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From the Editor

Dail Fields
Regent University, USA

This issue of the *International Journal of Leadership Studies* continues to present opportunities to develop global perspectives on the role of leaders and followers in organizations. Our authors continue to bless us with excellent material, and we continue to work hand-in-hand with authors to present interesting, educational, and professional research. The diversity of topics and authors presents insightful alternative views on leadership processes and results.

We are happy to welcome two new additions to our editorial board. Dr. Gilbert Jacobs is dean of graduate studies and director of the Organizational Leadership Graduate Program at Mercyhurst College located in Erie, PA. Dr. Jane Waddell is an adjunct professor with Mercyhurst College, specializing in the linkages between emotional intelligence and leadership.

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INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LEADERSHIP STUDIES

CULTURAL PROFILE OF RUSSIAN LEADERSHIP

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The study presented in this paper aims to formulate a composite profile of Russian organizational leadership based on a review and analysis of research conducted in the last 15 years by Western and Russian scholars. Russian leadership will be approached from the perspectives of cross-cultural organizational research and implicit leadership theory. First, perceptions of effective Russian leadership will be explored in a number of studies, including the GLOBE project. Other studies will also be used for evidence of current organizational leadership practice in Russia. A comparative analysis within and between both sets of studies is then expected to reveal areas of commonality, general trends, and principles with regard to how leadership is perceived and practiced in Russia. The projected results of this study include better cross-cultural understanding, comparison, and assessment of Russian leadership by foreign and local organizational members.

Since Hofstede's (2001) groundbreaking research on values and cultures around the world, the impact of national cultures on organizations has been made increasingly evident in numerous studies investigating various aspects of organizational functioning. Adler (2008) posed an intriguing question of whether organizations are becoming similar or maintaining their cultural dissimilarities as a result of globalization. Adler cited John Child, a leading British management scholar who discovered that while organizations are becoming more similar, the behavior of people remains culturally different. After reviewing a vast body of research on cross-cultural leadership, Dickson, Den Hartog, and Mitchelson (2003) concluded that as business becomes more international, it does not appear that meaningful differences between cultures cease and give place to "a more broadly displayed, generic conglomeration" (p. 759). Cross-cultural differences and research, therefore, will continue to hold their importance for organizations in the years to come. Even so, Hofstede compared students of culture to the blind men from an Indian fable who tried to define an elephant by each getting a hold of its trunk, tail, or leg. The only solution to the subjectivity dilemma, Hofstede proposed, is to be "intersubjective" by bringing together many perspectives and studies of culture (p. 2).

In recent years, a number of research studies have been undertaken in order to investigate management and leadership in the former Soviet Union, an area that until recently was a terra incognita of cross-cultural organizational research (Ardichvili, 2001). The purpose of this paper

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is to review several studies conducted over the last 15 years in the field of Russian organizational leadership and identify any commonalities, differences, trends, and principles that may help to better understand leadership as it is practiced in Russia.

Hofstede (2001) maintained that both organizational functioning and theories that have been developed to explain it are bound by national cultures. Russian leadership theories, as conceived in this paper, are not models of leadership proposed by theorists. They are rather mental models, or theories in use, informing behavior of organizational members (Argyris & Schon, as cited in Cummings & Worley, 2001). The approach used in this paper to describe Russian leadership theories is based on implicit leadership theory and its application in Project GLOBE (House et al., 1999), as well as Hofstede's framework of studying national cultures. Accordingly, theories of Russian leadership established by various research studies will be presented either as profiles of endorsed leadership attributes and behaviors or as models inferred from measures of Russian culture. Results of these studies will be compared with those obtained in Project GLOBE. Further, findings from other studies will be explored with a two-fold purpose: to evaluate Russian leadership profiles identified by GLOBE and other research studies, and to illustrate the impact of implicit leadership theories and national culture on the practice of organizational leadership in Russia.

Implicit Leadership Theories and Culture

Hackman and Johnson (2000) compared leadership to impression management: "Leaders... engage in impression management; both to secure leadership positions and to achieve their goals. Images of ideal leaders, called prototypes, often determine who earns the leader designation" (p. 24). Similarly, Lord and Maher (as cited in Den Hartog, House, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999) proposed that to be perceived as a leader is a prerequisite for influencing others. Sources of leadership are to be found in perceivers' implicit ideas of what leaders are. According to implicit leadership theory, attributions and perceptions of leadership are a function of matching leader attributes and behaviors with individuals' implicit theories (Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 1999). These theories constitute prototypes of leadership comprising a collection of attributes, traits, or behaviors that help to distinguish leaders from non-leaders, outstanding from average leaders, moral from amoral leaders, etc. (Brodbeck et al., 2000). House et al. cited extensive experimental evidence of the impact of implicit leadership theories on the exercise of leadership and perception of leaders, including the degree of their influence and effectiveness.

On the other hand, Hofstede (2001) stated that asking people to describe the qualities of a good leader is a way of asking them to describe their culture (p. 388). House, Wright, and Aditya (as cited in Dickson et al., 2003), in line with Hofstede's insistence on the enduring influence of cultural values on organizational functioning, have advanced a cultural congruence proposition which states that "leader behaviors that are accepted, enacted and effective within a collective are the behaviors that most clearly fit within the parameters of the cultural forces surrounding the leader" (p. 755). Project GLOBE researchers have established that cultures can be differentiated on the basis of leader behaviors and attributes that their members endorse; the authors found high within-culture agreement with respect to leader attributes and behaviors that are viewed as contributors or impediments to effective leadership and constitute culturally endorsed implicit leadership theories (House et al., 1999). Project GLOBE and its results are briefly described next.

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Project GLOBE

To date, Project GLOBE is the most extensive cross-cultural research study on organizational leadership, conducted on the basis of a long-term, multiphase, multi-method strategy to discover how societal and organizational cultures affect leadership and organizational practices (Dickson et al., 2003). The overall goal of the study is to develop "an empirically-based theory to describe, understand, and predict the impact of specific cultural variables on leadership and organizational processes and the effectiveness of these processes" (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002, p. 4). For the purposes of conducting the study, GLOBE researchers from 48 countries developed the following working definition, specifically focusing on organizational leadership: "The ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (House et al., p. 5).

One of the objectives accomplished by the study was the empirical development of quantitative country leadership profiles, or culturally endorsed leadership theories, comprising 21 first-order scales of leadership dimensions perceived by the respondents as contributing to or inhibiting outstanding leadership. These dimensions were further factor-analyzed and found to belong to the following six classes of second-order, or "global," leadership dimensions:

1. Team-oriented leadership (universally endorsed as contributor to outstanding leadership);
2. Charismatic/Value-based leadership (nearly universally endorsed as contributor);
3. Humane leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture);
4. Participative leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture);
5. Self-protective leadership (generally viewed neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture); and
6. Autonomous leadership (generally viewed neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture) (Dickson et al., 2003).

In addition to quantitative data, qualitative culture-specific interpretations of local behaviors, norms, and practices were developed through content analysis of data derived from interviews, focus groups, and published media (House et al., 1999).

Advantages of GLOBE research include its basis in sound theory and use of large-scale samples of multiple cultures. GLOBE studied 62 nations grouped into 10 clusters (Javidan & House, 2002, p. 1). The main dataset consists of approximately 18,000 questionnaires from middle managers of about 825 organizations in three industries: food processing, finance, and telecommunications. A follow-up study that was part of Project GLOBE explored whether implicit theories of leadership for top level managers are different from those for lower level managers (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Local Country Co-Investigators (CCIs), in teams of between two and five researchers, were responsible for the leadership of the study in each of the participating countries. They were mostly local culture natives residing in the country, with their activities including quantitative and qualitative data collection, ensuring accuracy of questionnaire translations, writing descriptions of their cultures—which included interpretation of results of the quantitative results in the context of their local cultures—and contributing their insights to the overall GLOBE research (House et al., 2002).

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Russian Segment

Gratchev, Rogovsky, and Rakitski (2002), the Russian CCIs for Project GLOBE, reported the following method of data collection for the Russian segment of the study. The main quantitative data were collected in 1995-1996, with additional data for media analysis collected in 2001. Responses were received from 450 managers, 150 managers in each of the three industries chosen for the study. Survey respondents came from various regions in Russia and had the average age of 38.8 years. The average number of years that respondents had lived in Russia was 37.9 years. Average employment profile of managers was as follows: the number of years employed, 16.8 years; management experience, 7.4 years; employment in the current organization, 8.6 years.

The results of questionnaire analysis are illustrated in terms of the six global leadership dimensions described above (see Figure 1).

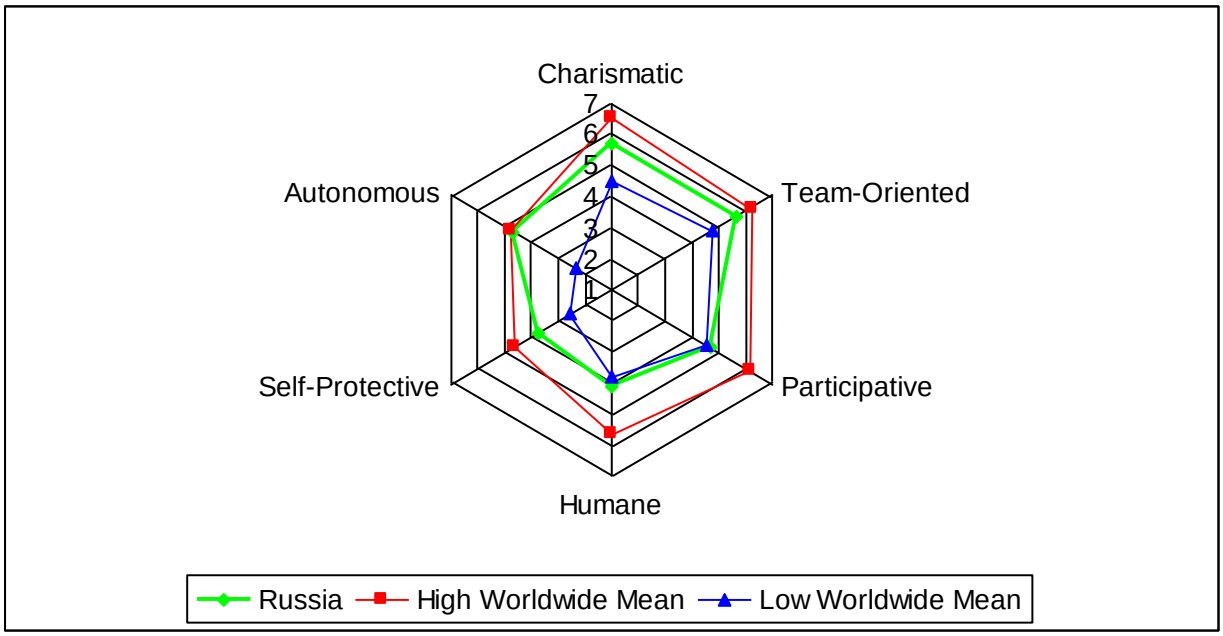

Figure 1. Six Global Dimensions of Russian Leadership According to Project GLOBE. Adapted from Gratchev et al. (2002).

Of the six globally recognized leadership dimensions, charismatic, team-oriented, participative, and autonomous leadership were rated as contributing to outstanding leadership; humane leadership was rated as neither contributing to nor inhibiting outstanding leadership and self-protective leadership was rated as slightly inhibiting outstanding leadership. Among contributors to outstanding leadership, charismatic leadership received the highest score on a 7-point Likert scale (5.66), falling between “moderately contributes” and "slightly contributes.” Autonomous and participative leadership received identical scores of 4.67, which is just lower than slightly contributing to outstanding leadership.

Five out of the six first-order leadership dimensions that received the highest scores as contributors to outstanding leadership were part of Charismatic/Value-based global dimension leadership; the other, Administrative Competence, belonged to Team-Oriented leadership. These

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six dimensions, in descending order of importance, were: Visionary (6.07); Administrative competence (6.03); Performance orientation (5.92); Inspirational (5.89); Decisive (5.86); Integrity (5.72). The first-order factors that, according to GLOBE's Russian participants, inhibit outstanding leadership the most were (with scores and corresponding global leadership dimensions in the brackets): Malevolent (1.85—Team Orientation); Self-Centered (2.48—Self-Protection); Face-Saver (2.67—Self-Protection).

Gratchev et al. (2002) summarized their findings on perceptions of an effective leader in Russia as follows:

> An administratively competent manager with abilities to think strategically, capable to make serious decisions and inspire his followers to meet performance targets. To a certain extent he/she relies on teams and through diplomatic and collaborative moves succeeds in integrating efforts of their members. However, in his/her actions there is not much interest in humane orientation to the others and modesty in personal behavior. He/she may sacrifice a lot and does not take much care of saving face. Status is not important to the modern Russian leader. (p. 19)

Equally important are the ranking positions occupied by Russian leadership relative to other GLOBE countries. The participating countries were placed on each measured dimension in four bands—from high-scoring Group A to low-scoring Group D—of statistically similar rankings (Grachev & Bobina, 2006). This helps to view Russian leadership profile in a cross-cultural perspective, showing its relative position among the other cultures' perceptions of outstanding leadership. Considered in this way, Charismatic leadership, which is the highest global contributor of Russian leadership in absolute terms, was placed in Group D (rank 47) among the other GLOBE countries. Given the low absolute score (5.66), this might be expected. Similarly, the Team Orientation dimension, with an almost identical rating, ranked 46 and was placed in Group C. On the other hand, a much lower rating given to Autonomous leadership (not quite slightly contributing to outstanding leadership) secured for this dimension a ranking in Group A, while Participative leadership (with an identical absolute score) occupied Group D along with Humane leadership even though its position (rank 60) appears more consistent with its rating as "neither contributing nor inhibiting outstanding leadership." Finally, Protective leadership was rated by Russian respondents as slightly inhibiting outstanding leadership and placed in Group D (rank 17).

Perceptions of Effective Russian Leadership

Similar to the GLOBE project, Fey, Adaeva, and Vitkovskaia (2001) explored perceptions of effective leadership held by Russian managers. They sought to empirically identify characteristics describing an effective leader in Russia and to determine, on that basis, leadership styles perceived as most effective by Russian managers. An exclusive focus on transactional leadership, however, must be noted as a limitation of this study.

Ninety questionnaires were returned from the sampled 110 Russian middle managers undergoing training at two business schools in St. Petersburg. No more than two managers were from the same firm. Of the sample, 61 percent were men and 39 percent were women. They averaged 31.2 years old, with the youngest manager being 22 and the eldest being 50 years old. Seventy-two percent of the respondents worked for local Russian companies. Twenty-eight percent were managers in wholly owned foreign companies or Russian-foreign joint ventures (Fey et al., 2001).

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Data were collected in the form of questionnaires asking respondents to list five characteristics of an effective leader without any predetermined items provided. The researchers then analyzed the obtained data set and were able to group the respondents' items into 19 groups. The Democratic, Task Oriented, Relations Oriented, and Authoritarian groups had the highest numbers of respondents choose these characteristics to describe effective leadership.

Guided by two classical sets of behavioral dimensions—Authoritarian vs. Democratic and Task-Oriented vs. Relations-Oriented—the researchers then concluded that the top four groups of items should be seen as poles of two continua of leadership characteristics: Authoritarian vs. Democratic, and Task Orientation vs. People (or Relations) Orientation. They thus formed a 2x2 matrix with four key Russian leadership styles: Military man (task-oriented authoritarian), Statesman (task-oriented democrat), Politician (people-oriented authoritarian), and Clergyman (people-oriented democrat). In this model, the Authoritarian-Democratic dimension was conceived as including a degree of control and the delegation of tasks and decisions, while the Task-People orientation dimension was conceived as leadership focusing on tasks or people.

The study results showed the respondents' preference for the statesman and clergyman styles of leadership, which were described in the following ways:

- A statesman is a task-oriented democrat focused primarily on organizational goals but striving for consensual means of achieving them. Strategic issues are not up for discussion; however, discretion is granted to subordinates in how they use their time and the best ways to accomplish tasks. Statesmen are aware of the need for employee commitment and use a democratic style. Employees are promoted on the basis of competence and shape formal and business-line organizational cultures.
- A clergyman is a relations-oriented democrat focused on an effective climate, good relations, and teamwork. Once agreement about tasks is achieved, tasks are delegated to subordinates who normally do not need to be tightly controlled. People are promoted on the basis of teamwork ability and the climate is informal.

Comparison to GLOBE Results

This study demonstrated a similar sampling approach and similar research questions, but only positive dimensions were sought (GLOBE explored both contributors and inhibitors). An interesting aspect of the sample was that most participants had good English skills (in order to be involved in a training program taught in English) as 80 percent of the respondents completed their questionnaires in English. The data collection was conducted 3-4 years after the Russian segment of GLOBE. Unlike GLOBE, which supplied a large number of items to be rated by participants, leadership characteristics were generated by respondents in this study. As in GLOBE, a form of factor analysis was used in order to reduce the number of obtained items to fewer leadership dimensions; however, only four out of 19 factors were used to formulate results.

In terms of its theoretical base, the study focused on transactional leadership conceived as that which operates within the framework of an existing organizational culture and structure rather than seeking to effect substantial changes based on a clear vision (Fey et al., 2001). Consequently, it is not possible to compare the results of this study with a number of characteristics of the Russian leadership profile identified by GLOBE, including its main global contributor to outstanding leadership in Russia, Charismatic/value-based leadership. Comparisons appear appropriate involving the following dimensions from each study:

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- Participative leadership (GLOBE) vs. Authoritarian-Democratic continuum (Fey et al.); and
- Humane leadership (GLOBE) vs. Task-People orientation continuum (Fey et al.).

The most preferred style identified by Fey et al. (2001), task-oriented democrat, is consistent with the high score given in the GLOBE study to Performance Orientation (one of the Charismatic leadership components) and low scores given to Humane Leadership. However, this is not consistent with the overall score for Participative Leadership, which, according to GLOBE, only slightly contributes to outstanding leadership, as does Autocratic Leadership. On the contrary, an emphasis on people-orientation behavior of the second-preferred style, People-Oriented Democrat, does not match low value of Humane leadership in GLOBE.

When compared with GLOBE's results, the most salient aspect of the perceptions of effective transactional leadership in Russia formulated by Fey et al. (2001) is the apparent higher degree of participative leadership. Whereas an effective Russian leader is neither very autocratic nor very participative at the same time according to GLOBE's profile, both most-preferred styles in this study may be seen as reflecting greater willingness to involve subordinates in decision making. This may have to do with the fact that a relatively high proportion of respondents came from wholly-owned foreign companies or Russian-foreign joint ventures (28%); also relevant is that all participants were undergoing training conducted in English (with 80 percent choosing to fill out their questionnaires in English even though Russian translations were available). It is likely that these managers may have been exposed to greater participation typical of Western leadership styles.

A Cross-Cultural Examination of Leader Ethic

In a study conducted by Rhodes et al. (2004), respondents—leaders in the U.S., Central Russia, Eastern China, and Germany—were asked to select from a provided list of items the top three characteristics that they thought were most important for career advancement. The respondents were also asked to add any other leadership characteristics they thought were more important than the ones chosen from the list. However, no findings of additional leadership characteristics were reported. The list of leadership factors was prepared on the basis of Covey's (1989) seven habits of effective leadership, as well as on emotional intelligence and two characteristics of transformational leadership. The list contained the following nine items: a) Time Management—putting first things first; b) Empathic Communication—seeking first to understand, then to be understood; c) Creative Cooperation—synergy; d) Self-Renewal—"sharpening the saw"; e) Personal Leadership—beginning with the end in mind; f) Personal Vision—being proactive; g) Intellectual Growth of Employees—stimulating in order to motivate; h) Conflict Resolution—creating win/win solutions; and i) Employee Commitment—charisma. The rationale behind the question proposed to respondents was that knowing what it takes for career success provides a way of understanding what is valued in different countries (Rhodes et al., 2004).

Around 60 questionnaires were returned by Russian respondents whose aggregated top three characteristics were, in the descending order of importance: Personal Leadership (71%); Time Management (60%), and Creative Cooperation (42%), with Personal Vision a close fourth characteristic (40%). The rest were chosen significantly less frequently. The least important

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were: Charisma (13%), Intellectual Stimulation (16%), Conflict Resolution (18%), and Self-Renewal (20%).

As expected by the researchers, some universal characteristics emerged. In three out of four countries managers stressed Personal Leadership (setting goals) and Time Management (setting priorities) among the top three leadership factors.

