessarily produce a psychometrically adequate instrument. However, the Tate study generated an important pioneering effort, contributing empirical data needed to refine leadership authenticity theories.

Walumbwa et al. (2008) also developed an instrument designed to measure authentic leadership. The instrument, derived from a broad body of literature, followed instrument development best practices (DeVellis, 2003) and argued support for validity and therefore psychometric adequacy. An initial 35-item pool reduced to a final 16-item instrument from two independent administrations among business people; over 200 US respondents and over 200 Chinese respondents supported psychometric adequacy criteria (Oakland et al., 1996). Confirmatory factor analysis supported the hypothesized four-factor structure with high reliability: (a) self-awareness, .92; (b) relational transparency, .87; (c) internalized moral perspective, .76; and (d) balanced processing, .81. Ultimately, Walumbwa et al. concluded authenticity comprised those four factors; however, they also noted a second order factor accounted for the dependence between each of the four factors, with the inter-factor correlation averaging over .69. Thus, they opened the door for additional latent factors of authenticity to exist. The Walumbwa et al. study specifically addressed validity questions by examining hypothesized relationships to authentic leadership for (convergent and discriminate) construct support. Using independently validated instruments, they included measures of ethics and organizational citizenship as a means to derive construct validity arguments. A strong significant correlation between authenticity factors and ethics surfaced, while only a moderate significant correlation with organizational citizenship existed.

The LARS instrument design and intent differed from both Tate (2008) and Walumbwa et al. (2008) in two important ways. First, while Tate also researched authenticity in leadership among university students, Tate's instrument's theoretical basis stemmed primarily from George's (2003) work. The LARS attempted a broader set of context underlying the constructs measured (Whitehead, in press). Second, Walumbwa et al. administered their instrument to business respondents where employees assessed superiors' authentic leadership. In contrast, the LARS was a self-rating instrument attempting to capture self-reflection, and specifically integrated design oriented towards younger university students and adolescent populations.

Article Organization

This article examines Chinese leadership from a historical and cultural perspective. The article then discusses largely Western theories of authenticity in leadership relative to Chinese leadership application. The study's method and procedure, along with a discussion of the formulation of the LARS instrument, are then briefly outlined. The results of an exploratory factor analysis follow. Finally, the article concludes with a discussion of the findings and recommendations for additional research.

Examining Chinese Leadership

The Nature of Chinese Leadership

Leadership behavior varies with cultural influences (House & Aditya, 1997). However, some leadership fundamentals consistently apply across cultures. For example, the fundamental notion that leadership is a relationship between leader and follower (Ciulla, 2004; Kellerman, 2004) is not only a Western ideal. While Western studies on leadership suggest leaders receive power from both peers and followers (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007; Carter, Bennetts, & Carter, 2003; Paunonen, Lonnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas, & Nissinen, 2006); this same ideal holds for Chinese leadership notions as well (Shafer, Vieregge, & Youngsoo, 2005). Leader-follower relationships prevail regardless of culture, and one must specifically avoid adopting a single baseline for judging or understanding leadership ideals of other cultures (Rawwas, 2003; Wenquan et al., 2000; Wong, 2001) by using one's own preconditioned lens (Hofstede, 1980). In fact, an inability to discern and operationalize cultural leadership differences is one explanation for expatriate failures (Rawwas). Unraveling the leader-follower complexities and interpreting leader-follower or follower-leader signals ingrained in a culture requires investigation of a culture's leadership evolution.

The Chinese leadership patterns align with a collectivist (Wong, 2001) culture, which respects cooperation, affiliation, and subordination (Ping Ping, Hau-siu Chow, & Yuli, 2001; Rawwas, 2003). In fact, Chinese people rank high in willingness to subordinate personal objectives to a group purpose (Rawwas). Collectivism attributes include high power distance, divisions of wealth and power, limits to risk and uncertainty, low levels of individualism, and high degrees of loyalty to family, friends, and organization (Rawwas). Research suggests high power-distant cultures gravitate towards autocratic leadership (Hofstede, 1980; Rawwas). This is somewhat paradoxical because studies (e.g., Ping Ping et al.) show autocratic leadership is not preferred by followers (neither Chinese nor American), nor does it produce a high quality work motivation. While autocratic leadership demands a respect for authority and subordination to management, autocratic leaders may therefore resort to embarrassment tactics or power-based tactics to force worker compliance (Rawwas). Such embarrassment contributes to a low and ineffective form of motivation (Misumi & Seki, 1971). While autocratic techniques are assumed to exist only in high-power distance countries like China, ironically the data (Rawwas) show autocratic forms of leadership also prevail in low power distance cultures such as the United States. Therefore, while Chinese align with collectivism, it is a mistake to assume collectivist approaches to organizational management simply equate to autocratic leadership. The relationships are far more complex than to support such a simple hypothesis.

For example, Chinese managers are often far more engaged with relationship issues, such as conflict management, than their American counterparts (Rawwas, 2003). Chinese leaders are generally interested in the holistic development of those they lead and not simply focused on achieving a production target (Guan, McBride, & Xiang, 2005; Wenquan et al., 2000; Wong, 2001). Unfortunately, the notion of iron-hand rule often associates with Chinese leadership. However, a firm grip is only true to a limited extent and where directive influence is needed to protect a community or organizational objective. In reality, a high degree of self-directed activity occurs within Chinese organizations (Ping Ping et al., 2001). Thus, from the lens of the Chinese culture, participatory relationships in organizational leadership are not at all unique. Perhaps it is rather the manner of how the interaction occurs which leads to misinterpretation by Western observers. Potentially confusing to those outside of the Chinese culture are the paradoxes of Chinese society, and in particular of Chinese leadership.

Chinese leadership is paradoxical in that both authoritarian and benevolent attributes are observable in the same leader. For example, one study (Ping Ping et al., 2001) compared leadership effectiveness in a rural (Fuyang) and cosmopolitan-like (Tianjin) Chinese Township

and Village (TVE), yielding three results of interest for this topic. First, autocratic leadership is the least preferred leadership style among Chinese followers and leaders. Second, an authoritative decision making style is not preferred. Interestingly, selling and consultative approaches to decision making are far more popular and expected. Third, people in both rural and urban townships had more motivation when working under a participatory style of leadership. Ping Ping et al. provided strong evidence for a people-oriented leadership correlating with high worker satisfaction. The best Chinese leaders seem to be high in both people and task orientation.

At first glance, these leader-follower attributions sound quite Western. However, the paradox surfaces by reviewing the results of a study by Wenquan, Chia, and Liluo (2000). Conditions arise when desired leadership attributes simultaneously contain both directive and authoritarian natures. Thus, the condition of subordinating to the collective greater good may be a cause for misunderstanding and oversimplified labeling, such as the false notion that Chinese leaders are only autocratic. Hence the paradox: authoritarian and participatory methods co-exist, representing the complexity of the collectivist environment. In such environments, there is both a need and a desire for opportunity to participate; yet, there is also recognition that the needs of the group, community, or organization prevail over the individual. Thus, a primary leader may feel forced into authoritative direction, but on behalf of the group, out of necessity, and only to achieve balance. In other words, authoritarian behavior can be viewed as a community duty at times. The Chinese collectivist model represents an interesting balance in both authoritarian rule and participatory leadership, thus satisfying the needs of both people and organizations and resulting in both paradox and harmony.

Quantitative Testing of Chinese Leadership

Many of the quantitative studies published on Chinese leadership involve translated instruments (Chan, 2000; Guan et al., 2005; Rawwas, 2003; Shafer et al., 2005). For example, Chan used the Roet's Rating Scale for Leadership (RRSL) to assess general leadership capabilities of gifted secondary students in Hong Kong. This 26-item scale was normed against 1057 U.S. adolescents and has reported a reliability using Spearman-Brown's split-half formula of $r = .85$ (Karnes & Bean, 2005; Shaunessy & Karnes, 2004). Chan's study reports high internal reliability using Cronbach's *alpha* coefficient of .88. Chan's study drew correlations between respondents who scored high on the RRSL and high on other self-ratings related to achievement, leadership, and level of energy. The results reflected Chinese students' prioritization of an American view of leadership characteristics. Chan identified: (a) task orientation, (b) self-perceived competence in leadership, and (c) interpersonal skills as emerging factors. Students rated high in areas relating to achievement, aspiration to leadership, openness, balanced perspective, and high energy. Students scored low in satisfaction levels with decisions of superiors.

Wenquan, Chia, and Liluo (2000) took a different approach by developing and validating a leadership indicator scale specifically for Chinese. The instrument was developed by having 133 respondents identify the 25 most important factors of leadership. The data were distilled from 2500 terms to 163 testable items. In a follow-on study, the researchers administered the instrument to 622 Chinese respondents. The resultant conceptualization of leadership included four categories: (a) personal morality, (b) goal effectiveness, (c) interpersonal competence, and (d) versatility. Personal morality included loadings on service orientation, integrity, honesty, truth seeking, fairness, being a role-model, accepting criticism, and self-awareness. Goal

effectiveness was comprised of vision, strategy, perception, open mindedness, character to do what is right, decisiveness, proficiency, scientific method, and insight to use the ability of others. Interpersonal competence consisted of maturity, social skills, persuasiveness, and charm. Versatility included elements such as command of knowledge, multi-talented, broad interests, imaginative and creative, risk taker, sense of humor, and approachability.

Interestingly, the American translated instrument used in Chan's (2000) study emphasized achievement-type factors, while the Chinese developed study (Wenquan et al., 2000) emerged factors demonstrating depth of interpersonal character, a desire to contribute to the leadership process, and sincerity. Thus, a hint arises indicating potential theoretical alignment of Chinese leadership ideals with principles of authenticity in leadership, as seen in the underlying Chinese view that leadership reflects principles of self, others, and community.

A close inspection of the Wenquan et al. (2000) study further suggests certain elements of Chinese leadership and American leadership enjoy common ground. Both cultures seek leaders who are responsive, receptive, embracing, and participatory, but who also know how to take charge and accomplish difficult group-oriented tasks. Chinese value faithfulness, morality, loyalty, and service, while paying strong attention to effort and education (Wong, 2001). Such traits align with authentic theories, which consider the social order to be at least as important as the individual (Cohen et al., 2007). Woods (2007) discussed authentic leadership within the bureau-enterprise culture, reasoning that the authentic leader takes into consideration the social order and historical contexts in which he or she belongs. Woods stated, "different identities may share the necessary characteristics yet, because they are in different contexts or times, differ in their substance" (p. 298). Characteristics necessary to authenticity in leadership may exist within overall leadership frameworks or models which are as different as night and day (e.g., collective vs. individual). Yet, principles of authentic behavior can exist in both frameworks. For example, if authenticity factors comprise both self and social elements, the degree of authentic behavior may manifest itself differently depending on the nature of the social framework in place. For Chinese, the authentic behavior may be demonstrated by the degree to which social, historical, and paternal values are integrated into the model. On the other hand, American authenticity may be demonstrated by the degree to which individual voice and true-to-self constructs are manifest. In either case, the essence of authenticity is nevertheless detectible regardless of the framework if authenticity has a scope that includes both a social orientation as well as a true-to-self orientation.

Global Cultural Differences May be in Decline

Important cultural differences exist between western and eastern leadership philosophies; however, the differences are subtly disappearing due to the effects of post-modern internationalism (Shafer et al., 2005). In a study (Shafer et al.) of 200 international students, 46% of US respondents did not differ significantly from their Asian counterparts in attitudes about leadership. Thus, attempting to measure leadership constructs such as authenticity across multi-cultural borders is possible. However, differences nevertheless do exist and cannot be ignored. Hofstede's (1980) original work is quite relevant to this discussion therefore, because culture no doubt plays a significant role in how one may view authentic behavior.

Religious and philosophical influences on Chinese leadership. Cultures are guided by religious and philosophical moorings (Walker & Shuangye, 2007); therefore, differences between Chinese and American views on leadership are not surprising (Guan et al., 2005).

Wong's (2001) essay on "Chinese Culture and Leadership" identified several important east-west differences. While logic is an important part of western culture, the Chinese are less abstract and put thoughts into physical terms. This manifests in both the actions and speech of individuals. For example, rather than saying a horse is fast, one may describe a "thousand mile horse" (Wong, p. 309).

Understanding Chinese leadership theory requires one to grapple with the connection between the cultural past and traditions, which reveal a strong moral basis in leadership (Wong, 2001). Wenquan, Chia, and Liluo (2000) described personal morality as one of four primary Chinese leadership factors. According to their data, Chinese expect leaders to possess integrity, honesty, and fairness, and to be truth-seeking, consistent, and service oriented. This moral basis of leadership contributes to stronger ethical leanings (Ciulla, 2004) and contains the kernel of authentic leadership (Novicevic et al., 2006).

The Chinese are able to embrace multiple philosophies without a sense of conflict, which is an uncomfortable paradox for Westerners. Wong (2001) stated Chinese may be completely comfortable with Catholicism, Protestantism, Buddhism, etc., all at the same time. They see all truth pointing toward the inward growth of the individual. Seeming conflicts are reconcilable because Confucian and Buddhist influences in the Chinese culture teach truth is often irrational, paradoxical, and illogical (Wong). Thus, the focus on human activities and individual contribution to the group dominates philosophical orientation. Wong asserted that the philosophies of Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism play a significant role in the cultural focus on life, faithfulness, loyalty, and service. Chinese place high value on effort and education, and their religious philosophies focus an inward energy on the power of the individual. In China, the power of salvation is an inward concept; individuals focus on being in tune with one's own nature (Wong). Ironically, the religious and philosophical moorings of the Chinese culture place important emphasis on individual or self-orientation, but do so from the perspective of being true to one's own nature. Thus, the authenticity construct of true-to-self should be detectable among Chinese leaders.

Authentic Ties to Chinese Leadership

Do Chinese forms of leadership encourage a concept known as authenticity? According to the literature (Whitehead, in press), the attributes of authentic leaders may be summarized as: (a) Know self well, self-confident, not overly egoistic, seek self improvement, know strengths and weaknesses, place professional role secondary to role as an individual, and are true to inner nature (Brumbaugh, 1971; Goffee & Jones, 2000; Jensen & Luthans, 2006); (b) strong positive leaders, exhibit hope, possess strong psychological capital, foster resilience in self and others (Avolio et al., 1999; Harland et al., 2005; Jensen & Luthans, 2006); (c) expand the horizons of others; concerned about developing followers in a way that allow followers to achieve their own leadership goals (Goffee & Jones, 2000; Helland & Winston, 2005; Jensen & Luthans); (d) close the gap between the social differences of high ranking leaders and the lowest ranking follower by removing barriers to understanding and opportunity (Goffee & Jones); (e) build trust, foster ethical and moral behavior (Novicevic et al., 2006), and recognize that mismatched actions and statements are perilous to loyal followership (Goffee & Jones; Helland & Winston); and (f) a deep sense of community, history, and organizational values (Brumbaugh; Goffee & Jones; Helland & Winston). The Chinese leadership attributions surfaced in the review of Chinese leadership point to components of authenticity, with the one lone exception being that of power distance (item d) (Avolio et al., 1999; Chan, 2000; Walker & Shuangye, 2007; Wong, 2001).

Therefore, administering an instrument which attempts to quantitatively identify leadership authenticity among Chinese respondents is possible, given that the attributes of theorized authenticity align with leadership philosophies in Chinese thought.

Methodology

The primary purpose of this study was to field test the Leadership Authenticity Rating Scale (LARS) instrument and evaluate authenticity in leadership as a construct among Chinese respondents. The key question evaluated was to determine factors comprising authentic leadership given the responses of Chinese university students.

Participants

Participants were drawn from freshman and sophomore English majors at Wuhan University of Technology in China. Wuhan is located in the Hubei Province and is a national key school for the Chinese education system (<http://www.whut.edu.cn/english/index.html>). Chinese key schools receive priority funding, are considered top universities, and entrance is highly competitive (Tsang, 2000). A convenience (Passmore & Baker, 2005) sampling methodology was used by one of the researchers while serving as a visiting professor for the Spring 2007 term. Surveys were issued to 219 students between the ages of 17 to 23.

Procedure

Survey process. The researchers worked with the assistant dean of the School of Foreign Languages, who reviewed the survey instrument and granted permission to administer it to all freshman and sophomore English majors. Each survey was given a control number to assure no duplication of data entry. The instrument administration process involved visiting each classroom and requesting permission to survey the students first from the professor and then from the students.

Consent process. Studies involving University students in China do not typically require individual respondent consent; rather, consent for data collection is provided by a school official. The consent process used for this research was carefully completed in order to maintain the good working relationship between Wuhan University of Technology and George Fox University. The process for gaining consent consisted of (a) translating a copy of the human subjects consent form for review by university authorities, (b) receiving verbal permission from the instructors of the classes to be surveyed, and (c) providing a verbal explanation of the consent form and instrument purpose to students. The university did not require an individual signature by each student. Rather, students were informed of their rights to privacy and how the data would be protected. Students were told the survey would require approximately 20 minutes, and participation was optional. A comprehensive consent form emphasizing the protection and privacy of all individual data was then signed by university officials.

Questionnaire

Survey development. The survey was developed using a literature review on the topic of leadership authenticity (Whitehead, in press). At the time of development, and to the researchers' knowledge, no psychometrically adequate (Oakland et al., 1996) instrument existed measuring

levels of authenticity in leadership attitudes. The LARS' item-pool covered 24 derived constructs (Figure 1) of authenticity, resulting in 49 items (Appendix A-1).

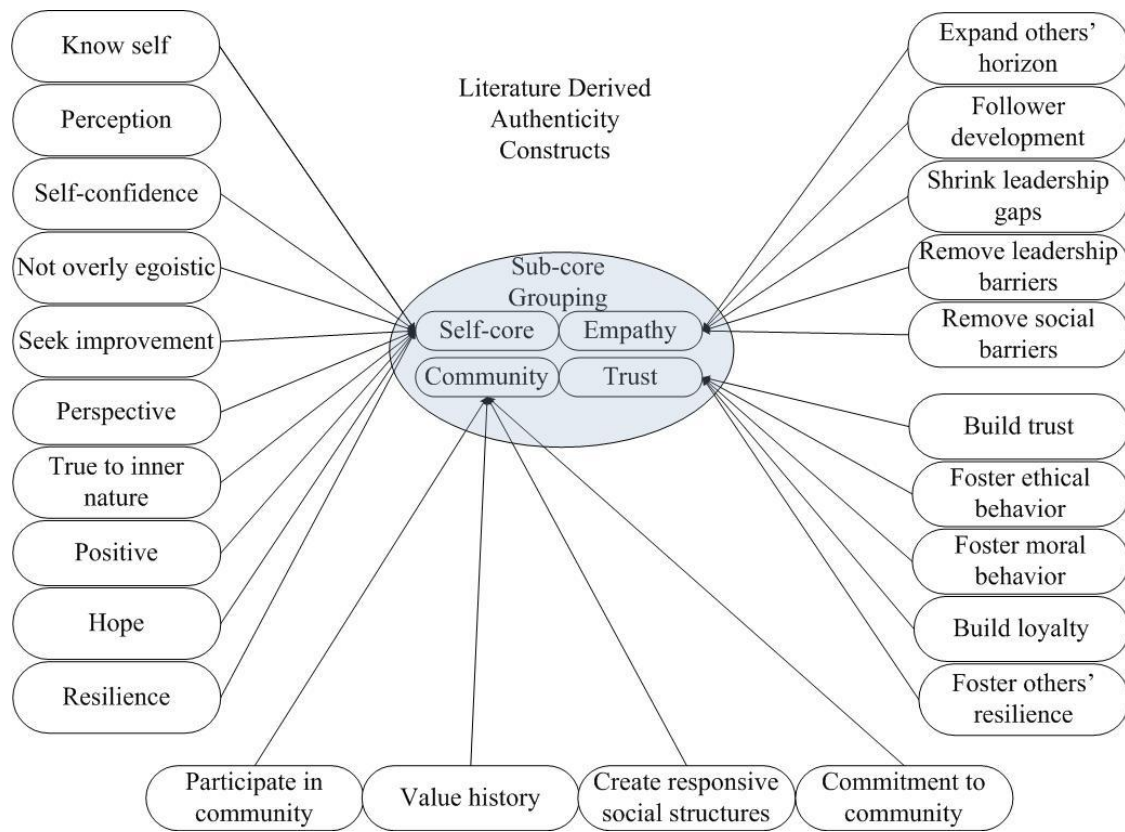


Figure 1. Literature derived authenticity in leadership constructs.

Whether the elements of authentic leadership represented in Figure 1 are latent variables predicting authenticity in leadership or antecedent results describing or indicating authenticity in leadership remains unclear at this stage of the authenticity theory evolution. Item pool development for the LARS followed the process of identifying attributes of authenticity in the literature and categorizing topically in order to create item-statements. Cronbach and Meehl (1955) stated that instruments should measure the phenomenon purported in theory development. Thus, given the early-stage state of the theory and the exploratory nature of empirical research, the LARS item-pool attempted to incorporate a large group of possible items derived from theoretical discussions in the literature.

The LARS relies on self-reporting, which is an accepted method for social science research (DeVellis, 2003; Guccione et al., 2005; Shek, 2005). Initial field testing and content validation was conducted with American high school and university students. All statements were randomly ordered, with 20% of the items negatively framed to avoid pattern detection by respondents (Appendix A-3). Negative statements were re-coded into positive scores when imported to SPSS. An 8-point Likert scale was used to force a committed leaning and disallow

middle or non-committal responses (Spector, 1976). Respondents were asked to rate the level to which they resembled the statement on a range of one (low) to eight (high).

Translation. The practice of translating the survey into Chinese and then reverse translating it back into English for comparative purposes was followed (Chan, 2000). Each survey statement was assigned to a Chinese student majoring in English as a Foreign Language for translation into Chinese. First, the English survey was copied, adding space for translation. Question numbers were added for ease in putting the translated version back together in the same order and matching the translated questions with the English version of the question. Each question was cut from the English version and distributed. The students put their names on their work as they were informed that their translation would be graded. After translating each statement, the students submitted their slip of paper containing both the original English version and their Chinese translation. Chinese professors then graded and edited the Chinese translations.

Both the student names and their grades were removed from the strips of paper to avoid this information being included in the Chinese version of the survey. The instructions and questions were then taped back together in the original order. A copy was then made of each page of the reassembled survey that contained both the original English instructions and questions along with the edited Chinese translations. A graduate Chinese student working on her master's degree in English then typed the Chinese version of the survey using Chinese characters. The Chinese version of the survey was then copied with spaces between each sentence of instruction and each question so they once again could be separated into small sections for reverse translation.

Reverse translations were done by Chinese undergraduate students who were ending their junior year as English majors. Small groups reverse translated five questions each from Chinese characters back into English. The typed Chinese character version and the handwritten English version were then reassembled into complete pages. The reverse translated English version was compared to the original version. Minor differences were noted, discussed, and resolved with the assistance of a senior translator.

The final Chinese version of the instrument was reviewed by a graduate student who teaches English and was in her third year of an English master's program. The reverse translation was compared with the original English version. While some of the English reverse-translations were not identical to the original, translators confirmed the Chinese translation expressed the correct intent. The final Chinese version of the survey was then typed by the graduate assistant using Chinese characters, and the numbering scales were added back in. Due to time constraints, the survey had to be administered in paper format. Upon completion of each survey, the researchers manually entered the raw data into excel, where the data were prepared for exportation into SPSS.

Scoring. Section I was scored by valuing each response with 1-8 points depending on the selection of the respondent. Statement scores were aggregated into an overall leadership authenticity score, as well as composite scores for the hypothesized structure (Figure 1).

Results

Descriptive

Out of 219 surveys administered, 216 responses were collected. The respondents were drawn from freshmen (57%) and sophomore (43%) classes ranging from 17 to 23 years old, with a mean age of 19.7. Sixty-two percent of respondents were female. A majority of students came

from Hubei Province (65%) with the remaining individuals coming from 21 other locations in China, Fiji, and Inner Mongolia.

The overall authenticity mean was 271.29 and ranged from 101 to 345, with a standard deviation of 33.97. Scores approximated a normal distribution with a slight negative skew (Figure 2). The initial data appeared to be reasonable with no anomalies.

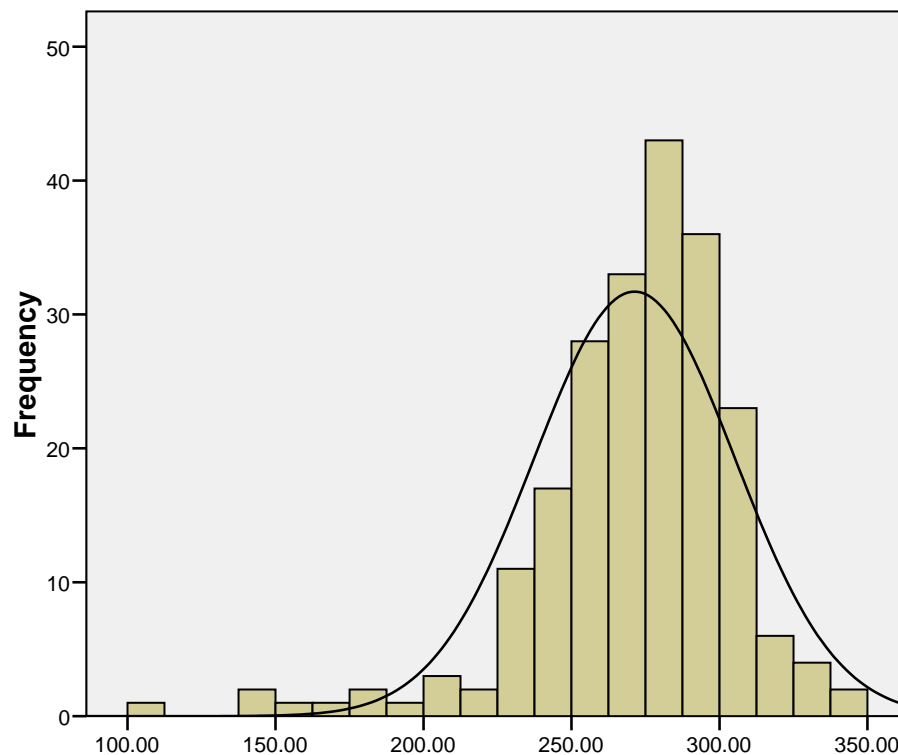


Figure 2. Authenticity score distribution

Factor Analysis and Reliability

Factor analysis reduces interrelated variables to a manageable quantity of latent dimensions (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Various factor analyses are possible. Because the LARS pilot was exploratory in nature, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was chosen for applicability in the early stage instrument development and discovering underlying patterns in variable relationships (Benson & Nasser, 1998; Yang, 2005). Two techniques for EFA include: (a) principle component analysis (PCA), or (b) common factor (CF) analysis, also known as principle axis factoring (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003). While PCA reduces variables to components capturing as many variations as possible, CF analysis uncovers latent structures of observed variables by identifying factors influencing measured variables. Thus, CF is a better choice for identifying latent and underlying variables that contribute to common variance (Benson & Nasser, 1998; Yang, 2005). A factor structure was hypothesized initially suggesting the appropriateness of PCA; however, the authors elected to exercise CF given the underlying intent of identifying true latent structures. Therefore, this study followed recommendations of Yang (2005) and Tinsley and Tinsley (1987), using principal axis as the extraction method,

which is appropriate for common factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis does not require a priori hypothesis of the number factors; the analysis itself surfaces the factors. Using Cattell's screen plot test (Gian, David, Timothy, & Sarah, 2006; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987) on the unrotated extraction (Benson & Nasser, 1998; DeVellis, 2003), four factors were initially determined for rotation.

Variables in the LARS are assumed to have an interrelationship and inter-item correlation, and to approximate a simple structure (Hinkin, 2005). Therefore, an oblique rotation was chosen (Benson & Nasser, 1998; DeVellis, 2003; Gian et al., 2006). Tinsley and Tinsley (1987) argued promax represented the best method for oblique rotations. Furthermore, they suggested if the underlying dimensions are either slightly correlated or not at all correlated, a varimax rotation may also produce a solution comparable to an oblique rotation in a simple structure. This was confirmed by DeVellis (2003), who suggested an orthogonal rotation may result in a simpler model. Both methods were applied. An inspection of the results revealed little noticeable difference; thus, the promax rotation was used in the analysis. Four factors were extracted, using .40 as the criterion for factor loading (Hanson, Colton, & Hammer, 2006; Hinkin, 2005; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987).

Internal reliability tests were conducted on the entire instrument and each factor. Overall, the LARS possessed a psychometrically adequate internal reliability with Cronbach's *alpha* of .79, and a split-half *alpha* of .79 (Table 1). Coefficient *alpha* above .70 is identified in the literature as acceptable for early-stage instrument development (Hinkin, 2005; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). An item analysis revealed, however, the instrument's overall reliability could be improved to .84 by eliminating five items from the overall scale: (a) I am not shy about taking credit, (b) traditions are annoying; I would rather discover a new way of doing things, (c) my existing talents and strengths are all that I need to be a good leader, (d) I look confident, but inside I doubt myself, and (e) having hope is not part of my leadership attitude.

Table 1
Authenticity Factor Extraction Results

	Alpha	Items
Composite Instrument	.787	49
Composite Instrument after Item Reduction	.836	44
Factor 1	.875	21
Factor 2	.665	8
Factor 3	.296	2
Factor 4	.291	2

Table 2
Common Factor Structure of the LARS

Item	Factor 1-a	Factor 1-b
1. Other people grow their talents because of my leadership.	0.72	0.02
2. I am confident that I can achieve whatever task is given to me regardless of training or experience.	0.68	(0.14)
3. I follow my instincts and listen to my inner-voice when making a leadership decision.	0.65	(0.16)

4. The criticisms and doubts of others do not present obstacles to my personal success.	0.61	(0.08)
5. I am positive most of the time.	0.55	(0.04)
6. I try to make sure others know important traditions.	0.49	0.17
7. My leadership style creates situations where people's lives are better.	0.43	0.30
8. I help others see the bigger picture.	0.42	0.26
9. I regularly attend extracurricular school activities because I want to support my school.	0.40	0.17
10. I help others to be ethical.	(0.21)	0.88
11. People are loyal to me because I consistently do what I say I will do.	(0.18)	0.72
12. I am known as someone who helps others to become resilient.	0.21	0.53
13. When I know something is right, I forge ahead regardless of criticism.	0.10	0.45
14. I am perceived by others to be sincere.	0.06	0.45
15. I help others to be self-reliant.	0.05	0.43
16. Leaders have a social responsibility to create opportunity for others.	(0.03)	0.40
17. If I say I will do something, I always follow through.	0.13	0.35
18. I seek to eliminate differences between the socially privileged and those with less social status.	0.20	0.35
19. When I help someone develop a skill, I try to do it in a way that fits their personal objective.	0.23	0.20
20. I continuously evaluate my strengths and weaknesses.	0.29	0.17
21. I know myself very well.	0.39	0.14

The four factors were then explored for internal reliability, but only factor-1 achieved adequate reliability. The score for the primary factor was extremely high (.88) and was given the title of authenticity. Factors two, three, and four were discarded because of low reliability and inconsistent content (DeVellis, 2003). Further exploration of the primary factor revealed 21-items with adequate loading (Table 2). These items were further factor analyzed using the same procedures identified above. Two sub-factors resulted, each containing strong internal reliability with an alpha of .82 for factor 1-a, and .75 for factor 1-b. The two sub constructs were further analyzed and given titles of: (a) confident, instinctive, and improve life focus; and (b) ethics, resilience, and loyalty focus.

Correlations

Table 3 shows correlation coefficients among nine items of interest. Using the Bonferroni approach to control for Type I error across the nine correlations, a *p* value of less than .05 was required for significance. The results of the correlational analysis presented in table 4 shows only

two correlations with authenticity as statistically significant, and only one greater than or equal to .35. In general, authenticity was strongly positively correlated and varied significantly with one main item: the degree of leadership declaration ($r=.48, p<.01$). Leadership declaration contained two variables: (a) I consider myself to be a leader; and (b) others consider me to be a leader.

Additional correlational analysis evaluated authenticity in relation to measures of prosociality, gender, grade point average, antisocial behavior, and having participated in secondary school varsity athletics. These measures were chosen as part of the exploratory process searching for linkages between authentic leadership behavior and other measurable outcomes in order to ultimately assert construct forms of validity in future studies (Peter, 1981). None of these correlations rose above the .35 measure. However, prosociality, a measure indicating the degree to which individuals align with social norms (Whitehead, in press), varied significantly with authenticity at $r=.27, p<.01$. While modest, the correlation proved interesting given that respondents came from a collectivist culture. Additionally, while also modest, GPA varied with factor 1-b at $r=.18, p<.05$. Potentially, the degree of ethics, resiliency, and loyalty focus relates to the level of self-investment as measured by the GPA. In other words, individuals with high GPAs and prosocial tendencies also tended to score higher on the authenticity scale. On the other hand, anti-social behavior was insignificant and unrelated to measures of authenticity.

Table 3
Correlatives of Authenticity

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Authenticity	1.00								
2. Factor 1-a	0.90**	1.00							
3. Factor 1-b	0.82**	0.54**	1.00						
4. Prosocial	0.27**	0.28	0.20	1.00					
5. Gender	-0.14*	-0.20**	-0.04	0.10	1.00				
6. GPA	0.13	0.06	0.18*	0.01	0.25	1.00			
7. Declaration	0.48**	0.52**	0.28**	0.34**	-0.08	0.20**	1.00		
8. Anti-social	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.44**	-0.16*	-0.09	0.09	1.00	
9. Varsity	0.08	0.09	0.06	0.15*	-0.19*	-0.17*	0.04	0.32**	1.00

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$ level

Hypotheses Results

Authenticity constructs. We hypothesized authentic leadership existed in the Chinese culture. Unfortunately, the hypothesis was not fully testable because this was the first execution of the LARS instrument, and construct and criterion validity are difficult to achieve without several iterations (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Holton & Burnett, 2005). A gold standard for evaluating authenticity in leadership does not yet exist. However, by observing the data and evaluating the raw scores, we continue to believe authentic leadership does exist in the Chinese culture. For example, the overall mean for the 49-item authenticity construct was 271 with a range of 101 to 345. A strong distribution about the mean was a positive sign. Furthermore, the 21-item reduced scale (factor 1 = authenticity) had a mean score of 113 with a range of 34-165.

In compiling the 49-item authenticity instrument, 24 constructs (Figure 1) were extracted from the literature (Whitehead, in press). The high and low construct means are presented in

Table 4. The authenticity concepts were inspected, revealing similar distributions to the overall authenticity composite (a slight negative skew and a positive kurtosis). Not surprising were high scores for fostering moral behavior, trust building, creating a perception of good leadership, and removing barriers for others to achieve success. The social structures in China support these ideals even though much has been made of their cultural autocratic and power-distance overtones (Ping Ping et al., 2001). Somewhat surprising, however, was the consistently lower score for valuing organizational history and community participation given the collectivist and communal nature of the Chinese culture (Rawwas, 2003).

Table 4

Sub-core Trends of Authentic Leadership

Concept	High Concept Means
Foster moral behavior	6.51
Build trust	6.40
Perception of authenticity	6.31
Remove barriers for have-nots	6.31
Positive approach	6.30
Commitment to community	6.29
Remove barriers for follower success	6.23
Possessing hope	6.12
	Low Concept Means
Value organizational history	4.58
Participate in community	4.27

Authenticity factors. The four factor hypothesized structure of authentic leadership failed to materialize. While four factors initially surfaced, three of the four failed to meet factor qualifications (DeVellis, 2003). However, refactoring the first factor indicated two underlying constructs. A visual inspection of the data presented in Figure 3 demonstrated factor loadings of .50 focused on self-core and empathy constructs. Factor-1a (confident, instinctive, and improve life focus) represented empathy for others, a commitment to building and understanding one's self-core, and an appreciation for community. Factor-1b (ethics, resilience, and loyalty focus) represented the trust-building element of authenticity, building of the self-core, and community responsibility. Thus, to some degree the hypothesized factors were present in the latent construct of authenticity. However, the four hypothesized factors did not manifest as clear, unidimensional factors in this study.

A construct of Chinese leadership presented by Wenquan, Chia, and Liluo (2000) of personal morality, goal effectiveness, interpersonal competence, and versatility was potentially represented in the LARS factors. Specifically, constructs of morality and goal effectiveness were apparent in such constructs as ethics, loyalty, valuing history, and creating responsive social structures. However, a criticism of the LARS may well be that it did not fully represent the intense passion the Chinese have for goal effectiveness and interpersonal competence. This construct was captured by Tate (2008), who identified support for passion for a purpose as a factor of authentic leadership. Perhaps a Chinese view of authenticity should also include such a factor.

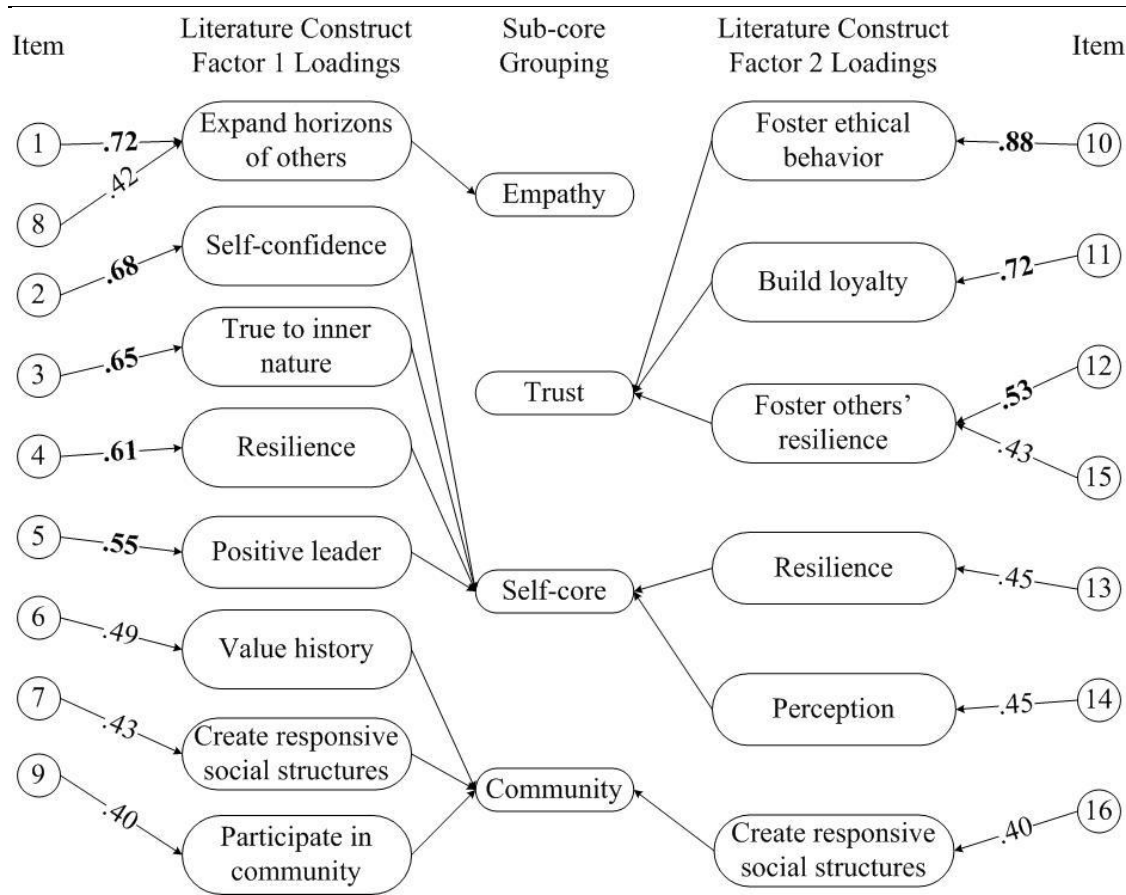


Figure 3: Common factor loadings mapped to core authenticity constructs

Discussion

Overview of Key Findings

The primary purpose of this study was an exploratory research initiative pilot testing the LARS instrument among Chinese college students. The hypothesized factor structure failed to garner empirical support. However, the core constructs identified in the literature regarding authenticity in leadership, including empathy, self-core, trust, and community as hypothesized by Whitehead (in press) were present in the latent structure. While the emerging factor structure included four factors, three failed to substantiate adequate internal reliability. Thus, the first factor, identified as authenticity and the 21-item short scale, received analytic focus, revealing two underlying constructs related to authentic leadership: (a) confident, instinctive, and improve life focus, and (b) ethics, resilience, and loyalty focus. The implications of the findings support recent empirical research on authenticity.

Walumbwa et al. (2008) found invariant support for their hypothesized structure across both U.S. and Chinese respondents. While factor loadings across the board were higher in their U.S. sample, the implication nevertheless supported a cross-cultural commonality, to some degree, regarding authentic leadership. The strongest loadings in the Walumbwa et al. study for Chinese respondents occurred with the self-awareness factor. Therefore, consistent with their

findings, this study also surfaced the notion that confidence, instinctive leadership, ethics, and leadership oriented toward improving lives of others as important authentic ideals. Walumbwa et al. indicated authentic leadership enjoys a convergent relationship with ethics. The result of this study indicates ethical behavior may not only be convergent, but an actual element of authenticity.

An interesting trend was discovered in this study. Students who self-declared as leaders scored higher in authenticity composites. Additional research is needed to analyze the differences between those who rate themselves high as leaders and those that are modest in their leadership ratings to determine if authenticity variation exists. Early indications suggest those scoring high in authenticity in the LARS recognize and accept responsibility as a leader. Whether or not this finding is a phenomenon specific to the respondent's age group is unclear. However, a number of theorists suggest authentic leaders embrace stewardships and assume responsibility for work at hand (Bhindi & Duignan, 1997; Mullen & Tuten, 2004), understand that ideals and social order transcend individual objectives (Woods, 2007), and have an awareness of self in relation to others coupled with strong psychological capital (Avolio & Gardner, 2005); thus, finding leaders who willingly indicate acceptance of their role and also score high on authenticity is not necessarily surprising.

DeVellis (2003) indicated one purpose for exploratory research and factor analysis is to surface latent structures represented in the data. This study supports theoretical notions which identify authentic leaders as those who are: (a) self-aware (Avolio et al., 2004), seeking improvement (Ilies et al., 2005), aware of those being led (Starratt, 2007), looking out for the welfare of others (Novicevic et al., 2006; Woods, 2007); and (b) fostering high degrees of trust by building an ethical and moral leadership framework (Michie & Gooty, 2005; Price, 2003). Furthermore, this study also provides a basis for asserting commonality in intercultural definitions of authentic leadership. Authentic leadership facilitates followership, which also takes on authentic properties (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). When authentic leadership exists, both leader and follower reflect transparency in action (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Indications present in this study's data suggest Chinese respondents exude levels of authenticity in leadership according to the LARS instrument. However, whether the LARS measures authenticity in leadership or some other construct remains unproven and requires investigation of what it means to achieve technical validity.

Validity of results. While the LARS enjoyed high internal reliability, which Cronbach and Meehl (1955) indicated as an initial form of validity, the validity question remains whether or not the LARS measured levels of authenticity. Three common forms of validity are (a) criterion, (b) content, and (c) construct (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 2005; Holton & Burnett, 2005). Criterion validity is the ability for a measure to predict the dependent variable (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Holton & Burnett, 2005). Instruments attempting to measure abstract theoretical constructs, such as authenticity, are difficult to assess for criterion validity because there is an inability to affix a precise measure for abstract variables (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

Content validity exists to the extent a measurement accurately reflects the domain of content. While measurable in objective instruments, such as an arithmetic test, content validity measurement is difficult to achieve in instruments where no agreed criterion exists. Thus, the burden of content validity is theory laden to the extent that (a) the theoretical concepts are specified; (b) empirical relationships between measures are examinable; and (c) empirical evidence is interpreted to clarify the construct validity of a measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The ultimate burden of content validity falls to logic and reasoning that the content has been

adequately sampled and cast into testable items (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The LARS instrument attempts to measure authentic leadership. If the items of the LARS are content valid, these same items would therefore be present in genuine authentic leadership. Approximating content validity requires an appeal to reason, exhaustive literature reviews, and construct derivation in a logical method that is represented in a clear instrument (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The administration of the instrument in China was an initial step in moving through these processes.

In the social sciences, the focus on validating instruments takes the form of construct validity where theoretical constructs are observable and measurable (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Often this is accomplished by comparing study results with a gold-standard (Cortina, 1993; DeVellis, 2003; Holton & Burnett, 2005). Construct validity, therefore, is the extent a measure performs relative to theoretical belief (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). For example, if certain hypotheses were founded as a result of the literature on authentic leadership, and those hypotheses could be operationally measured, then the LARS instrument could achieve content validation. Embedded within the current version of the LARS are indicators of prosocial behavior. If the LARS authenticity component correlated highly to prosocial behaviors, and if prosocial behaviors are a theoretical construct of authenticity (Whitehead, in press), then an argument for initial content validity advances. Unfortunately, the development of the prosocial scale used in the current version of the LARS lacked adequate reliability measures (Cronbach's *alpha* of .47) and may not be an anchoring standard for content validity without additional refinement.

Future Research and Existing Limitations

A number of limiting constraints affected this study. First, the study was compressed into a 90-day window, which impacted the sampling method and eliminated the ability to conduct qualitative interviews on the findings. The latter was unfortunate because the authors hoped to investigate quantitative findings with follow-up qualitative inquiry.

The sampling method used was convenience sampling. While convenience sampling can provide insight for exploratory research, it is recognized as the least accurate method for drawing conclusions about the broader population (Swanson & Holton, 2005). Therefore, caution should be exercised when generalizing the findings of this study. Furthermore, the sample size was not adequate for achieving psychometric adequacy. DeVellis (2003) indicated a sample between 300-400 is an appropriate size for instrument development, though instruments have been developed with smaller samples, such as 200 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Another limitation was the nature of the sample itself. Freshman and sophomore English-major respondents provide a narrow segment of the potential Chinese population. Casting a broader research net is a next step in further testing and validation of the instrument. A number of concerns arise from using undergraduates from the age range of 17-24. First, in order to assess one's leadership ability, experience-driven recall of exercised leadership must occur (Mullen & Tuten, 2004; Schneider, Paul, White, & Holcombe, 1999). Second, leadership studies presume respondents possess a leadership philosophy and a stable leadership framework (Dobosz & Beaty, 1999). Again, some degree of concern occurs in leadership research when respondents likely possess limited experience from which to create a leadership philosophy sufficient to incorporate complex theories such as authenticity. On the other hand, two mitigating factors existed. First, while attitudes concerning leadership differ between adults and college-age youth, the literature also indicates youth, including adolescents, possess a perspective on leadership

(Carter et al., 2003; Martinek, Schilling, & Hellison, 2006). Second, the LARS instrument's design focuses on youth's perspective of authenticity. In other words, the instrument's design targets populations that by their nature have less experience in leadership.

In research involving leadership, particularly an inward-focused theoretical concept such as authenticity, it is helpful to follow the data analysis with a qualitative method such as a phenomenological project involving a subset of respondents. Sanders (1982) suggested phenomenological methods can validate and explain emerging themes from a quantitative study. This study was limited in certain data points available. For example, Shek (2005) found social and leadership attitudinal differences varied with gender by economic circumstance. Identifying non-self-report variables such as grades, economic conditions, and perception by others may enhance the quality of the study, along with the addition of a short social desirability scale (King & Bruner, 2000).

Finally, translating the instrument into Chinese was a major challenge. Due to time constraints, some of the reverse translations did not match exactly with the original English version. The authors elected to push forward with the study since the general meanings were synchronized and deemed close enough. More time on translation and qualitative analysis of authenticity as a construct with Chinese focus groups would have been preferable prior to administering the instrument. Ultimately, the research proved fruitful, as a 21-item short scale of the LARS was potentially identified. However, further testing is needed to explore construct validity.

Conclusion

As a result of this research, we continue to maintain the proposition that authentic leadership as a construct is well supported by the Chinese culture. However, levels of authenticity may not only be difficult to assess (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005) but also may be a moving target. For example, Walker and Shuangye (2007) concluded authenticity would be difficult to operationalize and institutionalize, and Ferrara (1998) pointed out the difficulty in applying universality in measuring constructs across cultures. Authentic leadership is potentially influenced by the culture. As cultures shift and change resulting from international influence or pressure, the very construct of what is authentic as a community may also change. One example cited by Walker and Shuangye is the growth of international schools across the world and their shift from catering to the cultural elite to broader groups of ethnically diversified societies. This merging of cultural influence is sure to have an impact on authentic leadership, which makes it all the more important to press forward with obtaining data from a variety of cultures for comparative study.

In this study, we identified dominant factors that contribute to leadership authenticity as: (a) confident, instinctive, and improve life focus; and (b) ethics, resilience, and loyalty focus. These two factors accounted for 16% of the overall variability and included concepts of building a community of followers who are afforded opportunities to expand their horizons, are loyal, self-reliant, capable, growth-oriented, and also build authentic followership. To this end, the Wenquan et al. (2000) study is the most interesting to us because they attributed personal morality to be 35% of the Chinese leadership philosophy. Wenquan et al.'s definition of personal morality included public service orientation, integrity, honesty, consistency, truth seeking, fairness, being a role-model, self-critical, and accepting of criticism. This definition of personal morality fits well with the theoretical constructs of authentic leadership.

The Chinese culture may have two advantages when it comes to authenticity in leadership. First, one of the most striking differences between American and Chinese cultures is the notion of individualism versus collectivism (Xu, Farver, Schwartz, & Chang, 2003). This difference may favor Chinese in authentic concepts because authenticity requires a measure of self-abandonment on behalf of others (Michie & Gooty, 2005). Second, authentic leaders possess an ability to harbor both belief and doubt in their skills, capabilities, and knowledge (Walker & Shuangye, 2007), which fosters lower levels of egoism and seeds of humility. In essence, authentic leaders are paradoxical. They are both strong and weak, both humble and aggressive, and able to build both self and others. Interestingly, Chinese are adroitly adept at maintaining complex paradoxes as a result of their long history and multiple influences of religious and cultural philosophies (Wong, 2001). Harmonizing multiple opposing ideals is an old game in China. Though this study was limited in scope, we find evidence in the data that leadership authenticity constructs exist in the Chinese respondents.

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Appendix: LARS Instrument

Table A-1: 49-Item Authenticity Instrument

Core	Sub-core variable	Statement
Self-core	Know-self variable	I know myself well
		I continuously evaluate my strengths and weaknesses.
	Perception variable (others perceive me to be authentic)	I am perceived by others to be sincere.
		I am perceived by others to be someone who acts in conjunction with my core beliefs.
	Self-confidence variable	I am confident that I can achieve whatever task is given to me regardless of training or experience.
		I look confident, but inside I doubt myself.
	Not overly egoistic variable	I am not shy about taking credit.
		I prefer to give others credit for the work I do.
	Seek self-improvement variable	I want to improve as a leader.
		My existing talents and strengths are all that I need to be a good leader.
	Perspective (organization vs. individual) variable	I am willing to sacrifice personal happiness to achieve success.
		My personal health and welfare is more important to me than social or professional success.
	True to inner nature variable	I cannot identify my core personal values.
		I follow my instincts and listen to my inner-voice when making a leadership decision.
Positive leader variable	I am a positive person most of the time.	
	I am negative most of the time.	
Hope variable	Having hope is not a part of my leadership attitude.	

Core	Sub-core variable	Statement
Core	Self-resilience variable	I believe something good is always about to happen.
		When I know something is right, I forge ahead regardless of criticism.
Core	Foster others' self-resilience variable	The criticisms and doubts of others do not present obstacles to my personal success.
		I help others to be self-reliant.
Core	Foster others' self-resilience variable	I am known as someone who helps others to become resilient.
Empathetic-core	Expand horizons of others variable	Other people grow their talents because of my leadership.
		I help others see the bigger picture.
	Follower development authenticity variable (developing authenticity in others)	When I help someone develop a skill, I try to do it in a way that fits their personal objective.
		The people that follow me do not always know what is best for them.
	Close gap variable	I seek to eliminate differences between the socially privileged and those with less social status.
		I feel those who are not in a social or leadership position of privilege do not deserve it.
	Remove barriers between leaders and followers variable	A good leader does not socialize with subordinates.
I feel leaders must maintain a social distance from followers.		
Remove barriers between haves and have-nots variable	Being popular improves my ability to be a good leader.	
Trust-building-core	Build trust variable	I think it is ok to be deceptive if the greater good is at stake.
		I feel trust is an important characteristic of a good leader.
	Foster ethical behavior variable	When faced with a dilemma I am willing to sacrifice my own personal benefit for the group's benefit.
		I help others to be ethical.
	Foster moral behavior	I regularly create situations that cause or encourage others to break their moral code.
I try to follow a religious or specific moral code to the best of my ability.		
Builds loyalty variable	If I say I will do something, I always follow through.	
Community-core	Participate in community variable	People are loyal to me because I consistently do what I say I will do.
		I regularly attend extracurricular school activities because I want to support my school.
	Value organizational	I only attend the extracurricular activities that benefit or interest me.
		Traditions are important to me.

Core	Sub-core variable	Statement
	history variable	Traditions are annoying; I would rather discover a new way of doing things. I try to make sure others know important traditions.
	Create responsive social structures variable	Leaders have a social responsibility to create opportunity for others. My leadership style creates situations where people's lives are better.
	Commitment to community success variable	I do not owe the school or my community anything. I am focused on my own success. Team or group success is more important than my personal success.

Table A-2: Self-Declaration Statements

Declaration Variables	Statement
Leadership declaration	I consider myself a leader. Others consider me to be a leader.
Athletes make better leaders	I would follow a leader who was an athlete before I would follow someone who is not an athlete. Athletes are not always leaders.
Gender	In general, I think girls make better leaders than boys.
Authenticity declaration	I consider myself to be authentic The perceived responsibilities of my leadership role heavily influences my decisions I yield to stereotyped rules.

Table A-3: Negative Statement Transformations

Statement
Hope is not part of my leadership attitude
Traditions are annoying, I would rather discover a new way of doing things
A good leader does not socialize with subordinates
I am not shy about taking credit
I regularly do things to cause or encourage others to break their moral code
I do not owe my school or community, I am focused on my own success
It is OK to be deceptive if the greater good is at stake
People that follow me do not always know what is best for them (or When it comes to helping others, I am able to direct them for their own good)
I only attend the extra curricular activities that benefit or interest me
Leaders must maintain social distance from followers
I am negative most of the time
I cannot identify my core values
I feel those who are not in a social or leadership position of privilege do not deserve it.
I am willing to sacrifice personal happiness to achieve success.
My existing talents and strengths are all that I need to be a good leader
Athletes are not always leaders.

The perceived responsibilities of my leadership role heavily influences my decisions
I yield to stereotyped rules.

THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND VALUE CONGRUENCE IN MEDIATING THE IMPACT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON FOLLOWER COMMITMENT IN AMERICAN CHURCHES

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The purpose of this research was to investigate the extent to which psychological empowerment and value congruence with the leader mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment in American churches. Quantitative data from 250 leaders and followers from 5 American churches were collected utilizing four instruments that measured follower commitment, value congruence, transformational leadership characteristics, and psychological empowerment. The research results revealed that transformational leadership had a statistically significant relationship with follower's affective commitment and normative commitment and that these leadership behaviors accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the followers' affective commitment and 31.4% of the variance in the followers' normative commitment. The research results also reveal that psychological empowerment and value congruence partially mediated that relationship.

Transformational leadership has been positively associated with commitment to different types of organizations (Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995). Bass and Avolio (1994), Yammarino, Spangler, and Bass (1993), and Avolio (1999) have provided several ways in which transformational leaders impact the commitment of followers. These researchers stated that encouragement of critical thinking, involvement with decision making, and the appreciation of the followers' needs are some ways transformational leaders influence follower commitment to the organization in a positive. Although a plethora of research has found that transformational leaders positively impact those they lead in a variety of organizations, empirical research demonstrating the influence of transformational leaders on followers in organizations whose members are engaged because of a strong sense of mission, such as American churches, is lacking. In these organizations, follower perceptions of their own empowerment to fulfill their mission at work and perceptions that their personal values are congruent with those of the

organization may have particularly strong effects. This study addresses the problem of follower commitment in American churches and seeks to explore the extent to which psychological empowerment and value congruence may mediate the relationship between leader style and follower commitment.

Psychological empowerment is a key component of transformational leadership in increasing the commitment of followers to the organization (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1999; Yukl, 1998). Prior research has demonstrated that followers who are empowered display more commitment to the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999). If psychological empowerment does mediate the relationship between leader style and follower commitment, transformational leaders who practice psychological empowerment skills are provided with another tool by which leaders can work to enhance the commitment level of followers to the organization.

Personal and organizational values can have a profound impact on the behavior of employees. Prior research has shown that value congruence between the leader and the follower can help develop positive work attitudes (Posner, 1992) as well as lead to employee satisfaction and commitment (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). Value congruence between leaders and followers can assist in strengthening work relationships. Followers whose values align with the values of their leader oftentimes view their leader as being a capable leader who epitomizes success (Weis, 1978). If value congruence does mediate the relationship between leader style and follower commitment, transformational leaders whose values are congruent with their followers will have greater opportunities to help followers impact the organization in a positive way through developing strong work relationships which are grounded in a resilient value system, which can lead to increased follower commitment to the organization.

The specific research questions addressed in this study as related to the research problem are stated below:

Research Question 1. Do transformational leadership behaviors positively impact follower commitment in American churches?

Research Question 2. Do psychological empowerment and value congruence mediate the effect of transformational leadership on follower commitment in American churches?

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment in American churches. Specifically, this research investigated the mediating influence of psychological empowerment and value congruence between the leader's style and the follower's commitment. Although the style of the leader is important in achieving organizational goals, certain characteristics exhibited by the follower, such as the follower's perception of his/her performance, can also assist in achieving organizational goals (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002)

A quantitative methodology was utilized to explore this relationship in American churches. Investigating the relationship between transformational leadership, psychological empowerment, and value congruence and their influence upon the commitment of followers in American churches adds to the growing body of literature on transformational leadership. This study also demonstrates the relevance of this particular leadership style in an organizational setting that emphasizes the importance of transformed individuals. The characteristics displayed

by transformational leaders can assist followers in reaching their greatest potential within their organizations (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002).

Theoretical Background and Model

The theoretical framework for transformational leadership used in this research was first postulated by Burns (1978). Burns is given credit for conceptualizing this particular type of leadership. His concept of transformational leadership has a moral component, which is explained as follows:

Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused. Power bases are linked not as counterweights but as mutual support for common purpose. Various names are used for such leadership, some of them derisory: elevating, mobilizing, inspiring, exalting, uplifting, preaching, exhorting, evangelizing. The relationship can be moralistic, of course. But transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both. (Burns, p. 20)

In accordance with Burns' concept of transformational leadership, transformational leaders are able to define and articulate a clear vision for the organizations in which they work (Emery & Barker, 2007). Transformational leaders are also able to assist followers in clarifying motives and satisfying needs related to the organization by engaging the whole person (Burns).

The concept of transformational leadership was later enhanced by Bass (1985), who explained transformational leadership in relation to its influence on followers' feelings (trust, admiration, and loyalty) toward their leaders (Krishnan, 2005). Bass (1998) described transformational leadership as consisting of four major components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Prior to Bass' description of transformational leadership, this style of leadership had been defined using the following characteristics: charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass, 1990). Through research and various modifications of the transformational leadership theory, a fourth element of transformational leadership called inspirational motivation was discovered (Barbuto, 2005). After receiving much criticism, charisma was dropped from the list of transformational leadership characteristics and idealized influence was added (Barbuto, 2005; Barbuto, 1997; Hunt, 1999).

Transformational Leadership and Follower Commitment

Organizational commitment has been described

...in terms of the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (c) a definite desire

to maintain organizational membership. (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974, p. 604)

In a study conducted by Dubinsky, Yammario, and Spangler (1995), researchers found that transformational leadership enhances the commitment of followers to the organization. In addition, transformational leadership has been shown to influence commitment without leaders having to provide incentives or having to invoke punishments (Bass, 1985).

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) suggested that leadership is a determining factor of organizational commitment. In prior research, Shamir and others (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998) have suggested a link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, which involves promoting organizational values related to achieving organizational goals as well as places an emphasis on the commitment of both leaders and followers to accomplishing the organization's mission and vision (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004).

In a study conducted by Catano, Pond, and Calloway (2001), transformational leadership was shown to positively influence the commitment levels of employees working in a volunteer organization. In a comparison between volunteer workers and union workers, volunteer leaders demonstrated higher levels of transformational leadership with their followers than the union leaders, and the volunteer workers were more committed to the organization than the union workers (Catano, Pond, & Calloway). Volunteer organizations can be good environments for assessing commitment and leadership since there is no employment or contractual relationship between the volunteers and the organization (Catano, Pond, & Calloway).

Transformational leadership has been shown to positively influence organizational commitment in a variety of organizational settings (Bono & Judge, 2003; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). The specific transformational leadership behaviors that may influence organizational commitment are idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration. This study investigated the differential effects of these four components of transformational leadership on follower commitment. Each component was investigated separately in reference to its relationship to the follower's commitment to the organization. Follower commitment was described based on two dimensions of organizational commitment depicted by Meyer and Allen (1997): affective commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment focuses on the emotions, attitudes, and attachments that employees have to the organization (Kanter, 1968; Sheldon, 1971), whereas normative commitment focuses on the employee's desire to remain committed to the organization and exceed normal expectations irrespective of any amount of satisfaction the employee may get from working with the organization (Wiener & Gechman, 1977; Marchiori & Henkin, 2004). It is hypothesized that the four components of transformational leadership will positively affect both dimensions of follower commitment.

H_{1,1}: Individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence will have a positive impact on the follower's affective commitment.

H_{1,2}: Individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence will have a positive impact on the follower's normative commitment.

Bass (1985) viewed transformational leadership and transactional leadership as having characteristics which could complement each other and help leaders achieve organizational goals (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). The primary focal point of contingent reward leadership is on transactions, exchanges, and contingent rewards and punishment (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Leaders who display contingent reward behaviors identify the needs of followers and help the followers to meet those needs in exchange for follower performance (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky). Contingent rewards leadership, one of the components of transactional leadership, has been shown to demonstrate high correlation with transformational leadership behaviors in previous research (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Therefore, it is hypothesized that contingent rewards leadership will have a positive influence on follower commitment.

H_{2.1}: Contingent reward leadership will have a positive impact on the follower's affective commitment.

H_{2.2}: Contingent reward leadership will have a positive impact on the follower's normative commitment.

Transformational Leadership and Follower Commitment: Psychological Empowerment as Mediator

The construct of psychological empowerment has its inception in two theories of organization: participative management and employee involvement (Cotton, 1993; Wagner, 1994). Empowerment can lead to positive organizational and individual outcomes (Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004). Spreitzer (1995) described psychological empowerment as having four components: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, which work together to assist employees in shaping the context of their work environment. Past research (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999; Sims & Kroeck, 1994) has suggested a relationship between empowered followers and follower commitment to the organization which proposes that followers who are empowered may possibly be more committed to the organization. When employees are empowered, they portray a greater level of self-confidence and have a greater sense of being able to influence their work environment in a positive way (Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004).

Several definitions have been offered for psychological empowerment. Prior research by Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) have resulted in psychological empowerment being defined in narrow terms as the motivational concept of self-efficacy and in broad terms as increased intrinsic task motivation. The construct of psychological empowerment may be an important one in organizational research because prior research has suggested that employees who feel more empowered by their supervisors demonstrate more commitment to the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999).

Transformational leaders may use intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration as a means of empowering followers by challenging the follower's beliefs, values, and mindsets (Avolio et al., 2004). These leaders also direct their attention towards mentoring and coaching their followers in an effort to prepare followers to take on greater responsibility in the organization with the ultimate goal of helping followers to become leaders (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1998). In addition, transformational leaders who utilize individualized consideration as a means of empowering followers listen to their followers and pay close attention to their

followers' need to develop (Avolio et al.) while directing their efforts towards mentoring and coaching their followers in an effort to encourage followers to take on more responsibility and develop to their fullest potential (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Kark & Shamir, 2002). Based on prior research, it is hypothesized that psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment.

H_{3.1}: Psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence) and contingent reward leadership and the follower's affective commitment.

H_{3.2}: Psychological empowerment will mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence) and contingent reward leadership and the follower's normative commitment.

Transformational Leadership and Follower Commitment: Value Congruence as Mediator

Krishnan (2002) described leadership in the context of its relationship to the values of leaders and followers. Krishnan stated personal values influence the actions of individuals, and building a relationship between leaders and followers requires that an appreciation for personal values be considered. Prior research (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Lock, 1996) has demonstrated that value congruence is an important part of the leadership process. Value congruence between leaders and followers may be viewed as the degree to which the leaders' values and the followers' values agree (Krishnan, 2005). "Value congruence indicates a harmonious relationship between leader and subordinate, and should therefore result in greater satisfaction over time. Value congruence also indicates a strong identification of the subordinate with the leader" (Krishnan, 2002, p. 22).

In a study conducted by House (1977), the researcher discovered that followers only imitate the terminal values of transformational leaders. A list of Rokeach's (1973) terminal values is stated below:

1. A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
2. An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
3. A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
4. A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
5. A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
6. Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
7. Family security (taking care of loved ones)
8. Freedom (independence, free choice)
9. Happiness (contentedness)
10. Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)
11. Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
12. National security (protection from attack)
13. Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
14. Salvation (saved, eternal life)
15. Self-respect (self-esteem)

16. Social recognition (respect, admiration)
17. True friendship (close companionship)
18. Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

According to Krishnan (2002), “Transformational leadership focuses on the joint purposes of leader and follower, and often results in transforming those purposes. Only terminal values pertain to end-states of existence, and so the leadership that focuses on purposes will be related only to terminal values” (p. 23). The role that transformational leaders play in communicating values to followers is crucial (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). As transformational leaders articulate an inspired vision, there is an expectation that their followers will agree to and adopt the values and vision of the leader (Avolio & Bass, 1988).