Comparison to GLOBE Results

Because Personal Leadership was operationalized as "clear understanding of your desired destinations and the development of strategies to accomplish personal objectives" (Rhodes et al., 2004, p. 68), this characteristic can be roughly compared with GLOBE's Visionary first-order dimension, which also received the highest score. However, an emphasis on personal vision, in contrast to the collective nature of the Visionary dimension in GLOBE, must be noted. None of the other top rated dimensions in this study—Time Management, Creative Cooperation, or Personal Vision—closely fits any of the first-order dimensions of Russian leadership reported by Gratchev et al. (2002). Charisma was presented to respondents as creating employee motivation through their emotional commitment to one's values, beliefs and vision (p. 68), which is very much compatible with "the ability to inspire and motivate others and facilitate high performance outcomes on the basis of firmly held core values" of charismatic/value-based leadership in GLOBE study (Gratchev & Bobina, 2006, p. 71). Its bottom rating in Rhodes et al. (2004), however, is markedly at variance with the highest global score received in GLOBE study.

Besides the obvious sample size limitation, a focus on career advancement in this study may have been instrumental in the low score received by charisma and the high score received by personal Leadership.

Inferring Leadership Profiles from Cultural Dimensions

Since examination of culturally endorsed leadership theories is a way of describing national cultures (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 1999) and culture dimensions have been shown to predict preferred leadership dimensions (Koopman et al., 1999), a Russian leadership prototype may be inferred from national culture measures. Some studies utilizing this approach or providing measures of Russian culture are described next.

Elenkov's (1998) Study

The greatest number of studies of Russian culture dimensions has been conducted on the basis of Hofstede's (2001) framework of national culture and values. One of these studies was conducted by Elenkov (1998), who inferred attributes of a Russian leadership profile from cultural dimensions in a cross-cultural study of American and Russian managers. Data were obtained from 178 managers located in the Moscow and St. Petersburg areas of the Russian Federation in order to measure six attributes of Russian culture. Elenkov used the four original cultural measures developed by Hofstede: power distance, individualism as opposed to collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity formulated as competitiveness. To these were added the following two dimensions:

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- Political-influence orientation seen by the author as a conspicuous feature of Russian decision making;
- Dogmatism described as lack of tolerance for new ideas introduced by others (p. 152-153).

Where applicable, the findings were roughly consistent with Hofstede's (2001) ratings for both countries, showing Russia's high power distance (88.1 vs. 93 reported by Hofstede), medium individualism (45 vs. 39), and high uncertainty avoidance (79.6 vs. 95). The only exception was represented by medium competitiveness, which was rated somewhat higher (58.9 vs. 36 in Hofstede's data). The Russian respondents were also found to have high political influence orientation (93, compared to 45 for American managers) and medium low dogmatism (30.9 vs. 38.8 for the American respondents).

As compared with GLOBE's findings on Russian cultural practices, or "As Is" scores, Elenkov's (1998) ratings were generally consistent on the dimensions of power distance, assertiveness, and collectiveness, but were significantly higher on uncertainly avoidance, which was rated 2.88 (on a 7-point scale) in GLOBE.

Elenkov (1998) then built his profile of Russian leadership mainly on the basis of Russian culture's high power distance, medium individualism, and high political influence orientation. In contrast to American concepts of participation in a leader's decisions and confidence and independence in negotiating with one's boss, he proposed that Russian employees expect an autocratic style offset by support given to subordinates' families, intuitive leadership (rather than stressing facts), and the use of political power (rather than following clear organizational procedures) (p. 140).

Bollinger's (1994) Study

Elenkov's (1998) conclusions about Russian leadership style follow very closely those proposed earlier by Bollinger (1994) on the basis of one of the early studies of Russian culture published in the West. Bollinger also sought to identify Russian management styles by looking at the basic values making up Russian culture. The study was carried out in 1989 and involved a small sample of 55 directors and executives undergoing training at a management school in Moscow. Data were gathered on the four original dimensions included in Hofstede's framework of national cultures. Bollinger reported similar results of high power distance and uncertainty avoidance, and slightly higher collectivism and lower masculinity than Elenkov's (1998) study. The author's implications for choosing a management style that would be appropriate in Russia included autocratic leadership care for subordinates' families and incompatibility of the Western system of management by objectives.

Naumov's (1996) Study

Naumov (1996) conducted in 1995-1996 a study involving 300 respondents in various areas of Russia. Respondents included students and faculty members of business schools, professionals, administrators, and businessmen. The sample composition was chosen to approximate that of Hofstede's IBM sample in order to facilitate comparison of results. Analysis of 250 usable questionnaires yielded the following results for the five dimensions of culture on a

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100-point scale: Individualism (41); Masculinity (55); Uncertainty avoidance (68); Power distance (40); Paternalism or Long/Short-term orientation (59).

Naumov (1996) modified Hofstede's fifth dimension of long-term orientation to emphasize paternalism, or prevalence of familial relations in society. Paternalism was defined as the condition of a high need felt by the weaker members of society to receive protection and care from the more powerful members. Naumov stated that a high degree of paternalism, for instance, can be seen throughout the centuries of Russian history in the unwillingness to grant to the people the ability to take care of themselves (e.g., to restore private ownership of factories) (p. 25). As a result, the rating of the fifth dimension obtained by Naumov is not readily compatible with Hofstede's long-term orientation and should be considered with this specific emphasis in mind.

Naumov (1996) proposed some general implications of cultural values with respect to leadership. He argued that Russian collectivism has been undermined beginning from the second half of the 19th century, throughout the communist rule, and under present economic and political reforms, with the result being outward collectivism and growing individualism inside. His respondents indicated a higher importance of individual goals over against group goals but also a high priority of affiliation and protection offered by group membership.

Naumov (1996) pointed out that a fairly high rating of uncertainty avoidance implies that dependence on the leader is regarded as normal, a large difference in competence between leader and subordinates exists, a strict leader is preferred, and subordinates are not optimistic about participation in management.

With respect to masculinity, Naumov (1996) traced a decrease up to recent reforms in traditionally clear definition of the roles of men and women, proposing that removal by the state of people's ability to control their external environment is the crucial factor in this process. The implications of decreasing masculinity include a trend toward emphasis on relationships as opposed to results, personal power as opposed to positional power, "intrastructural" interactions as opposed to "macrostructural." With a recent increase in entrepreneurial freedom, however, a slight increase in masculinity should be expected.

In view of the high ratings of Russian power distance in most studies conducted by Western researchers, Naumov's (1996) medium power distance finding is interesting. As a result, Russia's position is interpreted as intermediate between legal and power bases of rule, position power and personal power, participative delegation and delegation through decentralization, pluralist (majority rule) and oligarchic leadership, appearance of less than actual leader power and demonstration of maximum actual power. Naumov explained that such a rapid shift could indeed happen within several years as a consequence of economic and political reforms in Russia that may eventually separate economic rule from political power.

Finally, according to Naumov (1996) the medium high paternalism is interpreted as a leaning toward a paternalistic, caregiver, master-servant paradigm, as opposed to perceiving the boss as partner and leader.

A somewhat transitional profile can be gathered from the implications and results of Naumov's (1996) study to conceive of a Russian leader who can no longer motivate followers by relying solely on domination of group interests over individual goals nor exclusively on positional power, who understands that relationships are at least as important as results, who is a strong and competent leader who is not likely to involve subordinates in decision making, and who understands his or her responsibility to care for the families of organization members.

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Comparison to GLOBE's Results

Contrary to Bollinger's (1994) and Elenkov's (1998) emphases on autocratic leadership, neither autocratic leadership nor participative leadership in general is seen as an important factor of effective leadership in the GLOBE research. One reason that may explain this discrepancy is the unique design of the GLOBE research culturally endorsed leadership theories were surveyed directly and reflect cultural values (What Should Be), whereas Elenkov's results may have more relevance to cultural practices (What Is). This is supported by the high rating of Russia's actual power distance and the much lower score of the ideal level of power distance obtained by GLOBE researchers.

Paternalism—one of the expressions of collectivism pointed out by Elenkov (1998)—and the use of political power are not readily comparable with any factors of leadership formulated in GLOBE. High paternalism was also brought out in Naumov's (1996) study. Intuitiveness as opposed to stressing facts (mentioned by Elenkov) may have some relevance for the low rating obtained in GLOBE for the "Procedural" dimension.

Where comparison is possible, an overall profile of Russian leadership constructed on the basis of the implications proposed by Naumov (1996) does not contradict the prototype described in Gratchev et al. (2002). In particular, Naumov's implication of lack of participation of followers in decision making appears to match the low rating and ranking of participative leadership observed in the GLOBE project.

Summary of Research Studies on Russian Culture

Since the beginning of this century, a number of research projects have been conducted to study Russian culture on the basis of Hofstede's methodology. Latova and Latov (2008) reported on five studies, in addition to the GLOBE project, which have been undertaken by Russian researchers. These studies targeted various Russian cities or regions and used significantly greater samples than Bollinger (1994), Naumov (1996), or Elenkov (1998). A brief description of these studies as well as those described above with their corresponding findings of individualism (IDV), power distance (PDI), masculinity (MAS), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), and long-term orientation (LTO) are provided in Table 1.

Latova and Latov (2008) compared current findings on Russian mentality with those of other cultures and hypothesized that Russian culture may be significantly different from both the West and the East. Latova (2003a) used Hofstede's (2001) data for other countries to show that Russia occupies an intermediate position between the West and the East on key dimensions such as power distance and individualism. Latova then proposed that such an intermediate position reflects a symbiosis of seemingly opposite value mindsets that may be utilized depending on the situation. Nevertheless, Latova and Latov noted that greater accumulation of research data remains a crucial task of ethnic measurement analysis of Russia.

Latova and Latov (2008) also stated that none of the samples used in the above studies are representative of Russia as a whole. Some studies, even though they are based on Hofstede's methodology, cannot be readily compared because they used modified questionnaires. As a result, the obtained ratings can be used with respect to overall Russian culture only with a degree of approximation.

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Table 1

Studies of Russian Culture on the Basis of Hofstede's Model

Date and Description of Study	Sample	IDV	PDI	MAS	UAI	LTO
Hofstede's (2001) data sources unclear	N/A	39	93	36	95	N/A
1989 Bollinger's (1994) study of directors and executives at a management school in Moscow	55	26	76	28	92	N/A
1995-1996 Naumov's (1996) study of students and faculty members of business schools, professionals, administrators, and businessmen from several regions in Russia and in Belarus	250	41	40	55	68	59*
1996 Elenkov's (1998) study of managers in the Moscow and St. Petersburg areas	178	45	88	59	80	N/A
2001 study by the Institute of Sociology of the Russian Academy of Sciences (Latova, 2003a) of residents in Nizhny Novgorod region	557	44	48	45	N/A	N/A
2002 study by the Institute of Sociology of the Russian Academy of Sciences (Latova, 2003a) of residents in Yaroslavl region	545	51	46	41	51	49
Yadov's study of workers and administration staff of machinery plants in Samara, Murom, Volzhsk, Moscow (Latova, 2003b; Latova & Latov, 2008)	518	55	28	2	121	42
Latova and Latov's study in the cities of Stavropol, Tula, and Tyumen (Latova & Latov, 2008)	1869	60	52	35	109	45
2003-2004 study of teachers conducted by Fishbein (Latova & Latov, 2008)	2200	47	32	12	93	N/A

Notes. Where applicable, all ratings were rounded up to a whole number.

*LTO modified in Naumov's study to emphasize Paternalism.

**Average value of two separate ratings for 2001 and 2002 cited in Latova (2003a).

With this caveat in mind, perhaps some "intersubjectivity" (Hofstede, 2001) may be allowed to bring together the outlined studies of culture conducted on the basis of Hofstede's model. By summarizing the findings presented in Table 1 and neglecting the ratings with the highest deviation, Russian culture may be roughly characterized by low to medium individualism, medium to high power distance, medium masculinity, high uncertainty avoidance, medium long-term orientation, and fairly high paternalism.

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View of Russian Culture in GLOBE and Other Studies

According to the GLOBE research results, Russian culture has the lowest rating among all participating countries on uncertainty avoidance and future orientation, high power distance and collectivism, and medium levels of the dimensions comprising masculinity (Gratchev et al., 2002). Thus, the most significant and indeed striking discrepancy between GLOBE's findings and the aggregate results of the studies outlined above is observed on the dimension of uncertainty avoidance which has generally high ratings in the studies reported by Latova and Latov (2008). Gratchev et al. (2002), who were responsible for the Russian segment of the GLOBE study, interpret this finding as "'creative survival,' when people quickly and creatively adjust to rapidly changing situations and conditions in the environment" (p. 9). They also conjectured acceptance by Russian managers of the uncertainties created in abundance by Russia's transitional environment after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The finding in GLOBE of such low uncertainty avoidance also comes as a surprise in light of Gratchev et al.'s report on the pilot study conducted prior to the main data collection in GLOBE:

> Most of respondents were willing to accept the idea of establishing the order and following the rules (69 percent) rather than exploiting the benefits of uncertainty (31 percent), adding that it is entrepreneurs who need stability in the rules of the game to do business effectively. (p. 13)

In his study of Russian culture, Naumov (1996) posited a distinction between formal, outward, behavior of people and their culture; it is possible that people may adopt new formal behaviors without any impact on the content of culture. Naumov advanced a hypothesis that under the present conditions in Russia the rate of change in formal behavior exceeds the rate of change in the culture. Naumov stated that shifts in culture will begin when new behaviors will be assimilated not only in business organizations but also at the levels of secondary school and, especially, families. Similarly, Hofstede (2001) proposed that cultural diversification may take between 500 and 5,000 years. It appears, therefore, that GLOBE's finding of Russians' extremely low uncertainty avoidance may indeed have more relevance to formal behaviors adopted under stress of adaptation to rapidly changing economic and political conditions, and not necessarily to a culture change effected in a matter of some 15 years. After all, one is still very unlikely to find on Russia's highways the 4-way stop signs that are so common elsewhere. On the contrary, traffic lights continue to be the number one way of coping with road uncertainty, and local drivers know only too well how difficult driving can become after a traffic light has gone out of order and a traffic policeman, or "regulator" as they are called in Russian, has not yet appeared. This is just one of many regulations Russia has been accustomed to throughout its history.

Implications for a Russian Implicit Leadership Theory

One of the hypotheses advanced by the GLOBE study states that there are significant positive relationships between societal culture dimensions and dimensions of culturally endorsed leadership theories (House et al., 1999). In this respect, Project GLOBE's results revealed the following:

- Collectivistic values are predictive of preference for team-oriented leadership;

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- Values relating to power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and assertiveness are negatively related to participative leadership whereas gender egalitarianism and performance orientation are its strong positive predictors;
- Humane orientation predicts the same preferred dimension in leadership; and
- Performance orientation and in-group collectivism are predictive of preferred charismatic behavior (Koopman et al., 1999; Dickson et al., 2003).

As shown by the GLOBE study, implicit leadership theories are consistently affected and shaped by their corresponding cultures. Combining the above conclusions about the relationships between national cultures and culturally endorsed leadership theories with the composite profile of Russian culture produced by the analysis of the most important recent research studies enables formulation of the following general Russian implicit leadership theory. A leadership profile that will be culturally accepted, enacted, and effective in Russia will reflect:

- A moderate focus on team development and collective implementation of a common goal, with an emphasis on administrative competence;
- Lack of participative leadership; low involvement of subordinates in decision making, an autocratic orientation; and
- A preference for charismatic behavior; inspirational and motivational ability, achieving high performance through shared core values.

This profile represents a generic image based on conclusions about Russian culture for which considerable agreement exists among the recent studies analyzed in this article. Greater definition of this image should be sought by further investigating, in particular regarding areas of disagreement along with further systematic research into Russian culture in general. These implications are supported by the findings of culturally endorsed global leadership dimensions directly studied by the GLOBE project where charismatic and team-oriented leadership dimensions received the highest scores, with a low rating assigned to participative leadership (Gratchev & Bobina, 2006).

Impact on the Practice of Leadership in Russia

While GLOBE research included testing of hypotheses of observed leader behavior and effectiveness by culturally endorsed leadership theories, publication of these results appears to be still forthcoming. The following sections contain a review of several studies that explored actual leadership behavior and provide some evidence of the impact of implicit theories on the practice of leadership in Russia. The review also outlines additional historical, sociological, and political factors that have shaped Russian culture and leadership.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Behaviors

Ardichvili and Gasparishvili (2001) studied leadership profiles of managers in four post-communist countries. The sample included three manufacturing companies in the Russian Federation. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Avolio and his colleagues was used to measure different behaviors involving transactional and transformational leadership styles. A total of 1,216 usable responses were received from Russian participants, including 361

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managers and 855 non-managers. The study found the transactional style's contingent rewarding behavior the most relied upon by Russian managers, followed by the transformational style behaviors of inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration. The other two dimensions of transactional style—management by exception and laissez-faire leadership—received the lowest scores.

Similarly, McCarthy, Puffer, May, Ledgerwood, and Stewart, Jr. (2008) described Russian leaders as transactional, "characterized by a controlling, topdown orientation that promotes dependency in their followers rather than openness to change" (p. 221). The authors argued that the intrusive role of the state is the most powerful institutional factor affecting leadership in Russian organizations. This role is not necessarily disapproved by general public; McCarthy et al. cited results of a late 2007 national poll, which found that 52% of Russians surveyed preferred an economy based on state planning and distribution, up by 11% from 1997. (p. 232). Along with the pervasive role of government, the authors mentioned the booming economy, seemingly adequate investment, and the masking of a fundamentally uncompetitive economy as additional forces that perpetuate a transactional leadership style.

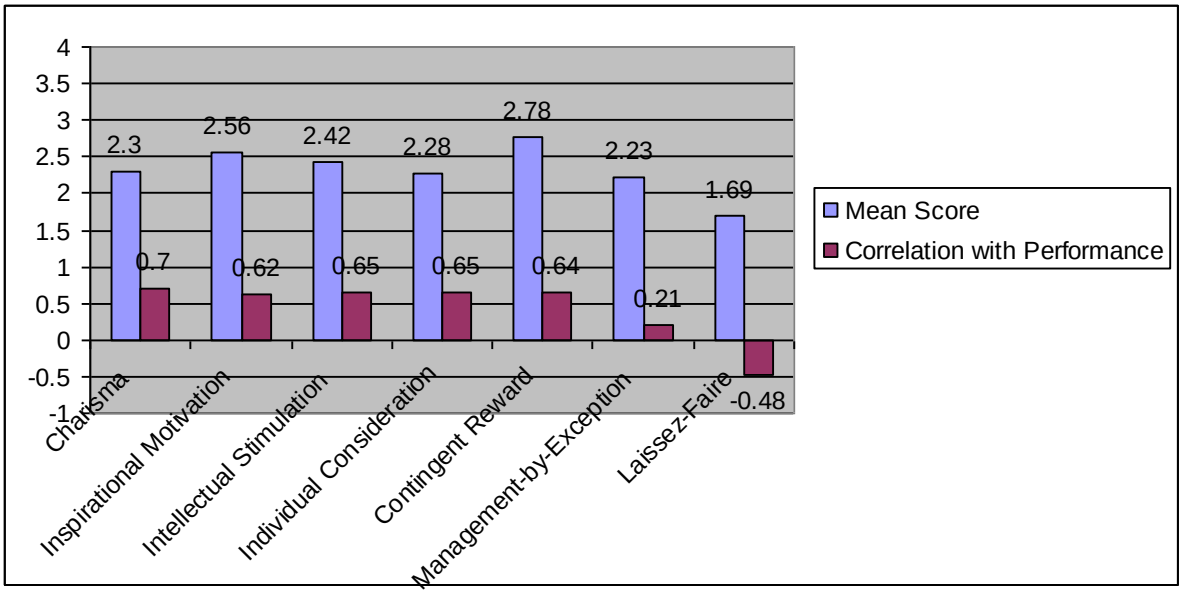

Figure 2. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Behaviors of Russian Managers. Adapted from Ardichvili and Gasparishvili (2001).

Another finding reported by Ardichvili and Gasparishvili (2001) concerns a correlation between measured leadership behavior and perceived manager performance comprising three components: employees' satisfaction with the managers' leadership styles, the extent to which managers were able to elevate employees' motivation beyond their initial expectations, and effectiveness in meeting employees' needs. In the opinion of the respondents, charisma had the highest correlation with performance, closely followed by the other transformational leadership behaviors and contingent rewarding. The findings of the study illustrated in Figure 2 support a later proposition by McCarthy et al. (2008) that Russian leaders should change their transactional styles in order for their organizations to be competitive. This change, they argue, is not likely to be revolutionary "unless there is a precipitous, systemic economic event" (p. 226). Such precipitous, systemic economic event has indeed appeared in the form of the recent economic

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crisis. However, as the state has in recent years played a greater role even in such deregulated Western economies as the U.S., it is but likely to increase even further in Russia where the reversal of state control liberalization was evident as president Putin spent a good part of his tenure restoring the "vertical" of state power. The impact of the economic crisis on leadership in Russia is a highly interesting area of prospective organizational research.