Transformational leadership places enormous emphasis on values. Value congruence between the leader and the follower can assist in producing a work environment which reflects purposeful leadership (Krishnan, 2002). According to Jung and Avolio (2000), value congruence helps followers in being able to shift their motivation and make the interests of the organization primary over and above their own self-interest. In transformational leadership, both the leader and the follower help raise each other’s motivation levels (Burns, 1978). Therefore, value congruence has important implications for transformational leadership (Krishnan).

In a study conducted by Krishnan (2002), the four components of transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, idealized influence) were shown to have a significantly positively relationship with value congruence of the leader and the follower. In a study conducted by Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins, value congruence between the leader and the follower was found to have a significant impact on follower commitment. Based on prior research, it is hypothesized that value congruence will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment.

H_{4,1}: Value congruence between leader and follower will mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence) and contingent reward leadership and the follower’s affective commitment.

H_{4,2}: Value congruence between leader and follower will mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence) and contingent reward leadership and the follower’s normative commitment.

Thus, the model depicted in Figure 1 was developed to guide the flow of research in this study:

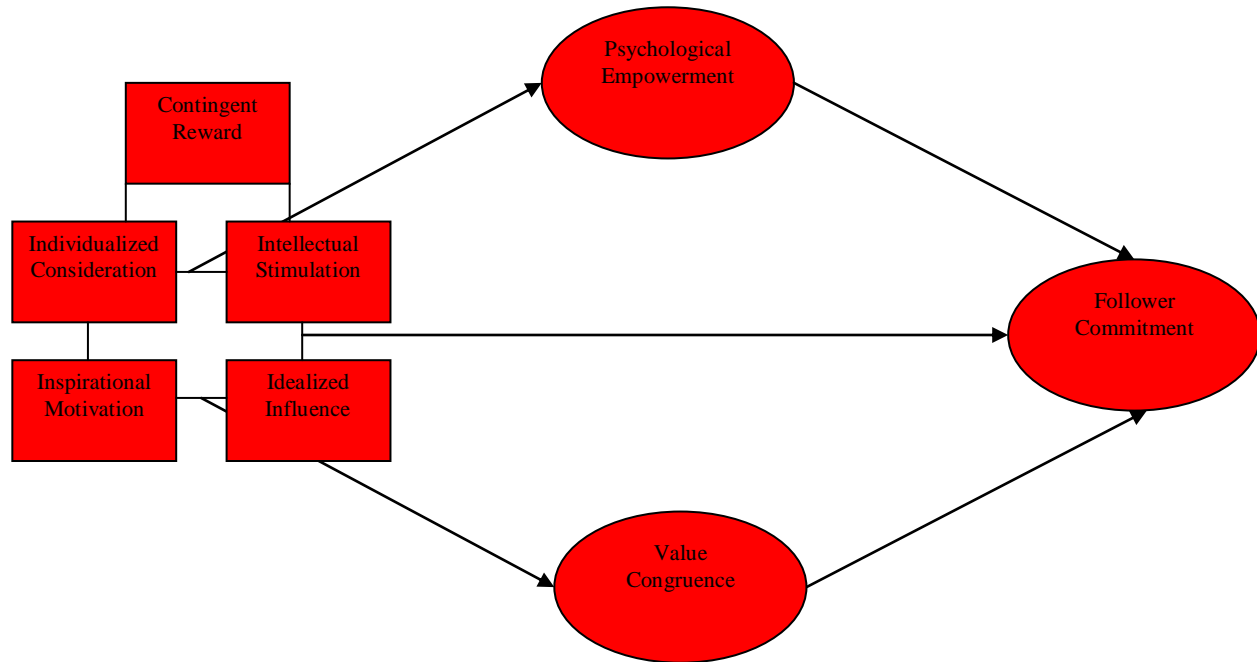


Figure 1. Proposed Research Model.

Methodology

Sample

The research participants consisted of 50 leaders and 200 followers who reported directly to the leaders. Participants were selected from five American churches in the southeast to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment and the role of psychological empowerment and value congruence as mediators of that relationship. The membership sizes of the churches selected for this study ranged from 2,600 to 7,900. Table 1 provides demographic information for the leaders and followers from each of the five churches. Only the data collected from the followers were utilized to test the research hypotheses.

Each church identified 10 leaders and 4 followers per leader to participate in the study. On the average, the leaders had served in their current positions for approximately 7 years and had been associated with their particular churches for approximately 12 years. Years of service with the churches ranged from 3 months to 25 years and the number of years associated with the churches ranged from 6 months to 40 years. The research participants who held leadership positions within the churches served in such roles as Assistant Pastor, Chief Operating Officer, Executive Church Administrator, Youth Pastor, Singles Minister, Christian Education Director, Counseling Director, Missions Director, Director of Media Ministries, Chief Financial Officer, Director of Facilities and Grounds, Deacon Board Chairman, Minister of Music, and Director of Transportation. Forty-eight percent of the leaders were male, and fifty-two percent were female. The average age of the leaders was 45.

Table 1
Demographic Information by Church

	<i>Leader Information</i>				
	Church 1	Church 2	Church 3	Church 4	Church 5
Mean Age (Years)	39.90	48.20	46.30	50.80	39.60
Mean Years in Position	4.10	8.23	7.10	10.10	5.80
Mean Years at Church	7.20	13.90	9.55	16.60	12.10
Percent of Males	40%	50%	60%	40%	50%
Percent of Females	60%	50%	40%	60%	50%
	<i>Follower Information</i>				
	Church 1	Church 2	Church 3	Church 4	Church 5
Mean Age (Years)	41.50	39.53	36.75	38.53	38.08
Mean Years in Position	6.30	5.00	3.58	6.43	4.75
Mean Years at Church	9.11	6.88	6.13	12.03	12.15
Percent of Males	27.5%	30%	37.5%	35%	12.5%
Percent of Females	72.5%	70%	62.5%	65%	87.5%

Measures

Transformational leadership behaviors. Transformational leadership behaviors were measured using the five-item MLQ-5X Scale developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) is the most commonly used instrument for measuring transformational and transactional leadership behavior. This assessment instrument has been used widely in different organizational setting around the world and has been translated into several different languages such as Chinese, Arabic, and French (Hoffman, 2002). The MLQ scale measures 13 different leadership characteristics, which have 45 items associated with them. Respondents rated agreement with the 24 items associated with contingent reward and transformational leadership characteristics (Idealized Attributes, Idealized Behavior, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration) utilizing a five-point Likert-type scale (0 “not at all,” 4 “frequently, if not always”). Sample items from the scale included: “I act in ways that build others’ respect for me” (Idealized Influence Attributed); “I talk about my most important values and beliefs” (Idealized Influence Behavior); “I seek differing perspectives when solving problems” (Intellectual Stimulation); “I talk optimistically about the future” (Inspirational Motivation); and “I spend time teaching and coaching” (Individual Consideration).

According to Avolio and Bass (2004), reliability for the MLQ 5X was presented as follows: Cronbach alpha for all of the transformational styles ranged from 0.83 to 0.70. Cronbach alpha for the transactional leadership styles ranged from 0.75 and 0.69. Cronbach alpha was 0.71 for the non-transactional style, laissez-faire. As stated earlier, the lower limits of acceptability of a Cronbach alpha value is between 0.60 and 0.70 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Cronbach’s alpha in the study sample was 0.85 for the intellectual stimulation scale, 0.84 for idealized influence-attributed, 0.84 for the idealized influence-behavior scale, 0.84 for inspirational motivation, 0.86 for individualized consideration, and 0.79 for the contingent reward scale.

Follower commitment. Follower commitment was measured using Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) Commitment Survey. The survey assesses three aspects (affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment) of employee commitment to the organization utilizing a seven-item scale. The continuance scale was not used in this research. A sample of some of the items listed on Meyer and Allen's survey which were used in this research are: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" or "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" or "This organization deserves my loyalty." For each item, respondents must indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree (1 "strongly disagree;" 7 "strongly agree"). "This scale has been widely used in the field and has median reliabilities (assessed using coefficient alphas) across many studies of .85 for affective commitment, .73 for normative commitment and .79 for continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996)" (Finegan, 2000, p. 156). Cronbach's alpha in the study sample was 0.83 for the affective commitment scale and 0.91 for the normative commitment scale.

Psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment was measured using a 12-item measure of empowerment developed by Spreitzer (1995). The reliability and validity for the four dimensions of psychological empowerment has been established in previous research (Spreitzer). Sample items from the questionnaire included: "I am confident about my ability to do my job"; "My job activities are personally meaningful to me"; or "The work I do is important to me." The items are measured using a seven-point Likert response format. Spreitzer reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.72 for the scale. Cronbach's *alpha* in the study sample was 0.92.

Value congruence. The value congruence between the leader and the follower was measured using McDonald and Gandz's (1992) taxonomy of values questionnaire. This instrument was developed based on Rokeach's (1973) list of values. Rokeach's Value Survey is one of the most commonly used instruments for measuring values (Krishnan, 2002). The instrument developed by McDonald and Gandz has been developed for use in modern organizations. "The advantage of this scale is that it offers a reasonably comprehensive list of organizational values that allow one to explore the possibility that different values clusters may be differentially related to commitment" (Finegan, 2000, p. 155). The questionnaire rates the values on the scale using a 7-point scale. This instrument has a test-retest reliability of 0.76, and the inter-rater reliability for employees of an organization was 0.77 (Finegan). Cronbach's alpha in the study sample was 0.90.

Value congruence for each follower was calculated by subtracting the level reported by each follower from the level reported by his/her leader for each of the 24 individual values. Negative values were converted to positive values using the absolute value function. The 24 value responses were summed to get a single value difference for each follower. The single value differences were placed back into SPSS for further analysis. (Note: To capture value congruence, as opposed to the lack of value congruence, the value scores were multiplied by -1.) The smaller the value score, the more congruent the follower's values were with the leader.

Control variables. Prior research regarding gender and organizational commitment has been inconsistent. Some studies show that men are more committed to the organization than women. On the other hand, there have also been studies demonstrating that females are more committed to the organization than their male counterparts. In their study, Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner, and Kent (2005) reported that females have a higher level of affective commitment to the organization than males. Marchiori and Henkin's (2004) research showed that women had a greater level of normative commitment to the organization than men.

Additionally, Singh, Finn, and Goulet's (2004) research results demonstrated that women had a greater level of commitment to the organization than men. In contrast, in studies conducted by Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) and Kaldenberg, Becker, and Zvonkovic (1995), research results showed that men were more committed to the organization than women.

Prior research (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Ang, Dyne, & Begley, 2003; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) has also shown that tenure (number of years of service with the organization) is a predictor of follower commitment. Therefore, leaders and subordinates were asked to report their gender and number of years of service with the organization and these variables were statistically controlled in the analysis.

Procedure

Data were collected in five churches. The questionnaires were hand-delivered to the pastor of each church in sealed envelopes by the researcher. The researcher chose to have the questionnaires in this research study directly administered to the research participants. The researcher went to each church where the leaders and followers were assembled to administer the survey. Direct administration of surveys usually results in a high response rate, close to 100 percent. It also allows the researcher to be present to answer any questions that research participants may have (Ary, Jacobs, Razahieh, & Sorensen, 2006). All 250 research participants were present to complete the surveys. After the questionnaires were completed, the researcher collected the questionnaires from the pastor of each church.

To ensure that the researcher would be able to match the leader information with the appropriate followers, each survey was coded with a unique identification number established by the researcher which identified the leader, his/her followers, and the church sample number. Each envelope contained a cover letter from the researcher to the participants with instructions for completing the questionnaire along with assurances that confidentiality and anonymity of the research participants would be maintained. No personally identifying information was collected from the participants. Additional information such as gender, age, length of time in current position, and length of time in church was collected from the participants.

Results

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between the independent variables (the dimensions of transformational leadership - individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence, and contingent reward) and the dependent variables (affective and normative organizational commitment). The means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix for all of the study variables are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviation, and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables (N=200)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>Control Variables:</i>														
1. Gender (M = 1; F = 2)	1.72	.45	-											
2. Tenure	9.26	8.76	.07	-										
<i>Independent Variables:</i>														
3. Idealized Influence (Att.)	2.95	.94	.06	.11	(.84)	-----								
4. Idealized Influence (Beh.)	2.98	.94	.10	.09	.88**	(.84)	-----							
5. Inspirational Motivation	3.11	.91	.18**	.05	.85**	.85**	(.84)	-----						
6. Intellectual Stimulation	2.68	.92	.08	-.01	.63**	.65**	.67**	(.85)	-----					
7. Individual Consideration	2.78	.00	.12	.07	.82**	.77**	.82**	.74**	(.86)	-----				
8. Contingent Reward	2.93	.92	.08	.03	.78**	.74**	.75**	.74**	.81**	(.79)	-----			
<i>Dependent Variable:</i>														
9. Affective Commitment	4.82	.43	.15*	.21**	.44**	.47**	.41**	.39**	.51**	.42**	(.83)	-----		
10. Normative Commitment	5.06	.53	.13	.22**	.42**	.45**	.41**	.39**	.50**	.43**	.91**	(.91)	-----	
<i>Mediator Variables:</i>														
11. Value Congruence	5.23	.00	.04	-.04	-.14	-.23**	-.16*	-.32**	-.23**	-.22**	-.38**	-.38**	(.90)	-----
12. Psych. Empowerment	24.69	15.57	.02	.22**	.40**	.44**	.35**	.36**	.40**	.36**	.44**	.47**	-.21**	(.92)

Alpha coefficients are in parenthesis along the diagonal; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

In the analysis of data, men were coded using a “1” while women were coded using a “2”. The descriptive statistics show that more women participated in the study than did men ($M = 1.72$, $SD = .45$). The descriptive statistics also demonstrate that inspirational motivation ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .91$), individualized influence (behavior) ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .94$), and individualized influence (attributed) ($M = 2.95$, $SD = .94$), are recognized more frequently by followers in this study, followed by contingent reward ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .92$), individualized consideration ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 1.00$), and intellectual stimulation ($M = 2.68$, $SD = .92$). The descriptive statistics also show that the normative commitment scores are slightly higher than the scores for affective commitment.

Table 3 shows the results of the regression analysis for the independent and the dependent variables.

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Analysis predicting affective and normative organizational commitment

Variables	Affective Commitment				Normative commitment			
	b	se	β	p-value	b	se	β	p-value
<i>Step 1: Control Variables</i>								
Gender	.47	.22	.15	.03	.43	.23	.13	.06
Tenure	.03	.01	.21	.00	.04	.01	.22**	.00
<i>Step 2: Leadership Behaviors</i>								
Idealized Influence (Att.)	-.08	.23	-.05	.73	-.29	.25	-.18	.25
Idealized Influence (Beh.)	.52	.21	.34	.02	.54	.23	.33	.02
Inspirational Motivation	-.46	.22	-.29	.04	-.30	.24	-.18	.20
Intellectual Stimulation	.06	.15	.04	.69	.04	.16	.02	.81
Individualized Consideration	.67	.19	.47	.00	.66	.20	.43	.00
Contingent Reward	.11	.18	.01	.95	.13	.19	.08	.51
R^2 (Control and Leadership Variables)	.33				.31			
R^2 Change (Control Variables)	.07				.06			
R^2 Change (Leadership Variables)	.26				.25			

The model consisting of gender, tenure, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence, and contingent reward was significant, explaining 32.8% of the variance in the follower's affective commitment, $F(8,191) = 11.63$, $p < .001$, and 31.4% of the variance in the follower's normative commitment, $F(8,191) = 10.92$, $p < .001$, after controlling for gender and tenure. The results show that idealized influence (behavior) and individualized consideration were the only two independent variables to have a positive statistically significant relationship with the follower's affective and normative commitment. These findings provide partial support for $H_{1,1}$ and $H_{1,2}$; however, $H_{2,1}$ and $H_{2,2}$ are

not supported because contingent reward leadership was not found to have a statistically significant relationship with followers' affective or normative commitment. Inspirational motivation had a statistically significant relationship with followers' affective commitment; however, that relationship was negative.

Table 4

Testing for Psychological Empowerment as Mediator in Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Affective Commitment

Step	Variable	<i>b</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value
Step 1	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Affective Commitment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.08	-.05	.73
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.52	.34*	.02
	Inspirational Motivation	-.46	-.29*	.04
	Intellectual Stimulation	.06	.04	.69
	Individualized Consideration	.67	.47***	.00
	Contingent Reward	.11	.01	.95
Step 2	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Psychological Empowerment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.01	-.01	.95
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.43	.39**	.01
	Inspirational Motivation	-.24	-.22	.14
	Intellectual Stimulation	.16	.15	.14
	Individualized Consideration	.19	.19	.16
	Contingent Reward	-.04	-.04	.75
Step 3	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Affective Commitment			
	<i>Mediator Variable</i> Psychological Empowerment	.33	.23***	.00
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.08	-.05	.73
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.38	.25	.07
	Inspirational Motivation	-.38	-.24	.08
	Intellectual Stimulation	.01	.00	.97
	Individualized Consideration	.61	.43***	.00
Contingent Reward	.03	.02	.89	

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

Table 5
Testing for Psychological Empowerment as Mediator in Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Normative Commitment

Step	Variable	<i>b</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value
Step 1	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Normative Commitment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.29	-.18	.25
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.54	.33	.02
	Inspirational Motivation	-.30	-.18	.20
	Intellectual Stimulation	.04	.02	.81
	Individualized Consideration	.66	.43	.00
	Contingent Reward	.13	.08	.51
Step 2	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Psychological Empowerment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.01	-.01	.95
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.43	.40	.01
	Inspirational Motivation	-.24	-.22	.14
	Intellectual Stimulation	.16	.15	.14
	Individualized Consideration	.19	.19	.16
	Contingent Reward	-.04	-.04	.75
Step 3	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Normative Commitment			
	<i>Mediator Variable</i> Psychological Empowerment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.28	-.17	.24
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.37	.23	.11
	Inspirational Motivation	-.20	-.12	.37
	Intellectual Stimulation	-.03	-.02	.86
	Individualized Consideration	.58	.38**	.00
Contingent Reward	.15	.09	.44	

Table 6
Testing for Value Congruence as Mediator in Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Affective Commitment

Step	Variable	<i>b</i>	β	<i>p</i> -value
Step 1	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Affective Commitment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.08	-.05	.73
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.52	.34	.02
	Inspirational Motivation	-.46	-.29	.04
	Intellectual Stimulation	.06	.04	.69
	Individualized Consideration	.67	.47	.00
	Contingent Reward	.01	.01	.95
Step 2	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Value Congruence			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	7.04	.43	.01
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	6.91	.42	.01
	Inspirational Motivation	3.56	.21	.18
	Intellectual Stimulation	5.06	.30	.01
	Individualized Consideration	2.97	.19	.20
	Contingent Reward	.50	.03	.82
Step 3	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Affective Commitment			
	<i>Mediator Variable</i> Value Congruence	.03	.27	.00
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.09	.06	.68
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.35	.23	.09
	Inspirational Motivation	-.37	-.23	.08
	Intellectual Stimulation	-.07	-.04	.65
	Individualized Consideration	.60	.42	.00
Contingent Reward	-.00	-.00	.10	

Table 7
Testing for Value Congruence as Mediator in Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Normative Commitment

Step	Variable	b	β	p-value
Step 1	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Normative Commitment			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.29	-.18	.25
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.54	.33	.02
	Inspirational Motivation	-.30	-.18	.20
	Intellectual Stimulation	.04	.02	.81
	Individualized Consideration	.66	.43	.00
	Contingent Reward	.13	.08	.51
Step 2	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Value Congruence			
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	7.04	.43	.01
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	6.91	.42	.01
	Inspirational Motivation	3.56	.21	.18
	Intellectual Stimulation	5.06	.30	.01
	Individualized Consideration	2.97	.19	.20
	Contingent Reward	.50	.03	.82
Step 3	<i>Criterion Variable</i> Normative Commitment			
	<i>Mediator Variable</i> Value Congruence	.03	.27	.00
	<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.10	.06	.68
	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	-.36	.22	.11
	Inspirational Motivation	-.21	-.12	.36
	Intellectual Stimulation	-.10	-.06	.54
	Individualized Consideration	.58	.38	.00
Contingent Reward	.12	.07	.54	

Moreover, it was hypothesized that psychological empowerment and value congruence would mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, individualized influence, and contingent reward) and the followers' affective and normative commitment. Tables 4 – 7 contain the analysis necessary to examine the mediation-related hypotheses (H_{3.1},

H_{3.2}, H_{4.1}, and H_{4.2}). The results of the analysis demonstrate that psychological empowerment and value congruence partially mediated the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variables.

Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) steps for testing mediation, it was first established that the predictor variables (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward) were related to the criterion variables (affective commitment and normative commitment) by regressing the transformational leadership behaviors on the followers' commitment (Step 1). The transformational leadership behaviors were significantly associated with affective commitment (see Table 4) and normative commitment (see Table 5). Specifically, idealized influence behavior ($b = .52, \beta = .34, p = .02$), inspirational motivation ($b = -.46, \beta = -.29, p = .04$), and individualized consideration ($b = .67, \beta = .47, p = .00$) had statistically significant relationships with the followers' affective commitment. Idealized influence behavior ($b = .54, \beta = .33, p = .02$) and individualized consideration ($b = .66, \beta = .43, p = .00$) had statistically significant relationships with the followers' normative commitment. Therefore, the requirement for mediation in Step 1 was met.

Next, to establish that the transformational leadership behaviors were related to the hypothesized mediator (psychological empowerment), psychological empowerment was regressed on the transformational leadership behaviors (Step 2). The transformational leadership behaviors were also significantly associated with psychological empowerment. Specifically, idealized influence behavior ($b = .43, \beta = .40, p = .01$) had a statistically significant relationship with psychological empowerment. Therefore, the condition for Step 2 was met.

To test whether the hypothesized mediator, psychological empowerment, was related to the criterion variables (affective and normative commitment), the followers' affective and normative commitment were regressed onto both the transformational leadership behaviors and psychological empowerment (Step 3). Psychological empowerment was significantly related to the followers' affective ($b = .33, \beta = .23, p = .00$) and normative commitment ($b = .40, \beta = .27, p = .00$), controlling for the transformational leadership behaviors. Step 3 also provided an estimate of the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors and the followers' affective and normative commitment, controlling for psychological empowerment. The relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (specifically, individualized consideration) and the followers' affective commitment was still significant ($b = .61, \beta = .43, p = .00$), although the B was smaller after the inclusion of the mediating variable ($b = .67, \beta = .47, p = .00$), which suggests partial mediation. Likewise, the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (specifically, individualized consideration) and the followers' normative commitment was also still significant ($b = .58, \beta = .38, p = .00$), although the B was smaller after the inclusion of the mediating variable ($b = .66, \beta = .43, p = .00$), which also suggests partial mediation. These findings provide partial support for H_{3.1} and H_{3.2}.

The same procedures were carried out to test the mediating affect of value congruence on the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variables.

It was first established that the predictor variables (idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and contingent reward) were related to the criterion variables (affective commitment and normative commitment) by regressing the transformational leadership behaviors on the followers' commitment (Step 1). The transformational leadership behaviors were significantly associated with affective commitment (see Table 6) and normative

commitment (see Table 7). Specifically, idealized influence behavior ($b = .52, \beta = .34, p = .02$), inspirational motivation ($b = -.46, \beta = -.29, p = .04$), and individualized consideration ($b = .67, \beta = .47, p = .00$) had statistically significant relationships with the followers' affective commitment. Idealized influence behavior ($b = .54, \beta = .33, p = .02$) and individualized consideration ($b = .66, \beta = .43, p = .00$) had statistically significant relationships with the followers' normative commitment. Therefore, the requirement for mediation in Step 1 was met.

Next, to establish that the transformational leadership behaviors were related to the hypothesized mediator (value congruence), value congruence was regressed on the transformational leadership behaviors (Step 2). The transformational leadership behaviors were also significantly associated with value congruence. Specifically, idealized influence attributed ($b = 7.04, \beta = .43, p = .01$), idealized influence behavior ($b = -6.91, \beta = -.42, p = .01$), and intellectual stimulation ($b = -5.06, \beta = -.30, p = .01$) had a statistically significant relationship with value congruence. Therefore, the condition for Step 2 was met.

To test whether the hypothesized mediator, value congruence, was related to the criterion variables (affective and normative commitment), the followers' affective and normative commitment were regressed onto both the transformational leadership behaviors and value congruence (Step 3). Value congruence was significantly related to the followers' affective ($b = -.03, \beta = -.27, p = .00$) and normative commitment ($b = -.03, \beta = -.27, p = .00$), controlling for the transformational leadership behaviors. Step 3 also provided an estimate of the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors and the followers' affective and normative commitment, controlling for value congruence. The relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (specifically, individualized consideration) and the followers' affective commitment was still significant ($b = .60, \beta = .42, p = .00$), although the B was smaller after the inclusion of the mediating variable ($b = .67, \beta = .47, p = .00$), which suggests partial mediation. Likewise, the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors (specifically, individualized consideration) and the followers' normative commitment was also still significant ($b = .58, \beta = .38, p = .00$), although the b was smaller after the inclusion of the mediating variable ($B = .66, \beta = .43, p = .00$), which also suggests partial mediation. These findings provide partial support for $H_{4.1}$ and $H_{4.2}$.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment and the mediating influence of psychological empowerment and value congruence on that relationship. Transformational leadership theory includes four behavioral traits (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration) and posits that leaders who practice these traits can transform those they lead by helping followers accomplish more than they originally expected (Bass, 1990). Congruent with previous research (Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Dum Dum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002), the results of this study found a positive relationship between transformational leadership traits and follower commitment. However, contrary to what was expected, there was no positive relationship found between contingent reward leadership and follower commitment.

In this study, follower commitment was described based on the two dimensions of organizational commitment depicted by Meyer and Allen (1997): affective commitment and normative commitment. Although contingent reward leadership has been shown to demonstrate

high correlation with the transformational leadership behaviors in previous research (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999), it is possible that the system of rewards and/or punishment in exchange for performance which characterizes contingent reward leadership may have less appeal to followers than transformational leadership since contingent reward leadership requires that the follower give something of value (performance) in order to receive something of value (reward). If what the follower gives (i.e., performance) is not seen as being of value to the organization, by the very nature of contingent reward leadership, the organization gives the follower what contingent reward leadership demands—punishment—which provides very little incentive for the follower to be committed to the organization.

This study also examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment. Psychological empowerment consists of four components (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact), and it has been suggested that these four components assist followers in influencing their work environment (Spreitzer, 1995). In this study, psychological empowerment was shown to partially mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment. These results stand in contradiction to what was expected and to what has been demonstrated in previous research in that psychological empowerment has been shown to fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment (Jung & Avolio, 1998).

Based on Baron and Kenney's (1986) steps for mediation, only three of the four criteria for mediation were fully met. After introducing psychological empowerment into the equation, one of the transformational leadership characteristics (individualized consideration) remained statistically significant. Prior research has suggested that individualized consideration is one of the ways that transformational leaders can empower followers. Individualized consideration allows transformational leaders to operate as mentors and/or coaches with their followers, thereby providing them with personal attention which may help to encourage the follower's commitment to the organization. One possible explanation for the unexpected results relative to individualized consideration could be that the research was conducted in churches as opposed to corporate organizations. Followers in churches may possibly view their commitment or allegiance as rightfully belonging to the leader of the Christian faith, Jesus Christ, as opposed to an organization. Therefore, any personal mentoring or coaching that these followers receive from transformational leaders may only serve to further enhance their commitment or allegiance to Jesus Christ as opposed to His Church.

Furthermore, the research findings also showed that value congruence partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment. Value congruence between the leader and the follower is an important factor in transformational leadership, and prior research Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins (1989) has shown that similar values between the leader and the follower may result in the follower being more committed to the organization. Based on this fact, it was expected that value congruence would fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment. However, the research results only found support for partial mediation since value congruence was found not to mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership trait of individualized consideration and follower commitment.

As suggested with the mediation results relative to psychological empowerment, these results may also be related to the sample chosen for this research study. The sample consisted of followers in a religious organization, in particular, the church. For the most part, followers in this

type of organization base their values on the promises found in the Bible. Although the leader and the follower may share the same biblically-based values, this value congruency may not necessarily impact the follower's commitment to the organization because the follower may see his/her values as being inextricably tied to his/her faith in the promises of Jesus Christ as opposed to his/her commitment to the church.

Theoretical Implications

Transformational leadership behaviors assist leaders in helping followers achieve more than they originally expected (Bass, 1985). Affective commitment focuses on an individual's emotional ties to an organization, identity with the organization, and involvement with the organization; normative commitment focuses on an individual's feelings of obligation to the organization. The research results showed that although transformational leadership behaviors and contingent reward leadership have a positive relationship with both followers' affective and normative commitment, these leadership behaviors only accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the followers' affective commitment and 31.4% of the variance in the followers' normative commitment. These findings demonstrate that if church leaders want their followers to be more committed to the organization, the leaders must increase their practice of the characteristics of transformational leadership.

Prior research has shown that individualized consideration can be used by transformational leaders to empower followers by challenging the follower's beliefs, values, and mindsets (Avolio et al., 2004). Prior research has also shown that individualized consideration has a statistically significant relationship with value congruence (Krishnan, 2002). However, when the mediating variables were added to the regression equation, the research results contradicted prior research relative to the influence of the mediating variables on individualized consideration. The research results showed that these variables did not mediate the relationship between individualized consideration and the dependent variables. On the other hand, psychological empowerment and value congruence were found to mediate the relationship between idealized influence and the dependent variables.

Practical Implications

The practical implications of the findings are apparent. First, the leaders in the study are not fully exemplifying the characteristics of transformational leadership. Churches are organizations that place an emphasis on transforming followers. The principles found in the transformational leadership characteristics can help leaders achieve goals related to transforming followers. The organizations included in this study can address this issue by providing transformational leadership training for their leaders. Leadership training can heighten the awareness of church leadership to the importance of transformational leadership and provide the leaders with practical training to help them become effective transformational leaders, which may, in turn, help followers exhibit more commitment to the organization.

Second, transformational leadership can help leaders empower their followers. Psychological empowerment was found to mediate the relationship between the leader's style and the follower's commitment. Empowered followers are generally more committed to the organization, exude more confidence, and believe they can influence the organization in a positive way (Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004). By learning how to empower followers through

sharing an inspired vision and encouraging followers' involvement in achieving organizational goals, leaders within the church can help followers become more committed to the organization's mission, vision, and strategic goals.

Finally, transformational leadership can also help leaders instill the organization's values into followers. In churches, the values of the organization are generally biblically-based values. By practicing transformational leadership behaviors, leaders can help motivate followers to adopt the biblically-based values of the organization over any personal values that the follower may have which may not find its roots in the Bible. Prior research (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Lock, 1996) has demonstrated that value congruence is an important part of the leadership process. The average mean value for the followers was 24.69, which demonstrates that the values of the followers were congruent with the values of the leaders.

Limitations and Future Research

The study was limited to one particular type of organizational setting, churches. Future research should be conducted in other types of organizational settings to see if the research results can be duplicated, which would provide support for generalizability of the research results. In addition, the mediating variables were limited to psychological empowerment and value congruence. Future research should be conducted to examine other mediating variables not included in this study that may impact the relationship between the leader's style and the follower's commitment. In addition, future research should also focus on moderating variables that may impact this relationship, as well as other independent variables such as the leader's personality and self-efficacy. Another limitation of the study was that self-report measures were used to measure all of the study variables. However, given the type of data the researcher was attempting to collect, it would have been difficult to obtain this information through sources other than the actual leaders and followers with the organizations.

Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and contingent reward leadership and follower commitment in American churches. Specifically, this research investigated the mediating influence of psychological empowerment and value congruence between the leader's style and the follower's commitment. The research results revealed that the transformational leadership behaviors and contingent reward leadership had a statistically significant relationship with follower's affective commitment and normative commitment, and that these leadership behaviors accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the followers' affective commitment and 31.4% of the variance in the followers' normative commitment. The research results also reveal that psychological empowerment and value congruence partially mediated that relationship.

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BARRIERS TO DEVELOPING ‘LEADERSHIP’ IN THE SULTANATE OF OMAN

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Very little is understood about the applicability of the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf States in general, and the Sultanate of Oman in particular. This article considers the unique context of Oman to produce an interpretation of leadership which stands outside mainstream leadership epistemologies. Thus, there is no explicit model or theory that could be usefully tested in the Omani context. As the article explains, the cultural and institutional dominance of political leadership in the Sultanate extends to organizational behavior. This very rich and embedded context thus provides a considerable challenge to Western based interpretations of and normative approaches to leadership. This article is intended to provide a basis for how leadership may be developed and adapted in the Arab Gulf region in particular and in diverse managerial environments in general.