Ardichvili and Gasparishvili's (2001) study provided support for Den Hartog et al.'s (1999) hypothesis of universal endorsement of attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership in general and the results of the GLOBE research for Russia featuring the global dimension of charismatic/value-based leadership as the top score (Gratchev et al., 2002). The results of this study are at odds with Rhodes et al.'s (2004) described above which showed a very low perceived importance of charisma and intellectual stimulation for leadership career advancement.

Decision Making and Predominant National Leadership Style

In an earlier study Ardichvili, Cardozo, and Gasparishvili (1998) examined, inter alia, decision making and the predominant leadership style of Russian entrepreneurs. The study was conducted in 1994 and included a sample consisting of 256 CEOs and owners of private businesses from eight major economic centers in Russia: Moscow, St. Petersburg, Nizhniy Novgorod, Kursk, Yekaterinburg, Tomsk, Novosibirsk, and Stavropol. The entrepreneurs represented companies of various sizes and industries. In the course of a structured interview each respondent was asked to describe their predominant decision making and leadership style by choosing from a list of choices. The results revealed that almost 25% of respondents made their decisions without consulting others, around 50% consulted with other executives or outside experts, and about 16% consulted with subordinates. In terms of leadership styles only about 11% described themselves as autocratic, around 30% as democratic, and over 56% claimed to be "situational" leaders defining it as using either autocratic or democratic style depending on the situation.

Ardichvili et al. (1998) admitted that certain negative connotations of both terms, "autocratic" and "democratic," existed in Russian media and society in general. These may have affected the respondents in self-assignment of their leadership style. In fact, Ardichvili expressed surprise that as many as 11 per cent of respondents were willing to admit to being autocratic leaders at all.

In view of this possible bias, as well as the nature of the third choice of leadership style as combining the other two choices, the content of the finding about the predominant leadership style is not sufficiently clear and should be considered with caution. On the other hand, such broad variation of the leader's styles as is seen in the top ranking assigned to the "situational" style may bear some evidence to the transitional leadership style that was likely to issue from the Russian culture profile formulated by Naumov (1996). It may be relevant to note that both Naumov and Ardichvili conducted their studies in the midst of Russian economic and political reforms.

The predominant decision making styles reported by Ardichvili et al. (1998) provide support to a low perceived value of participative leadership found in the GLOBE project. These styles also reflect high reliance on collective decision making which, however, tends to exclude subordinates.

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Role Preferences of Russian Leaders

Zavialova (2006) conducted a study of role preferences of leaders from six organizations in Russia, with a total sample of 162 respondents. The study was based on Belbin's theory of leadership roles which originally included Chairman/Coordinator, Shaper, Plant, Resource Investigator, Monitor Evaluator, Team Worker, Company Worker/Implementer. An additional role of Specialist was later added to the list (as cited in Zavialova, p. 123-124). Zavialova concludes that the study results enabled identification of team role preferences of Russian managers as follows:

- Company Worker/Implementer (described as an activity function and organizer of practical activities), was chosen as the preferred role by 62 respondents.
- Coordinator (described as communication function and leader-coordinator) and Shaper (described as an activity function and leader-activator) were each preferred by 30 respondents.
- Plant (described as a function of intellectual leadership and generator of ideas), Finisher (described as an activity function, control, and provision of stability) Monitor Evaluator (described as a function of intellectual leadership and analyst), and Team Worker (described as a communication function and emotional leader) received approximately equal numbers of choices (12, 11, 10, and 9, respectively).
- Resource Investigator (described as a communication function and organizer of external relations) was the least preferred role (5 respondents) (p. 123-125, 134).

Zavialova's (2006) focus on leader role preferences contributes to research of leadership practices in Russia and helps to verify perceptions of ideal leadership identified in GLOBE and other studies. GLOBE's conceptual model includes a proposition that cultural attributes affect leadership behaviors that are enacted in a given culture (House et al, 2002). A hypothesis that culturally endorsed theories of leadership measured in its phase 2 predict observed leader behaviors was to be tested in phase 3, with the final product of GLOBE research including a description of most favored leader behavior patterns (House et al., 1999). Meanwhile, Zavialova's (2006) study findings can be viewed as evidence of an actual profile of Russian leadership as compared to implicit leadership theories identified in the second phase of GLOBE. In this regard, Zavialova points out that "having general mental propensity to charismatic leadership Russian managers … [nevertheless] opt for a 'working bee' role" (p. 136, translation mine). Preference for an implementing role accounts for close to a third of the choices, with the communication and coordinating role taking a distant second ranking. These two ratings are consistent with fairly high scores of administrative competence (6.03) and performance orientation (5.92) in the GLOBE study. The fact that they are at odds with equally high importance of visionary (6.07) and inspirational (5.89) leadership may be explained by the focus in Zavialova's (2006) study on a limited choice of roles provided to the respondents.

INSEAD Research

Even as the intrusive role of the state has been a major factor of organizational functioning, it has also modelled organizational leadership. Kets de Vries, Korotov and Shekshnia (2008) trace characteristics of Russian leadership to historical development of the

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state concluding that the latter inevitably affects life in organizations: "[A]n historical tradition of governing lingers on in Russia, where there has always been strong, undivided central government, and authoritarian rule has been a dominant feature" (p. 213). On the other hand, preference for implementation found in Zavialova's (2006) study is echoed by Kets De Vries' (2000) who explains it as part of Soviet command control heritage. In the USSR, execution and troubleshooting of plans handed down by the State Planning Committee were key management skills. So were connections and string-pulling, or *blat*, which were often the only way to get things done given Russia's "bureaupathology" and still remains a part of Russian business culture (p. 73). This aspect is relevant to Russian managers' high level of political influence orientation identified in Elenkov's (1998) study.

Kets de Vries (2000; 2001), Chair of Leadership Development at INSEAD Business School in France, presents a portrait of Russian leadership based on his review of literature and his own interviews with and observations of both Russian leaders and a cross-section of Russian population conducted between 1993 and 2000. An analysis of underlying culture is a cornerstone in Kets de Vries' (2001) approach, "Comprehending the building blocks of culture in Russia will assist us to better understand the why Russians approach leadership style and run their organizations" (p. 590). By using criteria from several most popular models of studying cultures, including Hofstede's, Kets de Vries makes some highly insightful observations of the Russian psyche and its significance for local leadership style.

Autocracy. Kets de Vries (2000) points out autocracy as one of the most characteristic features of Russian leadership:

> Russian society, and the organizations that comprise it, is ruled by minidictators at all levels, who are extremely subservient toward those above them but act as dictators toward those at lower levels… Russian executives place great importance on hierarchy and formal status. They distance themselves physically from the rank and file; they receive (and feel entitled to) privileges; they enjoy ceremony, pompous titles, and symbols of rank and accomplishment; and they see compromise in decision-making as a weakness. (p. 76)

Kets de Vries, Shekshnia, Korotov, and Florent-Treacy (2005) found Russian leadership style to be similar to that in African cultures. In Africa, a leader is often referred to as a Big Man. Russian leaders are considered to be supra-ordinary beings having extraordinary rights and, by definition, deserving obedience. Russians need a charismatic and powerful leader, they create him or her—this is why Russian business leaders have much greater resources to maneuver and manipulate than their Western colleagues (p. 318). The Russian philosopher of the 19th century Chaadaev (as cited in Kets de Vries et al., 2005) wrote that blind submission to external forces and any power that would proclaim itself has to do with Russia's geography and vast expanse of land (p. 29). Strong leadership serves as an antidote to helplessness and lack of control—of this the remarkable persistence of the Stalin cult is shown to be a striking illustration—and many people see in autocratic leadership, not law, protection against chaos and a panacea for every problem in the society (Kets de Vries, 2001). The main figures in Russian history such as Alexander Nevsky, Peter the Great, Stalin, all exemplify strong leadership. Gorbachev was indeed a different type of leader who did not abuse power to the extent that was widespread and did in fact give place to counsel and seeking consensus (Kets de Vries et al., 2005) Despite that or, perhaps, partly because of it, his historic role is still widely seen in Russia as controversial.

Paternalism. Kets de Vries (2000) ascribes the desire for strong leadership to a prevailing anxiety among Russians about their circumstances and surroundings and a great

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dependency on strong leaders for protection and "containment" against chaos (p. 75). Thus, autocratic leadership in Russia is closely linked to and is, in a way, compensated by paternalism. Russian people are willing to put up with high power distance but they also expect their leaders to take care of them and their families. This finding is identical to that revealed in some other studies (Naumov, 1996; Elenkov, 1998). This autocracy-paternalism connection can be traced in Russia's history in relationships between the Czars and their people, large landowners and their serfs, with the Communist Party and the Soviet command control system later assuming a similar paternalistic function (Kets de Vries, 2000). Just as the Czar was called a father so was Stalin often referred to as the father of nation. It is also true that hardly any ruler has been designated in that way since then, certainly not since the collapse of the USSR. Authoritarian tradition may still be there but it is definitely not the same today.

Centralized decision making and control. A famous Russian historian of the 19th century Klyuchevski (as cited in Gratchev, Rogovsky, and Rakitski, 2002) named "the ability to cooperate within large geographic space" among distinctive qualities of the national character (p. 3). Coping with Russia's vast territorial expanse that has perpetuated a preference for autocratic leadership has also contributed to strong central governance that has traditionally played an important role (Kets de Vries, 2000; 2001; Kets de Vries, Shekshnia, Korotov, and Florent-Treacy (2004); Puffer, 1994).

Kets de Vries (2001) stated that most of the traditional organizations visited by him in Russia were centrally controlled, hierarchical and bureaucratic. Kets de Vries et al. (2005) describe it quite vividly:

> When we ask Russian managers to draw an image they have in their mind when we say "organization", two thirds draw a pyramid… They know how to order and control but they, at the same time, need to be ordered and controlled. This is what management means to them… Most workers in today's Russia still need structure, not freedom of action (p. 55-56, translation mine).

With high centralization and autocracy, Russian leaders may have to personally deal with routine issues (Kets de Vries et al., 2005). Hence, a system of rules and regulations is common in organizations and, in fact, is required by the state legislation.

Comparison to GLOBE's Results

Most of the studies reviewed in this paper support Kets de Vries and his colleagues' (2000; 2001; 2005) characterization of Russian leadership as autocratic. Remarkably, in the GLOBE project autocratic leadership was rated by respondents as neither contributing to nor inhibiting outstanding leadership. Moreover, non-participative leadership was rated as slightly inhibiting. The rankings of Russian leadership attributes in the GLOBE results may shed some light on the reasons of such varying assessments. Both of the above dimensions were ranked, respectively, in Group A and Group B relative to other countries' scores. Likewise, Russian participative leadership, GLOBE's global antidote of autocratic leadership, occupies a place among low ranking cultures in Group D. This likely indicates the different approaches taken by GLOBE on the one hand, and Kets de Vries and his colleagues, on the other hand. In GLOBE, participants described ideal typical leaders and their ratings correlated more with values than practices (Dickson et al., 2003). A similar discrepancy is seen between "As Is" and "Should Be" ratings given by GLOBE's Russian participants to power distance: the actual power distance score of 5.52 vs. the desired value of 2.62 (on a 7-point scale). Another possible explanation is

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that of direct self-assessment in GLOBE vs. conclusions in Kets de Vries and his colleagues' research made from an evidently Western perspective.

Another insight into Russian culture proposed by Kets de Vries' (2001) is also very interesting in relation to the GLOBE research. Kets de Vries, along with other researchers (Puffer, 1994; Elenkov 1997; Meirovich & Reichel, 2000), described Russian culture in terms of "the integration of individual conscience with political dishonesty" (p. 606). The socialist era in Russia left a legacy of split public and private lives, an external compliance with the group accompanied by passive, internal, indifferent resistance. The outward conformity in public life has been compensated by a high priority of friendship and trust in personal relations. Russians are a particularistic culture and, as an example, will go to extraordinary lengths to help their friends even at the expense of bending public rules; "personal loyalty is more important than fair play" (p. 607). Puffer (1994) refers to this as dual ethical standard and finds its evidence in various historical periods. Therefore it may be an interesting question how this split may have affected the relatively modest value attached by Russian GLOBE respondents to integrity. Finally, the rating of status consciousness as slightly contributing to outstanding leadership according to GLOBE may be subject to a similar dynamic between ideal and actual leadership behavior perceptions as described for autocratic leadership.

Russian Leadership: Transition and Diversity

A subtle but revealing reflection of the transitional character of Russian leadership is found in the language. A native Russian word for "leader" and "leadership" ("rukovoditel" and "rukovodstvo"—literally, "leading by hand") has traditionally been used in the context of organizations. However, the most common usage of the word "rukovoditel" corresponds either to the person in charge (i.e., positional leader) or the manager. A loan translation from English ("lider") was first introduced in the 19th century to denote the leader of a party (later, of a trade union, country, organization), then a sportsman who leads (e.g., in a cycling race), a ship leading a group of vessels, and finally an idea, or concept, champion (Taskinen-Pleshak, 2006). Taskinen-Pleshak explains that assimilation of a borrowed word is usually complete when it begins to be registered in host language dictionaries. Of over a dozen dictionaries surveyed by the author -- published between 1912 and 2006 -- only one contains the meaning of "the one who is capable of leading others, a leader ('vozhak')" (p. 25, translation mine) which most closely approaches the concept of leadership as it is referred to in this article. A set expression "informal leader" that has become common in Russian in recent decades may be an indication of a linguistic need to better express an emerging meaning and make a distinction with the more familiar concepts described earlier. The distinction between the more traditional (and still most common) and the newly emerged meanings of the words "leader" and "leadership" must be considered in understanding often diverging results of various research studies in the field of Russian leadership.

Having described a typical Russian style of leadership as authoritarian and contributing to hierarchical and bureaucratic organizations, use of coercive power, attaching great importance to rank and status, deferring of initiative and decisions to the leader, and paternalistic orientation, Kets de Vries et al., (2005) observed an emerging leadership style in Russia that they call "global Russian". The authors illustrate this new style in seven case studies of highly successful Russian leaders of the 1990s and early 2000s. One of the attributes that Kets de Vries et al. (2004) found in common about these leaders is that "[t]heir leadership competencies have a very distinct

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Russian accent, and yet to a large extent their success is a result of behaviors that contradict many features of the traditional Russian national character" (p. 643). They combine unusual flexibility and artfully create and take advantage of networks of relationships so important for traditional Russian collective culture. These new leaders proactively shape their environment and utilize a type of decision making that is based on democratic centralism once exemplified by the Communist Party. They display tenacity and resilience and effectively offer new vision and meaning to motivate their followers.

Gratchev and Bobina (2006) identify three types of leaders in today's Russia: Old Guard, New Wave, and International Corps. Fragmentation in Russian business culture is a consequence of radical political and economic changes initiated in 1992 and it affects organizational leadership styles (Gratchev et al., 2002). Finally, while recognizing certain mental unity of people inhabiting the Russian Federation researchers insist that its regional differentiation implies significant cultural differences (Latova & Latov, 2008).

Managerial Implications

A basic implication of research presented in this article is that managers conducting business with Russia as well as expatriates coming to work in the country should start with an assumption that a style of leadership—accepted and effective in Russian organizations—may be very different from what they are accustomed to in the home country. Further, as proposed by Javidan and House (2001), the increasing need for globally competent leaders may be addressed by helping them understand the differences and similarities between their home and host cultures. Systematic research, such as Project GLOBE, enables cross-cultural understanding, comparison, and assessment of various national leadership styles by developing cross-culturally generalizable dimensions of leadership. An importance factor of such assessment and comparison is the cultural point of reference, or the home-country position. For example, in contrast to the profile of Russian leadership assessed in absolute terms in the GLOBE project, to an average "global" organizational member—if, indeed, he or she existed in reality—the most conspicuous aspect would hardly be its highest-rating Charismatic dimension. Rather, he or she would be struck by a high degree of autonomous leadership and low value of humane orientation and participative leadership. An example of comparison with an existing culture—between Russia and Greece—is presented in Figure 3, which plots leadership profiles of both countries on the basis of data obtained in Project GLOBE.

The aspects of similarity and variance are vividly illustrated by the chart. Based on GLOBE's results, the two countries' culturally endorsed leadership theories are very close with respect to Charismatic and Self-Protective components of leadership, manifest greater difference on Participative, Humane, and Autonomous leadership, and diverge significantly on Team Orientation.

Coming from the West, a foreign or expatriate manager is likely to find greater use and tolerance for an authoritarian style of leadership in Russian organizations. This style is a deeply ingrained tradition that is likely to continue and Western managers are advised to learn certain transactional techniques to promote organizational change (McCarthy et al., 2008). Among these, contingent rewarding has been found closely correlated with manager performance (Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001). Other scholars propose that the traditional desire for strong, authoritarian leadership that is typical of Russian culture should serve as the basis for assuming a similar yet qualitatively distinct authoritative style to provide clear vision, empowerment,

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ownership of the organization, teamwork, and employee involvement (Kets de Vries, 2000; Kets de Vries et al., 2008; Fey, 2008).

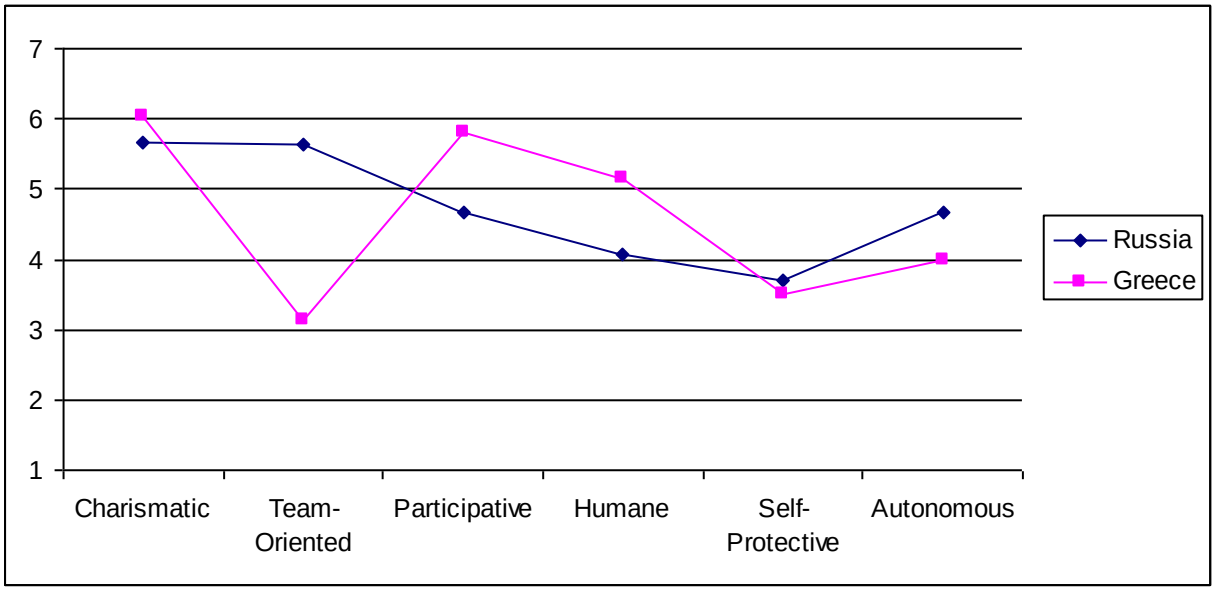

Figure 3. Cultural Profiles of Leadership in Russia and Greece. Adapted from Bakacsi, Takacs, Karacsonyi, and Imrek (2002).

Foreign managers should regard administrative competence as an important element of effective leadership style in Russian organizations. They should also rely on the more universal aspects of effective leadership, such as inspiring a shared vision, focusing on high performance, and manifesting integrity and decisiveness. An effective leader will also not limit his or her involvement with subordinates by purely organizational business but will also strive to provide support in their homes and families. Finally, foreign managers and expatriates doing business with and in Russia should be aware of a high government involvement in both public and private organizations and the consequent need for leaders to maintain important networks of relationships outside of the organization.