Along with its Middle East neighbours, the amount of research on the topic of leadership in the Sultanate of Oman is scarce. Furthermore, “leadership studies in the Middle East are almost nonexistent due to the inherent difficulty of conducting organizational research there” (Dorfman & House, 2004, p. 64). It will also come as no surprise to anyone who is familiar with the Middle East in general that the context of Oman is such that it is difficult to conceptualize leadership as developed by theorists and practitioners in the United States, where the bulk of popular leadership theory is derived. However, as countries such as Oman are important in challenging universal conceptions of organizational behavior, the article begins by analyzing the organizational context in Oman. Crucial to understanding this context is the political development of the country; when compared to its immediate Gulf neighbours such as Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, Oman’s development over the last 40 years has been swift and remarkable. A discussion of societal culture follows an analysis of the political context, identifying facets unique to Oman (as opposed to generic Arab characteristics). In addition, the article outlines the key institutional factors that shape leadership in Oman. The point that is emphasised here is that in line with developing countries, the public sector remains the prime driver of the economy. It becomes clear from the article that the scope for the exercise of leadership is tightly constrained in Omani organizations. The context also presents considerable limitations for the application of

theorists, such as Fiedler (1967) for instance, who argued that leaders should and can shape their context. In fact, due to the richness of the organizational environment in Oman, any manifestation of leadership behaviour, as construed by Western theorists, is highly adapted to it. This is not to say Oman lacks leadership; rather, it is practiced beyond the modern organizational structures that have developed rapidly within the country and exhibits behaviours that appear to be inconsistent with contemporary interpretations. The following section describes and elaborates upon the unique institutional and cultural context of Oman.

The Context of the Sultanate of Oman

Oman is a relatively small country in terms of population. In fact, Oman's population of nearly 3.5 million is spread over the third largest land area on the Arabian peninsular (exceeded only by Saudi Arabia and Yemen) (CIA, 2009). Outwardly, Oman shares many of the cultural characteristics of its Arab neighbours, along with rapid economic development, particularly those in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Despite some superficial similarities, the important contextual factors that make Oman unique in the Middle East are as much a product of geography and history as of culture and economic change. To examine all possible factors that shape leadership in Oman would be beyond the scope of this article, but we turn first to the political context of Oman, which shapes the conception of leadership in the country.

Political Context of Oman

Oman's historical development is more closely associated with overseas trade when compared to its Arab neighbors, principally with East Africa. This was largely due to the geography of its interior, which isolated it from other countries on the Arab peninsular (Rippenburg, 1998, p. 3). Trade aside, relative isolation meant that Oman originally managed its own affairs, at least until the 19th century when the British started to exert their influence in the region. Divisions between the interior (Oman) and Muscat (the coastal region) also deepened in the early part of the 20th century. During this period, Oman (both the coast and the interior) was particularly insular. Although its geographical isolation ensured Oman's independence long before its Gulf neighbours were created, the interior of Oman (the Imamate) and Muscat (the Sultanate) on the coast were politically divided until 1955 when the Sultanate prevailed with the assistance of British forces (Cottrell, 1980). However, the unification of Oman was only completed when, following a coup against his father, the present ruler, Sultan Qaboos, came to power in 1970.

Halliday (2000) described Oman as a 'traditional sultanate' transformed into a state by British support. Although the British influence in Oman and the wider Gulf has been considerable, contrary to some opinion, the British made no direct contribution to government or administrative rule in Oman (Rippenburg 1998; Kechichian, 2000). Rather, Oman was subjected to the British 'informal empire' in the region, which effectively ended following Britain's withdrawal from Bahrain in 1971 (Smith, 2004). However, the year 1970 is seen as pivotal in the eyes of Omanis, as the accession of Sultan Qaboos marked the point at which the modernization of the country began.

The political situation of Oman is extremely important when interpreting and understanding organizational leadership. As the country is a monarchical regime, where "monarchs not only reign but rule" (Lucas, 2004, p. 104), the term leadership is directly

associated with the Sultan, rather than business or organizational leaders. Not surprisingly, Oman is also classified as a 'sultanistic' regime, with its governance traditionally marked by a form of exclusionary politics derived from clan-based systems. Along with its Gulf neighbours, the Sultan has no "popularly based legitimacy" (Sadiki, 2004; see also Kamrava, 2005; Brownlee, 2002). Instead, the governance of Oman relies on clan or tribal loyalties as a source of legitimation. Tradition also dictates that executive power is responsive to the monarch rather than legislative power (Lucas, 2004). Political leadership is almost exclusively concentrated in the Sultan and extends to all social and economic life.

An outcome of this political context is that when one discusses leadership in Oman, it is assumed reference is being made to the Sultan. The personal authority of the monarch is such that any delegation of power, such as to Ministers, may diminish the ruler's position (Ayubi, 1991). If we accept Oman as an authoritarian state, the Sultan has "an enormous degree of discretionary power" (Lucas, 2004, p. 104) over state and society. Personal rule by the monarch also overrides any wider formal policy inputs from society to the extent that power is centralised above ministerial level. In addition, the dominance of the royal family in Oman, as well as their Gulf neighbours, mean that they also monopolize the state and control the bureaucracy, primarily through the distribution of family members (Lucas, p. 108). Tribalism is also incorporated into the state, characterized by clientelistic relationships with the royal family. Within this type of authoritarian regime, there is little social or political pluralism and political parties are banned. The result is that Oman belongs to a group of relatively stable regimes in the Gulf within a wider Middle East marked by instability (Common, 2008). The authoritarian nature of the state, where ruling families populate government institutions and the bureaucracy, helps to shore up stability; Brownlee (2002) observed that by doing so leaders are able to mould institutions "to support their own aims, while further restricting popular political space" (p. 496). This statement holds true for Oman in addition to other GCC countries.

Arguably, authoritarianism in the states of the Gulf region has been supported by the wealth accrued from oil. In line with other countries in the Gulf Region that began oil production during the last century, political leadership in Oman was further consolidated by "the possibilities of oil revenue which allowed the centralization of state power" (Gause, 1994, as cited in Owtram, 2004, p. 198). To some extent, oil wealth has helped to immunize the Gulf States from international economic pressure. Yet, the need for economic diversification will become even more pressing for Oman with its oil reserves expected to diminish over the next two decades (Ministry of National Economy, 1999). Oil wealth also encouraged the rapid expansion of the public sector from the 1970s. It is government which remains the dominant focus of economic activity and an attractive employment for nationals (Ayubi, 1992; Sick, 1998). Oil revenue also provides or subsidizes the vast majority of public services and utilities (Gause, 2000, p. 172). The dominance of the state sector in the economy and the resulting high level of public sector employment for nationals constitute a form of social obligation and allow the distribution of wealth across society. In Oman, as in its Gulf neighbours, this further adds to the concentration of political power in the hands of the ruling families (Winckler, 2000).

The result of Oman's centralization of political power, inclined to authoritarianism and supported by oil rents, poses an immediate dilemma for the analysis of leadership in such a context. Oman's development placed extraordinary power in the hands of the Sultan to the extent that leadership is synonymous with the office. Any initiative relating to public policy, business enterprise, economic direction emanates, or is attributed to the leadership of the Sultan. Oman's political context also circumscribes the scope for leadership in the public domain beyond the

office of the Sultan. Yet, this is a limited view: cultural factors in Oman also suggest that the exercise of leadership is much wider and ingrained in tradition than the rapid centralization of political power through a phase of rapid economic modernization seems to suggest.

Religion and Culture

Other contextual factors in shaping organizational behaviour are as important in Oman as the political context. The relatively recent and artificial nature of the state in Oman means that it is difficult to describe a national culture when analyzing management and organizational behaviour. Furthermore, Al-Hajj (1996) argued that in the West, nationality determines identity and loyalty, whereas in the Muslim world it is defined by faith. Therefore, Oman is more conveniently classified as part of an Arab attitudinal cluster (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985), and consequently Oman's culture is subsumed in assumptions about regional culture. While writers following Hofstede (2001) tend to group the Middle East within Arab culture, there is sufficient cultural heterogeneity within its national boundaries to consider Oman differently from other Arab Gulf states. In addition, Omanis along with Saudis "tend to hold onto their deeply seated values throughout the transformation of their economy and lifestyles" (Al-Khatib et al., 2004, p. 311). Furthermore, Omanis themselves are more ethnically diverse with many originating from East Africa or Baluchistan (a region that now straddles Afghanistan, Iran, and Pakistan). Thus, it is also claimed that Oman's cultural diversity is much greater than that of its Arab neighbours given its historical expansion to East Africa and the Indian Ocean (Al-Lamky, 2007).

Islam is the official religion, although its society is diversified among different Islamic sects and ethnicities. Omanis practice two forms of Sunnism (Ibadhism in the interior; mainstream Sunnism on the coast). Unlike the other Gulf States, Ibadhism is the dominant sect and is a form of Islam distinct from other sects, which is only found elsewhere outside Oman in parts of North Africa (Risso, 1986). Rippenburg (1998) argued that Ibadhism has shaped Oman's context significantly and has provided further insulation from the influence of other Arab states. However, Ibhadhism declined in the 19th century following the accession to power of the Al Bu Said dynasty, which led to the division of the country in 1869 between Muscat and the Ibadhi Imamate in the interior based at Nizwa (Wilkinson, 1987). As noted earlier, this situation persisted until 1955. In addition, Shiites have representation in Oman (in addition to Ibadhis and Sunnis).¹ The Basic Law, Oman's constitution, promulgated in 1996, does not ascribe any ascendancy to any particular sect, while at the same time providing for Islam as the foundation of the state. Despite its influence over the governance of society in Oman, Ibadhis only comprise around 45% of the population, with Sunnis in the slight majority (Rippenburg, 1998, p. 61).

In some ways, the tenets of Ibadhism contradict the centralisation of politics in Oman around the Sultan. Al-Ghailani (2005) noted that Ibadhi leaders considered that power should not be in the hands of a single person and that tribal balance was considered more important. Ibadhis believe that leaders should be chosen by religious scholars and tribal leaders, and then presented to the public for acceptance. Al-Ghailani's argument is that although the merit principle is strongly established in Omani culture, it also served as an obstacle to the establishment of a modern state in Oman. However, the rapid modernisation of the country from 1970 onward appeared to require the kind of power vested in the leadership of Sultan. As Kechichian (1995)

¹ See Rippenburg (1998) for a fuller discussion.

noted, “the Ibadhi political-religious ideology proved to be an impractical basis for the permanent development of a state in Oman” (p. 25).

Leadership in Omani Culture

While 40 years of development have centralized political leadership in the country, Oman appears to have a culture that is potentially supportive of participative leadership. For instance, although the above discussion of Ibadhism in relation to leadership appears to be a narrow religious aspect of the cultural context of Oman, it is clear that the “people of consultation,” to which the Ibadis refer to themselves, does have consequences for conceptualizing leadership in modern Oman (Eickelman, 1987). Although a full discussion of the influence of Ibadhism in Oman is beyond the remit of this article, it is worth reiterating that Ibadhism supports the notion of leadership by merit rather than succession. The selection of leaders by priests and tribal representatives, rather than inheritance, remains influential when addressing organizational behaviour in Oman. Culturally, the persistence of tribal allegiances also continues to have an important influence. The use of social criteria for selection, recruitment, and promotion is still widespread in apparently modernizing institutions such as the civil service, which at the same time are attempting to operate good human resource management practice (Al-Ghailani, 2005). For instance, tribal members will personally petition public officials in an effort to obtain employment for family members; nepotism remains a common practice. In effect, two systems work in parallel: there are formal systems based on the merit principle, while it is clear that ascriptive or social criteria is still used when making judgements about selection, recruitment, and promotion.

If leadership is conceptualized as situational, (in other words, the environment in which it is exercised determines leadership), then the evidence so far appears to demonstrate that Oman, like other countries in the Gulf States, appears to offer an unpromising context for the development of contemporary interpretations of leadership. For instance, situational leadership models such as Hersey and Blanchard’s (1998) would suggest a high emphasis on participation in Oman, given the emphasis placed on social relations. However, such relationship behaviour is likely to be very different from that experienced in a British or American company. There is an exploration of this aspect of Arab management culture below in relation to the characteristics of “in groups.” Of course, the exercise of leadership depends on the interpretation of leadership on offer, but the implicit assumption here is that it is the heroic version of leadership, found in the mainstream management literature and which dominates thinking about leadership development, that is under discussion. Schieffer et al. (2008) emphasized the human-social dimensions of management in what they referred to as the “Arabic-Muslim” region, which they present as having the potential to complement Western concepts rather than simply adapt.

As Western commentators and practitioners have come to acknowledge how the concept of leadership is culture bound, an alternative way of conceptualising leadership is in terms of competing elites or social groups (House & Javidan, 2004). Therefore, to be able to analyze leadership in Oman, one needs to understand the nature of its elite. As we interpret narrowly Oman’s elite as the leading commercial families, even here Oman sharply differs from its Gulf neighbours in that its prominent families have benefited from other commercial deals rather than the oil market. In addition, the size of the royal family is relatively small when compared to others in the Gulf region (Quilliam, 2003). Thus, in the case of Oman, the centralization of leadership is such that the Sultan will act with the tacit approval of social and business elite.

Given the cultural context of Oman, it is possible to emphasize the features of Omani (rather than a generic Arabic) culture in relation to leadership. The extent to which cultural diversity in Oman is important in relation to leadership development in the face of universal Arab cultural values and Islam is debatable and inconclusive. Neal et al. (2005) argued that the similarities were more important than the differences for explaining attitudes to leadership in the Gulf countries. However, Schieffer et al. (2008, p. 340) explained that Oman's history as a trading nation along with the model of leadership, based on the high visibility of the Sultan's form of participative consultation and rooted in local tradition, has also contributed to the relative success of the country. Ibadhism partly accounts for Oman's distinctive character within the Arab Gulf, and despite the emphasis this sect of Islam places on communal consensus when ascribing leadership roles, this collectivist approach became increasingly subsumed by rapid economic modernization and development. Consequently, leadership remains synonymous with the Sultan.

What are the implications of culture for leadership and its development in Oman? As noted earlier, organizational culture in Oman tends to be subsumed within wider Arab management studies. Earlier, the concept of the in group was mentioned in relation to Arab cultural characteristics. The "in group" consists of the extended family and friends, further embedded by a shared place of origin, such as a village. According to Tayeb (2005), the importance of the "in group" is emphasised by reinforcing "consultation, obedience to seniors, loyalty, face-to-face interaction and networks of personal connections" (p. 76). An "out group" consists of any group outside this extended social group. The modification of leadership behaviour is dependent on the status of the group. Thus, managers tend to emphasize tasks over relationships with "out groups" (non kin and guest workers); but within the "in group," while relationships are more directive, they are also welfare-oriented or paternalistic (Mellahi & Wood, as cited in Al-Hamadi et al., 2007, p. 111). This dichotomization between in and out groups has enormous ramifications for the potential of leadership development in the country, particularly where the use of expatriate labor is prevalent.

Hence leadership in Oman will appear more traditional through the use of power or coercion by senior managers, supported by the high power distance of Hofstede's classification of cultural dimensions ascribed to Arab countries (Carl et al., 2004). However, this is a rather narrow interpretation of the effect of culture on leadership in Oman. In a rare study of leadership in Omani culture by Neal et al. (2005), (who also looked at Lebanon and the United Arab Emirates), it was found that Omani leadership values are based on a combination of charismatic, interactive, and rational legal authority. Charismatic and rational legal authority is based on Weber's ideal types (Weber, 1978). Interactive authority is a fourth category (in addition to traditional authority) added by Neal et al., "to capture those residual non-Weberian ideas about authority centered primarily on embedded contingent social interactive processes such as participation and consultation" (2005, p. 482). Neal et al. were unsurprised at the approval for charismatic authority in Oman. In relation to interactive authority, the study showed "that an effective leader in Oman considers the personal welfare of all employees" (p. 489), which suggests that Oman is closer to Western-style participative leadership than is often assumed. The value placed on rational legal authority also came as no surprise given the dominance of the bureaucracy in Omani society, although Neal et al. wrongly attributed this facet to British administration, which was never direct in Oman (see above). This aspect also supports the cultural dimension of high power distance as a contextual influence (Quigley et al., 2005). Neal

et al. expected traditional authority to be given a higher value in Oman. While they found that religiosity was important in Oman, the emphasis was only moderate.

The cultural context in Oman appears to make it difficult to conceptualize leadership within organizations. For instance, in Western theory, great emphasis is placed on leadership and team management in relation to transformational leadership (e.g., Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2004). However, a British consultant in Oman made the observation that “people do not work in teams” (Plummer, 2005, p. 69). This was due to rigid hierarchical structures; thus, employees showing leadership “were targets for disapproval” (p.70). It is possible that this is a slightly dated perspective given the attention to leadership and team working in Oman’s corporate sector, within a wider approach to competency development. For example, Omantel, Oman’s national telecommunications provider, is a leading public enterprise that addressed the development of leadership competencies. This was the result in 2004 of market restructuring and the introduction of competition into the market. However, it remains a bureaucratic organization where traditional approaches to compensation are still practiced (Tremmel, 2007). The idea that teams and leaders can operate across horizontal layers of management is also difficult in a context where there is more reliance on superiors rather than on subordinates (Smith et al., 2006).

Although leadership in Oman is not readily associated with organizational status, but determined by tribal or group affiliation rather than individual merits (Kazan, 1993, p. 190), it would also be wrong to suggest that this is prevalent. In addition to assumptions of authoritarian styles of leadership, leadership in Oman is also a function of intuitive decision-making, which clashes with the rational assumptions of Western management. There is an aversion to professional management and organization reinforced by group loyalties (Tayeb, 2005) and face-to-face interaction is valued above written documentation and consultation. In their study of HRM in Oman, Al-Hamadi et al. (2007, p. 102) concluded, “the tribe and the family are second top authorities after Islam in formulating the culture of the country and organizations to a great extent.” Omani culture thus produces a combination of extremes: authoritarian leadership styles within hierarchical settings and with “out groups,” and democratic group consensus making with the in-groups of tribe and family.

The Public Sector and Leadership in Oman

Oman’s relative isolation until very recently has also had a lasting influence on the organizational culture of the country. Despite rapid modernization, Oman is part of a wider group of Gulf States where the public sector has driven economic development. Thus, the public bureaucracy may prove resistant to the types of change demanded by human resource theorists. For instance, despite the conscious adoption of Western management techniques in general, Jabbra and Jabbra (2005) argued that this has been unsuccessful in the Gulf region because of the “pervasive and powerful traditional administration culture.” This is supported by the centralized nature of the state, which assumes that the top leadership has full knowledge of governance and “therefore knows the problems and the changes required to solve them.” Authority to reform and make changes is vested in them, plus having the financial capacity to fund and implement the necessary changes (Farazmand, 2006).

Another key constraint on organizational leadership in the Gulf is extensive government regulations. Within a renter state, such as Oman, the regulatory environment may be a limiting factor on business leadership and entrepreneurial behavior (Yusuf, 2002). In addition, in line

with other countries in the region, Oman is attempting to diversify and privatize much of its economy, which presents both challenges and opportunities for leadership. Fundamental to developing its human resources is the long-term development plan, "Vision 2020." Apparently modelled after similar plans in Malaysia (also a source of policy inspiration to other Arab Gulf states), human resource development in Oman is very much public sector led. Moreover, in line with other Arab Gulf states, public sector employment for nationals is preferable to private sector employment. An indigenization policy, known as "Omanization," is aimed at eradicating this through human resource development; although Oman does not have a significant private sector, its economy is dominated either by public sector organizations or state owned enterprises (Budhwar et al., 2002, p. 200).

Given the pervasive influence of the public sector on Oman's economy accompanied by rapid expansion, the result is a formal system of public administration that operates side-by-side with traditional forms of governance. The traditional system continues with the Sultan, whose leadership influences the corporate sector. More specifically, within the wider sheikhdom (or tribal leaders), leadership depends on loyalty and support. This is conditional on the accessibility of the leader, particularly through the *majlis* or council, which provides a forum for people to air their opinions. This remains an important part of the political life of Oman. Traditional channels of participation have allowed stability and continuity during a period of rapid economic growth.

However, if we consider public sector perspectives on leadership, such as the politics/administration dichotomy and bureaucratic leadership, these are also difficult to apply in the Omani context. The dichotomy between politics and administration firmly vests power with political leadership, and this view has a long tradition in European administrative thought (Rugge, 2007). In Oman, it can be argued that the Sultan stands on one side of the dichotomy and the rest of the government on the other! Political power in Oman is heavily concentrated in one person, more so compared to other Gulf States such as Bahrain and Saudi Arabia (Common, 2008). However, early administrative theory also maintains that leadership was concerned with organizational efficiency and effectiveness, although management in the Middle East does not lend itself readily to the assumptions of classical management. Such classical notions of public leadership, developed within the context of Western democratic administration, are also difficult to apply.

More recent models of public leadership follow the work of Terry (1995) and Denhardt (1993). Terry's leadership role is to protect the integrity of the organization, and the leader is guided by constitutional principles. The role requires professionalism, political skills, and an understanding of participating in governance. Denhardt discussed how leaders meet the needs of users, ensure quality, and reduce waste and inefficiency. The emphasis is on public service and employee empowerment. Of course, both perspectives were developed in the context of American-style democratic administration and are unlikely to be adapted in the Omani context. The bureaucratic nature of Oman's public sector is such that it is difficult to equate leadership with organizational position, although this was done in a rare study of women and leadership in Oman (Al-Lamky, 2007). Hence, leadership is likely to be directive and authoritarian and to accept hierarchy and structure. For instance, Budhwar et al. (2002, p. 209) found that the main method of communication for Omani managers was through their immediate superior. Employees expect managers to lead and are uncomfortable if discretion or decision-making is devolved to them. Yet, more traditional forms of leadership, beyond the formal structures of government, continue to rely on participation.

Given that leadership in Oman is essentially public service driven, how can leadership be developed? According to Halligan (2007, p. 68), the significance of leadership development “depends on state traditions, institutional structures and the extent of reform.” Furthermore, citing an OECD (2001) report, Halligan also noted leadership development is more important in a diversified society, a decentralized government, where public administration is less traditional, and where comprehensive reform has succeeded incremental change. Given these parameters, it is unlikely that leadership development is on the agenda of the Omani government. However, human resource development (HRD) has been identified as a main component of economic development in Oman for over ten years, yet the reality is that Oman’s traditional (or highly centralized) bureaucracy identifies members of the country’s elite for development despite the outwardly rational process in terms of selection. In short, the scope for leadership in Oman’s public sector remains constrained unless it is exposed to the kind of managerialist reforms that reorganize the public sector, expose it to the market, and emphasise the delivery of outcomes. Of course, the introduction and acceptability of managerialism in general is questionable within the administrative culture and context of Oman.

Challenges and Prospects for Leadership Development in Oman

The concept of leadership in an organizational sense is relatively new in Oman. The lack of a developed market sector, in addition to the dominance of the private sector by expatriates, inhibits young Omanis from developing leadership skills in a business and administrative context. Politics, culture, and institutional factors continue to inhibit the scope for leadership. This may change in the near future for a number of reasons, including pressure for economic diversification, which includes encouraging a market-led economy, and cultural changes to reduce the reliance on public sector employment. Politically, the succession of the present Sultan is still unresolved, which may force a constitutional review or even political instability in years to come.

Oman’s clientelistic business culture, which also allows civil servants to undertake private business within certain legal parameters, hinders the scope for organizational leadership. The result is that the relationship between government and contractors is extremely close and comfortable for both parties (Skeet, 1992). Accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2000 is likely to have challenged tradition in this sense and will expose Oman to standards supportive of trade and investment more in line with the West. In the case of Omantel mentioned earlier, the change in its business environment four years ago was to meet WTO requirements regarding deregulation, moving leadership onto its corporate agenda to meet the change agenda.

Leadership is in fashion and in turn reflects management thinking, so the question for Oman is: what sort of leadership is appropriate to its unique context? Given the challenges that the country will face in the near future, it is clear that meeting economic goals determined by the political leadership will be one way of directing leadership development. However, abandoning the larger formal systems of government, an extension of the very socio-cultural barriers to leadership, is unlikely in the near future in Oman (and in most other neighbouring countries). Adoption of US or European development packages will lack the cultural sensitivity to make any difference, although it is clear that Arab executives are keen to learn from expatriate managers. Given that leadership is the result of human activity and not dependent on applied techniques, harnessing and making explicit the cultural attributes of leaders in Omani society is an alternative to adoption of Western techniques. For instance, Omani organizational culture is

more participative and consultative than it first appears, taking it closer to Western theorization; whereas, at the same time, social connections are valued over loyalty to the firm, which conflicts with Western assumptions that leadership will improve organizational performance.

At present, it is not surprising that the overall drive to develop its human resources in Oman does not explicitly address leadership. However, attempts to diversify its economy given dwindling oil reserves, to reduce the social reliance on public sector employment, and to stimulate a genuine private economy will increase the demand for leadership skills within Omani organizations. Within high-power distance cultures, such as Oman, there is high uncertainty avoidance, which means security is more likely to motivate than the potential for the type of self-actualization implicit in Western derived leadership theory. This will continue to reinforce the preference for public sector employment. Limited evidence is emerging that Omani organizations (both public and private) are taking HRD seriously (Budhwar et al., 2002), which will encourage organizational leadership and development. Yet, the gradualist and cautious mode of reform favoured by Oman is unlikely to predicate the type of continuous and transformational change typified by the dynamic, market-driven environments of the West that produce organizational leaders.

Conclusion

It is clear that considerable barriers remain to leadership development in countries such as Oman. Although leading international leadership studies such as the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) do not include Oman in their range of societies, other findings from the Arab Middle East in the study are largely consistent with the findings of this article. Dorfman and House (2004, p. 63) referred to the heroic status accorded to leadership in Arab countries and support the importance of other traditional influences discussed in this article. The sum total of these influences on the leadership style is characterized as “sheikocracy,” which is consistent with hierarchical authority, an emphasis on interpersonal relations, and low observance of formal rules and regulations (Dorfman & House, pp. 62-63). Thus, the conceptualization of leadership in countries such as Oman appears to reveal some awkward contradictions.

As far as leadership development from a Western cultural perspective is concerned, the main barriers in Oman appear to be that tribal and familial interdependence remains deeply rooted and this extends into organizations, both public and private. The classical management preoccupation with efficiency remains compromised by traditional attitudes that place kin and tribal allegiances above all else. Initiative, organizational transformation, and teamwork are stifled by the richness and the enduring nature of these attitudes. Strong political centralization in the office of the Sultan acts as a further check on the development of leadership attributes. The centralization of personal power in the monarch reinforces elite dominance in both corporations and the public sector. Leadership development continues to be checked by high power distance, leading to a lack of genuine team management and intuitive decision-making.

Despite the rapid economic transformation of Oman since the discovery of oil, cultural change has occurred much more slowly. Such change will require time; as Foster (1983) argued, a “reconciliation period” is necessary before real change occurs. As a developing country, Oman is in a state of transition between material and non-material change. The following is a quote from the Omani government, which emphasizes the continued importance of cultural values in the face of demands for modernization:

For the leader of any developing nation there is always the problem of combining progress with conservatism. His Majesty maintains a delicate balance between preserving the traditions and culture of his country and introducing the modernisation needed to keep pace with the changes taking place in the rest of the world. (Ministry of Information, 2000, p. 15)

Given the determination to hold on to traditional values in the face of rapid modernization, a synthesis of traditional conceptions of leadership rooted in Omani culture can be encouraged. This will defy Western management consultant strategies, but traditional approaches to leadership based on a contemporaneous interpretation of the merit principle may be more suited to Omani organizations. At the same time, the persistence of social criteria (based on tribe, etc.) and authoritarian leadership styles related to out groups has continued to act as a brake on genuine leadership development. Although leadership will still differ from the prescriptions of Western commentators, the emphasis on what Schieffer et al. (2008) termed the “human-social dimensions” of management may have some complementarity with participatory styles of leadership. While such adaption may look feasible, in high power distance cultures such as Oman, the expectation that managers “lead from the front” may continue to frustrate leadership development.

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MARKET ORIENTATION AND LEADERSHIP STYLES OF MANAGERS IN MALAYSIA

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The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership styles of managers in relation to market orientation. Personal characteristics of top managers—age, education, area of specialization, and executive experience—are control variables. This exploratory study focuses on small and medium scale manufacturing enterprises (SMEs) in Malaysia. Market orientation is defined as customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination (Narver & Slater, 1990). A total of 78 managers participated in this study from various manufacturing industries: engineering, electrical and electronics, packaging and paper, metals, chemicals, and food and herbal industries. These managers are managing directors, chief executive officers (CEOs), owner-managers, or executive directors of their organizations. The methodology employed included descriptive, correlation, factor, and regression analyses. Findings showed supportive-oriented leadership styles of top managers have a significant relationship with market orientation. Theoretically, this study contributes to the literature in market orientation in relation to SMEs in Malaysia. For managers, it gives better understanding and insight into how their behaviors and leadership styles will influence the development of market orientation in their organizations. Limitations included the methodology used and the sample size. Recommendations for future studies suggest extending to investigate other leadership theories and variables such as actions and attitudes of managers, as well as future longitudinal studies.

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are the most common form of enterprises in Malaysia. SMEs operate in all sectors of the Malaysian economy: general business, raw materials, the manufacturing sector, and the agricultural sector. SMEs appear relatively most important in the manufacturing sector. In the year 2000, SMEs in the manufacturing sector formed 95 percent of total manufacturing firms in the country (NPC, 2000). SMEs in the manufacturing sector also contribute significantly in terms of economic importance. Malaysian Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI) figures indicate that SMEs contribution to manufacturing amounted to RM (Ringgit) \$4.3 billion, or 20 percent of the GDP, in 1991. SMEs in Malaysia are a significant source of employment. SMEs contribution to total employment in the manufacturing sector is 31.2 percent (NPC, 2000) and is expected to rise significantly in the future. More recently, an increased number of SMEs played significant

roles for larger companies in Malaysia, supporting industries to large manufacturers such as automotive, wood, engineering, and electrical and electronics sectors (Hashim & Wafa, 2002). Therefore, SMEs are unquestionably a significant part of the business community and are a vital component of the economy.

However, despite their significant role in the Malaysian economy, small and medium scale enterprises encounter problems affecting profitability and growth. Of the many studies conducted on small and medium scale enterprises in Malaysia, one of the main problems faced by SMEs is the lack of knowledge regarding marketing techniques and opportunities at both local and international levels (Hashim & Wafa, 2002). As a result, many SMEs in Malaysia lose out in terms of opportunities. It is argued the role of marketing is crucial to organizational performance and central to the successful implementation of business strategies because of the current competitive environment for superior quality products and services to customers (Day & Wensley, 1988).

This paper takes the view of Narver and Slater (1990), viewing market orientation based on cultural or behavioral factors. Various scholars in marketing (Desphande & Webster, 1989; Deshpande et al., 1993, 2000; Day, 1994; Desphande & Farley, 1999, 2004) have argued that market orientation is a cultural or behavioral phenomenon. Other writers (Harris, 1996, 1998a, 1999; Harris & Ogbonna, 2000; Harris & Piercy, 1997) have argued that top management is an antecedent crucial to the development of market orientation in companies. However, there is very little empirical research identifying factors affecting top management behavior in relation to the development of market orientation in organizations. Top management behavior is crucial in the development of organizational culture, especially in smaller firms where top management influence is keenly felt (Changanti et al., 2002). Top manager's attitudes and values will influence the strategic orientation of the firms (Bamberger, 1989). Thus, this paper examines the role of leadership styles of top managers in influencing development of market orientation. From an individual manager's perspective, top management behavior is frequently mentioned as a key barrier to developing a market oriented culture (Harris, 1996; Harris & Ogbonna, 1998).

Literature Review

In 1990s, literature suggested two main operational definitions of market concepts. One operational concept proposed by Kohli and Jaworski (1990) defined market orientation as composed of three sets of activities: organization-wide generation of market intelligence, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organization-wide responsiveness to it. Kohli and Jaworski described market orientation as a set of activities in organizations. The authors' continued string of research has been published widely since 1990 (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; 1996, Kohli et al., 1993).

As an alternative operational definition of the market concept, Narver and Slater (1990) conceptualized market orientation from an organizational cultural perspective. Narver and Slater view market orientation as an organizational culture that effectively and efficiently creates necessary behaviors for the creation of superior value for buyers, and thus continued superior performance for the business. Narver and Slater's definition consists of behavioral components of market orientation, focusing on three elements: customer orientation, competitor coordination, and inter-functional coordination.

Customer orientation requires an understanding of the customer to create products or services of superior value. The creation of value is accomplished by increasing the benefits to customers while decreasing product cost. This entails acquiring information about customers and economic and political constraints facing customers. The second behavioral element is competitor coordination. Competitor coordination identifies the strengths and weaknesses of

current and future competitors through a thorough analysis of competitor's capabilities, strategies, and ability to satisfy the same buyers. Inter-functional coordination is the coordinated utilization of company resources in creating superior value for customers. To be effective, all departments must be sensitive to the needs of all the other departments in the organization. Narver and Slater (1990) argued that organizational culture effectively and efficiently creates such behaviors.