Conclusion

Hofstede's (1996) description of a Japanese business tycoon comparing Japanese and American management can be readily applied to Russian leadership; it may share many aspects with other cultures but differ in all important respects. On the ground, assessment of Russian leadership and its style will ultimately depend on the cultural point of reference, or "home base," of a foreign practitioner. In terms of a global view, the review and analysis of recent studies of Russian leadership presented in this paper found significant areas of agreement as well as some variance as to what leadership style is perceived as culturally acceptable and effective in Russia. Research generally agrees on moderate team orientation, low but positive value of participative leadership, and a preference for charismatic behavior. Charismatic behavior includes performance orientation and visioning. Administrative competence is highly valued and subordinates are not seen as important contributors to decision making. Some studies emphasize high authoritarianism of Russian leadership (Bollinger, 1994; Elenkov, 1998) while others rate it

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somewhere in the middle range of the scale or even deemphasize it (Gratchev et al., 2002; Fey et al., 2001). Similarly, a composite analysis of various studies of Russian culture does not provide sufficient evidence of very high power distance in contemporary Russia but nevertheless shares the above view of low participation. Paternalism, which may be seen to a certain extent as an expression of Russian collectivism, was reported by several studies and emerged as an aspect that is important for understanding of Russian leadership.

In the descent from ideal perceptions to actual practice of Russian leadership, correlations between culturally endorsed theories of leadership and organizational functioning are evident. Charismatic behaviors as well as centralized decision making and paternalism have been found in broad use. On the other hand, autocratic behavior is still prevalent and seems to indicate a gap between valued and practiced leadership. Finally, rapid political and economic reforms in the wake of the collapse of the Soviet Union should be seen as a critical factor shaping a transitional character of leadership in modern Russia. Swift integration of Russian organizations in international and multinational business has created high pressures for conformity to Western management and leadership ideas and practices. More research will be needed to better understand how Russian culture has been responding to these pressures in the area of organizational leadership. Already, new and culturally innovative aspects of leadership have appeared that provide evidence for the cultural difference proposition, which suggests that slight deviations from dominant cultural norms may improve performance (House, as cited in Dickson et al., 2003).

To be sure, any attempt to formulate an accurate single leadership profile for any country, especially as vast and culturally diverse as the Russian Federation, will suffer from a fair degree of stereotyping. Contrary to much conventional thinking, however, stereotyping is not necessarily bad and can be a useful tool for leaders and managers who find themselves in new situations (Adler, 2008). Stereotypes should occupy their rightful place among managers' tools as a starting point for understanding the complexities of cultural differences (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2005). These conclusions drawn from studies of Russian leadership will be useful for foreign and Russian organization members whom globalization continues to bring in contact at an increasing rate. Expressing Russia's leadership in cross-culturally generalizable terms facilitates understanding of its unique leadership style and helps to meaningfully relate it to leadership attributes and behaviors in other countries. Likewise, Russian leaders will achieve greater self-awareness on the basis of a global frame of reference. A combined benefit should be higher effectiveness of intercultural encounters in various areas of international organizational activities.

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IT'S HAPPINESS THAT COUNTS: FULL MEDIATING EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE LINKAGE FROM LMX TO TURNOVER INTENTION IN CHINESE COMPANIES

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This study suggests mediation analysis as a better way to understand the inconsistency of findings on how leader member exchange (LMX) leads to turnover intention in Chinese companies. Job satisfaction and job stress are hypothesized as two possible mediation paths. In a relationship-oriented culture setting, inquires as such are particularly important and meaningful. Findings include that job satisfaction fully mediates the relation between LMX and the intention of turnover, and that job stress does not mediate the linkage between LMX and turnover intentions. Theoretical and practical implications including cross-cultural meanings are discussed.

Voluntary job turnover has long been an important area of research in several disciplines (e.g. psychology, sociology, economics, and organizational behavior) (Williams & Hazer, 1986). There are obvious problems that turnover can present concerning the efficient functioning of organizations. However, actual turnover behaviors are hard to measure (Breukelen et al, 2004). The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that behavioral intention is a good predictor of actual behavior. Turnover intention represents an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioral decision to quit. There is considerable empirical support for the notion that turnover intention is probably the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Mobley et al, 1979; Mitchel, 1981; Bluedorn, 1982). Mobley et al., (1979) have even suggested that intentions offer a better explanation of turnover because

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they encompass one's perception and judgment. Therefore, turnover intentions are usually measured and accepted as a precursor to the actual turnover behavior.

It has long been believed in literature pertaining to turnover that supervisor-related antecedents play a critical role in employee turnover (Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben & Pautsch, 2005). Constructing and maintaining good relationships between supervisors and subordinates provides a disincentive for employees to quit (Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Pautsch 2005). Leader-Member Exchange, or LMX, examines the relationship quality between superiors and subordinates and specifies factors that determine the quality of the relationship (Liden et al, 1997; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). According to Graen and Scandura (1987), LMX refers to the quality of the relationship shared by supervisors and subordinates. LMX has been one of the most researched models of leadership since the 1960s (Gerstner & Day, 1997). It has long been suggested by researchers (e. g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) that fewer "outcome-oriented" LMX studies (i.e., with performance as the dependent variable) are needed and more basic LMX correlates should be investigated. On the other hand, some recent studies (e.g., Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Morrow et al., 2005) identified leader-member relationship as a neglected antecedent of turnover and found that LMX has rarely been included in turnover studies. In addition, far less empirical attention in leadership literature has been given to the mechanism that operates between LMX and various work outcomes (Bhal, Gulati & Ansari, 2009). This paper responds by examining the mechanism between turnover intentions and LMX by addressing the multiple mediating effects of job satisfaction and job stress.

Job satisfaction and job stress as predicting factors of employee turnover has been a topic widely studied and established. (e.g., Brotheridege & Grandey, 2002; Mobley, et al., 1979). Among all the potential mediating variables, job satisfaction was chosen as it has been considered the most important factor in voluntary turnover research (Trevor, 2001). It plays a major role in almost all turnover theories (Lee et al., 1999) and was tested to be the key psychological predictor in most turnover studies (Dickter, Roznowski, & Harrison, 1996). It has been proposed that leader support can possibly reduce employee turnover directly or indirectly through job satisfaction (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Mowday et al., 1982). Extensive research has shown that job satisfaction reduces turnover (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000) and increases retention (Kim et al., 1996).

We also examine job stress as a possible mediating factor between LMX and turnover intention because of its psychological and financial importance to both the employees and employers. While turnover cost could be as high as 1.5-2.5 times the employee's salary (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Cascio, 2003), or as much as 5% of the organization's annual operating budget (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), workplace stress was estimated to cost US employers more than $200 billion every year (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998). Stress is important for employees as well as employers (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998; O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994) because of the potentialeffects on employee psychological conditions such as depression, frustration, anxiety, as well as physical problems such as high blood pressure.(Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Jex & Beehr, 1991). Past research has shown that stress is a key predictor of turnover intentions (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey 2002; Mayes & Ganster 1988; O'Driscoll & Beehr 1994; Parasuraman & Alluto 1984; Rahim 1997).

An important contribution of the current study is its application in the Chinese context. China has experienced rapid economic growth for almost 30 years since it launched the open reform policy, and has attracted a great amount of foreign direct investment (FDI) from the

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Western business world. It was suggested by Sloman (2007) the increasing need for further study and understanding of people in China given the rapid change in the Chinese economy. It is especially important for the Western world to understand how employees in China respond to the organizational practices and policies commonly utilized in Western companies in order to succeed in attracting and maintaining the best talent in China, therefore increasing competitiveness in the global market.

Most leadership studies have been conducted in the Western society, and there is a need to add the empirical cross-cultural validity of the LMX-work outcomes relationships to current literature (Bhal, et al., 2009). It has been questioned whether Western leadership models can apply to collectivist, "high-power-distance" (authoritarian) cultures such as most Asian countries, but interestingly past research has shown that LMX relationships hold true in several cultures such as Japan (Graen et al., 1990), Turkey (Erdogan et al., 2006), and Malaysia (Ansari et al., 2007). An increasing number of leadership studies have been conducted in China (e.g., Chan & Farh, 1999; Hackett et al., 2003; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Wang, et al., 2005) and have revealed remarkably consistent results across cultures (Wang, et al., 2005).

It was suggested by the growing literature that the basic relationships between leadership and workplace outcomes established in the West are supported in China, thereby increasing the generalizability of previous findings from Western samples (Wang, et al., 2005).

That being said, we should recognize that some of the significant cultural, political, economic and social factors that are unique in China might confound the current study. For example, it is suggested that Chinese employees behave differently from their Western counterparts under the traditional Chinese culture, including personalism and *guanxi* (Chen, 2000). The traditional cultural value may also have an impact on the extent to which individuals feel supported by organizations, which may be important in Chinese environments, and thus affecting their turnover intentions (Hui, et al., 2007). It should also be noted that our conclusions need to be kept in the evolving Chinese institutional and social context. China has experienced a large-scale privatization process for state-owned enterprises. There is a unique economic environment where different types of ownership coexist: private organizations, foreign-owned companies, as well as state-owned enterprises, are strong competitors in the marketplace (Zhu et al. 2008; Ahlstrom, Foley, Young & Chan, 2005). It has been suggested that ownership structure does have an impact on employee attitude and behaviors (Wang, et al., 2009), which cannot be translated to the Western context.

Literature Review

Person-Environment Fit Theory and LMX

LMX theory posits that the relationship between a supervisor and an employee develops as a result of work-related exchanges between the two individuals. These relationships can be characterized as high in quality or "good" (i.e. reflecting trust, respect and loyalty) and low in quality or "bad" (i.e. reflecting mistrust, low respect and a lack of loyalty) (Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben & Pautsch, 2005).

Person-environment fit theory (French et. al., 1974) states that incongruence or mismatch in the relationship between employee and the job environment (e.g. LMX) explains a variety of outcomes such as turnover intention. Bad LMX is highly related to incongruence of values between supervisors and employees (Testa, 2009). Researchers find that when the incongruence

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between the employee and the job environment increases (e.g., LMX), the employee is more likely to display increased intention of turnover (Edwards, 1991). A meta-analytic finding, albeit based on a very small number of samples, indicates that the quality of LMX is negatively related to intended turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997) and actual turnover (Griffeth et al, 2000). Bad LMX has been viewed as an undesirable attribute or a type of person-environment misfit and has been observed to explain employees' turnover decisions (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Firms have therefore sought to maximize LMX perceptions among subordinates as an approach to combat turnover (Morrow et al., 2005). However, the meta-analysis of Gerstner and Day (1997) only suggested a small statistical relationship between LMX and turnover and the more recent meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) also shows a weak relationship between the two. In addition, Sparrowe (1994) and other researchers find that the path from LMX to turnover intentions was not significant when LMX was tested along with other variables in structural equation models (Sparrowe, 1994; Wayne et al., 1997). Wilhelm (1993) further investigated the circumstances under which LMX was significant when entered with equity perception and job satisfaction in a regression model. Fascinatingly, Harris (2004) suggested that LMX may actually be curvilinearly related to turnover intentions and turnover. Clearly, the conclusions drawn about the relationship between turnover intentions and LMX have not been consistent, with some studies finding a significant negative relation (Dansereau et al., 1975, 1985; Graen & Ginsburg, 1977; Graen, Liden & Hoel, 1982) but others finding an insignificant correlation (Vecchio, 1985; Vecchio et al., 1986). Research is needed to investigate the mechanisms through which LMX influences turnover intention and to shed light on these contradictory findings; however, empirical investigation documenting these mediating mechanisms has lagged (Griffeth & Hom, 2001).

Person-environment fit theory (French, 1974) proposes that when low person-environment (P-E) congruence (e.g., bad LMX) exists, individuals tend to experience changes in their emotional and attitudinal states at work such as job stress and job satisfaction. These emotional and attitudinal states could be antecedents for behavioral consequences such as turnover or turnover intentions. Individuals tend to suffer from lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of job stress (Furnham & Schaeffer, 1984) when this incongruence or misfit (e.g., bad LMX) persists. On the other hand, a better environmental fit (e.g., good LMX) predicts greater job satisfaction and lower job stress (Beatty, 1998; Flaherty, Dahlstrom & Skinner, 1999; Furnham & Schaffer, 1984; Posner, 1985; Siguaw, Brown & Widing, 1994). In the mean time, job stress and lack of job satisfaction are among the most relevant factors that contribute to people's intention to quit their jobs (Moore, 2002). However, there has been no empirical research examining these two factors as mediators on the linkage between LMX and turnover intentions. This study attempts to examine the possible mediation effects of job stress and job satisfaction, thus to render a better understanding of the paradoxes in the existing research. In essence, we argue that employees who have different qualities of LMX experience different levels of job satisfaction and job stress, which are direct antecedents of voluntary turnover intention. In other words, job satisfaction and job stress transfer the effect of LMX onto turnover intention. This is a very important inquiry given that, "if an indirect effect does not receive proper attention, the relation between two variables of interest may not be fully considered" (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000, p. 7).

Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested a set of required tests for mediation. Three essential steps to establish a mediation relation were reviewed and hypotheses were developed accordingly.

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LMX and Turnover Intention

The first condition for mediation is that the independent variable(s) must relate to the dependent variable(s) in the absence of the mediator(s). Thus, LMX should be directly related to their turnover intention. Reviewing past research on the relationship between LMX and turnover intention, LMX has been hypothesized as an important antecedent for turnover intention. Previous research has suggested that a negative linear relation exists between LMX quality and turnover intentions (e.g., Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner, 1993). A meta-analytic finding also indicated that the quality of leader member exchange (LMX) is negatively related to intended turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997) and actual turnover (Griffeth et al, 2000). Poor LMX has similarly been viewed as an undesirable attribute in an employment relationship and has been observed to explain employees' turnover decisions (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Morrow, et al., 2005). As these relations have been established previously, they are not formally hypothesized here, although in the analyses we checked for them as a condition of mediation.

LMX – Job Satisfaction and Job Stress

The second condition for mediation is that the independent variable(s) must be significantly related to the mediator(s), that is, LMX is significantly related to both job satisfaction and job stress. Previous research has shown that job satisfaction is positively related to LMX and that interpersonal relationship is a significant job stressor. These two lines of research are considered separately below.

LMX and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the affective attachment to the job viewed either in its entirety (satisfaction with the job itself) or with regard to a particular aspect (e.g., satisfaction with supervisor) (Tett & Mayer, 1993). Therefore, job satisfaction could be a multi-faceted function of several diverse factors, including satisfaction with pay, supervisor, and coworkers (Trevor, 2001). Meta-analytic research on the effect of job satisfaction on turnover shows that overall satisfaction with the job explains more variance than satisfaction with job facets (Hom & Griffeth, 2005)

Employee job satisfaction derives from individual organizational identification, open and effective communication, and high quality interpersonal relationships between supervisors and employees (Herzberg et al., 1959; Randolph & Johnson, 2005). LMX research has suggested that supervisors and employees share mutual trust, respect and obligation when leaders and followers have good exchanges or effective LMX relationships (Graen, 1976; Graen & Schieman, 1978; Graen et al., 1982a,b), as well as positive support, common bonds, open communication, shared loyalty (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and affection (Liden et al., 1993). Good LMX is seen as a function of the interpersonal relations of the leader and member resulting in work related emotional social exchanges or psychological benefits of favors such as trust, support, consideration, and esteem (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Subordinates with high quality LMX are likely to experience extrinsic rewards of better performance ratings (Graen et al., 1982), and career advancement (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984) as well as intrinsic rewards such as negotiation latitude, autonomy, and challenging tasks (Bhal, et al., 2009). According to the findings of Gardenswartz and Rowe (1998), when employees perceive that they are valued and respected, that the organization's promotional system is open and fair, and that resources are spent on developing

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staff, they often stay and communicate openly about their experiences with other coworkers.. Past LMX researchers have documented many positive outcomes of high quality LMX on subordinates, including higher levels of job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden et al., 1997; Schriesheim et al., 1999).In contrast to these findings, conflict in the work place leads to depression and reduced self-esteem, and conflicts with supervisors especially result in many negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction. (Frone, 2003). Stringer's (2006) study also contends that high-quality LMX and job satisfaction are positively correlated.

Bad LMX as a stressor. Job stress has been conceptualized as an individual's subjective feeling that work demands exceed the individual's capacity (Edwards, 1992). Keenan and Newton (1985) used the Stress Incident Report (SIR), an open-ended method, to collect stressful incidents that occurred at the work place in the prior month with a sample of young engineers. Seventy-four percent of the incidents reported were social in nature.

Levinson (1980, p. 497) contended "leadership is central to the anticipation, alleviation, and amelioration of stress." LMX theory proposes that leaders form unique relationships with each of their subordinates so that high-LMX employees receive higher levels of support (Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001). Acknowledging employees' needs and providing social support may significantly affect their followers' perceptions of stressors. Nelson, Basil and Purdie (1998) have proposed that the quality of leader-member exchange will affect followers' perceptions of stressors at work. They systematically argued that because higher quality exchanges are more likely to be associated with greater resources, attention, autonomy, desirable work assignments, and time and energy from the leader than lower quality exchanges (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Basu, 1991), followers in such exchanges are less likely to perceive work stressors. The authors have also suggested that these factors, many of which represent elements of social support, are more likely to generate a sense of control among followers. "To the extent that leaders provide psychologically secure environments, the infrastructure necessary for accomplishing tasks, and the latitude to make decisions, followers are likely to perceive situations as being governable and nonthreatening" (Nelson, Basil & Purdie, 1998, p.106). Research in leadership has also documented the linkage between high LMX and lower levels of stress (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden et al., 1997; Schriesheim et al., 1999).

On the other hand, bad LMX has been identified as a leading source of stress by numerous researchers (Bolger et al., 1989; Hahn, 2000; Keenan & Newton, 1985; Narayanan, Menon & Spector, 1999). Stress researchers have found that conflict, as a social stressor, is associated with behavioral strains. Chen and Spector (1992) reported a number of behavioral and intentional reactions to interpersonal conflict at work, and the findings included that conflict had a significant positive correlation with sabotage, interpersonal aggression, hostility and complaints, and intention to quit. Edwards (1992) also suggested that low quality of LMX leads to individuals' feelings of loss of control and overwhelming uncertainty. Researchers have identified all feelings of uncertainty, lack of control, and being threatened as potential stressors that result from bad relationships with supervisors (e.g., Edwards; Parker & DeCotis, 1983). The quality of relationships has been shown to be a significant stressor in this research stream. Nelson, Basil and Purdie (1998) suggested that bad LMX could be seen as a failure to provide secure environments and is more likely to result in feelings of isolation, solitude, and lack of control (Nelson, Basil & Purdie, 1998). Bruk- Lee et al. (2006) argued again that conflict is a

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predominant source of social stress in the workplace across occupations (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006). Based on the discussion above, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Quality of LMX is positively associated with job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 2: Quality of LMX is negatively associated with job stress.

The current study aims to provide further evidence on the detrimental impact that bad LMX, as a social stressor, can have on employees' affective states, which further leads to turnover intention.

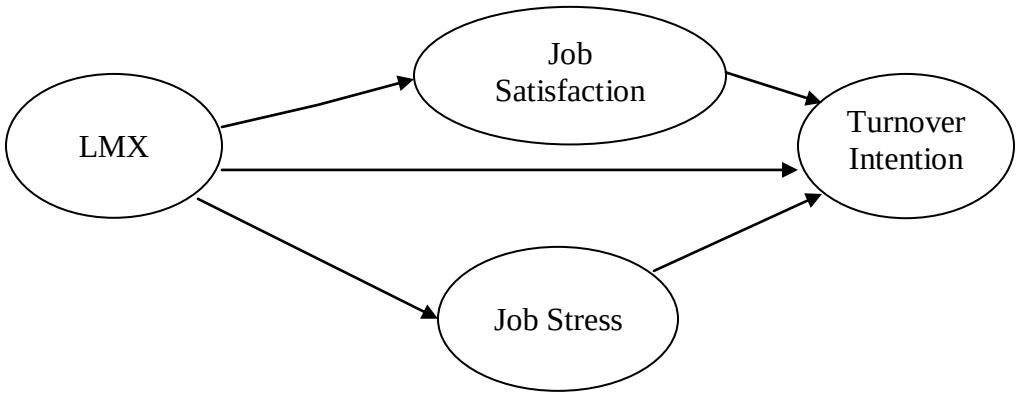
The final condition for mediation is that, when both the independent variable(s) and mediator(s) are included, the direct relation(s) should become significantly smaller, indicating partial mediation, or insignificance, indicating full mediation. In this study, we specifically hypothesize that job stress and job satisfaction partially mediate the relation between LMX and turnover intention.