Narver and Slater (1990) utilized the term market orientation as synonymous with market-oriented culture. Therefore, conducting a major review of conceptual literature and empirical studies led them to conclude that a market-oriented culture is comprised of three main behaviors: an orientation toward the customer, a focus on competitors, and coordination between functions. The studies conducted by Narver and Slater opened up a proliferation of research studies in market orientation based on behavioral focus or cultural factors (Norburn et al, 1989; Narver et al., 1998; Slater & Narver, 1998, 1999; Desphande & Webster, 1989; Desphande et al., 1993, 2000; Deshpande & Farley, 1999, 2004; Day, 1994, 1999; Harris, 2002a, 2002b).

This study assumes the perspective that market orientation consists of three sets of behaviors: customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination (Narver & Slater, 1990). Therefore, this study emphasizes the view of market orientation as culture. Desphande and Webster (1989) described organizational culture as shared values and beliefs which help an individual understand organizational functioning and thus provide norms of behavior in organization. The majority of marketing theorists claim a link between market-oriented culture and performance of firms (Atuahene-Gima, 1996; Greenley, 1995).

The market concept is further defined as a distinct organizational culture, a fundamental set of beliefs and values that put customer at the center of the firms' thinking about strategy and operations (Deshpande & Webster, 1989). This strengthens the argument for investigating cultural factors as effectively and efficiently creating such behaviors (Narver & Slater, 1990).

Top Management Behavior in developing Market Orientation

Top management behavior of top managers such as board of directors, chief executives, and top echelon executives have emerged as one of the most important factors in developing market orientation (Felton, 1959). Kohli and Jaworski (1990) noted factors such as risk aversion, upward mobility, education, and attitudes of top management toward change as inhibiting market orientation. Jaworski and Kohli (1993) cited top management behaviors such as low risk aversion and emphasis on and commitment to market orientation as related to higher levels of marketing orientation in organizations. The analysis of the survey reveals a strong statistical association between top management behavior and all aspects of market orientation.

A study conducted by Harris and Piercy (1997) on three retailing companies in the United Kingdom showed formalized, conflicted, or politically motivated management behavior to be negatively associated with the extent of market orientation. Founders of companies play an important role as symbols and influence organizational culture (Harris, 1996). The founder of the company has a dominant personality and influence in the company; his behavior acts as a major restriction on marketing activity (Harris).

In sum, existing research of obstacles to market orientation has consistently found that management behavior is a significant barrier to market orientation development. There is a recurring theme centered on management behavior as crucial to the development of market orientation. Management behavior can be derived from the background characteristics of top managers, such as age, number of years of executive experience, functional track, and

amount of formal education (Hambrik & Mason, 1984). Several researchers also have suggested that top management plays a critical role in shaping organizational values and orientations (Felton, 1959; Hambrik & Mason, 1984; Webster, 1988). Top management behavior is repeatedly specified as an essential factor in instigating and installing improved market orientation. Therefore, the potential impact of leadership styles in terms of top manager behaviors on the extent of market orientation in organizations needs to be investigated (Pulendran et al., 2000).

Leadership Styles of Managers

Leadership is defined to be that part of management that involves the supervision of others (Fiedler, 1996). The literature reviews leadership theories and studies with an emphasis on the Path-goal theory. The Path-goal theory is a leadership theory that advocates motivating subordinates through the accomplishment of goals. The Path-goal theory emphasizes relationships between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates and work setting. The underlying assumption of the Path-goal theory is derived from the Expectancy Theory in leadership, which suggests subordinates will be motivated, capable of performing work, and efforts will result in certain outcomes if the payoff is worthwhile. For the leader, the challenge is to use the leadership style suited to motivational needs of subordinates. Leadership motivates when there is a clear path to the goals, the path is easy to travel through coaching and direction, and obstacles and roadblocks are removed to attain the goal, making the work personally satisfying. Conceptually, the Path-goal theory has four components: leader's behaviors, subordinate characteristics, task characteristics, and motivation (House, 1971). The leader's objective is to increase subordinates' motivation to attain personal and organizational goals. The leader increases motivation by either clarifying the subordinates' paths to rewards or by increasing the rewards that subordinates value or desire. Increasing desirable rewards means leaders learn which rewards are important to subordinates, such as raises or promotions. The leader's job is to increase payoffs for subordinates (House, 1971). The Path-goal theory suggests four classifications of leader's behaviors: supportive leadership, directive or instrumental leadership, participative leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership.

House further suggested that leaders exhibit any of these four leadership styles as necessary. Leaders should adapt their styles to the situation or to the motivational needs of their subordinates. The impact of leadership is contingent on the characteristics of both subordinates and their task. The other component of the Path-goal theory is subordinate characteristics. Subordinates' characteristics will determine how a leader's behavior will be interpreted by subordinates in a work context. Path-goal theory predicts subordinates who have strong needs for affiliation will prefer supportive leadership because friendly and concerned leadership is a source of satisfaction. Subordinates who are dogmatic and authoritarian and have to work in uncertain situations will prefer directive leadership because that provides structure and task clarity. Path-goal theory focuses also on subordinates' desire for control. Subordinates with an internal locus of control believe they are in control of events occurring in their life, while subordinates with an external locus of control believe that outside forces determines life events. Path-goal theory suggests that for subordinates with internal locus of control, participative leadership style is most satisfying because subordinates feel in charge of their work and part of the decision-making process. For subordinates with an external locus of control, the theory suggests directive leadership is best because it parallels subordinates feelings that outside forces control their circumstances. Another way that leadership affects subordinate motivation is through a subordinate's perception of his or her own ability to perform a specific task. As perception of subordinates' abilities and

competency goes up, directive leadership becomes redundant because subordinates feel competent to complete their own work (Northouse, 1977). A third component in the Path-goal theory is task characteristics. Task characteristics include the design of the subordinate's task, formal authority system, and work group subordinates. Theoretically, the Path-goal theory approach suggests that leaders need to choose a leadership style that best fit the need of subordinates and the work they are doing. The theory predicts a directive style of leadership is best for situations where subordinates are dogmatic and authorizing, task demands are ambiguous, and rules and procedures are unclear. For structured, unsatisfying or frustrating work, Path-goal theory suggests leaders use a supportive style. Participative leadership is best when a task is ambiguous. Participation allows greater clarity to how certain paths lead to certain goals (Northouse). Achievement-oriented leadership style is most effective when subordinates are required to perform ambiguous tasks. Leaders who set high standards for subordinates raise confidence that subordinates will have the ability to attain goals (Northouse).

Leadership of top managers significantly affects market orientation because it embodies top management actions and behavior (Pulendran et al., 2000). Earlier studies by Kohli and Jaworski (1990) emphasized the importance of top management in fostering the development of market orientation in firms. Many firms operating in service industries for example emphasize the importance of top management attributes like cohesiveness and teamwork in affecting market orientation (Egeren & O'Connor, 1998). Top management leadership is especially significant in SMEs because top management is often directly involved with customers and vendors. Hence, the leadership style of top management indicates their predisposition in managerial behaviors and actions, and is therefore an essential ingredient in the mix of factors that influence a firm's success (Changanti et al., 2002). According to the Ohio State Leadership studies, leadership orientations are based on two dimensions of initiation: structure and consideration. The Path-goal theory postulates four main types of leadership styles: supportive, directive, participative, and achievement oriented styles. Supportive, participative, and achievement oriented styles lie in the dimension of initiating consideration, while directive leadership style lies in the dimension of initiating structure.

A leadership style high on initiation of structure is conducive with an orientation of efficiency and stringent cost control. In contrast, a consideration style of leader would foster a working environment emphasizing quality, innovation, and service, requiring superior capabilities in customer service, creative marketing, innovative product design, and customization (Changanti et al., 2002). Literature suggests leadership styles with a high need for achievement affect organizational performance. This supports broader organizational research, which suggests links between leadership style and organizational research, as well as links between leadership style and organizational performance (Egri & Herman, 2000; Walman et al., 2001). Harris and Ogbonna (1998) found that leadership styles characterized by non-directive role clarification or consideration supports market orientation. Therefore, it is hypothesized:

- H1^a Supportive leadership style has a positive relationship with Market Orientation.
- H1^b Participative leadership style has a positive relationship with Market Orientation.
- H1^c Achievement oriented leadership style has a positive relationship with Market Orientation.

Leadership style geared towards expectation specification, task allocation, and procedure setting impedes all aspects of market orientation (Harris & Ogbonna, 2001b). Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H1^d Directive leadership style has a negative relationship with Market Orientation.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

This study concentrates on manufacturing SMEs in Malaysia. Manufacturing activities of these SMEs include converting basic raw materials into useful products in a variety of industries, such as bakeries, saw mills, toy factories, shoe factories, clothing manufacturing factories, job printing shops, wood processing, soft drink bottling, food processing, small machine shops, plastic bags and paper boxes manufacturing plants, and electrical and electronic appliances and components (Hashim & Wafa, 2002). This sample of companies is from a list compiled by the National Productivity Corporation, which acts as a processing and auditing center on behalf of Small and Medium Industries Development Corporation (SMIDEC). This list of companies consists of small and medium scale enterprises that have applied for the Industrial Assistance Fund (ITAF). Survey questionnaires were distributed for three months to SMEs on this list. Since this study focused on top managers in manufacturing SMEs, the questionnaires were addressed by name to chief executive officers, general managers/managing directors, or owner/managers. Respondents within these companies were expected to have in-depth knowledge of the company's overall marketing culture and practices. The names of top managers of manufacturing SMEs were provided in a separate list by SMIDEC, which was used to ensure that the correct respondents are obtained. Only one questionnaire was mailed to one company. The choice to use a single respondent approach was compelled by both the population size of manufacturing SMEs in Malaysia and the respondents' familiarity with the research topic and the information sought. The respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire in English at their convenience within three weeks. Respondents returned the questionnaires through stamped addressed envelopes. Out of the 1,249 questionnaires, 127 questionnaires are returned; however, only 78 questionnaires were usable—the rest of the 49 questionnaires were incomplete or inappropriate. Thus, the response rate was 6.1 percent.

Measures

The following demographic information was collected from every respondent: age, gender, level of education, current position in the organization, race, area of specialization, number of years working in the organization, and number of years working in functional area (e.g., production/operations, finance/accounting, marketing/sales/merchandising, product research and development, process research and development, business development, or planning/general management). Company specific information was collected from every respondent as well: number of year's company has been in operation, number of full time employees, annual average sales for the past three years, and type of industry. General comments were elicited from respondents on the profitability of their companies.

Leadership styles of managers were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from always (5) to never (1). The wording of the 20-item questionnaire was adapted from Northouse (1977). Leadership styles were measured on a 5-point scale because the study required accurate results for analysis. Market orientation was measured using three behavioral components of market orientation: customer orientation, competitor orientation, and inter-functional coordination (Narver & Slater, 1990). There were eight items used to measure customer orientation, six items used to measure competitor orientation, and six items to

measure inter-functional coordination. The wording of the items was primarily adapted from Deng and Dart (1994).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical package SPSS (version 16) for Windows was used to process and analyze the data; descriptive statistics were conducted on respondents' demographic information. In terms of goodness of measures, responses to items in the questionnaire were subjected to a Promax rotated factor analysis and using Kaiser-Meyer Olkin's measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) for appropriateness, where KMO value should be at least 0.70. Factor loadings and cross loadings were examined through a rotated component matrix. The items to be retained in the final scale should meet two criteria; the items should be at least 0.50 on one factor and less than 0.35 on another factor, and the Eigen value of each extracted factor should be greater than 1.0 (Hair et al., 1998). The extracted factors were then renamed accordingly based on selected items for each factor. Subsequently, reliability analysis of each factor was computed. The generally acceptable limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, with Cronbach's alpha of 0.50 considered acceptable. Reliability measures for leadership styles ranged from 0.8 - 0.4, as shown in Table 3. As the sample size is small (N=78) and the unit of analysis is organizations in this study, low reliability measures are expected. Inter-item correlation among predictor variables was between the range of 0.40-0.44 (see Table 5), indicating that the variables are moderately correlated and predictable variables are discriminatory. To examine hypothesized relationships, multiple regressions models were employed.

Findings

The sample consisted of 78 SMEs represented by top managers and owner-managers working for various manufacturing industries in Malaysia. SMEs are companies or enterprises that employ not more than 150 full time employees with a sales turnover of less than RM (Ringgit) 50 million. Among the 78 managers, 91% were males and 9% were females. Managers holding the positions of chief executive officers, general managers, and managing directors formed the highest percentage of respondents (79.5%), followed by owner/managers /executive directors, comprising 20.5 % of respondents. The average age of the managers was 44.3 years, but the majority of managers were between 46-50 years of age (25.3%). However, very few managers were below 30 years old (8.8%). This is congruent with the average number of years of at least 10 years work experience in the organization (*Mean* =10.45, *SD*=6.31). In terms of ethnic grouping, the majority of respondents were Chinese (80.8%), followed by Malays (17.9%) and Indians (1.3 %). Thus, the majority of managers in this study was predominantly older males, was relatively well educated, and was Chinese. Table 1 shows the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 1
Demographic characteristics of managers (n=78)

Demographics	Frequencies	Percentages
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<u>Age</u>		
Less than 30 years old	6	8.8
30-35 years old	4	5.6
36-40 years	14	19.6
41-45 years	12	16.8
46-50 years	18	25.3
51-55 years	10	14.0
56 years and above	7	9.8
	<i>Mean=44.3 years</i>	
	<i>SD=8.8</i>	
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	71	91.0
Female	7	9.0
<u>Ethnic Group</u>		
Malay	14	17.9
Chinese	63	80.8
Indian	1	1.3
<u>Current Position</u>		
CEO/MD/GM	62	79.5
Owner-managers/Executive Dir.	16	20.5
<u>Highest Education Level</u>		
Secondary	26	33.3
Diploma	17	21.8
Degree	25	32.1
Postgraduate	10	12.8
<u>Area of Specialization</u>		
Economics/Business Admin	29	40.8
Liberal Arts	6	8.5
Pure Sciences	5	7.0
Applied Science	3	4.2
Engineering	28	39.4
<u>Years in Present Company (Job Tenure)</u>		
Less than 5 years	14	19.2
5-9 years	21	28.7
10-14 years	19	25.9
15-20 years	15	20.6
21-25 years	3	4.2
26 years and above	1	1.4

Table 2
Company Characteristics /Profile (n=78)

Company Characteristics	Frequencies	Percentages
<u>Number of Years of Operation</u>		
2-5 years	13	16.7
6-10 years	23	28.4
11-15 years	12	15.4
16-20 years	16	20.6
21-25 years	2	2.6
26-30 years	8	10.3
Above 30 years	4	5.2
	<i>Mean = 10.5 years</i>	
	<i>SD = 6.3</i>	
<u>Number of Full time Employees</u>		
10- 20 employees	18	19.2
21-50 full time employees	37	44.7
51-70 full time employees	7	9.0
71-100 full time employees	12	15.5
101-150 full time employees	9	11.7
	<i>Mean = 40</i>	
	<i>SD = 37.6</i>	
<u>Annual Average Sales for past 3 years</u>		
Less than RM\$1.0M	8	11.2
RM\$1.1M- RM\$2.0 M	8	11.2
RM\$2.1M- RM \$3.0M	15	21.1
RM\$3.1M- RM\$5.0 M	11	15.4
RM\$5.1M-RM\$10.0M	21	29.5
RM\$10.1m-RM\$20M	6	8.4
More than RM\$20M	2	2.8
	<i>Mean = M\$5.8</i>	
	<i>SD = 5.69</i>	
<u>Type of Manufacturing Industry</u>		
Electrical & Electronic	12	15.4
Metals	4	5.1
Food	4	5.1
Engineering, Equipment	13	16.6
Chemicals, oil& gas, rubber, plastics	18	22.8
Herbal	2	2.6
Packaging, paper, printing	9	11.5
Manufacturing (others)	16	20.5

Table 3
Factor Analysis for Leadership Styles

	Component					
	1(AO)	2(RO)	3(LF)	4(S)	5(AU)	6(TO)
sd10I set goals for subordinates performance that are challenging	.864	-.250	-.035	.022	.099	.180
sd13I encourage continual improvement in subordinates performance	.843	-.128	-.278	.049	-.175	.037
sd14I explain the level of performance that is expected of subordinates	.836	-.001	.066	-.124	-.076	-.015
sd19I set challenging goals for subordinates to attain	.687	-.136	.132	.395	-.201	-.011
sd9I ask subordinates to follow standard rules and regulations	.396	.261	-.088	.007	.388	-.052
sd1Let subordinate know what is expected of them	.394	.323	-.182	.066	.168	.137
sd11I say things that hurt subordinates personal feelings	-.305	.745	.046	-.194	-.123	.144
sd2 maintain a friendly working relationship with subordinates	-.112	.701	.106	.029	.010	.017
sd4I listen receptively to subordinate's ideas and suggestions	.070	.655	-.237	.189	.052	.122
sd3I consult with subordinates when facing a problem	.040	.580	.324	.104	-.058	.067
sd18I make vague explanations of what is expected from subordinates	-.212	-.151	.817	.131	-.238	.175
sd17I ask subordinates for suggestions on what assignments to be made	-.088	.243	.771	.118	.230	-.010
sd12I ask for suggestions from subordinates on how to do assignments	.327	.176	.400	-.228	.098	-.393
sd20I behave in a manner that is thoughtful of subordinates personal needs	-.098	.124	.212	.846	.117	-.045
sd15I help subordinates overcome problems that stop them carrying out tasks	.128	-.050	-.019	.743	.057	-.151
sd7I act without consulting my subordinates	-.404	-.186	-.088	.083	.719	.180
sd8I do little thing to make it pleasant to be a member of a group	-.035	.129	.040	.101	.704	-.124
sd16I show that I have doubts about subordinates ability to meet those objectives	.221	-.445	.311	-.108	.543	.154
sd5I inform subordinates what needs to be done and how it is done	.119	.161	.064	-.149	.046	.836
sd6I let subordinates know what I expect them to perform well	.407	.304	.123	-.055	-.083	.588

The sample showed that majority of the SMEs were between 6-10 years in operation (28.4%), and the average number of years in operation is 10.5 years (*Mean*=10.5, *SD*= 6.3). The majority of companies employed between 21-50 full time employees (44.7%); followed

by 10-20 full time employees (19.2%). Companies with between 10-70 full time employees formed the majority of companies in this sample, totaling 72.9 percent of the total number of companies. The average number of full time employees was 53 employees ($Mean=53.3$, $SD=37.6$). Companies were characterized into several manufacturing types of companies. Companies from chemical/oil/gas/rubber/plastics industries formed the highest percentage, 22.8% of total number of companies in the sample, followed by other manufacturing types (20.5%), engineering and equipment industry (16.6%), packaging and paper (11.5%), metals (5.1%), food (5.1%) and herbal medicine (2.6%). This suggests that these companies' primary customers are industrial consumers. Table 2 shows the company profiles.

A total of 20 items were used to measure leadership styles of managers. From the results of the exploratory factor analysis, seventeen items are retained. All the variables in the table correlated with at least one other variable ($0.3 < r < 0.9$). In the EFA, the KMO value was 0.695, which is very good. The six factors explained 62.75% of the total variance. The factors were rotated by using Promax procedure. These first four items were re-labeled as Achievement Oriented (*AO*) leadership styles. All of these items had factor loadings of more than 0.6. The other four items were re-labeled as Relationship Oriented (*RO*) leadership styles. All of these items had factor loadings of more than 0.5. The next two items were re-labeled as Laissez Faire (*LF*) leadership styles. All of these items had factor loadings of more than 0.6. The next two items were re-labeled as Supportive (*S*) Leadership Styles and had factor loadings of more than 0.7. The next three items retained were re-labeled Autocratic (*AU*) Leadership Styles with factor loadings more than 0.5. The last two items were re-labeled as Task oriented (*TO*) Leadership Styles and had factor loadings of more than 0.5, as shown in Table 3.

In the factor analysis, the KMO value was 0.695, which is considered good. Six factors explained 62.75 of the total variances of the 20 items. The factor scores were saved and used for further analysis. The descriptive statistics for the major constructs are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles

Leadership Styles (LS)	Mean	Std. Deviation
sd1 Task oriented (TO) LS	4.0769	.84928
sd2 Relationship (RO) LS	4.2564	.69199
sd3 Relationship Oriented (RO) LS	3.8974	.81527
sd4 Relationship Oriented (RO)LS	4.1282	.61070
sd5 Task oriented (TO) LS	4.2051	.70911
sd7 Autocratic (AU)LS	2.4744	.84859
sd8 Autocratic (AU) LS	3.2564	.87440
sd10 Achievement oriented (A) LS	3.8590	.84859
sd11 Relationship Oriented (RO) LS	4.0385	.81292
sd13 Achievement oriented (A) LS	4.3590	.64414
sd14 Achievement oriented (A) LS	3.9231	.71658
sd15 Supportive (S) LS	3.8462	.86905
sd16 Autocratic (A) LS	2.5641	.78276
sd17 Laissez –faire (LF) LS	3.1410	.84859
sd18 Laissez-faire (LF) LS	2.5385	1.06530
sd19 Achievement oriented (A)LS	3.6026	.79511
sd20 Supportive (S) LS	3.7436	.78021

(Note: All items used a 5-point Likert Scale with 1= Never and 5= Always)

A Pearson Correlation was done to show correlation between Leadership styles and Market Orientation as shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Correlation Analysis – Pearson Correlation Matrix

Market orientation	1	2	3	4	5	6
Achievement LS	.346**					
Relationship LS	.267*	.209				
Laissez Faire LS	.099	.065	.038			
Supportive LS	.328**	.436**	.106	.15		
Autocratic LS	.030	.000	-.121	.056	-.009	
Task oriented LS	.324**	.403**	.408**	.050	.054	.013
No of Items	4	4	2	2	3	2
Mean	3.935	4.080	2.839	3.794	2.765	4.192
Standard Deviation	.602	.492	.774	.690	.568	.640

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at 0.05 (2-tailed)

A multiple regression analysis was done to investigate the relationships between the leadership styles and market orientation as shown in Table 6. In examining all hypothesized relationships, control variables of age, level of education, area of specialization, and number

of years working in the same organization were used as shown in Table 6. The findings show that control variables affected on leadership styles of managers. In formulating the Upper Echelon Theory, Hambrick and Mason (1984) attributed company performance to the background characteristics of top management. The managers in this study were in the older age group (*Mean* =44.3 years), were relatively well educated, and had been working for an average of 10 years (*Mean* =10.45 years) in their respective organizations; this may have been reflected in being supportive in their leadership styles.

Table 6

Results of Regression Analysis of Control Variables and Leadership Styles Predicting Market Orientation

Control Variables	Beta	t	Sig.	Beta	t	Sig.
Age	-0.28	-.191	.849	.025	.163	.871
Level of education	-.068	-.499	.620	-.074	-.577	.567
Area of Specialization	.010	.073	.942	-.075	-.599	.578
Number of years Working (with the same organization)	.128	.863	.392	.063	.441	.661
Leadership Styles						
Achievement (A)				.123	.827	.412
Relationship (RO)				.149	1.064	.292
Laissez Faire (LF)				.004	.030	.976
Supportive (S)				.348	2.526	.015*
Autocratic (AU)				.151	1.213	.231
Task (TO)				.136	.894	.376
R ²			.021			.277
R ² Change			.021			.256
F Value			.297			2.95*

Note: $n=78$, * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, Beta= standardized beta coefficient

Table 6 shows that there is a positive relationship between supportive-oriented leadership and market orientation. Therefore, Hypothesis 1^a is supported. Supportive-oriented leadership styles have the highest predictive beta ($\beta=0.34$) on market orientation; however, other leadership styles in this study showed no significance with market oriented. Therefore, H1^b, H1^c, and H1^d are rejected.

Discussion

The findings show that supportive oriented leadership style of top managers had a significant relationship with market orientation. Hence, this supports the hypothesis which postulated that a leadership style characterized as non-directive and which allows input from subordinates will encourage the development of market orientation. Conversely, a leadership style that is directive and is designed to allocate tasks and procedures will impede market orientation development (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998). Leadership styles that are non-directive or whereby the leader's behavior is viewed as supportive-oriented (leaders are thoughtful and considerate of subordinates needs) will allow for continual improvement in performance of subordinates and will encourage the development of market orientation. From prior research, other leadership styles such as achievement, task-oriented, relationship-oriented, and autocratic leadership styles showed no significant relationship with market orientation. This may be because many owner-managers develop a paternalistic attitude toward their subordinates, or because professional top managers having relatively long tenure in one organization; hence, managers may tend to be supportive of their subordinates despite being driven by bottom-line profits.

Therefore, from an individual manager perspective, managers should develop a better understanding that leadership styles will affect market orientation in their organizations based on empirical verification. This supports similar research findings (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998). Given the result of positive associations between supportive-oriented leadership styles and market orientation, it is prudent to advise to managers to concentrate on developing or encouraging a more supportive-oriented style of leadership characterized by being more participative, receptive, and consultative to subordinates, as well as maintaining a friendly work atmosphere. Therefore, there should be a renewed managerial interest in leadership training as a potential contribution of leaders to organizational success. Harris and Ogbonna suggested leadership training can be achieved in a variety of ways and on a number of occasions. For example, during recruitment and induction, managers can be vetted for leadership skills and training needs. Leadership training can also be required for current managers. Awareness of the role of the leader and the effect of leadership styles provides a partial explanation of why the process of developing a marketing oriented culture proves to be elusive in some organizations and yet achievable in others. The findings of this study suggest a supportive-oriented style of leadership provides an appropriate environment in which market oriented culture can be implemented. An understanding of leadership styles is crucial to the ongoing process of market orientation development. From the literature on SMEs, the main issues confronting many SMEs have because of their small size and limited resources, SMEs are unable to compete effectively with larger competitors. Yet, research shows that the larger the organization, the more difficult it is to implement market orientation (Narver & Slater, 1990; Liu, 1995). Thus, top managers of small and medium scale enterprises have a clear opportunity to utilize the implementation of market orientation as a vehicle to pursue competitive advantage.

Limitations of the Study

This study has limitations, and the results should be interpreted accordingly. Firstly, the methodology employed was a major limitation. The sample of choice only focused on manufacturing SMEs in the list compiled by the National Productivity Corporation employing full time employees not exceeding 150 persons. The results should not be generalized for all manufacturing SMEs in Malaysia. Furthermore, the sample size of 78 limits generalizability as well; collecting more data would strengthen the findings of the research. The low response rate may be because the questionnaires were specifically addressed to top managers: chief executive office, owner and general managers, managing

directors, executive directors, or owner-managers. Many of these top managers may have been too busy with day-to-day operations to respond to the questionnaires. Many of the questionnaires were also returned unanswered because names of top managers in the respective companies were incorrect, as they had moved on.

Secondly, the present study focused only on manufacturing SMEs. Different results might have been obtained if the study had looked at non-manufacturing SMEs or large scale manufacturing enterprises. Thirdly, the current study only concentrated on four leadership styles of top managers related to market orientation. There are no interactive effects examined. Finally, owing to limited studies in the analysis of cross-domain effects, some of the proposed hypotheses were based on indirect literature. Further research is suggested on investigating other leadership theories in relation to market orientation. Consequently, a potentially fruitful avenue for future research could be the in-depth study of the impact of leaders' actions and attitudes on the development of market orientation. Finally, a longitudinal study is highly recommended if replication of this study is made due to the high probability of respondents changing their preferences in terms of their leadership styles. As a conclusion, this study examines leadership styles of top managers in relation to market orientation, providing some exploratory information and insights to help understand the extent of market orientation among manufacturing SMEs in Malaysia.

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PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS IN EKITI STATE, NIGERIA

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This research article investigates personality characteristics and principal leadership effectiveness in Ekiti State, Nigeria. A descriptive survey research design was used to carry out this study. The population of the study consisted of all the principals and teachers of public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The investigators utilized two sets of research instruments designated Principals' Demographic Inventory (PDI) and Principals' Leadership Effectiveness Inventory (PLEI) for school principals and teachers respectively. Data analyses indicated a significant difference between principals' years of experience and their leadership effectiveness. A significant difference was found between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness and no significant difference existed between the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals. Based on the findings, it was concluded that Ekiti State Teaching Service Commission could place high emphasis on the use of experience in the appointment of principals, while gender factor could be de-emphasized, as no significant difference existed between male and female principals.

With the increase in the number and size of many secondary schools in Ekiti State in Nigeria, employment of more teachers, changes in school structure, and enlarged curriculum, the problems of effective leadership by school principals could obviously become more complex. Rapid expansion through the creation of junior and senior secondary schools means that more teachers may be recruited as principals. Some of these principals may have less experience, as experienced principals are no longer available for some schools. In Nigeria, it is pertinent to note that some schools experience more conflicts than others, and this is attributed among other things

to the principals' level of leadership effectiveness; discipline in school is the offspring of effective leadership, while indiscipline is caused by absence of commitment on the part of some principals (Adesina, 1990). Today, maintaining discipline in Nigerian secondary schools is putting the maturity of principals to the severest task. School rules are broken with impunity, and it has become the fashion of the day for pupils to take the laws into their own hands.

As the major agents in the promotion of school effectiveness, principals are the pillars of the educational system especially at the second tier of educational pyramid. Today, the position of the principal is far more sophisticated and the job is far more complex than in previous decades. This complexity can best be seen in the incredible number of functions that principals are expected to perform daily and often simultaneously. The maintenance of quality and standards in education depend largely on the extent to which they effectively carry out their leadership responsibilities.

Itsueli (1995) opined that the school leader is required to perform three vital functions: namely, to discern and influence the development of goals and policies; to establish and coordinate educational organizations concerned with planning and implementing appropriate programs; and to procure and manage the resources necessary to support the educational system and its planned programs. This list does not include the variety of stresses and conflicts accompanying social interaction in the schools, nor does it include the social and psychological conflicts resulting from ethnic and personality differences in the school setting. These limiting factors and constraints tend to make the administration of secondary schools less than favorable because they place considerable limits on the degree of leadership effectiveness of school principals.

Recently, the phenomenon of leadership has been the subject of considerable attention and extensive study by theorists and researchers in a number of disciplines. Humphreys, Jiao and Sadler (2008) noted that there has been substantial interest in the influence of personality within the leadership dyad and numerous outcomes associated with leaders (Bono & Judge 2004). Some leadership emergence or behaviors that appear effective within one situational context may be seen as ineffective in another (Avery, 2004). Drucker (1973) noted that effectiveness is the foundation of success; efficiency is a minimum condition for survival after success has been achieved. Efficiency is concerned with doing things right, while effectiveness is doing the right thing.

Effectiveness in this regard will very much depend on the principal's knowledge, expertise, capability, and ability to improvise solutions to problems. Humphreys, Jiao and Sadler (2008) noted that those fascinated by the leader-follower connection have long explored the various factors that influence such a multifaceted relationship. Leaders and followers are part of a single interconnected system.

Ajibade (2005) maintained that administrators of education, managing as they do an enterprise which is critically related to the well-being of our society, cannot continue to rely solely on the benefits of experience and practice that are not founded on sound theoretical guidelines.

Trait Theory

The early trait theories examined leadership by answering the question: "In terms of individual characteristics differences, who are the most effective leaders? Or Are there a set of finite individual characteristics or traits that can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders?" Following the early trait theories, researchers concentrated their attention from the

individual characteristics of the leader to a concern for the style of leadership exhibited by the leader. The major question asked was “is one leadership style more effective than another leadership style?” In other words, attention shifted from a concern of “who the leader is” to “what the leader does” (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 2002). Researchers began an endless search to identify biographical, personality, emotional, physical, intellectual, cultural, and other personal characteristics of successful leaders (Bird, 1960; Hollander, 1978; Ibukun & Oyewole, 1997; Peterson, 2004; Triandis, 2006). Hollander (1978) noted that in an earlier time, it was thought to be enough to describe personality traits of leaders in explaining leadership. Qualities such as courage, wisdom, and character are examples of those traits, said to make an individual leader. Today, one might still admire someone with these traits, but would not assume they ensured effectiveness for a particular set of leader functions (DuBrin & Dalglish, 2003).

There appears to be two kinds of traits research. One identifies traits that might distinguish leaders from followers, while the other distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders. However, the problem of assessing leader effectiveness in different situations is more complicated than identifying who is the leader. Ibukun and Oyewole (1997) observed that there are traits essential to leadership. First, intelligence relative to others in the group is a factor. Most leaders in Ibukun and Oyewole’s study tended to be somewhat more intelligent than non-leaders; hence, leaders tended to be more knowledgeable. Other studies have shown that leaders tend to be more intelligent than their followers, although they might not be comparatively very intelligent if they are considered with some members of other groups. (Thomas & Inkson, 2004; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Hence, ability of leaders is relative to the specific social unit or organization. Second, self-confidence—or at least the ability to look self-confident—appeared to be necessary for leadership in the Ibukun and Oyewole study. However, a person who is self-confident in one situation may be anything but assured in an entirely different case. One other important trait is initiative. It is believed that the person who does not initiate action or ideas cannot be called a leader. Organization of today requires visionary leadership. But again, the man who exhibits initiative under one set of circumstances may not display it under others.