Based on previous discussion, LMX is a precursor to both job satisfaction and job stress. In addition, LMX is related to job turnover intentions, as are both job satisfaction and job stress. Therefore, Hypotheses 3 and 4 follow:

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction will partially mediate the relation between LMX and turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 4: Job stress will partially mediate the relation between LMX and turnover intentions.

The model below depicts all four of these main hypotheses.

Figure 1 *Hypothesized model of job satisfaction and job stress mediating the linkage from LMX to turnover intentions*



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Methods

Sample

Four manufacturing companies in China participated in this study. All of these firms were Chinese-owned enterprises. There were 568 employees in total from the four organizations that completed the survey. The surveys were anonymous and the questionnaires were returned to the researchers. Completion of the surveys was voluntary. These organizations are in heavy manufacturing industries and light manufacturing industries. Although there were some supervisors and mid-level managers participating in the survey, most participants were lower-level workers in factories. 79% percent of the questionnaires were returned, thus, the bias that might be associated with voluntary participation is not a major concern.

Measures

LMX. For Leader-Member Exchange, Liden and Maslyn (1998) proposed a 12-item multidimensional scale. Since being proposed, Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) empirically validated this scale. We used this scale in the study because previous research indicated that this scale for LMX was culturally meaningful for a Chinese sample (Alpha = 0.79). (Wang et. al, 2005) An example item was 'I like my manager very much as a person."

Stress. Stress in General Scale (SIG; Smith, Sademan, & McCrary, 1992) is used to measure stress level, and it is composed of nine items. This scale simply presents a list of adjectives (e.g., hectic, tense, pressured), and respondents indicate (no or yes) as to whether each term applies to their jobs (Alpha=.87).

Job satisfaction. We used the Smith et al. (1969, 1985) twenty-seven item Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure the three facets of job satisfaction: satisfaction with co-workers, with supervisors, and with work in general. Example items included: "People I work with are intelligent" and "My supervisor praises good work."

Turnover intention. The scale developed by Hanisch and Hulin (1990, 1991) was used to measure turnover intention. Sample items are "How often do you think about QUITTING your job?", "How likely is it that you will QUIT your job in the NEXT SEVERAL MONTHS?" and "All things considered, how desirable is it for you to QUIT your job?" (reverse coded). The scale is composed of six items (Alpha= 0.70).

All measures (except job stress) used a 5-point scale, with 1 presenting extremely disagree (or unlikely, depending on specific questions) and 5 presenting extremely agree (or likely, depending on specific questions).

Control variable. Past meta-analytic assessments by Griffeth et al (2000) indicate that company tenure (p=-0.20) is negatively related to turnover. Other previous studies have indicated that individual differences such as age, organizational tenure, marriage status (Cotton & Turtle, 1986) can account for significant variance in turnover. Therefore, we used the following demographic variables as controls in this study: age, company tenure and marital status.

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In addition, perception of alternative job opportunities was used as a control variable. Numerous scholars (i.e., Dreher & Dougherty, 1980; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 2002; Martin, 1979; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979) suggest that perceived alternative job opportunities positively predict turnover intentions. Perceived alternative job opportunities were measured by rating "I have a great deal of opportunities available for me". This scale was used and validated by previous research (i.e., Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 2002).

Translation. All translators (outside of research team) were native Chinese speakers who were fluent in English. The entire questionnaire, including the items, the introduction, and instructions, was double translated, first into Chinese and then back into English. The back translation process (Brislin, 1980) minimizes the systematic error due to the translation mechanism, and thus further ensures construct validity of the measures.

Analyses

Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, we tested the data and confirmed normal distribution, although the bootstrapping method for mediation analysis does not require normal distribution of data (Preacher & Hays, 2008). The potential problem of common method variance might be present when both independent and dependent variable measures come from the same source (Campbell & Fiske 1959). Consistent with recent research (e.g. McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990), this study used Harman's Single Factor procedure to address the issue of common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003).An unrotated principal components factor analysis identified four factors with eigenvalues greater than one, explaining 69% of the total variance. Only the turnover intentions loaded on the first factor, which accounted for 36% of the variance. Thus, the threat of a single factor accounting for a majority of the variance in the data has been dealt with cautiously.

Indirect effects are generally very important in the sense that mediator variables are to explain the relation between a predictor and a criterion; mediators should explain why such an effect might occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In its simplest form, mediation analysis attempts to answer questions of how or by what means an independent variable exerts its effect on a dependent variable. However, it is rarely the case that effects can be attributed completely to a single intervening variable. Effects are usually transmitted from cause to outcome via multiple pathways and examining multiple mediators has the potential to improve scientific practice in a number of ways (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

First, simultaneously including multiple mediators "purifies" indirect effects by controlling for all the other mediators. Second, investigating several indirect effects simultaneously, rather than in a series of single-mediator models, reduces the *alpha* inflation that inevitably accompanies multiple hypothesis tests. The omitted variable problem may lead to biased parameter estimates if multiple mediation hypotheses are tested with a set of simple mediator models (Judd & Kenny, 1981). Therefore, in this study we adopted the multiple-mediation approach to test two theoretically relevant mediators: job satisfaction and job stress.

This paper uses the bootstrapping/resampling method to test the multiple mediation hypotheses. Several approaches have been suggested for assessing total and specific indirect effects in multiple mediator models, among which the bootstrapping method has been argued as a superior approach, especially for testing multiple mediations. As Preacher & Hays (2006) are advocating, the primary advantage of bootstrapping is that no assumptions about the shape of the

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sampling distribution of the indirect effect or its constituent paths are made. All bootstrapping requires is a justifiable belief that the distributions of the measured variables in the sample closely approximate the population distributions. Moreover, MacKinnon et al. (2004) compared bootstrapping to the traditional product of coefficients approach in a large-scale simulation study and found that bootstrapping provided more accurate Type I error rates and greater power for detecting indirect effects than the product of coefficients strategy and other competing methods. This study used the "superior" method of bootstrapping for mediation analysis as suggested by Preacher & Hays (2006).

Results

Hypotheses 1 and 2 are both supported (Table 2). Quality of LMX is positively associated with job satisfaction (p<.01), Higher quality LMX leads to higher job satisfaction; lower quality LMX leads to lower job satisfaction. Quality of LMX is negatively associated with job stress (p<.01). Low quality LMX leads to higher job stress. And higher quality LMX leads to lower job stress.

Table 1: *Intercorrelations among variables*

Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Turnover intention	(0.700)			
2. LMX	-.201(**)	(0.792)		
3. Job satisfaction	-.417 (**)	.545(**)	(0.700)	
4. Job stress	.136 (**)	-.161(**)	-.318(**)	(0.87)
5. Alt. job opportunities	.2300 (*)	.1210	-.1421	-.126

N = 548. Reliabilities are in parentheses.
* p <0.05, ** p <0.01

The direct effects are the influences of one variable on another that are not mediated by any other variable, while indirect effects are those that are mediated by at least one other variable. The total effects are the sum of the direct and indirect effects. The difference between the total and direct effects is the total indirect effect through the mediators. The indirect and total effects can help to answer important questions that are not addressed by examining the direct effects (Bollen, 1989 p.376). The bootstrap estimates presented here are based on 5,000 bootstrap samples. Table 3 presents the indirect, direct, and total effects of each construct. As can be seen in the appendix, the total and direct effects of LMX on turnover intention are -0.1767 where p<0.00, and .0258 where p<.5743, respectively. The difference between the total and direct effect is the total indirect effect through the two mediators, with a point estimate (see Table 2) of .1074 and a 95% BC bootstrap CI of -.2548 to-.1561, upon which we can claim that the direct relation between LMX and turnover intention became insignificant. The interpretation of these results is that, taken as a set, job satisfaction and job stress mediate the effect of LMX on turnover intention. An examination of the specific indirect effects indicates that only job satisfaction is a mediator, as its 90 percent CI does not contain zero. We can conclude that job stress fails to act as a mediator on the linkage from LMX to turnover intention. Job stress does not contribute to the indirect effect above and beyond job satisfaction. That is, job satisfaction fully mediates the relation between LMX and turnover intention. Therefore, leader-member

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exchange affects employees' turnover intentions through its effects on employee's job satisfaction. The model that identifies the result is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: *Confirmed model with job satisfaction fully mediating the linkage from LMX to turnover intention*

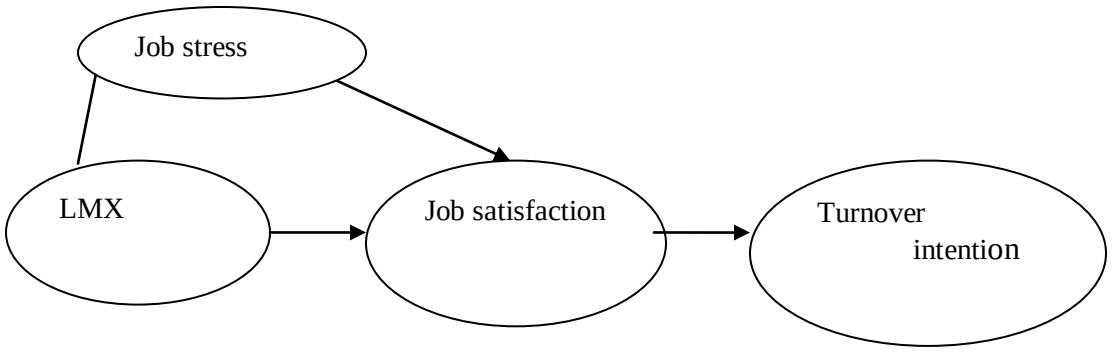

Table 2: *Results of testing different paths*

LMX to Mediators

	Coeff	se	t	p
stress	-.7141	.2193	-3.2560	.0012
jdiall	.5924	.0416	14.2253	.0000

Direct Effects of Mediators on DV

	Coeff	se	t	p
stress	.0110	.0080	1.3806	.1680
jdiall	-.3285	.0420	-7.8286	.0000

Total Effect of IV on DV

	Coeff	se	t	p
LMX	-.1767	.0417	-4.2355	.0000

Direct Effect of IV on DV

	Coeff	se	t	p
LMX	.0258	.0459	.5621	.5743

Partial Effect of Control Variables on DV

	Coeff	se	t	p
age	-.0198	.0228	-.8678	.3859
tenure	-.0174	.0045	-3.8749	.0001
marital	-.0135	.0644	-.2101	.8336
Alternativejob opportunity	-.0200	.0721	-.1231	.0600

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Fit Statistics for DV Model

R-sq	Adj R-sq	F	df1	df2	p
.2287	.2202	26.7398	6.0000	541.0000	.0000

Table 3*: Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals for the Total and Specific Indirect Effects*

	Percentile 90 % CI		BC 95 % CI	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Stress	-.0197	.0025	-.0213	.0010
Jdiall	-.2492	-.1467	-.2482	-.1465
Total	-.2545	-.1556	-.2548	-.1561

Note: BC=biased corrected; 5000 bootstrap samples.

Table 4: *Bootstrap results for indirect effects.*

Indirect Effects of IV on DV through Proposed Mediators (ab paths)

	Data	Boot	Bias	SE
TOTAL	-.2025	-.2033	-.0009	.0301
Stress	-.0079	-.0076	.0002	.0067
JobSat.	-.1946	-.1957	-.0011	.0309
C1	.1868	.1881	.0013	.0331

According to Preacher and Hays (2008), interpretation of the mediation analysis using the bootstrapping method does not focus at all on the statistical significance of the job satisfaction and job stress paths, as is required using the causal steps method. “Instead, emphasis is placed almost entirely on the direction and size of the effects. Because interpretation is based on substantially fewer inferential tests, in theory, decision errors are less likely; that is, power is enhanced and the probability of encountering a Type I error is reduced” (Preacher & Hays, 2006).

Discussion

Theoretical implications

This paper is concerned with whether LMX predicts turnover intentions in a Chinese context, if so, through what dynamic this relation is established. Job satisfaction and job stress are hypothesized to act as mediators to transfer LMX to turnover intentions. The bootstrapping analysis results revealed interesting results which include that job satisfaction fully mediates the linkage (even after controlling for perceived alternative job opportunities), and job stress fails to act as a mediator on the path from LMX to turnover intention. The current study provides several theoretical and practical implications.

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Theoretically, this study addressed a need for researchers to evaluate competing theories about what intervening variables are better able to explain the process of LMX predicting turnover intention. It sheds light on underlying reasons for the relation between LMX and turnover intention by extending current research to further examine both job satisfaction and job stress and their mediating effects on the linkage. If an indirect effect does not receive proper attention, the linkage between two variables of interest may not be fully considered (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). Given the fact that prior research mainly examined the direct effect of LMX on turnover intentions, the current study can serve as a next step toward gaining a better understanding of how LMX can be related to intentions of turnover of subordinates, by incorporating potentially important mediating variables into the overall leadership process.

Another significant contribution of this study is that it introduces an innovative method of detecting mediation paths into management literature. Several approaches have been suggested for assessing indirect effects in multiple mediator models: the causal steps criteria (Barron & Kenny, 1986; Judd & Kenny, 1981), elaborations of the product of coefficients strategy (Sobel, 1982) and resampling methods. Causal steps and product of coefficients strategy have received many criticisms (Preacher & Hays, 2008). The criticisms include the following. First of all, they do not directly address the central question of mediation. They do not consider the estimate of the indirect effect, nor is there a standard error for this effect that permits direct investigation of statistical significance (Preacher & Hays, 2008). Instead, the conclusion of mediation must be drawn by jointly considering the results from disparate analyses, none of which directly addresses the hypothesis of interest. Secondly, the causal steps approach often is not powerful enough (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Besides the arguments that bootstrapping methods overcome these limitations of the traditional methods, bootstrapping does not make assumptions about sampling distributions, such as normality. MacKinnon et al. (2004) empirically compared bootstrapping to the traditional product of coefficients approach in a large-scale simulation study and found that bootstrapping provided more accurate Type I error rates and greater power than the product of coefficients strategy and other competing methods. This paper has some methodological contribution by serving as a good example executing bootstrapping as a "superior" (Peacher & Hays, 2006) approach to mediation analysis.

Practical implications

The current research has implications for management. First, it draws managers' attention to the influences of LMX as sources of turnover intentions either directly or indirectly via job satisfaction. This recognition of job satisfaction as a mediator would presumably enhance managers' ability to develop the appropriate strategies to combat the influences of bad LMX on turnover intentions. An interesting implication could be that, besides focusing on enhancing LMX, all precursors of higher job satisfaction should receive more attention in order to reduce turnover intention. For instance, research indicates that employee job satisfaction results from individual organizational identification, feelings of being individually challenged, and experiencing open and effective communication (Herzberg et al., 1959; Randolph & Johnson, 2005).

This study is set in a Chinese context, where exchange relationships between employees and supervisors tend to be more emphasized due to the heightened importance of social relationships in Chinese culture. In addition, to the best of my knowledge, there has not been any study conducted in China addressing the linkage between LMX and turnover intention. It is well

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worth investigating, particularly because both foreign and local Chinese companies are concerned about the turnover of well-qualified employees (Chiu, et al 2003). Investigation in a Chinese context might also be important because different patterns of relationships might be observed due to Chinese relational culture and employees' relationship-oriented mindset (Hwang, 1987).

Limitations and future research

Overall, the contributions of this research should be viewed in light of several limitations. First, the data for this study were gathered at one point of time, and circular causality is possible; therefore, no inferences of causality can be conclusively established, nor can we discount the possibility of reverse causality.

This study was conducted with a Chinese sample; it is cross-cultural in nature because all the established scales were developed in the US and in the English language. The equivalence of the psychological meaning of the items of the questionnaires, and hence the comparability of the constructs in the different cultural samples has been the biggest methodological concern in cross-cultural research (Little 1997). This is a legitimate and relevant concern for the study. One way to ensure equivalence of meanings of the questions developed in the Western societies and those in Chinese is to conduct Simultaneous Facto Analysis in Several Populations (SIFASP) (Joreskog & Sorborn, 1993). SIFASP is the procedure to test the assumption that factor loadings are equivalent across different samples, and then additionally to test that the slopes in the regression of indicators on their latent factors are equivalent across samples by fitting progressively constrained models to multi-sample data (Robert, et al, 2000). This procedure was not conducted because of the lack of a sample from the West. Future study can validate and confirm these results with samples from a variety of sources.

Wasti (2003) has suggested that satisfaction with relations at the workplace does not predict commitment for employees with individualistic values, whereas for individuals who endorse collectivist values, good relationships with supervisors are an important determinant of organizational attachment and an impediment to quitting. This is an intriguing cultural perspective as it implies that in contrast to the North American literature, which has typically treated side-bets as consisting of material or monetary investment in the organization (Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990), there may be culture-specific side-bets that are considered to be more important obstacles to quitting (Wasti, 2003).

As suggested by some researchers (e.g., Liden, et al., 1997), searching for moderators could further clarify the problem. Although this study made a significant contribution by clarifying the inconsistency of findings on the relation between LMX and turnover intention by discovering a full mediation path (job satisfaction), future research can further examine relevant and theory-based moderators.

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EXPLORING LEADERSHIP PROFILES FROM COLLABORATIVE COMPUTER GAMING

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The purpose of this study is to examine if leadership styles can emerge in teams playing a strategic game in a computer gaming environment. The research questions are: 1) What leadership styles would emerge (if any) during the gaming session, and 2) What leadership styles (if any) could be exercised through playing the strategic computer game? In order to get a better understanding of what leadership styles would emerge during the gaming session, researchers observed students' interactions while they played a strategic computer game. The goal of this observation was to determine how many students (if any) would assume leadership roles. In the study, a group of Stanford University graduate students participated in the gaming session. The participants' task was to manage an estate company in small teams. There were three teams with three members on each team; teams competed against each other. Students developed goals, discussed problems, and tracked progress in order to win the game. Results showed that various leadership styles emerged during the gaming session. The leadership styles that emerged are described in the paper. In conclusion, the gaming environment served as a tool to exercise shared leadership.

The nature and quality of leadership is becoming more and more important in private and public organizations and in other activities in society. Leadership is an important social phenomenon that is mostly studied by researchers in management, the political sciences, and economics (Avolio, 2005; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hermalin, 1998; Rotemberg & Saloner, 1993; Stegeman & Komai, 2004). These studies provide a rich theoretical framework for understanding the qualitatively different approaches to leadership. Contrastingly, not many studies have been conducted about the leadership phenomenon in education. The need to conduct more detailed studies of leadership-in-practice has long been recognized in both leadership studies and educational research (Bryman, 1996; Gronn & Ribbins, 1996), yet few studies have examined how to train leaders. Most studies regarding leadership training focus on transactional behaviors because they are easier to learn (Russell & Kuhnert, 1992). However, there is little research

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about opportunities and methods for training leadership skills. Leadership skills are extremely difficult, if not impossible, to teach by using traditional pedagogical methods such as lecturing. Furthermore, global organizations are expanding and work conditions are changing rapidly; thus, the methods of teaching leadership should change as well. Leadership in distributed and virtual organizations and in ad hoc expert teams (Engeström, Engeström, & Vähäaho, 1999) is creating new challenges for this training. New methods of teaching should focus on exercising and enhancing leadership skills in various formally organized and more spontaneous work conditions.

One solution for developing leadership styles could be to provide students with practical experience in leadership through playing strategic computer games in small teams. The aim of this study is to explore what kinds of leadership emerge spontaneously in teams playing a complex strategic computer game. This research study examines the learning of leadership skills in simulated environments. From an educational point of view, it is important to know how clearly visible emerging leadership styles are, how the spontaneously created styles reflect scholarly defined leadership styles, and how participants react to qualitatively different leadership styles.