Significantly, these three qualities, although under different names, appeared on the majority of the lists Bird (1960) examined. This occurred despite the fact that some of the studies were conducted among students, many of whom apparently confused popularity with leadership. Although a person who is popular with potential followers may find it easier to assume leadership, not all those who are well-liked are leaders; also, sometimes leaders are respected but are not regarded with any particular warmth (Yukl, 2002).

Behavioral Theories

During the 1950s, dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership, namely what the leader does and how he/she does it, sparked a series of research studies. The foundation for the style of leadership approach was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieve certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale. Unlike trait theories, the behavioral approach focused on leader effectiveness, not the emergence of an individual as a leader. Although many terms were assigned to the different leadership styles, two factors were stressed in each approach: task orientation and employee orientation. Ivancevich (1977) described that task orientation is the emphasis on which the leader places getting the job done by such actions as assigning and organizing the work, making decisions, and evaluating

performance; employee orientation is the openness and friendliness exhibited by the leader and his or her concern for the needs of subordinates.

Two major research efforts were directed towards investigating the behavioral approach to leadership: the Ohio State studies and University of Michigan studies. Brown (1965) said that the overall objective of Ohio State studies was to examine the patterns of behavior of persons designated to be leaders, i.e., those who satisfy common group needs. Through these studies, two independent leadership dimensions were identified: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure is analogous to a task oriented leadership style, while consideration refers to an emphasis on an employee oriented leadership style (Brown).

At approximately the same time research was being conducted at The Ohio State University, a series of leadership studies were in progress at the University of Michigan. Likert (1967) said the primary purpose of the studies was to identify styles of leader behavior that result in increased work-group performance and satisfaction. Two distinct styles of leadership were developed from their studies: job-centered leadership and employee-centered leadership. The main conclusion reached by the University of Michigan studies was that effectiveness of leadership style should not be evaluated solely by productivity measures, but should include other employee centered or related measures, such as satisfaction (Likert).

Situational Theories

In the 1960s, researchers recognized the limitations of the behavioral theories and began to refine and develop new approaches to the study of leadership. This focused on the more complex situational theories of leadership. Blake and Mouton (1964) defined the relationship of three attributes of managers: concern for production, concern for people, and hierarchy positional attributes. The variables concern for production and concern for people bear similarity to the initiating structure and consideration aspects of the Ohio State studies. The third variable, hierarchy, places the former notions in context; the manner in which the concerns for production and people are linked together by a leader was described as hierarchy. The authors maintained that only the 9.9 style represents a successful integration of organizational and human values in all situations.

Jiboyewa (1991) stated that no leadership can afford to neglect the group characteristics or the organizational conditions under which that leadership is to be exercised. The leader who adjusts his own individuality to fit the conditions of organization is said to be of the situational or contingency school of leadership effectiveness.

The contingency theory, popularized by Fiedler (1967), describes that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the interaction of certain leader attributes with specific demands of the environment. The contribution of Fiedler's work to the contingency theory lies in his recognition that situations in which leaders find themselves vary a great deal, and that different types of leaders would experience greater success in certain types of situations than others.

This study has focused only on traits purposely to examine individual characteristics or traits that can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. The contingency theory of leadership Fiedler pioneered has evolved from a variety of trait approaches that dominated the earlier theories of leadership. The study examined the personality traits of leadership such as age, sex, and experience to determine the effectiveness of principals in Nigerian secondary schools, while the leadership style or behaviors exhibited by the leaders are not deeply in focus but inherent in the functions of the school leaders in their day to day activities.

Ibukun and Oyewole (1997) observed that studies such as those of Ghiselli (1983) and Davies (1992) have indicated a significant correlation between certain traits and leadership effectiveness. Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006), however, maintained it cannot be concluded that a finite set of traits can distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders. Although such aspects as personality appear to be significant factors, these are only a few of the many factors that can contribute to leadership effectiveness or the influenced process (Ticehurst & Veal, 2000). A particular leadership pattern may therefore work effectively for one group of workers, but may be totally ineffective for another group of workers. Interaction among the many factors of a situation must be examined before any predictions about leadership effectiveness can be made (Wang & Clegg, 2002).

Principals' Leadership Effectiveness

Blanchard (1997), in an attempt to validate Fiedler's contingency theory, carried out a study of leadership effectiveness of elementary school principals, their immediate supervisors, and twenty percent of their teaching staff. He tested his hypotheses according to Fiedler's methodology, which included assessing the leaders' situational control and subsequently correlating the leaders' leadership style with the measure of effectiveness. Blanchard found that the higher the situational control, the more effective a principal. His research could not however confirm principals' effectiveness as a function of leadership style. Rather the work affirmed that principals' effectiveness was a function of situational variables, which he identified as experience on the job, position power, leader-member relations, and knowledge. This finding was in agreement with Fiedler's contingency model. Blanchard concluded that for effectiveness to be increased, the principal must increase situational control, meaning that leader-member relations should be improve, and that knowledge and experience on the job and position power should be expanded.

On the basis of Fiedler's theory therefore, it can be said that those school principals who recognize the changing leadership situation in Nigerian secondary schools and adjust their leadership behavior accordingly will tend to be more effective in their leadership roles.

In the context of this study, principals' leadership effectiveness refers to the ability of the school principals to effectively carry out administrative tasks related to instructional programming, staff personnel administration, student personnel administration, financial and physical resources, and school-community relations toward achieving the school goals and objectives.

Instructional Program

The principal is the curriculum leader of the school. He or she is responsible for designing, implementing, and evaluating changes in the instructional program of the school. In the Nigerian educational system, the nation designs the broad curriculum policy in strict consonance with its socio-economic and cultural needs. The principal implements and evaluates the changes in the instructional program. Evaluation comes in form of the principals' constant accountability for his teachers, and the inspector uses the principals' record during the course of his evaluation of the school's instructional program.

Staff Personnel Administration

Cooke and Dunhil (1992) expressed the view that an educational leader must stimulate a lively and dynamic approach with teachers by prodding government authorities to provide regular in-service training. To beginning teachers, the school head should be the chief source of inspiration and assistance through his advice, stimulation, instruction, and guidance. For experienced teachers, the principal develops opportunities and channels to enable their participation in the policy making process, the planning of programs, and carrying out a decision jointly agreed upon. For the principal to be of assistance to any teacher, he must know what goes on in the classroom, despite the fact that he or she receives informal or indirect feedback concerning the climate of instruction and the quality of teachers from students.

Student Personnel Administration

To be able to lead in the area of student personnel, the principal must develop a deeper understanding of the values of students as well as the extent to which student values may be at variance with those of the school as an institution. At the secondary school level, student involvement in decision-making may be gradually initiated in the sense that students should be allowed to participate in decisions relating to affairs that concern them; otherwise, it may be too late when they are faced with dilemmas of decision-making for the larger society. A program of adequate guidance services constitutes the core of principals' student personnel function; these include inventory, information, counseling, placement, and research services, which all converge at the point of needs of the individual student (Wiles et al., 1996).

Financial and Physical Resources

The principal is expected to supervise financial and physical resources of his school. These include purchasing and requisitioning supplies and materials, accounting for school monies, and maintaining an inventory of school property. The fundamental principle in school finance is not how money goes into the system, but how well the available funds are effectively put to use. The leadership required in planning, programming, budgeting, monitoring, and evaluating financial and physical resources represents a dynamic and demanding aspect of the principal role.

School-Community Relations

As a practical step to promoting effective school-community relations, the principal must study and understand the community in which the school is located. He must develop cooperation in a democratic procedure, possess organizational ability for leadership, and understand that there are unlimited human and physical resources in every community that can be organized and used to facilitate effective school-community relations. The principal must regularly inform the community about the conditions, achievements, and needs of the school. He should endeavor to seek and maintain student cooperation in planning and organizing the school community relations program, as well as in relating education in school to life outside the school.

Effectiveness and Gender

Hemphill, Griffiths and Fredrickson (1992) found in their study that male principals did not demonstrate superior performance than their female counterparts; Cirincione-Cole (1995) also found that men are not superior to women in their principal-ship. However, Wile, Hare, Grobman, and Hiries (1996) noted that men ranked significantly ahead of women as democratic leaders. In a survey by Barter (2001), a group of teachers rated male and female principals as equal in ability and personal qualities.

More locally, Adigwu (2004) carried out a comparative study of performance of female and male principals in selected schools in Benin City, Nigeria and observed that both male and female principals had above average performance in their supervisory roles. The mean average performance of male principals was observed to be just a few points above that of female principals. Adigwu therefore concluded that male principals tended to do better in supervisory activities compared to their female counterparts. This may be due to the fact that the male principals seem to have more control over students and teachers.

Experience and Training

Schein (1997) argued that the major influence on the type of leader one is today is the result of experience one gains in leading people. In a study by Okolo (2001) on the performances of primary school headmasters, results showed that there was a significant difference in performance between primary school head teachers with duration of experience ranging from 4 to 11 years and those with 20 years of experience and above. One can thus infer that experience significantly contributes to difference in head teachers' performances. A related study by Eyike (2001) showed that principals who completed in-service trainings were more effective than those who did not. An important implication of his study is that professionally trained principals perform their roles better than non-professionals. Amanchi (1998) reported that teachers who complete degrees in education more professional outputs than those who do not. It is believed that specialized training empowers and motivates such teachers for better performance. For the purpose of this study, only the number of years that the principals have worked shall constitute experience.

Effectiveness and Age

Drucker (1973) observed that a management group comprised of workers of the same age is a management group headed for crisis. Yet, he also noted that a management group that is uniformly old may be preferable to the one that is uniformly too young. Perhaps a mix is ideal.

In a study carried out by Glasscock (1991), it was discovered that age did not affect principals' performance of their leadership responsibilities. Okolo's (2001) research on primary school head teacher's performance, however, showed that age tended to affect the head teachers' administrative performance. Older head teachers had generally spent more years on the job, attended more seminars, and participated in relevant professional discussions that exposed them to new techniques of administration.

In the Nigerian setting, factors such as age, qualification, sex, and experience have been considered in appointing teachers for leadership positions with the belief that some individuals would be more effective than others. (Ibukun & Oyewole, 1997).

The relationship between personality factors and principals' leadership effectiveness seems unclear as there are variations and contradictions in empirical results. The present research

study investigated the influence of personality characteristics on principal leadership effectiveness in Ekiti State, Nigeria. The work puts into focus the variables of age, sex, and experience as they relate to the leadership effectiveness of school principals in a traditional local setting in Nigeria.

The relationship between age and principals' leadership effectiveness is not clear either, as empirical results have been mixed. It was found in one study that age did not affect principals' performance of their leadership responsibilities (Glasscock, 1991), but Okolo (2001) asserted that age did tend to affect the head teachers' administrative performance. However, older head teachers seem to have generally spent more years on the job and have been exposed to different administrative tasks. Based on research findings, we reasoned the following:

H1: There is no significant relationship between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness.

As earlier discussed, the comparison of male and female principals in leadership effectiveness has been fraught with contradiction in the literature. Some studies found that men were not superior to women in their principal-ship (Cirincione-Cole, 1995), while others ranked men significantly ahead of women (Wiles et al., 1996; Adigwu, 2004). For these reasons, we predicted the following:

H2: There is no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals.

Finally, although there are strong positive relationships in some literature regarding the performance of primary school head teachers and personal experience, this study seeks to confirm other findings (e.g., Schein, 1997; Okolo, 2001) in predicting that experience makes no significant difference in head teachers' performances. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

H3: There is no significant relationship between the principals' years of experience and their leadership effectiveness.

Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was used to carry out this study. The study is primarily an investigation into the personality characteristics and principals' leadership effectiveness. The study may help to ascertain the importance of some factors that positively contribute to the effectiveness of school principals in the local setting. Thus, appropriate suggestions could be made for improvements in education in the study area.

The population surveyed consisted of all principals and teachers of public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. At the time of this study, there were one hundred and sixty nine public secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. For accurate and effective sampling, the researchers obtained comprehensive data for all the public secondary schools in Ekiti State from the Teaching Service Commission. A simple random sampling technique was used to select fifty schools and one hundred principals, as there were two principals in each school (Junior and Senior Secondary School). This allowed for good sample representation. Ten teachers were

randomly selected from each school (five from junior school and five from senior school). Therefore, the participants of this study consisted of one hundred (100) principals and five hundred (500) teachers.

The investigators utilized two sets of instruments: the Principals Demographic Inventory (PDI) was used for the principals, and the Principal Leadership Effectiveness Inventory (PLEI) was used for the teachers. The researchers constructed the questionnaires after careful review of some literature related to the study. The PDI was completed by the school principals and consisted of simple questions on variables such as age (4 items), sex (2 items), number of years of experience (4 items), professional qualifications (4 items), size of school (2 items), and school location (2 items). The PLEI consisted of a Likert type 4-point summated rating scale and measured the level of leadership effectiveness of principals as perceived by their teachers. It consisted of thirty questions based on the five leadership task domains of principals: Instructional Program (5 questions), Staff Personnel Administration (7 questions), Student Personnel Administration (6 questions), Financial and Physical Resources (6 questions), and School-Community Relationship (6 questions). The response categories to each of the questions were in descending order of weighting: Highly Effective (4 points), Effective (3 points), Ineffective (2 points), and Highly Ineffective (1 point).

The validity and reliability of the two instruments (PDI and PLEI) were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to find Cronbach alpha values of 0.824 and 0.812, respectively. Hence, the researchers considered the instruments to be valid and reliable based on the blueprint for determining reliability and validity of an instrument as suggested by Macintosh (1974) and Alonge (1989, 2004).

Results

Data obtained through the PDI and PLEI were analyzed, and all hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 significance level using SPSS. Hypotheses 1 and 3 were tested using One-way Analyses of Variance, while Hypothesis 2 was tested using a t-test to compare group means.

H1: There is no significant difference between principal’s age and their leadership effectiveness

Table 1
One –way ANOVA Summary of Principal’s Age and their leadership effectiveness

Source	SS	DF	MS	F-value
Between Groups	458.145	3	152.715	2.922*
Within Groups	5052.205	96	52.271	
Total	5510.350	99		

* $P > 0.05$

Hypothesis 1 was rejected as there was a significant difference between principal age and leadership effectiveness ($f = 2.922, p < 0.05$). This demonstrated that principals’ age significantly influenced their leadership effectiveness. The older principals performed better than younger principals.

In order to ascertain pairs of groups that were significantly different, Scheffe Post Hoc test of Multiple Range Analysis was used among the groups. The results showed that there was a pair-wise significant difference between the leadership effectiveness of principals who are 36-40 years of age and principals who are above 45 years.

Table 2
t-test Summary of Difference in the Leadership Effectiveness of Male and Female Principals

Group	N	X	SD	DF	t-value
Male	55	116.33	120.91	98	0.10
Female	45	114.72	121.11		

P > 0.05

Hypothesis 2 speculated that there is no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals. No significant difference was found. (t = 0.10: p>0.05). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 3
One way ANOVA Summary of Principals' Years of Experience and their Leadership Effectiveness

Source	SS	DF	MS	F-value
Between Groups	462.212	3	154.071	2.930*
Within Groups	5048.138	96	52.585	
Total	5510.350	99		

**P < 0.05*

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be no significant difference between principals' years of experience and leadership effectiveness. The reverse was true (F = 2.930, p<0.05). Thus, hypothesis 3 was not supported. This shows that principals' years of experience significantly influenced their leadership effectiveness; the more experienced principals performed better than the less experienced ones.

In order to observe pairs of groups that were significantly different, a Scheffe Post Hoc test of Multiple Range Analysis was used. The results indicated that there was a pair-wise significant difference between the leadership effectiveness of principals with 1-5 years of experience and principals with experience of 20 years and above.

Discussion

The findings of this study revealed that there was a significant difference between principals' age and their leadership effectiveness. The older principals were perceived to be more effective in schools' leadership. This result is in consonance with the observations of Ogunsanya (2001), whose study showed a positive relationship existed between principals' productivity and

age. However, this research is in conflict with the findings of a study carried out by Glasscock (1991), which found that age did not affect principals' performance in their administrative responsibilities. The present study also confirms Okolo's (2001) findings that age tended to affect headmasters' administrative effectiveness. With the results of this present study, it seems imperative to appoint principals of above 45 years in age to leadership positions in the school system.

The results of the second hypothesis indicated that there was no significant difference in the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals as perceived by teachers. This finding supports Adigwu's (2004) comparative study of the performance of female and male principals in selected schools, where it was observed that both male and female principals had above average performance in their supervisory roles. Like Adigwu's study, the results of this study indicated that mean average performance of male principals was just two points above that of female principals. The mean score of male and female principals were 116.33 and 114.72 respectively. The results of this study also agree with the findings of Osezuah (2000), which indicated no significant difference between male and female graduates in job performance in organizations in Nigeria. However, the reason for the insignificant difference that existed between male and female principals' leadership effectiveness may be due to improved commitment to duty by both sexes. Enhanced motivation by reward and possible commitment negates public stereotypic views, at least in Nigeria, that women are less committed to work due to being pre-occupied with business and petty trading at the expense of their work.

Finally, the result of hypothesis three indicated a significant difference between principals' years of experience and leadership effectiveness. It is significant to point out that the low mean scores recorded by principals with 1-5 years of experience when compared to principals with 20 years and above as revealed through the Scheffe Multiple Range Analysis may signify low levels of leadership effectiveness. The more experienced principals appeared to perform better. The finding of this study is consistent with Alily's (2000) study, which showed a significant difference between medium-experienced and short-experienced teachers. The result of this study also supports Harbison and Hanushek's research (1992), which found that teaching experience relates positively to learning. Hence, the present finding upholds the popular adage that "experience is the best teacher." It also showed that principals with 15 years and above are more effective and that such a long stay in leadership positions may equip them with more adequate knowledge to function effectively. It is believed that more experienced principals generally have spent more years on the job, attended seminars, and participated in relevant professional conferences and workshops, consequently exposing them to new administrative techniques. Deng and Gibb (2008) reported in their study that "leadership is a lot about learning by doing." The view points and perspectives derived from their daily practice are unique and valuable (Wilson & Dalton, 1998).

Conclusion

Arising from the findings of this study, one major conclusion that could be drawn is that personality characteristics of principals such as age and years of experience significantly influence leadership effectiveness. No significant difference existed in leadership effectiveness of principals based on sex. It is assumed that these findings have some implications for practice and for further research. One important implication of this study is the finding that principals' years of experience positively determined the leadership effectiveness of a principal. This

observation requires the attention of educational policy makers in the state. Many years of experience could be perceived as an asset to leadership effectiveness. The findings of this investigation may afford the Teaching Service Commission the need to place high emphasis and priority on years of experience in the appointment of principals. Such awareness could also help the commission to develop strategies and mechanisms for developing effective leadership in the school system. However, it may be recommended that inasmuch as years of experience is a necessary criterion for deploying and promoting teachers to the principal-ship cadre, the educational authorities should not consider experience in isolation. Experience should be considered along with age. Gender factor should be de-emphasized in the appointment of principals as no significant differences existed between male and female principals in leadership effectiveness. All these factors should be complemented with appropriate training in leadership and supervisory functions of principals. This is required to fill the present gap observed between the competence of experienced and inexperienced principals.

Finally, we want to sound a note of caution: the results should be considered jealously. It is necessary to study the effects of variables other than the identified ones. Variables such as school climates, policy demands, nature of tasks, pressure of time, and bureaucracy are areas that need to be researched as well. Similar research could also be carried out on a broader scale, in which the demographic information of teachers as well as principals could be used.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed for the purpose of collecting information on the principal leadership effectiveness in this area.

The purpose is for the effective management of schools in this area. Every information in this questionnaire would be confidentially treated, so do not write your names.

PRINCIPAL’S DEMOGRAPHIC INVENTORY

INSTRUCTION: Read the following statement carefully and tick the responses which best described you and your school on the columns provided.

1. Name of your school
2. Age: 31-35 [], 36-40 [], 41-45 [], above 45 []
3. Sex: Male [], Female []
4. Student population of your school: 1000 and above [] below 1000[]
5. Qualification: Professional [] (B.A. Ed, B. Sc, Ed, B.Ed., PGDE, M.Ed.). Less Professional [] (B.A., B.Sc., M.Sc.)
6. Location of School: Urban [] Rural []
7. Total number of years of experience as school principal: Under 5 year [], 5-10 years [], 10years -15 years, above 15 years []
8. Style of passing information to the teachers in your school: formal [], Less formal []

APPENDIX II

PRINCIPALS LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS INVENTORY

Teachers should kindly tick the option that best describes his/her principal.

This scale should be used for assessment.

- | | | | |
|------------------|--------|---|--------|
| Highly Effective | (HE) = | 4 | points |
| Effective | (E) = | 3 | Points |
| Ineffective | (IE) = | 2 | Points |
| Highly Effective | (HI) = | 1 | Points |

Name of School:.....

How effective is your principal in the performance of the following roles?

A.INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM	HE	E	IE	HI
1. Offering assistance to teachers in the location of teaching materials.				
2. Helping teachers to develop new instructional materials?				
3. Offering assistance to teachers in the selection of textbooks for students?				
4. Coordinating the general instructional activities of teachers?				
5. Coordinating the presentation of social programs for slow learners?				
B. STAFF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION				

<p>6. Ensuring that teacher understand their limit to independent action?</p> <p>7. Accepting responsibility for the work he/she delegates to staff?</p> <p>8. Allowing teachers a measure of authority in doing their duties?</p> <p>9. Viewing teachers attendance to class as very important?</p> <p>10. Checking who does his/her work</p> <p>11. Assisting staff on personal problems?</p> <p>12. Recruiting staff</p> <p>C. STUDENT PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION</p> <p>13. Helping teachers to monitor student's progress through examinations?</p> <p>14. Discussing with student regularly concerning their welfare?</p> <p>15. Making himself/ herself available for consultation with student?</p> <p>16. Ensuring that students who come late are disciplined?</p> <p>17. Ensuring the orientation of new students in his/ her school?</p> <p>18. Showing concern on school performance in examinations?</p> <p>D. FINANCIAL AND PHYSICAL RESOURCE</p> <p>19. Evaluating the use of physical resources in his/her school?</p> <p>20. Evaluating the use of financial resources in his/her schools?</p> <p>21. Obtaining revenue from appropriate quarters for his/her school?</p> <p>22. Coordinating money spending to avoid unnecessary expenses?</p> <p>23. Making budget estimates for his/her school?</p> <p>24. Proving immediate replacements to damaged classroom equipment?</p> <p>E. SCHOOL COMMUNITY RELATIONS</p> <p>25. Ensuring good rapport on school community relations?</p> <p>26. Planning meetings for good relations?</p> <p>27. Understudying of the values of the society in which his/her school operates?</p> <p>28. Listening to advice from members of the society?</p> <p>29. Ensuring regular evaluation of school community relations of his/her school?</p> <p>30. Involving the community on school projects?</p>				
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SUN TZU AND COMMAND ASSESSMENT: A STUDY ON COMMANDER'S COURAGE

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Sun Tzu opened his sixth Century BCE work on the art of war by providing assessments for evaluating 5 important components of war. Among these components was the military commander. Sun Tzu identified the characteristics of knowledge, trustworthiness, courage, and strictness as the way to assess the military commander. Recent studies of courage have focused on perceptions of courage in an attempt to develop a general courage model. This study used military veterans to provide qualitative assessments of the behaviors associated with a commander's courage, the difference between courage and bravery, and the opposite of a commander's courage. Results indicate that the commander's courage presents a different behavioral mix from those behaviors identified in previous courage studies.

The sixth century BCE, military philosopher Sun Tzu began his exposition "The Art of War" by identifying 5 characteristics of war: military philosophy, weather, terrain, leadership and tactics (Gagliardi, 2004). Within each of these characteristics he then built a brief assessment rubric. The rubric for leadership contained the following 4 characteristics: knowledge, trustworthiness, courage, and strictness (Denema, 2001). Through the remainder of the text, Sun Tzu spent little time expounding on these leadership characteristics as if the reader already understood their meaning. Construct definitions that are held by individuals and used by those individuals to evaluate the actions of those around them are considered implicit theories (Sternberg, 1985; Sternberg, Conway Ketron, & Bernstein, 1981). Sun Tzu, in not defining these constructs or providing a way to assess attributes such as courage, appears to have relied on the reader to use their own implicit definition of these constructs when evaluating a commander.

Courage, while defined in literature, through movies, and cultural lore, remains for the most part an implicit theory (Rate, Clarke, Lindsay, & Sternberg, 2007). Unlike the 3-point line in basketball, there is no clearly defined test for courage. To confuse matters even more, courage appears to be liberally applied to a wide variety of ventures and actions (Evans & White, 1981; Putman, 2001; Woodward, 2004; Brymer & Oades, 2009; Norton & Weiss, 2009). While the search continues for a central core system of values or behaviors that shape the defining characteristics for courage, Sun Tzu appeared to address the characteristics of the type of courage that is necessary for the commander of military forces.

The purpose of this research is to discover the implicit theories of a commander's courage. The commander's courage will be defined as those elements used by the study's

participants to evaluate the type of courage unique to the role in which a military commander serves. As these theories are held by individuals and do not reside in an Army Field Manual or similar doctrinal guideline, a qualitative, grounded theory approach will be used to discover the elements of these implicit theories. This paper will conduct a review of recent research into the construct of courage, then discuss the approach used to gain insight into the commonly held threads of implicitly held theories or definitions.

Literature Review

Lopez, Koetting, O'Byrne, and Peterson (2003) assessed the physical aspects of courage by defining courage with respect to one's ability to, after assessing a situation as potentially harmful or fatal, overcome the fear and proceed with the task. Participants who were rated as overconfident expressed higher levels of fear and apprehension when repeating a similar task. Fearless individuals were ones who did not indicate elevated levels of fear or apprehension when repeating a similar risky endeavor. Lopez et al. determined that components of courage included risks and facing fears.

Brymer and Oades (2009) validated the view that courage included fear and risk through conducting a series of interviews with extreme sports participants (BASE jumpers, waterfall kayakers, solo-rope free climbers, and extreme mountaineers). The participants in these sports recognized that the risks they were taking could result in serious injury or death. These participants also acknowledged that they faced fears associated with these risks, yet they also recognized that in one way or another they needed to cope with and control these fears in order to perform at the level necessary to successfully execute their sport. These participants voluntarily subjected themselves to these risky situations; yet Brymer and Oades determined that by overcoming their fears, the extreme sport athletes were demonstrating courage.

Sekerka and Bagozzi (2007) chose to compare moral courage and physical courage. A morally courageous person was defined as one who takes personal risks as an outcome of decisions that benefit others. This type of risk taking needed to be a consistent characteristic of the individual's behavioral repertoire as opposed to something more episodic. Sekera and Bagozzi used this definition to analyze how moral courage developed in the face of ethical challenges in a business environment.

Pury, Kowalski and Spearman (2007) approached the study of courage by looking at courage from a general and a personal level. General courage was determined to be acts that would be considered courageous when compared to the general populace. Personal courage was seen as a courageous act when compared to the felt fear of the individual actor. The key to determining the courageousness of an act was the comparison group used. Pury et al. asked students to provide a narrative on a courageous act that they performed, and then asked the students to rate the act on its basis of personal and general courage. The various actions of the students fell into 16 different types, divided into the three main groupings of physical, psychological, and moral courage (Putman, 1997). The students provided information on risk factors of non-physical difficulty, physical difficulty or risk, and risk to one's image. The researchers determined that personal courage was more closely related to one's sense of personal risk, while general courage was more closely related to one's sense of confidence and fearlessness in a given situation.

Woodward (2004) defined courage with respect to fear, "the ability to act for a meaningful (noble, good, or practical) cause, despite experiencing the fear associated with

perceived threat exceeding the available resources” (p. 174). Taking into consideration that individual actions may be seen as courageous when the individual’s levels of felt fear were not significant, Woodward and Pury (2007) revisited courage and altered the definition by removing the concept of fear as a necessary lens through which to interpret courage: “Courage is the voluntary willingness to act, with or without varying levels of fear, in response to a threat to achieve an important, perhaps moral, outcome or goal” (p. 136). In both studies, participants were asked to complete questionnaires citing various scenarios where there were threats to desired outcomes. The participants rated their willingness to act and their perceived levels of fear in such a situation. Woodward and Pury found support for four different types of courage: work/employment courage, patriotic-religion, or belief based physical courage, social-moral courage, and independent courage. In Woodward (2004) and Woodward and Pury’s (2007) studies, the 30 scenarios presented situations to be coded and may not have included the full range of possible categories for courage.

As courage is seen to be an implicit theory, letting the individuals provide the data on the definition may present a way to more thoroughly capture the nuances of this construct. Rate et al. (2007) conducted a four-phase study with students from Yale University and the United States Air Force Academy. In phase one, the students were asked to describe behaviors associated with courage. The 639 behaviors from phase one were provided to a different sample of students who were asked to rate them with respect to the degree these behaviors were associated with courage (phase two). In phase three, two samples of students were asked to conduct a card sort of the 60 descriptive behaviors of courage that emerged from the ratings in phase two; then the researchers evaluated the grouping of descriptors using classical multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis to bring to light three salient clusters of behaviors termed: self-focused perseverance despite fear; non-physical/social-oriented acts for noble ends; and self-sacrifice/risk for others. In phase four, to assess how reliably individuals applied their implicit theory of courage, two groups of subjects were given scenarios and asked to rate either the types of courage displayed in the scenario or the level of courage displayed by the protagonist in the scenario. Rate et al. (2007) concluded that the subjects of their study were able to effectively apply their implicit definitions of courage in rating the actions of others and the type of courage displayed.

These studies evaluated courage from a general sense while recognizing that courage may take on different characteristics based on the situation and the call for action. In light of these considerations, is the courage needed by a military commander different from more general forms of courage? Using the Chinese text as a starting point, courage shares a similar root character with brave. This root character can be used interchangeably in translations of courage or brave, leaving one with the question: is there a difference between courage and bravery, and if so, can understanding the difference between courage and bravery provide a clearer understanding of courage? Finally, although these studies considered descriptions of the construct of courage, none of them considered using descriptions of the opposite of courage as a way to help amplify the salient courage behaviors. The use of polar opposites in research questionnaires is supported as a valid method of inquiry (Schriesheim, Eisenbach, & Hill, 1991; Bentler, Jaskson, & Messick, 1972; Jordan, 1977).

Methodology

This study was conducted to identify the characteristics military veterans associated with a commander's courage. Military veterans were selected as the population of interest because they have had the opportunity to use their implicit definition of courage in assessing the courage of the commanders with whom they have served or whom they have observed. These veterans were asked to complete an online survey with demographic data and three open-ended questions about courage. Survey respondents were able to complete the open-ended items with as much or as little information as they preferred. The survey was hosted on the Survey Monkey website, and a response window of 18 days was provided. Responses were limited by the computer's Internet Protocol address, making multiple responses by single individuals more difficult. Braithwaite, Emery, de Lusignan, and Sutton (2003) indicated that internet based surveys provide an alternative to paper based or telephone surveys when issues with external validity are addressed.

A convenience sample of military veterans was recruited for this study through email and the social networking site, Facebook. The email and Facebook postings on the Regent University Military Veteran's page on facebook encouraged study participants to forward the original email to veterans in their social networks as a variation of the snowball sample technique (Patton, 2004).

Survey respondents (n=104) were overwhelmingly from the United States Military (n=101). The various branches of service were represented: Army (n=88), Air Force (n=8), Coast Guard (n=4), Marines (n=2) and Navy (n=2). With the exception of the warrant officer grades of WO-1 and CWO-5, all ranks were represented from E1-4 to O-6 (U.S. Army Colonel or U.S. Navy Captain) (E1-E4, n=5; E5-E6, n=12, E-7, n=5; E-8, n=8; E-9, n=2; CWO2, n=1, CWO3, n= 1; CWO4 n=2, O1 n=1; O2 n=3; O3 n=26; O4 n=14; O5 n=21; O6 n=3). Ages ranged from below 21 to over 65 with the median age of 35-44 (n=48). Both males (n=88) and females (n=15) were represented in the sample. Respondents with a master's degree or higher represented 55% of the sample. Only 37 of the 104 respondents did not have at least one combat tour of at least 4 continuous months.

After completing a series of demographic questions, survey participants were asked to complete the following open-ended questions:

What are the behaviors or qualities that best describe the courage you would expect from a military commander/leader? You may craft your response in a word processing program then cut and paste it into this box:

How does a leader/commander's courage differ from similar behaviors such as bravery? You may craft your response in a word processing program then cut and paste it into this box:

How would you describe the opposite of a commander/leader's courage? You may craft your response in a word processing program then cut and paste it into this box:

Open-ended responses were then reviewed, evaluated, and coded with the assistance of the Atlas ti 6.0 software. In all, 422 statements or phrases were identified for evaluation in the coding phase, yielding 502 coded phrases. (See Table 1 for example phrases of the different codes identified in the survey responses). A total of nine codes were associated with

commander's courage, five codes were associated with identifying the difference between bravery and courage, and eight codes were identified with the opposite of a commander's courage. Between those codes for courage and the opposite of courage, seven codes overlapped (e.g., "Makes the hard choices; thinks" and "Indecisiveness; no thought; not making hard choices"). The code "Short Tempered, Irrational, Yelling, and Abusive" was revealed in the responses to the question on the behaviors associated with the opposite of command courage. The codes for courage as a "Character trait-long term" and "Courage the foundation for bravery" were revealed in the inquiry of the differences between the commander's courage and bravery.