Definition of Leadership and Leadership Styles

Despite the fact that numerous researchers and theorists have described the leadership phenomenon, there has been no consistent definition of leadership. Some definitions of leadership claim that it is a process of intentional influence by one person over others, as described by Yukl (1998): "to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization" (p. 3). Because leadership is defined as an influencing process, it can also be exercised sideways, diagonally, and down-up throughout an organizational hierarchy (Hunt, 2004). Leadership is typically associated with more mystical, charismatic qualities such as the ability to influence, arouse, inspire, and transform (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Goleman, 2000). Furthermore, leadership is frequently theorized as the exercise of power, the setting of goals and objectives, the managing of cultures, and the mobilization of others to get work done (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003a; Gemmill & Oakley, 1992). In addition, leadership has been defined in terms of individual personality traits, leaders' behaviors, responses to leaders' behaviors, interpersonal exchange relationships, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, task goals, organizational cultures, and the nature of work processes (Mello, 2003; Rost, 1991; Yukl, 1989). This study focused on four main leadership styles that have been discussed in recent research studies. The definitions and categories are as follows:

Transactional Leadership

This leadership style is characterized by the clear specification of what followers are expected to do (Bryman, 1996) and is based on a relationship of rational exchange between leader and subordinate (Bass, 1985; Howell & Costley, 2001). The leader articulates what behaviors are required and what will be rewarded and provides feedback to the subordinates about their behaviors. The subordinate, in turn, complies with these behavior requirements if rewards are desired (Yun, Cox, Sims, & Salam, 2007). Transactional leadership, in short, can be defined as a cost-benefit exchange between leaders and followers that occurs for the purpose of

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exchanging valued things. It is comprised of three dimensions: contingent rewards, active management by exception, and passive management by exception.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders utilize behaviors such as charisma and intellectual stimulation to induce performance of subordinates beyond expectations (Yun et al., 2007). Bass (2000) stated that transformational leaders "move followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of their group, organization or community, country or society as a whole" (p. 21). The transformational leader leads by inspiring and stimulating followers and by creating highly motivating visions (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). In summary, transformational leadership focuses on the relationship between leaders and followers that has an enduring moral purpose is grounded on the fundamental wants, needs, aspirations, and values of followers. Transformational leadership is comprised of the following dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, charismatic and intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

Heroic Leadership

Eicher (2006) stated that the heroic leader is characterized by the following: feels that her leadership is based on superior knowledge and information (omnipotence); fears failure more than anything (rightness); keeps up appearances at any cost including blaming others (face-saving); and views subordinates as inferior creatures in constant need of assistance and rescue (codependency). Two sub-classes can be distinguished within heroic leadership: autocratic and coercive leadership styles, which have many similarities. The autocratic leader sequesters a high degree of control without much freedom or participation of members in group decisions. The autocratic leader determines all policies, techniques, and activity steps and dictates the particular work tasks and work companions of each member. Furthermore, the autocratic leader tends to be personal in her praise and criticism of the work of each member, but remains aloof from active group participation (Choi, 2007). On the other hand, a coercive leader demands immediate compliance and drive to achieve, initiative, and maintain self-control (Goleman, 2000).

Post-Heroic Leadership

Bradford & Cohen (1998) and Eicher (2006) stated that post-heroic leadership takes place when the leader wants others to take responsibility and gain knowledge (empowerment), encourages innovation and participation even in ambiguous situations (risk-taking), seeks input and aims for consensus in decision-making (participation), and wants others to grow and learn even at the expense of becoming dispensable herself (development). Post-heroic leadership has thus become a concept used to describe a new conceptualization of leadership that refutes the top-down focus on the leader typical of most leadership literature and discourse (Fletcher, 2004). This leadership style is well-suited to complex, changing, and inter-dependent environments. In summary, post-heroic leadership emphasizes shared responsibility and mutual influence. The two sub-classes in post-heroic leadership, democratic and shared leadership, are used in this study.

Democratic leadership. In democratic leadership style, group participation, discussion, and group decisions are encouraged by the leader. Democratic leaders build consensus through

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participation, and they share leadership to some degree with their team members. By giving team members a voice in decisions, democratic leaders build organizational flexibility and responsibility and help generate fresh ideas. By listening to team members' opinions, the democratic leader learns what decision to make. In addition, because team members have a say in setting their goals and the standards for evaluating success, they tend to be very realistic about what can and cannot be accomplished (Goleman, 2000).

Shared leadership. Shared leadership occurs when all members of a team are fully engaged in the leadership of the team and are not hesitant to influence and guide their fellow team members in an effort to maximize the potential of the team as a whole (Pearce, 2004). It could be defined as an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members. Specifically, it is a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups where leadership is broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralized in the hands of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior (Pearce & Conger, 2003). In summary, shared leadership is a distributed phenomenon in which there can be several (formally appointed and/or emergent) leaders (Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006).

Leadership Learning and Simulation Gaming

Leadership development is a process in which capacities are built in anticipation of unforeseen challenges and complex skills are acquired. It is difficult to develop leadership skills using traditional pedagogical methods (e.g., lectures) because there is no precise definition of leadership and knowledge of leadership theories is not sufficient. In addition, leadership is a complex and ill-defined practice in which varying situational issues play an important role. Thus, mere knowledge about principles of leadership and some prototypical models with which to apply these principles do not lead to successful leadership practices in varying situations.

Complex learning environments such as simulations and computer games may help acquire ill-defined skills (Sterman, 2001; Zack, 1998; Burgess, 1995). Simulations and computer games present an enormous amount of complex operations where a leader of a team is needed to make the final decision in order to lead the team to victory. These environments can engage participants in complex thinking about learning topics which can lead to better comprehension of the topics at hand and the development of useful learning skills (Jonassen, 2000). In addition, computer games, with many complex decisions to make, connect the players to everyday life experiences (Barab, Hay, & Duffy, 2000; Goldman et al., 1996). Such concrete experiences are the heart of the experiential learning approach in which knowledge is constructed, not transmitted, as a result of experiencing and interacting with the environment (Kebritchi & Hirumi, 2008). Participants explore, experiment, construct, converse, and reflect on what they are doing, and so in that way learn from their experiences (Jonassen, Peck, & Wilson, 1999). Furthermore, in this gaming environment, participants collaborate in small teams in order to win the game, and group work helps them to share and develop alternative viewpoints. Thus, learning in this environment is not the lonely act of an individual but a matter of being initiated into the practices of a community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In summary, a technology-based environment aims to promote dialogue and reflexivity among group members (Lainema & Nurmi, 2006).

The popularity of computer games for education and training came about in the 1970s and 1980s. Nowadays, many studies are examining the potential for game application to learning

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(e.g., Gredler 2003; Prensky 2001; Rieber 1996). For example, computer games are hypothesized to provide multiple benefits, such as:

- Motivation for learning (Amory, Naicker, Vincent, & Adams, 1999; Gander, 2002; Ricci, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996);
- Complex approaches to learning processes and outcomes (McFarlane, Sparrowhawk, & Heald, 2002; Sterman, 2001; Zack, 1998);
- Active-learning techniques (Oblinger, 2004).

However, in spite of a growing body of literature highlighting the educational potential of computer games, the empirical evidence to support this assumption is still limited and contradictory, particularly regarding the effectiveness of games for concrete educational purposes (Mitchell & Savill-Smith, 2000; Vogel et al., 2006). In addition, recent scientific literature is very limited regarding the training effectiveness of gaming technology in training and education for adults in both civilian and military sectors (Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004). Therefore, it is essential to examine the outcomes of using simulation games for learning. In particular, it is worth studying whether games could provide a fruitful way to exercise practical skills needed in the workplace such as leadership skills.

It is widely agreed upon by leadership scholars that leadership can be taught (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Some examples of using simulation games to develop leadership skills can be found in the military sector (O'Neil & Fisher, 2004). The military sector also uses simulation-based games in flight and combat training (O'Neil & Andrews, 2000). One example is the leadership simulation that uses computer game technology to train U.S. Special Forces soldiers in skills like adaptive thinking, negotiation, conflict resolution, and leadership (Hunsaker, 2007). In addition, simulations have been used for examining leadership behavior and performance (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2009) and comparisons of leadership types (e.g., individual, dyadic, group) (Dionne & Dionne, 2008), but little research indicates the development and exercise of leadership skills through simulations or computer games. More research has been conducted with regard to teaching strategic management through business games (Barlas & Diker, 2000; Knotts & Keys, 1997; Lainema & Hilmola, 2005; Lainema & Nurmi, 2006; Wolfe, 1997). However, it has to be noted that there are several key differences between management and leadership. The main difference is that leadership roles refer to those that come with and without formal authority, whereas management development focuses on performance in formal managerial roles (Day, 1999). Thus, training in developing leadership and management skills has to be distinguished.

Large-scale leadership simulations were used in the 1990s for training leaders in corporations like *Looking Glass, Inc.* (simulates a glass manufacturing company), *Globalcorp* (diversified international conglomerate), and *Metrobank* (simulates a diverse array of business activities). A more recent example of a computer simulation for developing leadership skills is *Virtual Leader* (Aldrich, 2004). *Virtual Leader* simulates a business meeting and requires the players to perform a number of social interaction tasks (e.g., introduce ideas) with other computer-generated characters in order to be an effective leader. Unfortunately, there is limited evidence as to the training effectiveness of the aforementioned simulation games for adult learning. There is a need for research on the application of simulation games in leadership training. According to Hunsaker (2007), there are several ways that simulations can facilitate the development of effective leadership behavior. One of them involves participants learning from

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peer feedback during the decision-making process as they perform the functions of decision-makers and leaders. Furthermore, learning to lead involves dealing with complexity, taking risks, and collaborating with others to bring a myriad of talents to bear on critical issues (Dentico, 1999).

Methods

The research questions of the study are: 1) What leadership styles would emerge (if any) during the strategic computer gaming session, and 2) What leadership styles (if any) could be exercised by playing the strategic computer game?

Participants

Nine randomly selected participants took part in the study (two females and seven males). They were Stanford University graduate students from different academic backgrounds, such as engineering and humanities. The participants in the teams did not know each other. There were three teams with three participants on each team. On one team, there were only male students, and two other teams each had one female student. Participants did not consider themselves experienced users of computer games. They considered their level of experience with strategic computer gaming as basic, and none of them had played the game used for the study before. The study was their first time participating in such a gaming session. During the experiment, participants worked together in teams because only in teams could leaders be distinguished. They were not told the purpose of the study. Their goal was to win the game, but no leadership roles or tasks were assigned to them. The three teams competed against each other for one hour. Final scores of the game determined which team won. Due to the game's limited time, the participants became focused during the gaming session and were thoroughly engaged and immersed in the game. The time pressure increased the speed of their decision-making. The gaming session took place at Stanford University, California, USA in the autumn semester of 2007.

Description of the Game and Setting

In the study, a commercial, strategic computer game called "Build-a-lot" was used, where players were real estate moguls whose task was to take over the housing market and to build, upgrade, sell and buy houses for huge profits. The purpose of the competition was to win the game; the team with the most profits and the highest achieved level won the game. The objective of the game was to get the net value to the highest possible number by building, upgrading, and selling properties. If the players managed to get every operation correct, they passed their current level in the game and advanced to the next level. If a team failed a level in the game, they had to repeat that level from the beginning. During the game, players received instructions from the fictional mayor of the city in which they were building houses. To construct a property, players must have the blueprint, a certain number of workers, and enough materials. The players' task was to move from one town to another to improve them and achieve all the goals in a given period of time. They were asked to build different kinds of houses and buildings, earn a specific rental income, or earn cash. To achieve these goals, players had to choose exactly what they had to build and demolish, which requires certain calculations. Players could build the following

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kinds of houses: Rambler, Colonial, Tudor, Estate, Mansion, or Castle. They could also build a number of public buildings, such as a Post office, Library, Workshop, Bank, or Sawmill.

The main advantage of this game was the fact that it made players think and calculate items (for example, taxes that they should pay) in order to win. The game provided the participants with the possibility to face real-life work related problems and develop ways to solve them. It enhanced teams' interactions as they had to communicate in order to make the right decisions. The game session was an intensive, competition based environment where time pressure was involved, and the participants had to make well-timed decisions in order to manage their estate company in the game. The computer game presented an enormous amount of complex operations which a team leader needed to address the final decision in order to lead the team to victory. The speed of the game was fast, and only quick decision-making could lead the teams to win the game. This gaming environment was interactive, and participants interacted by solving the given tasks in the game. Therefore, strategy and appropriate leadership techniques were needed in order to be successful. Furthermore, the training was competition-based and thus required implementation of leadership skills as well.

The room setting could be described as having tables laid out to form one big square table in the middle of the room. Teams 1 and 2 sat opposite to each other while Team 3 sat in front of the window, with Team 1 on its left side and Team 2 on its right side. No team could see the other teams' computer screens. Every team had one notebook computer to use along with a computer mouse. Researchers who observed the teams introduced the game to participants at the beginning and told them that they could look for help and instructions in the "Tutorial" section of the game but could not ask the observing researchers any questions. Team members could ask questions of other teams.

Observations

With the purpose of understanding which leadership profiles could be distinguished during collaborative computer gaming, three researchers observed students' interactions when they were playing the strategic computer game. The aim of the researchers was to observe students' behavior and take detailed notes of all student dialogue and actions. They observed students' interactions while playing the game (how they collaborated, how they made decisions, etc.); each researcher had one team to observe. The researchers had no prior knowledge of the leadership styles' characteristics, and they did not look for specific leadership style profiles in students' behaviors during the observation. The participants were not assigned any leadership roles, and the researchers observed their "freestyle" gaming. The goal of the observation was to determine if students would take on leadership roles during the gaming session. The observation method has been conducted in several leadership styles studies, such as Mouly and Sankaran (1999), Scribner, Cockrell, Cockrell, and Valentine (1999), and Youngs and King (2002). Observation is part of ethnographic research and leads to a description of people, events, and/or cultures; it is a holistic approach concerning the observation of "everyday" events and the description and construction of meaning, rather than reproduction of events (Robson, 1993). It is an objective method as it does not rely on participants' opinions, which is a limitation of interviews and questionnaires.

After the game session, a literature review was conducted related to the leadership concepts and leadership styles' characteristics. For the purpose of data analysis, detailed codes were developed that described each leadership style's characteristics. Based on the literature

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review, the following leadership style categories were distinguished: transactional, heroic (autocratic, coercive), transformational, and post-heroic (shared, democratic) leadership. These categories of leadership styles (each had subcategories referring to the given leadership style's characteristics) were used to analyze the transcripts of notes. All notes made during the observation were transcribed verbatim. After reading through the transcripts of notes, the transcripts were coded in terms of the four leadership styles: transactional, transformational, heroic, and post-heroic leadership. The first author of the study completed the coding first, and afterward an additional person was asked to review the codes. For the data analysis of the transcribed notes, content analysis was used (Insch, Moore, & Murphy, 1997). Such analyses of written text were used in a few leadership studies—for example, in Shamir, Arthur, and House (1994), Den Hartog and Verburg (1997), Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003b). The leadership styles categorization is presented in Table 1.

Results

Various leadership styles emerged in teams during the gaming session. The following section describes each team's leadership style.

Team 1

Team 1's leadership styles could be described as a transformational leadership style and also as a traditional, heroic leadership style. The leader of this team tried to inspire his team members and was concerned about his team members' opinions. He did not give specific orders to his team members but instead he asked for their preferred operations in the game.
The leader possessed "superior" knowledge, and all wisdom was concentrated in him. He knew what actions to take during the game, although he had not played that game before.
The dialog below is an example of participant B, the leader's perceived omnipotence:

Participant A: "Do we need to train (workers)?"
Participant B: *"Yes, but it is too expensive."* (He is upgrading houses.)
Participant A: "How about (if) we build this one?"
Participant B: *"Maybe not... we have to make more money."*

Participant B knew what to do in this situation, and he determined his teammates' opinions to be less valuable at this point. He possessed the skills of assertiveness, advocacy, and domination, which are significant elements of the heroic leadership style. Even though participant A's opinions were turned down by the teams' leader, he agreed with the leader without insisting on his opinions and without trying to persuade the others that he was right. This could suggest that participant B was respected for his knowledge and decision-making style. The following dialog could suggest that as well:

Participant A: "We should get more workers."
Participant B: "But we need lots of cash. *Do you think workers are a good investment?"*
Participant C: "Ya!" (Participant A nods.)
Participant A to Participant B: "*Thank you.* You keep earning money."

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Table 1
Leadership Styles Categorization

1. Transactional leadership style	1. Transformational leadership style
• cost-benefit exchange between leaders and their followers • contingent rewards • active management by exception	• inspiring and stimulating followers • idealized influence • inspirational motivation • intellectual stimulation • individual consideration
2. Heroic leadership style	**2. Post-heroic leadership style**
• omnipotence • rightness • face-saving • codependency	• empowerment of members • risk taking • participation • development of members
A). Autocratic leadership	**A). Shared leadership**
• high degree of control • leader determines all policies, activity steps and work tasks – gives orders • no active group participation, leader mostly makes decisions alone	• mutual influence - dispersed leadership role • members participate in the decision-making process • members fulfill tasks traditionally reserved for a hierarchical leader • members offer guidance to others to achieve group goals
B). Coercive leadership	**B). Democratic leadership**
• leader demands immediate compliance to his orders • leader dictates each step taken • drive to achieve, initiative, self-control	• leader encourages group decisions participation and discussion • leader builds consensus through participation • leader shares leadership to some degree with members • leader builds organizational flexibility

In the dialog, one team member expressed appreciation for the leader's decisions. Team members were content that their leader made effective decisions. This team's leadership style could be described as democratic also. During the competition, participant B, who controlled the mouse, read aloud game instructions and tried to generalize the guidelines for the team. There were several times when two other team members brought up questions, and he answered them quickly. Although he controlled the mouse during the whole process, he often asked his team members' opinions before implementing ideas. Group participation and discussion was

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encouraged by him. He possessed the role of leader during the whole gaming session, and he was accepted by his team members as an official leader of the team. The leader was transformational in his behavior, and he valued his team members' opinions. Below is an example:

> Participant B: *"Do you want a workshop?"* Then, he explains, "the strategy of this level is to build a house and get cash, and you need to build a library"
> Participant C: "We need more training."
> Participant B: "Oh, mail! That's good." (He opens the mail; team members look at the screen.)
> Participant B: *"How do you feel about an upgrade?"*

From this team observation, it could be noted that participant B asked for his teammates' opinions because he wanted to encourage his teammates to share their ideas and actively involve them in the gaming session. Thus, the leadership style present in this team could be interpreted as shared leadership. The leader shared leadership to some degree with team members; he asked them what they think should be done next and waited for their agreement to proceed further. Team members participated in making some of the decisions, such as what to do next, but they depended on their leader to make the final decision. In this team, participant B was often asking team members for opinions (although not all of their ideas were adopted and implemented) that helped him to lead the team to win the game. In conclusion, effective leaders favor participation but also know when they need to be directive or make decisions on their own.

Overall, there was no conflict in this team during the gaming session. Everyone seemed to be content with the decisions participant B made, and the atmosphere of the team was harmonious. The leadership techniques used by the leader brought success to the team, and this team won the game; they had the highest score and passed the highest level in the game at the end of the gaming session.

Team 2

Team 2's leadership style could be described as an autocratic leadership style. The disagreements in this team came from the fact that one participant wanted to dominate and was pushing other team members to realize his ideas. It could be noted from observations of this team that he was behaving like an autocratic leader. He issued orders, and he expected them to be followed without questions. He wanted to determine all activity tasks and steps. A high degree of control is the main characteristic of the autocratic leadership style.

The example of participant D's autocratic leadership style can be noted in the dialog below:

> (The team ordered materials and had a new task in the game to perform.)
> Participant E: "What should we do?"
> Participant D: *"We buy houses later, buy one Tudor, we can sell it later."*
> Participant F: "Colonial first." (He meant Colonial buildings.)
> Participant D: "No, definitively don't do it, buy Tudor. Better to build the Tudor. *Listen to me!*" (Participant F was against that.)
> Participant D: *"Sell a Tudor and buy this one of a higher price, listen to me!*"

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Participant D was focused on winning the game and concentrated on operations that needed to be done in the game rather than on his team members' opinions.

In addition, a coercive leadership style could be noted from his behaviors as he demanded immediate compliance. When participant D was behaving like a demanding leader and gave orders to team members, they did not appreciate it and they were willing to collaborate with each other more but not with participant D. He wanted to dominate most of the time during the gaming session, but he was not accepted by the other team members as an official leader of this team. On the contrary, a shared leadership style could be noticed in the observation of this team also. There were highlights of mutual influence between the team members. In particular, the female participant was asking two other members' opinions and encouraged them to exchange ideas. She had the computer mouse in her hand during the game's competition, and she was trying to discuss with others all ideas she was about to implement. The two other participants were expressing their opinions to her, and she was implementing what she had been told to do. In general, all team members tried their best to win the game, and ideas were coming from every team member. They always tried to help each other by expressing opinions and comments.

The following is a note from the observations showing highlights of shared leadership style and mutual influence in this team.

Participant D: "Let's hire a worker."
Participant F: "We don't have enough money."
Participant E: "We have to repair (house) first." Then she added: "Which one?"
Participant F: "We don't have enough materials."
Participant D: "How much do we need?"
(Participant E answered how much they need and she ordered some materials)

Based on the results of the study, the mix of leadership styles implemented in this team did not lead the team to be successful or to achieve high performance. Team 2's game score and the achieved level in the game was second (after Team 1); perhaps this was due to one participant's autocratic and coercive leadership style, which was not effectively implemented within the team. In addition, team members were not content with participant D's dominant influence.

Team 3

In Team 3, no clear leadership style could be distinguished during the gaming session, and nobody in this team wanted to have or took on leadership responsibility. It can be noted from this team observation that there was an absence of leadership. Leadership involves influence, and without influence leadership does not exist. No member of this team had a personality with which to influence others. This team's game score was the lowest, meaning they lost the game competition.

The note from the observation below is an example of Team 3's lack of strategy:

(Team members were given a new task to perform after they passed task 1, and they were reading the instructions for the next task.)

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Participant H: "We have to build it. How many do we have to build? 75? We're out of materials. So what's next? Do we have additional instructions? Or just make more money?"
Participant G: "We keep making money."
Participant H: "Our strategy is to make money, right?"

In this team, no one wanted to be responsible and everyone was making suggestions. Furthermore, nobody's opinion was respected or considered to be important. This team usually made a decision based on a situation rather than a person. This team's way of playing the game lacked a clearly distinguished leadership style; however, highlights of collaboration and shared leadership could be noted in the team's conversations. Below is a note from the observations showing highlights of shared leadership style, mutual influence, and collaboration in this team:

Participants H: "We don't have money."
Participant G: "Do you want to sell it?" (He used his finger to point to the monitor.)
Participants H: "This is the only one we can sell. We need land."
Participant G: "Buy the house."
Participants H: "Upgrade. We've no money."
Participant G: "We have to buy the house. Raise income…"

During the game, participants G and H were making suggestions about what to do next and exchanged their opinions frequently; participant I was silent, but he still contributed to the team. He did not actively exchange ideas, but rather reminded his teammates of important information by pointing it out on the computer screen.

At the beginning of the game session, one of the participants automatically took over the computer mouse and controlled it until the game session ended. Although he was "in charge of the mouse," he did not make decisions on his own; he asked teammates for their opinions before taking action. Once during the game he asked his teammates if any of them wanted to try to control the mouse, but none of them took over the mouse from him. He tried to organize the structure of the team also, suggesting that each of them should be in charge of one job. However, other team members did not consider that to be necessary. This might indicate that the team members were satisfied with the current situation and simply viewed the division of roles as not important.

This team's behavior could be described as passive/avoidant behavior. They did not respond to situations and problems systematically. Such "passive leaders" avoid specifying agreements, clarifying expectations, and providing goals and standards to be achieved by followers. This style has a negative effect on desired outcomes and has negative impacts on followers. Passive leadership often occurs when there is an absence or avoidance of leadership. Decisions are delayed and no attempt is made to motivate followers or to recognize and satisfy their needs. Therefore, the lack of a leadership role in this team probably caused them to lose the game and have the lowest score.

Discussion

The main concern of this study was whether clearly visible leadership styles would emerge in teams playing a strategic computer game. The results of the study showed that while

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playing the game, various kinds of interactions emerged in all teams and all team members were engaged in the gaming session. However, there were substantial differences between teams.

In Team 1, transformational, heroic, shared, and democratic leadership styles were distinguished. Based on the effectiveness of Team 1, it could be noted that the best leaders do not just use one style of leadership—they are skilled at several and have the flexibility to switch between styles as circumstances dictate (Goleman, 2000). In Team 1, the role of the heroic leader was implemented with shared and democratic leadership styles that made a positive impact on the team's performance. This gaming experience may have taught team members which leadership style would be effective to use in the future when placed in a similar situation.

On the contrary, in Team 2, shared leadership combined with autocratic and coercive leadership styles did not bring effective results. The demanding attitude of Team 2's leader towards other team members had a negative influence on team effectiveness. He wanted to direct and control all decisions without any meaningful participation by the other team members, which they did not appreciate. The gaming experience may have taught the other team members that this leadership style would not be effective to use in the future when they are placed in a similar situation. Although highlights of shared leadership could be noticed in Team 2, it did not help them to win the game.

In Team 3, there was no clearly distinguished leadership style; this team had the lowest score in the game. In general, team members want to have their leaders direct, inform, or give feedback. Thus, when the team has no leader, the team's potential is hindered and there is no organization, but rather chaos. Team members in Team 3 demonstrated a failure to take responsibility for managing and decision-making, and no one in this team provided direction or support. This "non-leadership" style could be compared to "laissez-faire," a principle which emphasizes independence. In this leadership style, team members are left alone to do their work with little direction or supervision. The conclusion from these results is that leadership is needed for successful team performance.

The second question considered in this study was which leadership style spontaneously emerged in all teams during the game session? And thus, what leadership style could be exercised by using this kind of non-guided computer gaming based team process? As a result of the study, shared leadership styles emerged in all teams during the game session; therefore, it could be stated that playing a computer game in small teams without any predefined leadership roles could provide the tools to develop shared leadership. Shared leadership is a complex process and is frequently used in organizational expert teams. More organizations increasingly embrace groups and teams as basic building blocks of their business operations and strategy executions (Cohen & Bailey, 1997); thus, leadership training techniques should shift their focus from individual to group-level leadership trainings.

Furthermore, few studies have shown that shared leadership is a stronger predictor of team performance than vertical leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002; Pearce, Yoo, & Alavi, 2004; Ensley, Hmielski, & Pearce, 2006). Research indicates that poor-performing teams tend to be dominated by the team leader, while high-performing teams display more dispersed leadership patterns, or shared leadership (Pearce, 2004). These findings support the notion that shared leadership may result in greater effectiveness than the emergence of a single internal team leader, making it crucial to train shared leadership in order for the teams to be more effective and efficient. Moreover, the heroic leadership style is hardly used alone in today's organizations. One leader is not enough to manage all situations in complex environments. It is becoming more difficult for any one person to be an expert in all aspects of the work that needs to be done and

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possess all information necessary to solve problems. One approach to exercise shared leadership could be to play a strategic computer game in small teams. Participants could be trained to be better leaders through computer gaming and computer gaming sessions could help them to develop strategies on how to be more successful.

In summary, classes based on organizing game sessions with strategic computer games have two advantages. First, students may experience how the competition and time pressure situations influence their behavior. Second, they see which team wins the game, attempt to interpret the game results, and come to conclusions as to why their team performance was not effective if their team lost. This gaming experience may teach students how to behave better in certain situations. After the gaming session, participants will learn which type of leadership style works well and how to behave when placed in a similar situation. Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that playing a strategic computer game in teams of three could provide tools to apply different leadership styles and could be used for practicing shared leadership.

However, two limitations of the study's implementation should be mentioned. First, the length of the computer game session was short; and second, a small number of players participated in the gaming session. Therefore, it would be fruitful to organize leadership training sessions in which more participants will take part and the gaming sessions will last longer. For future areas of inquiry, it would be interesting to organize an explicit leadership training session with a strategic computer game. Researchers might arrange a game session in which chosen participants are assigned the role of the leaders and are given the task to manage their teams. In this way, it would be possible to evaluate the game environment as a tool for leadership training. It would also be beneficial for the game participants to conduct interviews with them after the training and evaluate the leadership styles they experienced. This kind of debriefing could help participants to articulate what they have learned for the purpose of knowledge building (Jonassen et al., 1999).

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A DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH TO GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

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Global leadership development has received increased attention in recent years from practitioners and researchers. Drawing from global mindset, constructive development, and intercultural sensitivity literatures, this article proposes a model for developing global leaders. While developmental activities are challenging for most individuals, it is proposed that training domestic leaders to develop psychological capital will facilitate their growth into global leaders.

Leadership is extremely important for organizational success in this globalized economy. The majority of leaders deal with the reality of the global economy every day. Despite this fact, most leaders have not been trained, educated, and prepared to deal with the complexity of this environment (Black & Mendenhall, 2007). Also, very little research has looked into what it takes to develop a "global leader" (Smith & Peterson, 2002).

The literature on global leadership provides many articles that state traits, characteristics, and attitudes of successful global leaders; but few attempt to lay a foundation on how to actually develop individuals into global leaders (Hall, Zhu, & Yan, 2001). The lack of research in this area is apparent and it mirrors the void of organizations, as 85% of Fortune 500 executives believe that their organization lacks capable global leaders (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998; Morrison, 2000). With the increasingly global environment, leaders are exposed to many complex challenges and what we know about leadership theory and development may no longer be effective in this global context (Robinson & Harvey, 2008). Sloan, Hazucha, and Van Katwyk (2003) asserted that global leadership development should be part of the strategic plan of any organization that wants to flourish in the global market.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a model for global leadership development. The model indicates that there are three steps necessary for a leader to become a global leader. Leaders need to develop a global mindset, develop a self-authored identity, and develop an adaptation worldview. Given that these are challenging developmental activities, it is also proposed that individuals develop psychological capital to facilitate their global leadership

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development process. Thus, psychological capital was added as a moderating variable in the model, which means that individuals who have hope, efficacy, resiliency, and optimism will be more likely develop a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and cultural sensitivity. Figure 1 depicts a summary of the model proposed in this paper.

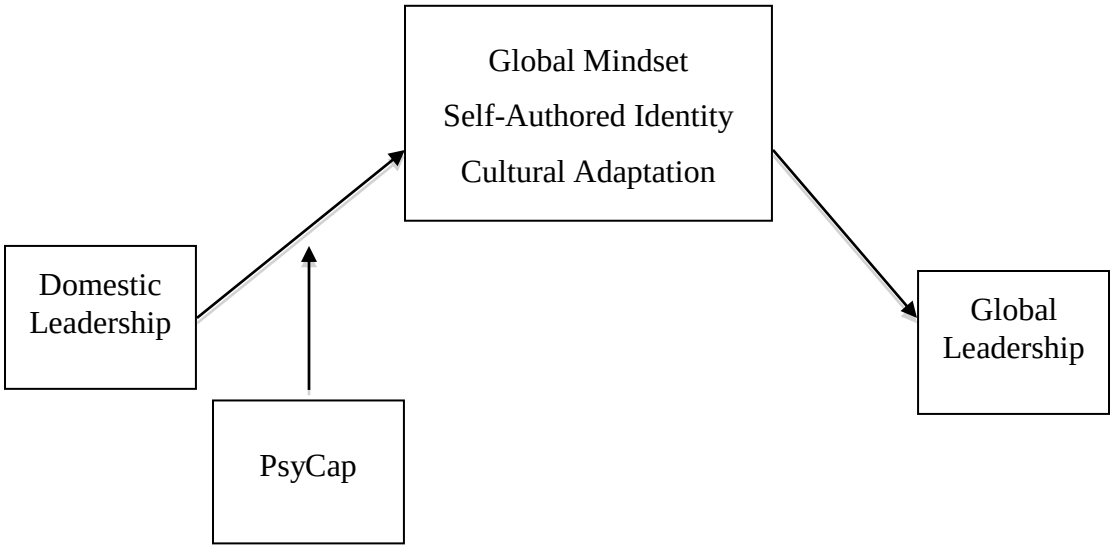

Figure 1. A Developmental Model for Global Leaders.

This paper is organized into five sections. The first reports a brief review of the literature on global leadership. The second explores the role of a global mindset in developing global leaders. The third explores the role of constructive development theory, specifically self-authored identity, and how that contributes to the development of a global leader. The fourth examines the role of intercultural sensitivity, specifically an adaptation worldview, in the development of a global leader. The fifth investigates the role of psychological capital in the process of global leadership development.

Global Leadership

Global leadership has been defined as "being capable of operating effectively in a global environment while being respectful of cultural diversity" (Harris, Moran, & Moran, 2004, p. 25). While setting a single definition of global leadership is key in order to study it, the phenomenon it is still hard to understand. The global leadership literature draws from many different fields that don't seem to communicate efficiently. In a review of the literature, Hollenbeck (2001) argued that there are six perspectives scholars have taken when studying global leadership: viewing global leaders as working across cultural and national boundaries; viewing global leadership as cross-cultural leadership; viewing global leadership as expatriate leadership; examining the traits, motivators, attitudes, skills, and personal background to build a profile of what an ideal global leader would look like; arguing that leadership literature doesn't differentiate between global and domestic leaders; and finally, looking at adult learning literatures.

These theoretical and construct problems contribute to the global leadership development gap, which continues to become a constraint on growth and effectiveness in organizations

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(Zahra, 1998). According to Sloan et al. (2003), there is a shortage of globally developed talent. Graen and Hui (1999) argued that there are many difficulties in developing global leaders; however, it is a necessary endeavor if organizations are to succeed in this global environment. Beyond the difficulties already listed, McCall (2001) stated that "developing global perspective is a decidedly unnatural act. You have to be forced" (p. 304). McCall added it should be part of the organization's business strategy. Many argue that global mindset development is related to the development of a global leader (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999).

Global Mindset

Global mindset is one of these terms that many scholars and practitioners in management can, for the most part, understand, define, and talk about. In global leadership literature, global mindset has been used to describe many things from skills, attitudes, competencies, behaviors, strategies, and practices (Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007). One thing that scholars seem to agree on is that having a global mindset is necessary to be an effective leader in the global environment (Levy et al., 2007).

The seminal work on global mindset is the work of Perlmutter (1969), which made the distinction between three orientations managers have used while managing a multinational corporation: ethnocentric (home country orientation), polycentric (host country orientation), and geocentric (world orientation). His work on geocentrism became the foundation of the construct of global mindset.

While Perlmutter (1969) looked at global mindset at the organizational level, Rhinesmith (1992) described global mindset at the individual level. He defined a global mindset as an individual's state of being that allows him or her to look at the world with a broad perspective, analyzing its trends and opportunities. Kefalas (1998) proposed a framework of global mindset that included two variables, conceptualization and contextualization. Conceptualization describes a person who has a global view of the world. Contextualization describes a person's capacity to adapt to the local environment. A person's high score in both dimensions was considered as *most global* and a person's low score on both dimensions was considered as *least global.* Arora, Jaju, Kefalas, and Perenich (2004) tested Kefalas' (1998) framework in the textile industry and concluded that two different skills seem to be the most relevant for developing a global mindset: intercultural sensitivity and global business knowledge.

Kedia and Mukherji (1999) stated that managers, in order to become global, need to change their paradigm and mindset to think globally, which is more complex. Murtha, Lenway, and Bagozzi (1998) operationalized global mindset in terms of managers' cognitive process of international strategy and organization.

Gupta and Govindarajan (2002) proposed a conceptual framework of global mindset that has been described individually and organizationally. They defined global mindset as a combination of an awareness and openness to cultures and markets and the ability to make sense of its complexities. Their framework included two variables, integration and differentiation. Integration was described as the ability to integrate diversity across cultures and markets. Differentiation was described as openness to diversity across cultures and markets. Gupta and Govindarajan proposed that scores high in integration and differentiation mean that an organization or a person has a global mindset.

Bouquet (2005) reported that there are three overarching behaviors related to a global mindset. One is the capacity to process and analyze global business information. The second is

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the capacity to develop relationships with key stakeholders around the world. The third is the capacity to use globally relevant information while making decisions for the organization. Beechler and Javidan (2007) proposed that global mindset is a combination of an individual's knowledge and cognitive and psychological characteristics that make him/her able to influence diverse stakeholders. Levy, Taylor, Boyacigiller, and Beechler (2007) defined global mindset "as a highly complex cognitive structure characterized by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across this multiplicity" (p. 27). This is the operational definition used in this article.

It is apparent that global mindset development should be a key central focus for global leadership development. International experience (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; Hall et al., 2001), international management development, and cross-cultural training programs (Stahl, 2001) play a role in the development of global mindset. However, Black et al. (1999) argued that international assignment by itself may not lead to global mindset development. Boyacigiller, Beechler, Taylor, and Levy (2004) stated that expatriate assignments must be carefully managed, with tasks or assignments that build on the difficulty of the job to impact the global mindset. They also proposed that international business trips at the beginning of managers' career could potentially help them develop a global mindset. Trigger events also contribute to the development of a global mindset (Clapp-Smith, Luthans, & Avolio, 2007).

Cultivating curiosity has also been proposed for the development of global mindset (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). Estienne (1997) proposed that cross-cultural trainings have not achieved the desirable results because of the lack of focus on an individual's mindset. According to Estienne, cultivating a global mindset is much more relevant and challenging than a simple set of skills as it has to do with how individuals make sense of the world. Estienne (1997) proposed that development should focus on changing from a domestic to a global mindset, working through a model of cross-cultural reconciliation (understanding similarity and difference) and emphasizing strong relational skills. Without these, cross-cultural training will continue to disappoint (Estienne). Clapp-Smith and Hughes (2007) set out to investigate how global mindset is developed by using a grounded theory approach. They reported that boundary testing, cognitive shifts, curiosity, relationship building, organizational mindset, language skills, personal history, and authenticity have been proposed to be determinants of a global mindset.

Proposition 1: Global mindset will mediate the relationship between domestic leadership and global leadership.

Constructive Development

Based on constructive theory, Kegan (1982) argued that the method by which individuals understand reality develops over time. Kegan proposed that the development of an individual occurs in 5 measurable qualitative shifts in perceptions, or "orders of consciousness." Each order of consciousness is subject to specific rules, which direct how a person makes meaning; however, the person is unaware of this system. At the moment individuals become aware of their meaning-making system, they become able to think critically about it, which leads them to shift to another stage. These shifts occur because of life experiences, crises, or other precipitated events (Kegan). A development does not occur because an individual becomes more knowledgeable, but because he or she makes sense of the world differently (Kegan). According

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to Kegan, these stages of development are sequential and hierarchical, with each stage being more complex than the one before and representing a qualitative change in understanding.

Kegan's (1982) first two stages are related to infancy and childhood; as such, they are not applicable to global leadership development and will be only described briefly. The first stage (Impulsive) is associated with meaning making based on immediate impulses (Kegan). The second stage (Instrumental) is characterized by the sense of self-concept and a private world. This occurs between the ages of 5 and 7 as a child becomes aware of others and their needs but has no sense of being responsible for others' needs (Kegan). Their own needs become the way they make meaning of the world. While this occurs at a young age, many people do not advance through the next stage (Taylor & Marienau, 1997).

The third stage (Socialized) is characterized by the shift from individuals being narcissistic to being able to demonstrate empathy (Kegan, 1982). Thus, in this stage, individuals become able to understand another's point of view, even when it might be different from their own. Individuals at this stage are capable of mutuality and reciprocal social obligation, but are incapable of having an identity that is not rooted in others. Furthermore, they value others intrinsically (for the connection they represent) instead of extrinsically (what can that person do for their need—2nd stage) (Taylor & Marienau, 1997). Individuals at this stage need societal approval as they operate on the basis of values, ideals, and beliefs with which they were raised (e.g., school, religion, and political party) (Kegan). Thus, individuals justify their behaviors in order to please a person, a group, or an institution. Since people that achieve this order of consciousness may function successfully in our society, some do not develop further, encompassing the majority of adults in the United States (Taylor & Marienau).

The fourth stage (Self-Authorizing) is characterized by the emergence of a true self-authored identity. Thus, individuals at this stage define who they are and have internal rules that they utilize to make decisions. They regulate their roles and relationships. Their self becomes a system of personal standards and values that create consistency across many situations (Kegan, 1982). Individuals at this stage are able to make highly complex decisions. These decisions are not necessarily rooted within institutional values, but within their own created value system. Only 20-30% of the population ever reaches this stage (Eriksen, 2006).

The fifth stage (Self-Transformation) is characterized by an individual's awareness of his or her own self-system. This causes individuals to find themselves no longer synonymous with their ideological self-system. Thus, individuals at this stage realize that there are limits to their own inner meaning-making system and also identify the limits of having a system. They see the world as full of limitations and in various shades of gray. They are capable of recognizing not just the existence but also the validity of multiple perspectives (Kegan, 1982). Individuals that reach this stage may encounter some alienation, as people from other stages are not capable of understanding what their belief system is.