Table 1 (Part 1)
Codes, Code frequencies and Example Phrases

Code Family	Code	Frequency	Example
Courage	Makes the hard choices	91	Thinks It takes courage to lead troops into battle and make decisions that could result in great injury or death of subordinates.
	Accepts responsibility willing to learn	12	it is often more difficult for leaders to take personal responsibility for actions than it is to display physical courage.
	Selfless regardless of consequences or career	23	selfless dedication, action and or commitment to further the success of another human being, entity, organization or institution without regard or concern for the repercussions or ramifications that could occur to one's own well-being or standing in the world.
	Integrity Honesty Personal code Principles	26	Honesty and integrity, everything else they do stem from these qualities
	Confront risks and fear without showing fear	70	I define courage as the willingness to face adversity with a positive attitude and inspire those around you to do the same. This must occur based upon an assessment of the situation and a desire to do the right thing regardless of the potential consequences to the commander or his subordinates.
	Continue to try, Mission Completion	9	They do not give up when the odds of the battle are against them
	Lead from the front Lead by example	15	A willingness to lead from the front, sharing the dangers the troops face
	Character trait - long term	17	A leader's courage is demonstrated on a more consistent basis and over a wider set of circumstances and situations – not just in battle, but day to day, under the stresses of every day work and personal life..
	Courage foundation for bravery	9	Bravery is perhaps a subset of commander's courage
Bravery	Bravery facing imminent physical threat	27	I see bravery as just the ability to perform tasks under hostile fire or the imminent threat of hostile fire.
	Bravery immediate action	39	I view bravery as instinctual and generally without forethought.
	Bravery may be without courage	6	Bravery is more of a reaction to a circumstance that may or not be a result of personal courage.
	Individual	10	Bravery seems to infer individual effort in the face of individual risk.
	Bravery and Courage are the same	4	I see bravery and courage to be interchangeable depending on who is telling the story

Table 1 (Part 2)
Codes, Code frequencies and Example Phrases

Code Family	Code	Frequency	Example
Opposite	Indecisiveness, No thought, Not making hard decisions	42	The biggest thing I've ever viewed as being "the opposite of" courage is faltering decision making. Lack of self confidence, waffling in front of "troops," being unsure of the next move.
	Failure to take responsibility, failure to learn	15	if a subordinate fails, throw him/her under the bus and fail to accept your responsibility as the leader.
	Selfish, Refuses to take career risks or challenge command	42	Craven devotion to self; The opposite of a commander's courage is someone who thinks more about how their career will be affected, and decided things that way, than to do the right, if not popular thing to do.
	Failure of Morals Lacks Integrity	11	The opposite would be when he or she compromises his or her values of the values of the army/unit or that person puts his or her interests ahead of the unit or doing the right thing.
	Fear dominates Avoids risk or conflict	14	I once knew a commander who spent the last month of his tour in a container (a steel box, usually fortified with sand bags and used as bomb shelters etc.). This seemed pretty opposite to me.
	Quitting or giving up	3	Accepting the consequences of defeat
	Lead from the Rear, Fail to lead by example	8	the leader that doesn't share the hardships and fire of his men. leading by example is not trite, it carries more weight than can often be defined
	Short Tempered, Irrational, Yelling Abusive	9	One who folds under pressure. He or she exhibits this by anger and yelling. He or she is feared when the fighting gets the hardest in the area of responsibility. His or her mood changes erratically normally.

In considering the attributes of commander's courage and the opposite of courage, several codes overlapped. Evaluating these opposites revealed a dissimilar distribution of responses (see Table 2). Making the right decision and indecisiveness both held the highest frequency of occurrence in the responses between descriptions of the commander's courage and the opposite. Facing and overcoming fear was identified as the second most frequent behavior of commander's courage, while "selfish, refuses to take career risks or confront the chain of command" was equal in the frequency to indecisiveness for the opposite of commander's courage.

Table 2
Frequency Distribution of Courage and Opposite of Courage Codes

Ranking (Frequency)	Courage	Ranking (Frequency)	Opposite of Courage
1 (91)	Makes the hard choices Thinks	1 (42)	Indecisiveness, No thought, Not making hard decisions
2 (70)	Confront risks and fear without showing fear	3 (14)	Fear dominates Avoids risk or conflict
3 (26)	Integrity Honesty Personal code Principles	1 (42)	Selfish, Refuses to take career risks or challenge cmd
4 (23)	Selfless regardless of consequences or career	4 (11)	Failure of Morals Lacks Integrity
5 (17)	Character trait - long term		(n/a)
6 (15)	Lead from the front Lead by example	6 (8)	Lead from the Rear, Fail to lead by example
7 (12)	Accepts responsibility willing to learn	2 (15)	Failure to take responsibility, failure to learn
8 (9)	Courage foundation for bravery		(n/a)
8 (9)	Continue to try, Mission Completion	7 (3)	Quitting or giving up
	(n/a)	5 (9)	Short Tempered, Irrational, Yelling Abusive

The survey participants identified the differences between bravery and courage in terms of the time frame in which the behaviors were displayed, the risks involved, and the nature of the risk (individual vs. corporate). Bravery was seen as an immediate response to an imminent threat to the individual, and may be a reflexive response by someone who in other circumstances would not be considered to possess courage. Courage, on the other hand, was seen as a long-term character quality that served as a foundation for brave acts. Commanders with command courage were capable of facing physical threats, but also responded to moral and ethical risks, and in facing those risks considered the mission and the welfare of the troops ahead of their own. The commander's courage was defined by the participants as an individual trait that is revealed over time.

Based on the survey responses, a commander's courage appears to be clearly centered on the commander's ability to be a decisive decision maker, one who takes into consideration the mission and the troops yet will make the "hard decisions," even if it places themselves, their troops, or their careers at risk. The commander's courage is built on integrity, honesty, and the adherence to principles and is demonstrated through selfless acts of putting others ahead of their own concerns. Commanders also display this courage by not shying away from facing the same conditions as their troops and will lead from the front as well as lead by example. Commanders must have the courage to accept responsibility for their actions and the actions of their unit and will permit their subordinates to take risks while accepting the responsibility should the subordinates fail. This courage is also demonstrated in their drive to not give up despite the odds. A commander clearly demonstrates a lack of courage by indecisiveness; placing self and career ahead of mission and troops; shirking responsibility; allowing fear to paralyze them; failing morally; acting short-tempered, irrational, or abusive to their subordinates; not setting the example and leading from the front; and quitting or giving up.

Discussion, Limitations, Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to determine if the assessment of the courage of a commander, as a desired characteristic identified by Sun Tzu, was composed of different behaviors or a different collection of behaviors than those associated with courage in previous studies. Understanding that the survey respondents were not randomly selected and the survey methodology restricted the sample to those with Internet access, this study's identified behaviors associated with a commander's courage provide some verification of a type of courage not yet examined in the literature.

While various types of risk were a consideration, a commander's courage was evidenced in their decision-making processes and the biases that were revealed. This focus on decision-making is unique in the study of courage, where the preponderance of courageous behaviors have focused on an individual's actions as they have faced individual risk. The commander of units in combat must make decisions on which units to send into battle, which units to pull, which units will receive what resources in order to accomplish the mission, etc. The commander faces these risks as an individual, yet their decision-making involves placing others at risk. The pressures of putting others at risk are unique to the role served by commanders. The dual nature of these risks thus extends the role of risk in defining courage beyond merely individual physical risk, as was associated with bravery.

By including courage in Sun Tzu's assessment of commanders, this study's participants indicated that a commander's courage is defined differently from that of general or personal

courage (Pury et al., 2007). In drawing from the implicit theories held by military veterans about the courage necessary for command, the importance of decision-making as opposed to facing episodic threats to one's life or health came to the forefront. Bravery appeared to be valued less as it was seen as a temporary event delineated by time and circumstance. The commander's courage was seen as indicative of a deeper character trait that revealed itself through the decisions the commander made over time.

The commander's courage appears to be unique and deserving of a more thorough and robust research approach. By identifying which behaviors are associated with a commander's courage, as well as the trait vs. state-like nature of the construct, opportunities may exist to not only use this data as a command assessment tool but also in fostering the development of future commanders.

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LEADERSHIP NUCLEUS: A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF GOVERNANCE DYNAMICS IN A TEXAS-BASED NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION

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The National Center for Charitable Statistics (2004) noted that the U.S. nonprofit landscape includes 850,455 public charities, 104,276 private foundations, 463,714 other types of nonprofit organizations (i.e., chambers of commerce, fraternal organizations, and civic leagues that are registered with the IRS), and 377,640 congregations. As of 2004, nonprofits accounted for 8.3 percent of the wages and salaries paid in the United States. According to the Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies (2003), the nonprofit sector is a major economic influence in the State of Texas, where 1 out of every 25 paid workers is employed by a nonprofit. The 360,272 nonprofit employees in Texas earned over \$8.6 billion in wages as of 2000. Considering the significant socio-economic impact of nonprofits, it is important for scholars to examine leadership dynamics that affect organizational continuity and effectiveness in the charitable sector. Nonprofits can be better understood in light of the leadership that guides these organizations. This study analyzes the discourses of leadership at DY, a nonprofit organization that provides after-school reading programs to inner city, under-privileged children in a Texas metropolis.

The United States has long been considered “the land of nonprofits” (Glaeser, 2003, p. 143), with organizations spanning a wide array of fields including religion, education, health care, arts, childcare, social services, and others (Hall, 1987; Salamon, 2003). Nonprofits (NPOs) are estimated to produce one-fifth of all American research and development, most of the economy’s human capital, many important cultural products and services, and most health care, education, and social services (Malani, Philipson, & Don, as cited in Glaeser, p. 181).

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463,714 other types of nonprofit organizations (i.e., chambers of commerce, fraternal organizations, and civic leagues that are registered with the IRS), and 377,640 congregations. As of 2004, nonprofits accounted for 8.3 percent of the wages and salaries paid in the United States.

Also, according to the Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies (2003), the nonprofit sector is a major economic influence in the State of Texas, where 1 out of every 25 paid workers is employed by a nonprofit. The 360,272 nonprofit employees in Texas earned over \$8.6 billions in wages as of 2000. While more than half, 52 percent, of nonprofit employment in the state is in the health services field, 18 percent is in social services, which includes services such as after school reading programs.

Considering the significant socio-economic impact of nonprofits, it is important for scholars to examine leadership dynamics that affect organizational continuity and effectiveness in the charitable sector. Nonprofits can be better understood in light of the leadership that guides these organizations. This study analyzes the discourses of leadership at DY, a nonprofit organization that provides after-school reading programs to inner city, under-privileged children in a Texas metropolis.

Theoretical, Ontological, and Epistemological Orientation

This research project seeks to demonstrate that discourse constructs social reality and organizational processes, phenomena, and concepts, including leadership. This view is supported by an increasing number of scholars. Applying a social constructionist view to NPOs, Herman and Renz (1997) argued for “the value of treating nonprofit organizational effectiveness as a social construction” (p. 6). The authors remarked that when one assumes a social constructionist stance, concepts like “organizational effectiveness” become dependent on the actors who use these concepts. Scott (1995) eloquently echoed this concept, stating, “in the social constructionist view, individuals do not discover the world and its ways, but collectively invent them” (p. 50).

Putnam and Pacanowsky (1983) advocated the use of qualitative studies to better understand the role of organizational communication from a social constructionist perspective. One strategy suggested as a means for researching organizations is implementing discourse analysis. Following that call, the last two decades have witnessed a surge in the number of discourse analysis studies covering numerous areas: leadership (Fairhurst, 2007; Grint, 2000), conflict management and negotiations (Putnam, 2004, 2005; Putnam et al., 2005), organizational communication (Putnam & Fairhurst, 2001; Putnam, Phillips, & Chapman, 1996), decision making (Mauws, 2000), organizational change (Heracleous & Barrett, 2001), identity management (Phillips & Hardy, 1997), inter-organizational collaboration (Phillips, Lawrence, & Hardy, 2000), collaboration and conflict (Hardy & Phillips, 1998); organizational discourse (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000; Chia, 2000; Grant, Keenoy, & Osrick, 1998; Hardy, 2001), discourse and social change (Fairclough, 1992), critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995), and organizational storytelling (Boje, 1995).

Ontologically, in discourse analysis organizations are viewed as social constructions formed at the intersection of discursive interactions among organizational actors. Phillips and Hardy (2002) claimed that the world (i.e., organizations) cannot be known separate from discourse. Discourse analysis examines how language constructs

phenomena (e.g., leadership) in organizations. Fairclough (1992) stated that “discourses do not just reflect or represent social entities and relations, they construct and constitute them” (p. 3). Phillips and Hardy (2002) added that while other methodological approaches “interpret or understand social reality as it is,” discourse analysis exposes the ways in which reality is produced and how it is maintained over time (p. 6).

Epistemologically, discourse analysis provides the strategies necessary to unpack and explain the production of social reality by indicating how language is constitutive rather than representative or reflective. Discourse analysis is conducive to reflexivity on the part of researchers, who incorporate their own research method and practices into the study itself. Holland (1999) highlighted the benefits of increased reflexivity enabling researchers to see how their investigation processes shapes the outcomes of their research. Finally, discourse analysis is “subversive” in that it challenges entrenched assumptions about organizations, processes, society, and relations (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Knowledge about organizations is contested, created, and procured through discourse and analysis of discourse.

In organizational communication, Fairhurst and Putnam (2004) promoted the social constructionist view in their article on organizations as complex discursive constructions. According to these authors, researchers typically adopt three main orientations in the relationship between language and organizations:

- Object – this orientation “casts the organization as an already formed object or entity with discursive features and outcomes” (Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004, p. 9). Organizations produce discourse. Discourse is an artifact, and the organization is a black box that records these discourses.
- Becoming – this orientation presents the organization in a continuous state of becoming and discourse as being formative. Organizations are presented through *organizing*, which takes place in sharing of power/knowledge systems between various organizational actors. The use of language and the interaction processes produce organizing or the becoming effect.
- Grounded in action – this orientation looks at organizations as anchored in action and discursive forms. Organizations emerge from the association between humans and objects who produce and reproduce the social system.

This study adopts the perspective of the “becoming orientation” in that discursive exchanges between key actors constitute the process of organizing; leadership is not static, but is evolving and morphing as individuals interact with each other. Fairhurst and Putnam (2004) captured the connection between discourse and organizational processes, phenomena, and concepts:

Discourse exists prior to organizations because the properties of language and interaction produce organizing. Specifically, organizing emerges through linguistic forms that signal relational differences (such as, requests versus commands), align group members into categories (high status versus low status),

legitimate actions (affirm versus reject), enact powerful versus powerless speech forms (for instance, interruption, hesitations, nonfluencies, forms of address), or signal domination (specifically, monopolizing turn taking and controlling topic shifts). This perspective, then, actively rejects the role of language as an artifact and embraces discourse as constituting the micro- and macro-aspects of organizations. (p. 13)

Thus, organizational processes, phenomena, and concepts such as leadership can be understood as the creation of interacting individuals who invoke and manage specific discourses.

While there is an increase in the number of qualitative leadership studies (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Bryman, 2004) and leadership studies as discursive constructions (Fairhurst, 2007; Grint, 2000), most leadership research, especially in the United States, is still anchored in the positivist camp of traditional empiricist methods (Conger, 1998; Knights & Willmott, 1992). The traditional empiricist studies firmly demarcate leadership at the intersection of individual and situation (Grint, 2000). The positivist epistemology looks at language as reflective of reality. Communication simply reflects and describes leadership. Leadership becomes static with boundaries rigidly delineated.

Leadership in Nonprofit Organizations (NPOs)

The leadership studies in NPOs are no exception. Two major schools of thought dominate the NPO leadership domain. On the one hand, *the BOD-centered leadership model* of the traditional prescriptive literature claims that the board of directors (BOD) has the ultimate organizational power, while the Executive Director (ED) is hired to serve and implement the purposes of the BOD (Carver, 1997; O'Connell, 1976). On the other hand, *the ED-centered leadership model* of more recent empirical studies presents an emerging model that posits the ED at the top of the leadership hierarchy and the BOD somewhere toward its periphery (Herman & Heimovics, 1991).

BOD-Centered Leadership

The prescriptive literature on NPO leadership points to the BOD as the actual leadership in nonprofits (Carver, 1997, 2000, 2001). The BOD leadership constitutes the hierarchical model of leadership in NPOs (Conrad & Glenn, 1986; O'Connell, 1976). This model places the ultimate responsibility on the shoulders of the BOD (Herman, 1989). The legal perspective on NPOs supports this hierarchical, traditional, normative, and prescriptive approach. The BOD has ultimate legal power, and the Board Chair (BC) can delegate responsibilities to the ED (Oleck, 1986). The BOD is at the top of the hierarchy, and the ED works under the BOD's jurisdiction.

This traditional BOD-centered model relies on the assumptions of the "managed system" theory, which holds five propositions (Elmore, 1978):

- Organizations have goals;
- All the parts of the organizations operate as unitary, rational actors;

- Hierarchical control leads to rational unity of action;
- The top of the hierarchy is responsible for managing operations and achieving goals;
- Effective management is characterized by effective information gathering, scheduling tasks for optimal goal attainment, and monitoring performance and goal attainment.

This model is the type of structured and regimented thinking that has encouraged NPO practitioners and consultants like Carver (1997, 2000, 2001) to create the Policy Governance Model. Under Carver's leadership model, the BOD provides vision for the NPO, defines the ends (the goals or the human needs that need to be met), defines the means (the limits or boundaries for the ED and staff), clarifies its relationship with the ED (how it delegates authority to ED and how it evaluates the ED), and determines its own philosophy, accountability, and specifics of the BOD job. The BOD is the leader. Both the BC and the ED are under the BOD. The BC and the ED are instruments of the BOD. The ED specifically works for the BOD. Carver (2001) suggested that the BOD should engage in rigorous and formal monitoring of the ED performance; the board should demand the ED "to prove" his/her information and reports. According to Carver (2000), all the NPO problems are rooted in the BOD either rejecting or partially implementing the Policy Governance Model.

Along similar lines, O'Connell (1976) delineated the separation of ED and BOD roles, pointing out that the ED supports the BC. Leduc (1999) suggested that the BC-ED relationship is transient since an ED will experience several BCs during his/her tenure. The conclusion of his study noted that it is the ED's responsibility to adapt to the style of the new BC. This was confirmed by Eadie (2001), who mentioned that proactive leadership on the part of the ED is necessary when dealing with the transient nature of the ED-BC relationship. Also, Eadie added that the role of the ED is to support the BC by providing key information and sharing his/her knowledge about the NPO. The author argued that the role of the BC includes but is not limited to: orienting BOD, representing the NPO to the community, holding leadership responsibilities, leading the NPO with the BOD, recruiting new BOD members, holding ED accountable, overseeing all the committees, and motivating the NPO board and staff. O'Connell (1976) also delineated the duties of the ED: serving as expert and source of information for the BOD, assisting the BC, managing the staff, and fundraising.

The general leadership roles of the BOD are summed up as inspiring, leading, governing, fundraising, reporting, accounting, conducting public relations, monitoring activities, and rewarding/motivating key players in the NPO (Carver, 2000, 2001; O'Connell, 1976). The BOD leads and the ED manages. This clear separation of duties is outlined in several other studies (Axelrod, 1994; Chait et al., 1996; Eadie, 2001).

Scholars typically agree that the BOD-ED relationship is characterized by tensions between the BOD's role of nurturing and supporting the ED and the BOD's role of monitoring and assessing the ED's performance. Chait et al. (1996) remarked that EDs considered the BC's nurturance of the ED as the most important contribution of the BC toward the effectiveness of the NPO. The debate arises from deciding which of the two parties has the upper-hand or political leverage in the leadership equation of the NPO. Traditionally, scholars and practitioners have claimed that the BOD fills the leadership

position in the NPO. However, in the last fifteen years, more scholars have challenged the traditional view and contended that the BOD-centered leadership model is too broad, seldom fully achievable, and lacks a complete account of the multiple roles other organizational actors play (Herman & Heimovics, 1990). These scholars have proposed an alternative and narrower ED-dominant leadership model. Middleton's (1987) review of the empirical literature revealed three chief findings: BODs often fail to do their job, the BOD-ED becomes an ambiguous boss/employee relationship, and the ED sometimes surfaces as the de facto leader. This accumulation of empirical evidence points to the ED as the leader in the NPO (Herman & Heimovics, 1990, 1991).

ED-Centered Leadership

Herman and Heimovics (1991) are influential scholars in challenging the BOD-dominant leadership model while advancing an ED-centric leadership alternative:

The traditional view of the NPOs with the board at the top is a reflection of much of contemporary management theory and practice. This theory is based upon a hierarchical logic and certain assumptions about rational action... however, the reality of nonprofit organizational life is that it is much more dynamic than the traditional, hierarchical model. (p. 129)

According to the authors, the empirical evidence points to an alternative, emerging model that establishes the ED as a key player in the leadership of NPOs. In a similar study, Herman and Heimovics (1990, p. 168) added, "in spite of the wide-spread popularity of the prescriptive standards, the actual performance of boards often seems to fall short of the ideal." Based on their research and observations, the authors challenged the hierarchical model and concluded that the BOD is highly dependent upon the ED for information.

Moreover, the ED has stronger motivations for the success of the organization since his/her job is at stake. Reporting the results of their empirical studies, Herman and Heimovics (1990) remarked that the EDs are considered responsible for the success of the NPO, while BCs see themselves as of little influence with regard to organizational outcomes. EDs are more powerful and influential than the BOD because they have access to the information and the expertise, which the BOD often lacks. Herman and Heimovics (1990, 1991) remarked that the ED has better leadership skills than the BOD. Often, the BODs fail to assume their obligations, and it becomes the duty of the ED to help BODs meet their responsibilities (Herman & Heimovics, 1991). The authors' empirical evidence resulted in their conclusion that EDs, "not boards, are centrally responsible for the success and failure in nonprofit organizations" (Herman & Heimovics, p. 112).

Therefore, EDs are "generally assumed to be the principal agent of success or failure in their organizations, even though it is usually much more difficult to assess the connection between leadership action and outcomes in nonprofit organizations than in business" (Herman & Heimovics, 1991, p. 30). These authors added that "the board has ultimate hierarchical authority and is the executive's boss, though seldom the center of leadership responsibility" (Herman & Heimovics, p. 90):

Nonprofit chief executives are centrally responsible for the success and failure of their organizations. The unique position they hold is based on a leadership of responsibilities rather than a leadership of formal authority. This central leadership position does not square with the traditional managed system which places ultimate responsibility and authority with the board. Especially effective chief executives have discovered how to deal with this paradox. They have created and enacted an alternative model. (p. 128)

This argument is further supported by O'Connell's (1976) criticism of the traditional model, which artificially assigns leadership to the BOD and management to the staff (ED):

The worst illusion ever perpetrated in the nonprofit field is that the board of directors makes policy and the staff carries it out. This is just not so. The board, with the help of the staff, makes policy, and the board, with the help of the staff, carries it out. Unless volunteers are committed and involved in the action phase of the organization, the agency cannot develop, and in fact, should not be characterized as a voluntary organization. Also, it is naïve to assume that the staff doesn't have considerable influence – usually too much – on policy formulation. (p. 44)

O'Connell seems to have crossed the bridge between Carver's (1997) traditional, prescriptive, normative BOD-centered leadership model and the emerging alternative ED-centered leadership model promoted by Herman and Heimovics (1991). Leadership in NPOs is presented as a complex set of relationships and interactions between staff and board, which Middleton (1987) labeled a set of "strange loops and tangled hierarchies" (p. 149).

Chait et al. (2005) observed that some NPOs seem to operate under the alternative ED-centered leadership model. The prescriptive, hierarchical model proved to be ineffective since complex governing issues cannot be reduced down to simple aphorisms. What NPOs are seeing today is that more EDs are providing leadership and that a portion of the governance portfolio seems to have migrated to the executive suite (Chait et al.). According to this recent model, the BODs have been left behind. Chait et al. stated they would like to see more BOD leadership, but said they are cautious in delineating relative power between BODs and EDs since previous attempts to distribute formal authority between BOD and ED have led to stalemates. Chait et al. called for renewed intellectual effort to re-conceptualize NPO governance in light of new knowledge about leadership and organizations.

Responding to these authors' call, I concur that the BOD-centered leadership model is often ineffective since it is too broad and, sometimes, non-realistic. When twenty or more unpaid board members seek to govern an organization, they risk experiencing role ambiguity (Middleton, 1987) and conflict (Duta, 2008). The leadership becomes diffused among many players, and the board as a whole may lose effectiveness (Duta, 2008). In these situations of leadership ambiguity, the ED might emerge as the de facto leader, as several scholars have noted (Middleton, 1987; Herman & Heimovics, 1990, 1991).

At the same time, I contend that the new ED-centered model does not satisfy either since it is too narrow and exclusive. To their credit, Herman and Heimovics (1990, 1991) have taken steps in the right direction by moving away from the prescriptive BOD-centered leadership models. However, this study posits that they have not pushed their model far enough. A powerful ED might temporarily run the BOD, but in the final analysis it is the BOD that hires and/or fires the ED (Duta, 2008). The legal roles of accountability, governance, and purposing assumed by the BOD and the execution, management, and functioning assumed by the ED automatically complicate an ED-centric leadership model (Duta, 2008).

New research needs to re-examine leadership in NPOs by sorting the complex, tangled web of relationships between the BC as representative of the BOD and the ED as representative of the staff. A new relational model promises to illuminate how leadership is constructed through the discursive interplay of EDs, BCs, and the rest of the BOD (i.e., the Vice Chair or VC). This study advances a third alternative, which presents the Executive Director-Board Chair (ED-BC) interactions as *the NPO leadership nucleus model*, one that is not static or hierarchal but a relational dynamic (Duta, 2008; Hiland, 2006; Leduc, 1999). This model seeks to account for the organic nature of the ED-BC relationship as well as the fluidity that these two roles actually experience in the nonprofits.

ED/BC-Centered Leadership: The Leadership Nucleus Model

The U.S. Internal Revenue Code states that the volunteer BC serves as the “CEO” and assumes full legal responsibility along with the rest of the BOD. The BC is the chief volunteer who is responsible for guiding the board in setting policy. However, as the NPO grows, so does the need to hire a full time, professional “CEO” or ED. This ED runs the daily operations of the NPO, while the BC continues to assume legal responsibility for the welfare of the organization as the main volunteer.

Few if any research studies focus directly on the influence the BC-ED tandem has on the processes and outcomes of NPOs. However, snap shots and fragments of the literature seem to indicate that leadership in NPOs is a complex relationship that should not be dismissively attributed to one single person (i.e., the ED) (Herman & Heimovics, 1991; Zald, 1965) or to a formalized, highly structured, and detached body of people (i.e., the BOD) (Carver, 1997) frozen in an organizational hierarchy’s top positions.

Umbdenstock et al. (1990) stated that effective NPO leadership happens when policy and management are meshed harmoniously. The authors added that since the BC and ED are the most visible leaders of the NPO, they should be accessible to each other, synchronize their agendas and goals, develop a personal relationship, and communicate openly and often. Also, Conrad & Glenn (1980) pointed to an ED-BC partnership as valuable to the leadership process in NPOs.

Scholars agree that the ED-BC dynamic is integral to the success of NPOs (Chait, Holland, & Taylor, 1996; Eadie, 2001; Leduc, 1999; Hiland, 2006). The BC is supposed to work with the ED in building the BOD, and the BC operates as the bridge between the BOD and the ED (Chait et al.). The importance of the ED-BC dynamic was eloquently captured by Chait et al., who stated that the ED and BC “must learn how to ‘dance’ together... If board meetings are orchestrated, then the [BC] might be viewed as the

conductor and the CEO or [ED] as the featured soloist. Neither can stray far from each other's gaze nor proceed independently" (p. 123). Thus, the coordinated interplays between the BC and the ED become critical to the NPO leadership.

This study goes a step further, positing that the ED-BC relationship constitutes the leadership nucleus of NPOs. This is somewhat reminiscent of Mintzberg's (1980) "strategic apex," which pointed to the BOD and CEO at the top of the partnership in the for-profit organizations. The challenge with Mintzberg's terminology is in the artificial hierarchical positioning that connotes an element of rigidity, which does not properly reflect the more fluid, flexible, and amorphous leadership process of nonprofits.

There are several differences between leadership in nonprofits and for-profits. First, Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are highly visible in for-profit corporations. In contrast, EDs in some NPOs are relegated to a less visible position as compared to their counterparts in for-profit organizations. NPOs have traditionally tried to downplay the role of the ED in a spirit of equality and democracy, which seems to characterize the voluntary sector (Allison, 2002).

Second, CEOs in for-profit organizations often occupy an official position on the board of directors. Moreover, the CEO might also share the BC role; this "dual role" only increases the power and visibility of the CEO in the for-profit organizations. In nonprofit agencies, the ED is rarely a board member, though he/she attends the board meetings and is expected by the board to provide valuable input. The ED sits in the board meetings but does not formally serve on the board.

Finally, a significant difference between the leadership in the two sectors is the unmatched degree of freedom and autonomy that nonprofit BODs, BCs, and EDs enjoy in contrast to the more restricted and constrained for-profit BODs and CEOs (Glaeser, 2003). NPOs are quasi-self-regulating due to the marketplace dynamics of resource scarcity. The constant vigilance of donors or clients keeps the NPOs relatively honest. On the other hand, the for-profit sector is heavily regulated due to the propensity of some CEOs and other key organizational actors to cross the boundaries of ethos. The SEC operates as a monitoring organizational agent for the for-profit sector. Due to these unique attributes, the ED/BC dynamic in NPOs promises to be significant and intriguing.

This paper presents the ED-BC leadership nucleus as an amorphous concept that cannot easily be pinned down on hierarchical charts. This dynamic relationship happens openly as well as covertly. This model seeks to account for the fluidity of the ED/BC roles in nonprofits. The cacophonous or harmonious, public or private, convergent or divergent ED and BC voices constitute key components that are worthy of examination in the process of leadership.

Methodology

This research project adopts the case study methodology. Qualitative research is rooted in the naturalistic paradigm, which assumes that the researcher cannot be separated from the context that he/she studies (Dahlberg et al., 2001). Reality is understood in context, and the research subjects need to be studied in situ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The case study method helps the researcher understand the context, which provides the foundation for the data collection, the data analysis, the findings, and the purpose of the study (Yin, 2003). Moreover, the case study method is best suited when

unpacking “complex social phenomena” (i.e., leadership) since case studies “retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events” (Yin, 1994, p. 3).

This study analyzes governance dynamics at DY, a mid-size (half-million dollar annual budget) nonprofit organization working with inner-city children in a Texas metropolis. DY started as a ministry outreach of an evangelical church back in the early nineties. In the late nineties and early 2000s, DY branched out and became an independent nonprofit organization. DY offers an after-school program designed to inspire, equip, and guide urban youth to excel academically, overcome generational poverty, and become contributing members to their community.

Organizationally, DY has a program director, a cadre of volunteer tutors, an ED, and a BOD. The BOD has twenty-five diverse members who hold positions of influence in the State of Texas: university professors, accountants, lawyers, bankers, corporate CEOs, oil business investors, various business owners (car dealerships and restaurants), and ministers. Don Pitt, the BC and also an oil business investor, sits on all the committees and works closely with Jo Hanson, the ED. In 2004, the ED decided to retire. The BC and the majority of the BOD engaged in a vigorous year-long campaign in an attempt to persuade the ED to stay. She stayed another year, but eventually she left the ED position in September of 2005. This case study will examine the interplay between the ED, BC, and other BOD members surrounding the ED’s resignation event.

Confidentiality Issues

This study has been approved by the IRB and has met the standards for protection of the research subjects. In addition, the names of the organization and its participant members have been changed to respect confidentiality.

Data Collection

The corpus of data for the study comes from in-depth, semi-structured interviews. Interviewees totaled 13 members, including the ED, BC, VC, other key BOD members, and senior staff. The interview guide focused on the topic of leadership as filtered through the actors’ roles with the organization, the actors’ specific leadership roles, the actors’ relationships with each other, and the ED-BC relationship as perceived, described, and shaped by all the members interviewed including the ED and the BC.

The interviews ranged from 45 to 120 minutes and were taped with the permission of the participants. The interviews were transcribed, and over 800 pages of double-spaced text were generated. The researcher arrived at theoretical saturation (Creswell, 1998) after the first six interviews (which included the ED, the BC, the VC, and three other interviewees), but continued with the remaining seven in order to increase the validity of interpretations.

Data Analysis

The unit of analysis is the participants’ discourses as captured in the transcribed interviews. In light of discourse analysis, the researcher was situated in the close-range interest of discourse determination. The study’s angle is social linguistic analysis, which

is constructivist and text-based (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In other words, the analyst stayed close to the text while also being heedful of the context.

The transcribed interviews were analyzed qualitatively according to the analytic coding method (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). The transcriptions were read and re-read line-by-line to gain familiarity with the data. Next, the texts were manually coded to capture the leadership nucleus theme. Additional and copious notes were taken by hand on the margins of the transcripts and on separate blank sheets. Memos to self were also generated in order to grasp the data at a conceptual level and to see emerging general patterns. The coding process was inductive as new fragments of data were constantly compared to previous segments of data in terms of similarities and differences. This allowed themes that represented repeating patterns of meaning to emerge.

To ensure validity for the coding scheme, an additional research assistant was trained and employed to code the interviews. The two analyses were triangulated through discussions during and at the conclusion of the coding process. The few minor differences that emerged were quickly eliminated after semantic clarifications. The coding and the categories proved to be consistent. Throughout the analysis, the researcher stayed close to the text and engaged in grounded theory development (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) so that the text informed the development of theory.

Results

Jo, the ED, and Don, the BC, are locked in an amicable tandem as they jockeyed for centrality within the leadership nucleus. Though there seemed to be friction, as well as questions about who is the main leader at DY, both Don and Jo depended and relied upon each other.

As mentioned in a previous section of the paper, DY was founded in the nineties as a ministry outreach for an evangelical church in a Texas metropolis. In 2001 with Jo at the forefront, DY spun off from the founding church and became a bona fide, stand-alone nonprofit organization. During this inception phase, the ED, Jo, was portrayed by Don as the young idealist divinely called for grand purposes. Her idealism, however, seemed to be offset by implied notions of naiveté (DP 14).

What Jo had was a sense of purpose. She, she was doing what she had been doing for the DY (pause) because she felt called to do it. (Pause) Now for whatever the reasons she may have felt called, I can't get into those (um), I am sure that based upon Jo's relationship with God that she felt it was her duty or that she was being called by God to do that. There may have been other aspects to it... there may have been some sort of romantic notions to it in her mind which would be hard to understand because, you know, she was, she is young.

Jo spearheaded the transition from the initial church-based organization to an independent, autonomous nonprofit. As proof of the ED's preeminence in the governance process, Don credited Jo for selecting him to join the DY board. Don's joining the board of the new entity was a direct result of Jo's decision and initiatives (DP 14).

She became executive director in the intervening period and then she invited me to come back to the board of directors after she had been serving for some period of time, a year, maybe, or a little longer.

Don described the relationship he and Jo shared in terms of a dynamic vertical-horizontal tension. The verticality of their BC-ED relationship due to his seniority and professional experience was balanced by the horizontal friendship/partnership they had prior to DY becoming a 501(c)3 nonprofit (DP 14).

My relationship with her was and is more of a, uh, um, co-worker and friend. (Pause) To some extent there was a vertical relationship, same type of verticality, same type of verticality that exists anytime you have someone that has more experience than someone else. (Um) but it is mostly as a friend and fellow worker.

Jo seemed to concur as she positioned herself and Don in a similar vertical-horizontal relationship of mentor-mentored. Don coached and guided Jo, but it was Jo who initiated the mentoring relationship in the first place (JH 283).

I felt like it was collaborative. I was never forced to do anything I was not on board with; do you know what I'm saying? Whether it's the board chair in his isolated world creating policy, or if it's me as the ED in my isolated world creating policy – no. We met weekly and spent hours in our meetings discussing. His job was the mentor me, to make me think, and it was all collaborative. I asked him to come mentor me. I didn't do anything I disagreed with.

Their relationship was collaborative. Jo invited Don's guidance; however, she critically filtered and processed his input (JH 311-317).

The high-level strategic things, of course, were done collaboratively, and with Don's strong insightfulness, absolutely. The day-to-day stuff – he wasn't micromanaging. Well I wouldn't have wanted the job if I couldn't cast my vision.

The picture of the leadership nucleus at DY acquired intriguing nuances when Lana, the VC, presented the whole board and the ED-BC relationship through the lenses of an organism metaphor. The leadership nucleus was presented in terms of a mind versus heart set of relationship. Don was cast as the master architect, while Jo provided the organizational pathos (LD 420-438).

(Um) but I would say there was a pretty high trust level. It was a (pause) this whole thing was an organism that basically emanated from Don Pitt, and so, I'd say there was a, you know, there was a trust level. OK, the whole board is the organism. The brain was Don, and the heart was Jo. (Laughter)

In 2004, after four years of hard work as ED of DY, Jo became burned out and started the resignation and succession process. "I was weary, you know, we worked hard

to create this organism, and (um), it had plateaued, and so it was time for me to move on” (JH 72). Further demonstrating the ED’s influence, Jo emerged as the chief and sole player who set the entire leadership succession process in motion. She was the one who decided to resign despite the board’s desire for Jo to continue as ED. The board tried to “bribe” Jo with more pay and time off. She even took a three month paid sabbatical as a time to re-charge and re-consider. To the surprise of the board, after returning from her sabbatical at the end of August 2005, Jo gave her two-week notice. September 14th, 2005 was her last day as ED of DY.

Don was the one who masterminded and successfully persuaded Jo to maintain her connection with DY by becoming the new BC in order to “maintain a sense of continuity in the leadership” (DP 248). In the words of Don (DP 252-262) the reader can see the significant role the ED-BC tandem played in the succession process:

Certainly Jo was, was influential in that she was the one who set it all in motion. She was very influential in the whole process of succession. My guess is, and this maybe (pause) a case of me being guilty of thinking that I played a role, of thinking that I played a bigger role in this than I actually did. Putting her into the ED’s role is probably my idea. (Um) but she was willing to do it. She understood that it allowed her to stay close to something that she had helped to create. And she understood the benefits of it, and (um) she was willing to do it.

Jo’s joyous response was not surprising given her love for DY, the nonprofit that she helped start and nurture (JH 80):

Don’s invitation struck me with two emotions (uh) subsequent, (uh) simultaneous, one being excitement, that I could kind of have my cake and eat it too, you know. I could kind of go away and be released from the drudgery of day in and day out of what had become of the ED job, and I still would be able to function in a leadership capacity at the organization that I’ve been very passionate about, now in the new BC capacity.

However, Jo’s enthusiasm was not shared by Lana, the VC. Lana was quite critical of Jo, whom she considered a weak leader (LD 420-438).

I think it’s like a dysfunctional parent-child relationship. The child (Jo) is so crippled, the parent (Don) has no idea they’ve done that. At some point in time the wheels come off, and that’s when Jo became, um, I mean, she supposedly needed a sabbatical. So the board gives her, which I didn’t really agree with, but the board gives her I think it was a 3-month paid sabbatical. And she comes back from it and quits! The sabbatical was supposed to refresh her, and she was going to give so much more back to the organization, and she comes back and quits. Basically she got away from it long enough to see that this was not what she wanted to do.

The resignation of Jo from ED and her “promotion” to BC was perceived by Lana as Don’s strategic maneuvering. Don was a masterful communicator. Lana believed that

Don's discourse indicated that he was a master strategist and that Jo was ignorant of his machinations. For Lana, the meaning of these organizational re-configurations was that Don operated as a puppeteer and Jo was his puppet (LD 420-438).

You can only prop somebody up so long, if they are not standing on their own two feet, they all kind of fall over, and that's what I believe happened to Jo. She was heavily pressured to take the chairman position because it was becoming, I think, incredibly obvious that Don was pulling all the strings, and he wanted to not have that perception. So, he wanted to just back away, and he figured he could do his puppet thing from, from a board position.

Jo explained the forceful reaction of Lana, the VC (JH 466):

I think there might have been some jealousy. I believe that Lana wanted to move up and become the next BC. The fact that Don stepped down and appointed me as the new BC did not agree with her. Also, she was an extreme control freak and did not like the idea that the ED who responded to her previously was now becoming her "superior" since I accepted the BC position. And, to compound the problem, the fact that I am over ten years her junior only exacerbated the situation. No wonder Lana tried to undermine my credibility as past ED in order to undermine my future effectiveness as the new BC. I am sure she thought that I was young and impotent as ED.

Don had different opinions. Don credited the ED position with a chief role in the leadership equation of the NPO (DP 324): "the executive director is uh, very, very, very important. I want to say the only important thing... very, very, very important." According to Don's comments, it seemed that Jo was anything but a puppet (DP 298-320):

Let's get one thing out. The board doesn't do anything without the executive director. Period. Anybody that wants to claim otherwise is flat wrong. What the board does, the board shows up once a month, once a quarter, or periodically, and they sit around, they plot, they lay a few eggs, and then they go back to their daily lives. The executive director is there day in and day out. That's where it all works. The board is committed to the organization the way a chicken is committed to the breakfast table: it lays an egg, and then it goes back to the barnyard. The executive director puts the bacon on the table. That means the executive director lives, eats, sleeps, breathes, and dies with the organization. Nothing works unless the executive director works. I tell you that the body of research that says "board, board, board" is a bunch of horse hockey. The ED is the lynch pin. The board is there to support the organization, and the executive director is the organization. Jo did a superb job as ED, and I was happy to keep her around as the new BC.

This succession phase of the leadership process at DY cast Don and Jo as the dominant actors with the most influential voices. Their calculations and actions were consequential for DY. Jo was a great initiator. Don responded well. Don seemed

respectful of the ED position. Also, Jo responded well to the BC's mentoring style. The two of them, ED and BC, constituted the leadership nucleus of DY.

Discussion

Aphorisms, simplistic a-b-c formulas, and pre-canned strategies fail to provide answers to the dilemmas present on the boards of nonprofits. Discourse analysis is an effective tool that disentangles the knots present in the nonprofit governance dynamics. The disentangling process is arduous. But the results help researchers elucidate what Fairhurst (2007) called the protean tendencies of leadership, or "the elusive, unwieldy, mutable, and maddening error variance in leadership."

This case study analysis illustrates how leadership is a contested process of influence and meaning management, a process sustained discursively through the interplay among key organizational actors (BC, ED, and VC). It is through the collapsing of meanings and the meshing of voices that leadership takes place. Leadership is a convoluted and messy process constructed and sustained by the discourses of key nucleic actors. The ED and the BC stand out as consequential and critical actors in the NPO. By leveraging the board as an outlet, the ED and BC voices collide, converge, and co-author the process of leadership. Their positions galvanize the other organizational members to communicate and act. At the same time, the ED/BC positions are shaped and influenced by the communication and actions of other members.

The contribution of this study rests in the ED-BC leadership nucleus metaphor itself. The metaphor opens a world of possibilities in terms of unpacking and understanding NPO governance dynamics. This study challenged the traditional normative BOD-centered leadership model (Carver, 1997) and even the alternative emergent ED-centered leadership model (Herman & Heimovics, 1991) for being too broad or too narrow, respectively, and not fully reflecting the leadership reality of NPOs. In contrast, the relational leadership nucleus model captures the nuances and subtleties of the ED-BC interactions and their effect on the leadership reality of the organization. This study shows that leadership in situ is a complex process enacted discursively by powerful organizational actors huddled around the ED/BC nucleus.

This study proposes a nucleus metaphor for characterizing ED, BC, and BOD relationships in nonprofits (Figure 1). The nucleus is not at the top but rather hidden and nested in the heart of the organization. Expanding the biology metaphor, the nucleus is a central part around which other organizational parts gravitate.

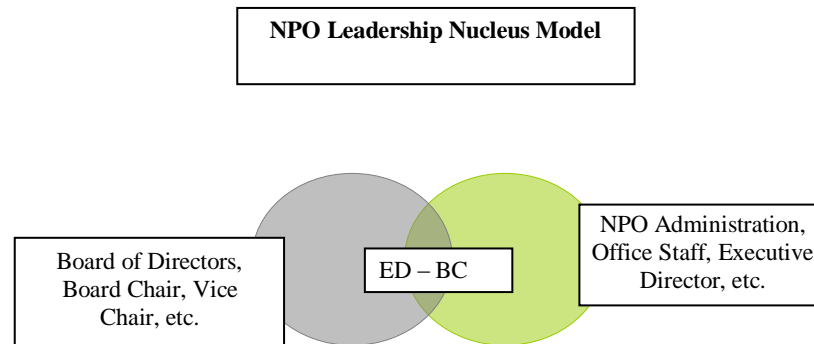


Figure 1. NPO Leadership Nucleus Model

Thus, this model is not about an ED-BC partnership per se; rather, it centers on the two ED-BC voices, harmonious or cacophonous, and the way in which they combine or collide with each other and other voices (i.e., other influential BOD members) during the leadership process.

The nucleus contains the cell's genetic material and governs the cell's activities such as growth, development, metabolism, and reproduction. Likewise, the BC-ED tandem contributes to the fundamental nature of the NPO through policy-setting, vision-casting, leadership succession planning, fundraising, and operational processes managing. The ED's sphere of influence focuses on the operations, staff, and organizational clients, while the BC's sphere encompasses the board, the moral owners, and an array of various external stakeholders. The ED-BC nucleus bridges the various parts of an NPO, thus both reflecting and shaping the "genetic" essence of the organization. The NPO Leadership Nucleus Model both reflects and influences the organizational ends and means, or the organizational purposing and performing functions, captured in the ED-BC tandem.

Finally, the nucleus has a porous membrane that allows the passage of molecules and particles. Continuing the metaphor, the ED-BC combination is a dynamic relationship that is subject to change as new BCs and EDs join the organization or as other influential board members come in and out of the picture. It is even possible to assume that various organizational actors could also step in or slip out of the ED and BC roles even though they may not share the titles formally. Future studies could pay closer attention to the roles that VCs and other influential BOD members (i.e., the bigger donors on the board) play in light of the leadership nucleus model.

Limitations and Future Research

There are three main limitations to this present work. First, this study looks at only one organization, and this makes it challenging in terms of transferability, which is a valuable aspect of qualitative research. A comparative case study with two or more cases can improve the degree of transferability for the findings. A future research project can look at DY in comparison to another similar nonprofit in order to detect patterns, similarities, and differences. Also, future studies can rely on hybrid methodologies that will invite triangulation with surveys and statistical analysis of larger samples. At that point, the findings can move beyond transferability and be ready for actual generalizations.

The second limitation resonates with the previous one. Unique aspects of DY—such as being a young, faith-based, start-up nonprofit—might have made it more likely that a highly collaborative governance system would emerge during the early stages of the organization. Also, the fact that Don and Jo shared a friendship prior to Jo's assuming the ED position might have primed them for collaborating more than usual. Future studies should seek to identify organizations whose EDs and BCs did not share a prior relationship. These studies could also look at older and more established faith-based and secular nonprofits.

Finally, the time window captured in the study is narrow. Elongating the time span to capture the leadership dynamics during and post leadership succession as part of a phase analysis would only enrich the research. What happened to the leadership nucleus after Don stepped down as BC? Was he still a voice of influence? What about his wife who became the interim ED? How did she and Jo, the new BC, mesh? How was the leadership nucleus sustained discursively by the new actors with their new roles? Were there other voices that contributed to the leadership process during the interim phase? The same questions apply to the post-succession phase when a permanent ED was hired.

Future studies can examine leadership succession and dialectical tensions as the focal point of the research. What effect does the leadership nucleus have on the succession process? How is the succession process influencing the leadership nucleus during various phases of the succession process (pre-, interim, and post-succession)?

There are several tensions that emerged during the interviews: mind-heart, vertical-horizontal, boss-peer, and master-puppet. The research in organizational studies points to dialectical tensions as motors for change (Poole & Van de Van, 2004). A future research project could intersect the study of dialectics with the leadership nucleus model and succession of leadership. A future research question might ask about the dialectical tensions experienced by the BC and the ED during the leadership succession process in the NPO. The study could then examine the strategic choices employed by the ED/BC nucleus in managing these dialectical tensions and ushering change.

Practical Applications

Studying leadership in NPOs is valuable given the significant economic size of the nonprofit environment. Paying attention to the role of communication and the strategic relationship shared by the BC and the ED makes the research useful and beneficial to scholars and practitioners alike.

Practitioners will benefit from viewing leadership as a process that is discursively enacted and sustained by relational dynamics of key actors. The nucleus model captures

the changing and amorphous nature of leadership as a process. The nuclei of leadership change and morph based on the roles, experiences, skills, political agendas, and motivations that various actors share across time. As a result, different nucleic combinations lead to different organizational consequences.

In a moment of candid self-reflection during our interview, Jo, the ED who resigned and became BC, commented on the importance of being sensitive to the leadership nucleus model because of the effects different relational structures have on organizational outcomes, including leadership succession (JH 745-753):

I don't think we were as cognizant of the existent leadership nucleus as we should have been... and we did not pay attention to the implications of what different nucleic structures would imply... (Um) maybe I would have been more aggressive regarding my exit (uh) and with the transition of information. And if I thought there was any chance that the successor would have failed me – especially if I stay in a leadership role in the organization, and the successor failed me – then I would have paid more attention to these dynamics! So, if you start with that foundation, when you stumble and flounder, it's only because of communication!

For practitioners and organizational consultants, the initial lessons that emerged from this study can be captured in a concise list:

1. Map out carefully the relational ties among organizational actors.
 - a. Examine closely the ED-BC relationship and the connections other actors share with the ED-BC nucleus.
2. Appreciate the architectonic qualities of communication.
 - a. Listen attentively to the collaborating and competing discourses huddled around the ED-BC nucleus; these voices drive the organization
3. Realize that leadership is a complex process that cannot be easily distilled to simple formulas.
 - a. Be ready to cope with the unpredictable elements, contradicting discourses, and ambiguous relationships that often characterize NPO governance.

Conclusions

A couple of decades ago, Mintzberg (1982) called for *new* leadership studies that are simple and imaginative since the *old* positivistic empirical studies have not accomplished as much as it was expected. Discourse analysis of NPO governance seeks to answer that call for action.

Discourse analysis provides a fresh start for scholars and practitioners to understand how leadership is a co-construction of sorts that concerns social and cultural aspects of NPOs (Fairhurst, 2007). Discourse analysis is the methodology that unravels “the mysteries of social construction that produce societies, organizations, individuals” and processes, including leadership (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 87).

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BOOK REVIEW: KENT M. KEITH'S (2008) *THE CASE FOR SERVANT LEADERSHIP*

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As Chief Executive Officer for the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, Dr. Kent M. Keith is an advocate of servant leadership. His advocacy for the service model of leadership is based on his experiences over the past thirty years as an attorney, state government official, high tech park developer, university president, YMCA executive and full-time speaker and author. In *The Case for Servant Leadership*, Keith presents a pragmatic argument for the service model of leadership and how it can help us create a better world.

In *The Case for Servant Leadership*, Keith (2008) argues that servant leadership is the healthiest model of leadership for both leaders and followers. The book presents the rationale for servant leadership and provides practical examples of servant leadership in action.

Keith presents the service leadership model as a means to creating a better world. He asserts that the reason there is so much starvation, unsolved problems, and lost opportunities is because people are using the power model of leadership.

Highlights

The book is organized into five chapters with a postscript and questions for reflection and discussion. Keith suggests that the decision to become a servant-leader is the result of thoughtful reflection over time. Therefore, he presents his case for servant leadership in a practical manner

that includes specific examples of servant leadership in action and adds questions for reflection and discussion to assist in the journey of becoming a servant leader.

Keith begins by stating the servant leadership model starts with a desire to serve. He bases his support for the servant leadership model on insights from Greenleaf (1977), who is considered the founder of the modern servant leadership movement. Keith reinforces Greenleaf's insights with examples from the teachings of the world's greatest religions and respected thinkers. He suggests the desire to serve is a "natural, moral desire that is recognized as important by the world's greatest religions and many great thinkers" (p. 5).

Following his argument that the desire to serve is a natural, moral desire, Keith describes a servant-leader as follows:

A servant-leader is simply *a leader who is focused on serving others*. A servant-leader loves people, and wants to help them. The mission of the servant-leader is therefore to identify and meet the needs of others. Loving and helping others gives a servant-leader meaning and satisfaction in life (p. 9).

In chapter three, Keith compares and contrasts the power model of leadership to the service model of leadership. He argues that in the power model, leadership is about accumulating and wielding power to make people do things to get what the leader wants while the service model is about helping people do things for their good and the good of others.

Practical examples of servant-leaders in action are described in chapter four. Keith draws from the work of leadership experts like Ken Blanchard, Stephen Covey, Jim Collins, and Peter Senge. He cites organizations such as TDIndustries, Southwest Airlines, Synovus Financial Corporation, the Container Store and AFLAC as examples of organizations that have implemented the principles of servant leadership.

Keith concludes his case for servant leadership, by describing how a life of service provides "personal meaning that will feed your spirit and your soul and give you deep happiness" (p. 70) as a leader. He quotes Albert Schweitzer who said, "I don't know what your destiny will be, but one thing I know: the ones among you who will be really happy are those who will have sought and found how to serve" (p. 72).

Observations

As Keith readily admits in the preface, *The Case for Servant Leadership* "is not an impartial assessment of servant leadership, nor a survey of the literature on servant leadership" (p. ix). Therefore, the reader must keep these limitations in mind. For example the book only presents the Greenleaf (1977) concept of servant leadership; it does not include other models of servant leadership with different dimensions (Cerff & Winston, 2006; Patterson, 2003; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Sipe & Frick, 2009; Wong & Page, 2003).

Although Keith (2008) presents a compelling case for servant leadership, one is left wondering about its applicability in different contexts and with different followers. Are there situations where servant leadership is inappropriate and a different leadership approach would be more effective? What if the followers' perception of what would be good for them differs from

the perception of good by the leader or the community? Because leadership is a process that involves interaction between leaders and followers in a particular situation (Yukl, 2006), the characteristics of the followers and the characteristics of the situation are important variables that need to be considered in addition to the characteristics of the leader. Focusing on the leader's approach without addressing the characteristics of the followers and the situation is a limitation in *The Case for Servant Leadership*.

Another limitation to *The Case for Servant Leadership* is that it does not address the question of whether servant leadership is a philosophy or a theory as posed by Prosser (2010), nor does it discuss the perspective held by some that it is simply an ethical form of leadership (Northouse P. G., 2010). Greater clarification of the construct servant leadership in this book would be helpful to practioners as well as scholars of servant leadership.

Even with the above limitations in mind, *The Case for Servant Leadership* makes an important contribution to our understanding of the phenomenon of servant leadership. It is a valuable and thought provoking book for anyone on a leadership journey.

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Practitioner's Corner

HELPING YOUR ORGANIZATION GAIN IN LEARNING AGILITY

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The aim of this article is to discuss the merits of organizational learning agility as it relates to organizational leadership, organizational culture, and the mindset and behavior of the organization. An extensive definition of agility and its importance is presented as a precursor to individual learner agility, leadership agility, and organizational agility. This paper outlines the characteristics of learning agile leaders and employees, how to identify them, and the role the organization must take to increase learning agility. Finally, the benefits of agile learning and leadership are presented while presenting a general view of the process of developing learning agility.

In the past decade, an exceptional amount of attention has been devoted to leadership development and preparing managers for twenty-first century leadership. The topic of many debates has centered on to what category a leader belongs. Is she an autocratic, democratic, transactional, laissez faire, or transformational leader? Does he possess the skills to move this organization to the next plateau? With so much attention centered on leaders, Hughes (as cited in Stopper, 2005) warned there is a growing concern that too much development has been focused on the leader but very little on leadership. The terms leader and leadership are synonymous. Both words depict action and epitomize the act of leading or commanding. However, there are leaders who lead and leaders who are led. According to Kotter (2008), in today's environment a vast majority of U.S. corporations are grossly over-managed and vastly under-led. Successful corporations are ahead of the curve when it comes to developing leadership. They are not in the habit of waiting for someone to come along who has the credentials and characteristics they are looking for. No; they seek out individuals with leadership potential and who are exposed to career experiences that are designed to develop that potential (Kotter, 2008). Often times these individuals are sought from within the corporation. Successful corporations produce successful leaders, and successful leaders help to produce successful organizations.

Successful organizations are agile. That is, they are able to adapt quickly and respond to rapid changes in the markets and global economies. Successful organizations have successful leaders guiding and pointing the way. There are certain characteristics that make up a successful

organization. How are they identified? What are the steps to making a successful leader? How is success identified in leaders?

Defining Agility

In this ever changing, ever evolving world of markets, many organizations stumble, a few fall, and yet some succeed. Organizations that master the dynamics of markets, the rise and fall of stocks, and the revolving door of leadership change succeed due to their flexibility and quickness to respond to turbulence in the business world. It is the difference between having organizational learning agility and not having it. McCann, Selsky, and Lee (2009) defined agility as “the capacity for moving quickly, flexibly and decisively anticipating, initiating and taking advantage of opportunities and avoiding any negative consequences of change” (p. 3). Sull (2010) defined organizational agility as the ability to identify and capture opportunities more quickly than rivals do. A recent McKinsey survey found that nine out of ten business executives identified organizational agility as critical to business success (Sull). Agility is invaluable in the midst of the current financial crisis, instability and market turbulence, and global economic slowdowns. How was British Petroleum (BP) to know that in April 2010 it would enter turbulent waters and star as the face of what could become the worst financial crisis of its existence? Ford Motors has, in the eyes of the public, presented itself as a healthy, vibrant company, out-performing General Motors in sales and revenue as of June 2010. Ford was able to weather the turbulent waters with a good showing, avoiding a huge repayment of bailout funds. It would be fair to say that among Ford’s top management are agile leaders.

Michaels, Handfield-Jones, and Axelrod (2001) reported that seven percent of organizations surveyed responded positively that their organizations had the management talent needed, yet only three percent agreed with the statement: “We develop people effectively.” Learning agility, as described by Clark and Gottfredson (2008), “refers to an organization’s ability to respond to adaptive challenge-be it an opportunity, threat, or crisis-through the acquisition and application of knowledge and skills” (p. 4). Learning agility amounts to continual acquisition of new knowledge and skills that are acquired during or prior to market changes (Clark & Gottfredson). Organizations rated as low agility organizations are not as quick to respond, while organizations with learning agility quickly respond to constant change. One of the greatest needs of organizations, according to Clark (2008), is having employees who are agile learners and leaders who are open, teachable, flexible, and able to execute complex strategies. Leaders need to be inquisitive about the world and seek new challenges and experiences. Acquiring learning agile people strengthens an organization’s learning agility.

Levitt and March (1988) identified four sources of organizational learning:

- Learning by direct experience;
- Interpretation of history (reflecting shared perspectives);
- Retrieval of knowledge from organizational memory (using established communication channels and routines); and
- Learning from the experience of others.

McCann (2009) stated organizations have an obligation to build agility to perform effectively in turbulent environments. How do organizations improve their learning agility?

Organizational learning agility begins with leadership that recognizes the importance of learning agility. This requires an agile leader who understands the process and the benefits of leading an agile organization.

James McNerney, the CEO of Boeing, said, “Institutionally, the ability to be agile enough is the gut issue in leading and organization today (as cited in Joiner, 2009, p. 29). Leadership agility, according to Joiner, is the ability to effectively lead in turbulent times and the ability to consider multiple views and priorities. Learning agility, as stated by Ryan (2009), is cultivated as leaders are exposed to new challenges coupled with constructive feedback on performance. Leaders must develop a commitment to learning in areas outside of the regular routines and demands of the position. Part of an agile leader’s routine should involve knowledge acquisition, and reading journals, trade magazines, and books to gain a broad perspective on multiple topics. For leaders to do this regularly requires them to get out of their comfort zone. That is where the challenge lies. This is what it takes to build confidence and to remain engaged in daily responsibilities. As important as it is for agile leaders to add to their pool of knowledge and be presented with new challenges, it is just as important for agile leaders to receive feedback on how well they are applying their knowledge and performing. Feedback needs to be constructive and ongoing.

Identifying Agile Leaders and Employees

How are agile leaders identified? Durgin (2006) stated the best way to identify agile leaders is to remember a simple mnemonic: Resourceful, Relationships, Resilient, and Results. Agile leaders have the ability to see connections, listen to others, stay in control and focused under pressure, and are willing to make necessary sacrifices for results. According to Joiner (2009), results of research reveal “that behaviors exhibited by highly agile leaders are made possible by a distinct set of mental and emotional capacities that can be learned and developed” (p. 31). Managers at different stages of development exhibit different leadership behaviors adding to the capabilities acquired at previous stages of development. Joiner stated the level of an organization’s leadership culture has a tremendous effect on the behavior of individual leaders, stressing the importance of assessing the agility level that dominates the organization’s leadership culture while determining the agility levels of individual leaders. For example, Joiner identified the characteristics of Expert, Achiever, and Catalyst leadership cultures:

- In expert leadership cultures, leaders function within silos without any prominence given to cross-functional teamwork. Leaders are highly concentrated in the activities of their subordinates; as a result, their individual roles suffer strategically.
- In achiever leadership cultures, managers are communicative about strategic objectives, ensuring the right people and processes are in place to reach the established goals. This culture is focused on the customer and cross-functional teamwork. Key stakeholders are involved in change initiatives.
- In catalyst leadership cultures, there is an air of excitement that emanates from undeniable presence of vision, overwhelming participation, empowerment, and teamwork. The characteristics of this cultural norm are collaboration, decisiveness, critical thinking, and productive dialogue. Senior teams become prime examples of how teams are to work together. Leaders expand their roles to

that of coach, adviser, and solicitor of feedback that encourages and promotes change behaviors beneficial for the organization.

How does an organization or organizational leader identify employees who have learning agility? According to Joseph (2001), learning-agile people exhibit several common traits (p. 1):

- They are usually critical thinkers who carefully examine problems and make the connections with relative ease.
- They have studied and know themselves well enough to leverage their strengths and compensate for their weakness.
- They are not opposed to change and constantly looking for a challenge.
- They use team-building and personal drive as a means of delivering results.
- They are comfortable with diversity, demonstrating their open-mindedness and nonjudgmental attitude.
- They have strong peer relationships.
- They are comfortable with change and know how and when to pick their battles.

The Role of the Organization

Cashman (2008) argued organizations can cultivate a productive leadership culture where the importance of learning agility is evident. Clark (2008) also noted that engaged employees are far more productive because they are active, energized, and focused on the needs of the organization. Clark stated that employees who are actively engaged and who know they are respected are more likely to accept challenges when they are encouraged by managers and increase productivity. An organization's return on investment is increased by an average of 11.4 percent when employees are engaged (Schneider, 2006). If employees are highly engaged, they are 87 percent less likely to leave their organizations (Clark). O'Toole (2008) concluded no leader, executive, or individual, no matter how gifted, can save a company, nor can that individual be right 100 percent of the time. As one CEO proclaimed, "None of us is as smart as all of us" (as cited in O'Toole, p. 53).

Research findings indicate leadership is an institutional capacity, not solely an individual trait, in many successful companies. Because successful companies have mustered a team of highly skilled leaders, they are able to continue their success no matter how many times the leaders change. These organizations are not so concerned with the character that must be developed in individual leaders. They are more concerned about the qualities that need to be developed in the organization (O'Toole, 2008).

Organizations also need to develop an agility-oriented mindset, as defined in Table 1.

Table 1

Agility-Oriented Mindset and Behaviors

EVERY EMPLOYEE MUST
Understand and Embrace the Essentiality and Essence of Marketplace Agility

Be Proactive	Be Adaptive	Be Generative
<p><u>Initiate</u> Actively search for opportunities to contribute to organizational success and take the lead in pursuing those that appear promising</p>	<p><u>Assume Multiple Roles</u> Perform in multiple capacities across levels, projects, and organizational boundaries – often simultaneously</p>	<p><u>Learn</u> Continuously pursue the attainment of proficiency in multiple competency areas, eschewing over-specialization and complacency</p>
<p><u>Improvise</u> Devise and implement new and creative approaches to pursuing opportunities and dealing with threats</p>	<p><u>Rapidly Redeploy</u> Move quickly from role to role</p>	<p><u>Educate</u> Actively participate in the sharing of information and knowledge through the organization, as well as with its partners and collaborators</p>
	<p><u>Spontaneously Collaborate</u> Engage often and easily with others with a singular focus on task accomplishment (and disengage just as easily when contribution is no longer needed)</p>	

Benefits of Agility

What benefits does agile learning and leadership offer? Durgin (2006) listed four major benefits of agile leadership and transforming agile learners into agile leaders (pp. 8-9):

- Leadership bench strength improves;
- The ability to lead a company through times of change is enhanced;
- Retention of high potential talent increases;
- Business performance improves.

McKinsey survey respondents indicated that the benefits of agility include better showings in revenue, customer and employee satisfaction, operational efficiency, and improved market delivery (Sull, 2010).

Developing agility may involve a five-step process (Durgin, 2006). The process happens shortly after an experience or during an experience in real-time and involves the following steps as identified by Durgin (p. 6):

- Hitting pause;
- Engaging in reality-based self-talk;
- Asking oneself the right questions;
- Adapting to the context of current circumstances;
- Observing the impact of the adaptation.

Woller and Woller (2008) listed four stages of learning: unconscious incompetence, conscious incompetence, conscious competence, and unconscious competence. Those who are unaware of their incompetence generally operate on autopilot, while those who are aware have begun to engage the feedback loop process (Durgin, 2006, p. 7). Becoming aware of competencies is an indication that the agile leader is on the road to developing future competency. Unconscious competence represents learning agile leaders who have made the connection between the parts of the brain affected by the barriers to learning agility above and what it will take to get the job accomplished (Durgin).

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