Lewis and Jacobs (1992) along with Jaques and Clement (1991) argued that the complexity of the leadership position has implications for who should hold these positions. Leaders in complex positions such as global leaders need to have the capacity to generate an independent perspective on the strategic environment, especially a global environment. This independence seems to be possible only at the fourth stage where individuals construe their own value system, which helps them make decisions. Lewis and Jacobs also proposed that selection methodologies should seek to match the employee's constructive capacity to the complexity of the job, while leadership development programs should focus on stretching individuals beyond their constructive capacity with the help of a mentor, who can assist in the transition to a new

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way of viewing the world. McCauley, Drath, Palus, O'Connor, and Baker (2006) stated that individuals who operate under the 4th stage or have a self-authored identity are more likely be more effective leaders in modern organizations because they are more accountable, use appropriate influence tactics, embrace change, and are more comfortable with complexity.

Thus, individuals who make decisions based on their own created value system will be most likely capable of effectively taking the role of a global leader. Accordingly, organizations should either select individuals that have self-authored identities, or should select activities that are appropriately matched to the developmental level of the individuals. Many developmental activities can be proposed; however, the Subject-Object Interview should be used to track an individual's order of consciousness (Lahey, Souvaine, Kegan, Goodman, & Felix, 1988). Based on the results of this interview, individuals can have targeted developmental activities for their continuous development. For example, creating situations that are ambiguous and challenging have been proposed to make individuals shift from one stage to the other (Kegan, 1982). Promoting them to jobs that are highly complex may also provide development; however, individuals that are not ready (2nd stage) could act immorally and without thinking about consequences because their meaning making system is rooted within their own needs. This leads to the following proposition:

> Proposition 2: A self-authored identity (as defined by Kegan) will mediate the relationship between domestic leadership and global leadership.

Intercultural Sensitivity

Within the globalized economy, increased attention has been placed on cross-cultural studies of leadership (studies that compare two or more cultures), especially with the boost of multinational organizations (see Bass, 1990 for a review). Furthermore, the emergence of supranational corporations as a response to the globalization efforts has posed a big challenge to the prevalent culture and governance practices of nations (Bhasa, 2004). Many reviews have been conducted looking at the literature of cross-cultural leadership (Bass; House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997; Peterson & Hunt, 1997; Smith & Peterson, 2002; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, & GLOBE Associates, 2004), demonstrating how important this research segment is for organizational studies. Groundbreaking research has been also been conducted primarily with the GLOBE project (House et al.). However, most of that research focused on middle management characteristics, cultural characteristics, and leadership styles. Studies have found that cultural characteristics impact leadership in organizations, but it is relatively unexplored how global leaders acquire the capacity to lead in extremely diverse environments (Oddou, Mendenhall, & Ritchie, 2000). While cross-cultural skills are necessary for a global leader to be effective, global leaders need to have a stronger understanding of how multiple differing cultures can impact global business decisions and relations (Adler, 2001; Estienne, 1997). For instance, a global leader living in Brazil has to negotiate with executives in South Africa and Japan. This global leader needs to be culturally sensitive in order to be successful. However, if that leader only receives culture-specific trainings, he or she is more likely to miss nuances of each culture, which can lead to many problems (Estienne, 1997).

Bennett (1993) proposed a model that describes the development of intercultural sensitivity ranging from ethnocentric to ethnorelative experience of cultural differences. According to Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003), intercultural sensitivity refers to the

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ability to distinguish and experience relevant cultural differences. Hammer et al. stated that the greater the intercultural sensitivity, the greater the potential for exercising intercultural competence. Intercultural competence was described as the ability to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways, which is the ability to act appropriately in a variety of cultural settings. This means that individuals who are interculturally competent not only understand cross-cultural differences, but also cultural nuances that are often hard to pick out. These skills seem particularly central for global leaders. Bennett's model is developmental in nature, which means that training opportunities for global leaders can be developed.

Bennett's (1993) model was created to explain how people interpret cultural differences. Bennett identified six stages that people move through in their acquisition of intercultural competence. Bennett's model is similar to Kegan's (1982) model, as it also adopts a constructivist approach wherein experience is a function of how one makes meaning of events. In other words, the extent to which culture differences will be experienced is a function of how complexity can be construed. Each stage in this worldview structure generates new and more complicated issues to be resolved in intercultural encounters. The model describes three stages that are conceptualized as ethnocentric (one's own culture is experienced as central to reality), and three stages that are conceptualized as ethnorelative (one's own culture is experienced in the context of others).

The first stage (Denial) is characterized by individuals experiencing their own culture as the only authentic one. Thus, there is denial that cultural differences even exist. When individuals in the denial phase experience culture differences, they associate this with a categorization such as "foreign" or "immigrant" (Hammer et al., 2003). People with a denial worldview are not interested in different cultures, and if exposed they may act in a hostile way to eliminate the differences (Bennett, 1993). Thus, leaders at this stage could be very effective in leading a group from a homogeneous cultural background, but when exposed to another cultural group they cannot make sense of the cultural differences and will try everything to "fix the problem."

The second stage (Defense) is characterized by individuals experiencing their own culture as the only realistic one. Thus, while they do not deny that differences exist, individuals at this stage are more threatened by differences than individuals in the denial condition. In this stage, the world is organized in to "us" versus "them," where one culture is perceived to be better than another (Bennett, 1993). A variation form of defense is *reversal*, where an adopted culture is experienced as superior to the culture that one grew up in (e.g., Peace Corps Syndrome). Thus, reversal still holds a defense worldview by maintaining the divergence between "us" and "them." However, it does not hold the other culture as a threat (unlike the defense worldview) (Bennett). Thus, leaders at this stage feel threatened by individuals from a different cultural background and possibly will alienate those individuals or that particular group. At this stage, discrimination is more likely to occur and there is potential for behaviors that are very culturally inappropriate.

The third stage (Minimization) is characterized by individuals experiencing their own culture as universal. Thus, the threat associated with denial and defense is neutralized by projecting these differences into familiar categories. Cultural differences may be subordinated by the idea that people have the same needs. This similarity may also be experienced as assuming that there is a cross-cultural applicability of certain concepts (i.e., business norms, where good business should be good business everywhere) (Bennett, 1993). Thus, leaders at this stage will most likely treat individuals the same, despite their cultural differences (treat individuals as you would like to be treated). However, this form of treatment is based on the leader's own cultural

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biases, which may cause problems in forming and sustaining relationships. These first three stages are comprised of the ethnocentric views.

The fourth stage (Acceptance) is characterized by individuals that experience their own culture as just one of many. People with this worldview are capable of experiencing others as different from themselves. Thus, individuals are not experts in one or more cultures; rather, they are skilled at identifying how cultural differences operate in a wide range of human interaction. It is important to point out that acceptance does not mean agreement as some cultural differences may be judged negatively (Bennett, 1993). For example, a culturally sensitive person could believe that female circumcision is cruel and should not be done, despite the fact that it is culturally based. Thus, leaders at this stage can understand behaviors of others and make meaning of why conflict may be happening with individuals of different cultural groups. While working abroad, leaders can identify cultural patterns that make them understand the experience as a whole.

The fifth stage (Adaptation) is characterized by individuals that experience another culture and from this experience are able to behave in appropriate ways in that culture. People at this stage can engage in empathy and they are able to express their alternative cultural experience with culturally appropriate feelings and behaviors. If this process becomes habitual, it can become the basis of biculturality or multiculturality (Bennett, 1993). Thus, leaders with this worldview can become easily adaptable and can be respectful and sensitive of the culture of the host country and can lead diverse groups effectively.

The sixth stage (Integration) is characterized by individuals that experience their selves as expanded to include the movement in and out of worldviews. Individuals at this stage are dealing with issues related to their own "cultural marginality," as they construe their identity at the margins of two or more cultures and central to none. Bennett (1993) proposed that there are two forms of this marginality: encapsulated marginality, where the separation from culture is experienced as alienation, and constructive marginality, where movements in and out of cultures are necessary and positive parts of one's identity. Thus, leaders at this stage may have become confused about their own cultural identity because they can assimilate and understand many cultures. It is important to point out that integration is not necessarily better than adaptation in situations demanding intercultural competence, it just describes different characteristics (Hammer et al., 2003). These last three stages are comprised of the ethnorelative views.

Leaders that are required to work in this globalized world are effective only if they are capable of understanding cultural differences and behave in ways that are appropriate in each experienced culture. An effective global leader must be culturally aware and adaptable. This means that they need to be grounded in how different cultures operate and accomplish organizational objectives (Fulkerson, 1999).

This means that when developing global leaders, it is necessary for individuals to develop an adaptation worldview, or that individuals with an adaptation worldview should be developed into global leaders. This can be done by first using the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Hammer et al., 2003), which measures what a person's worldview is with regards to their intercultural sensitivity. For example, if an individual is at denial/defense stage, there are many more challenges this person will need to overcome and many issues will need to be resolved before they are close to achieving an ethnorelative view of the world. On the other hand, if an individual has an acceptance worldview, it is less challenging to move to a cultural adaptation worldview. Thus, human resources could use the Intercultural Development Inventory as a tool with which to train and develop individuals to become effective global leaders (Lokkesmoe, 2008) by first

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recognizing how they view the world in terms of cultural differences and then designing individual programs that will help them shift from one stage to another.
This leads to the following proposition:

> Proposition 3: A culture adaptation worldview will mediate the relationship between domestic leadership and global leadership.

Psychological Capital

Drawing from positive psychology, positive organizational behavior (POB) emerged to apply positive oriented strengths and psychological capacities in the workplace. These strengths and capacities can be measured and developed (Luthans, 2002). Four distinct variables have been proposed to represent these strengths and capacities: hope, efficacy, resiliency, and optimism.

Snyder et al. (1991) defined hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-oriented energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (p. 287). According to this definition, hope has three major conceptual foundations: agency, pathways, and goals. Snyder, Sympson, Michael, and Cheavens (2000) have demonstrated the development of hope across multiple studies.

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) defined self-efficacy as the "individual's conviction about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context." This definition was based on the extensive research on efficacy by Bandura (1997). Bandura argued task mastery, vicarious learning or modeling, social persuasion, and psychological or physiological arousal could develop efficacy.

Resiliency is defined as the ability of an individual to bounce back from hardship, failure, and setback (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Seligman (1998) described an optimistic person as one who makes internal, stable, and global attributions regarding positive events, but attributes external, unstable, and specific reasons for negative events.

PsyCap as a Core Construct

Taken together these four variables describe Psychological Capital (PsyCap) as a distinct higher-order construct. All PsyCap variables meet the criteria for inclusion in POB by including variables that are "state-like" (malleable and open to development) as opposed to "trait-like" (relatively stable and difficult to change), because the variables are based on positive capacities, are theoretical, and have a valid measurement (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Thus, Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007) defined PsyCap as:

> An individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering towards goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset any problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success. (p. 3)

As a higher order construct, there is an underlying theme between the variables that represent a positive assessment of situations and the resources available along with the prosperity one can

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achieve based on personal effort, perseverance, and striving to achieve excellence (Luthans et al.).

PsyCap has been proposed to increase competitive advantage and performance (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Li (2005) reported PsyCap to be correlated with performance in an international environment. Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs (2006) developed and demonstrated a psychological capital intervention to increase PsyCap in the participants. Luthans et al. (2007) reported a significant relationship between PsyCap with performance and satisfaction. Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey (2008) reported employee's PsyCap sharing a positive relationship with performance, satisfaction, and commitment. Furthermore, they reported that PsyCap mediated the relationship between supportive climate and performance. Youssef and Luthans (2007) reported that PsyCap was related to performance, satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment. Clapp-Smith, Luthans, and Avolio (2007) argued that PsyCap mediates the relationship between cognitive capacity and cultural intelligence in the development of a global mindset. In accordance, it is argued that PsyCap will aid the development of an effective global leader, as individuals will have hope, efficacy, resiliency, and optimism when faced with challenging developmental characteristics such as development of a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and a cultural adaptation worldview. Furthermore, as the other variables proposed in the model, PsyCap is open to training and development (Luthans et al., 2006).

Proposition 4: Psychological Capital will moderate the relationship between domestic leadership and global mindset, self-authored identity, and cultural adaptation worldviews.

Discussion

In this paper, a developmental model for global leaders was articulated. This model includes global mindset, constructive development, intercultural sensitivity, and psychological capital theories. Research behind the model was drawn from many fields, including global leadership, expatriate leadership, cross-cultural leadership, adult learning, developmental models, and positive organizational behavior theory.

While much of the literature on development of global leaders emphasizes that global leaders have some traits such as openness (Hall et al., 2001), cultural awareness (Adler, 1997), and cognitive capacity (Dalton, 1998), they do not offer theoretical developmental strategies that can be measured and researched. The aim of this paper is to argue for further development of a potential global leader. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to clarify technical skills that global leaders need to do their job, it is argued that without development of a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and cultural adaptation worldview, individuals will not be developed into global leaders. Many organizations are setting up individuals for failure by not paying attention to the developmental strategies listed above.

One important contribution of this paper is the ability to actually apply existing measures to the development of global leaders. Thus, we can measure the current stages in intercultural sensitivity and constructive development theory that potential global leaders are currently at and target training, trips, and other relevant programs to meet these individuals' developmental needs. For example, individuals that already have an ethnorelative worldview will not benefit from training that emphasizes differences between cultures. However, they may benefit more by going abroad for an assignment and starting to prepare for the necessary job roles. On the other hand, if an individual is in denial of cultural differences, the in-house training may be

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appropriate. If individuals in the denial stage go abroad, they may be unsuccessful and could be unable to cope with the complexity of the environment. This may lead them to become frustrated and act in a way that could hinder various stakeholders. Furthermore, we can measure leaders' global mindset and PsyCap. Few instruments have been published that measure global mindset (Levy et al., 2007), and more research is needed to establish a strong validity and reliability. A PsyCap instrument that measures the four constructs of PsyCap has been validated for the workplace and has been shown to be reliable (Luthans et al., 2007).

Another important contribution of this paper is examining the effect of Psychological Capital on global leadership development. It was proposed that an individual who has hope, efficacy, resiliency, and optimism will take advantage of developmental activities and will be more successful in their development journey. Furthermore, global leaders that have high PsyCap will be more successful than global leaders that have a low PsyCap. Thus, PsyCap trainings should be in place for individuals that are striving to be global leaders or are global leaders.

Finally, this paper makes a potent contribution by extending the literature on global leadership using developmental theories. The global leadership field should move away from trait-like research to a more developmental approach (Hollenbeck, 2001). This paper argues that for some individuals the development may take a lifetime, for others not so long. Some of the developmental activities for the three proposed key constructs for global leadership development may overlap. For example, someone who has a global mindset will most likely have or be close to having a cultural adaptation worldview. The same is true that an individual who has a cultural adaptation worldview, will most likely also have a self-authored identity. Thus, while developing developmental activities, it is important to take the connections between the variables into consideration to make sure the programs are truly individualized and effective. Organizations should invest time and money in the proper training and development of global leaders. Future research should test the propositions argued in this manuscript. If effective global leaders have a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and a cultural adaptation worldview and domestic leaders do not, we can assert that the developmental model proposed in this paper should be used as a guide for developing effective global leaders.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE, ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, AND OUTCOME VARIABLES: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

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The purpose of this study was to test a model of relations among emotional intelligence (EI), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), organizational justice perceptions, and work-related attitudinal outcomes. The model postulated that EI is related positively to LMX. The LMX was postulated as positive predictor of both distributive and procedural justice. Organizational justice was posited as a positive predictor of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but a negative predictor of turnover intentions. A total of 106 participants voluntarily participated in the study. Hypothesized relationships were examined using Partial Least Squares (PLS) Structural Equation Modeling. As predicted, EI was a positive predictor of LMX. LMX was a positive predictor of both distributive and procedural justice. Distributive justice was a positive predictor of job satisfaction and a negative predictor of turnover intentions. Finally, procedural justice was a positive predictor of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment and was a negative predictor of turnover intentions.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were first to utilize the term "emotional intelligence" to represent the ability to deal with emotions. They drew on relevant evidence from previous intelligence and emotion research and presented the first comprehensive model of EI. Later, Mayer and Salovey refined their 1990's model as reflected in number of their publications (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). They conceived EI as an ability to process the information contained in emotions to determine the meaning of emotions and their connections to one another; and to use emotional information as the basis for thought and decision making.

Since the conceptualization of the EI concept by Salovey and Mayer (1990), a considerable amount of theoretical and empirical research has been done regarding its conceptualization, antecedents, and consequences (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Carmeli, 2003; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). However, despite this plethora of research, the EI literature still lacks considerable empirical support regarding links between EI and certain other variables, such as Leader-Member Exchange relationships (LMX) and organizational justice.

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The basis of LMX is that "dyadic relationships and work roles are developed and negotiated over time through a series of exchanges...between leader and member'' (Bauer & Green, 1996, p. 1539). Although in the literature considerable attention has been paid to its conceptualization, antecedents, and consequences, there is still little evidence of personal or interpersonal attributes being associated with LMX relationships (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994). Bernerth and Walker (2007) asserted that, "If our understanding of the LMX relationship and its formation are to advance, research is needed on the antecedents associated with the leader-member exchange process" (p. 613). In line with Bernerth and Walker's recommendation, this study empirically tests EI as one of the antecedents associated with the LMX process within organizational settings. To date, the link between EI and LMX has rarely been studied (with the exception of Karim, 2008).

In addition, while the role of LMX in employee attitudinal outcomes—like satisfaction with work (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984), commitment (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986), and supervisory rating of job performance (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982)—is well established, the mechanism through which LMX predicts these work outcomes is little researched (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Scandura, 1999).

Organizational justice involves the perceptions of organizational members regarding the fairness of their conditions of employment (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Meta-analytic studies conducted by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001) revealed a significant and positive association between LMX and organization justice perceptions. Also, these studies revealed that LMX and organizational justice perceptions share several common correlates (e.g., organizational commitment, organization citizenship behavior, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction). The field, however, lacks agreement and/or consistency with respect to theory building and empirical findings. For instance, some studies examined LMX as an antecedent of organizational justice perceptions (organizational justice mediating the relationship between LMX and outcome variables) (e.g, Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Bhal, 2006; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lee, 2000; Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom, 1986), whereas others studied it as an outcome of organizational justice perceptions (LMX mediating the relationship between organizational justice perceptions and outcome variables) (e.g., Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). Thus, "(still) there are conflicting and differing understandings of the relationship between LMX and justice relationship" (Sanchez & Byrne, 2004, p. 219). Research integrating organizational justice perceptions and LMX is timely and warranted.

The present study is a follow-up to the research on EI, LMX, organizational justice perceptions, and work-related outcomes and contributes to the existing literature in following ways. First, EI and its associations with LMX and organizational justice have not been explored and these relationships could have multiple effects on individuals in organizations. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to fill this research void by synthesizing the existing literature on EI, LMX, and organizational justice and to advance a model that shows their impacts on various work-related outcomes. Linking EI, LMX, organizational justice, and workplace outcomes should significantly contribute to organizational theory and practice by offering new avenues for future research and practical applications for preventing turnover, as well as increasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the workplace. Second, since there are very few instances where both antecedents and outcomes of LMX have been examined in the same study, this study attempts to narrow this gap. Finally, the proposed model helps us to understand the individual difference variables that affect the process of LMX and organizational justice, to serve

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as a guide for future research, and to suggest intervention strategies that could be used by practitioners seeking to prevent or alleviate turnover intentions and to improve levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees.

Conceptual Background and Hypotheses

LMX

LMX theory describes how leaders develop different exchange relationships over time with various subordinates of the same group. In addition, each leader-member relationship is a unique interpersonal relationship. LMX theory has its roots in Blau's (1964) social exchange theory and Graen's (1976) role making theory. Social exchange refers to the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they expect to bring from others (Blau), and role-making refers to the process of role augmentation for the voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by anticipated mutually rewarding work relationships (Graen). Dienesch and Linden (1986) delineated how both social exchange and role making are involved in developing the leader-member relationship. According to them, a supervisor (during initial interactions) asks a subordinate to complete a task or duty by delegating him various resources and adequate responsibility. Those subordinates who perform well are perceived by the supervisor as more reliable and more trustworthy and in turn will be asked to perform more demanding roles.

Making reference to social exchange theory, Sanchez and Byrne (2004) asserted that accepting something of value from another person obligates the receiver to the giver. In order to fulfill this obligation and to continue the relationship development, the receiver eventually supplies something of equal or greater value in return. Since one member of the relationship offers benefits to another without any explicit guarantee of reciprocation, trust and fairness become fundamental attributes of the social exchange relationships, particularly in well-developed leadership relationships. In other words, LMX theory suggests that leaders develop different a quality of relationships with each of their members within the group setting. According to Linden and Graen (1980), high quality LMX is a characteristic of in-group, and low quality LMX is a characteristic of out-group. In-group is characterized by high trust, support, and information sharing. Due to these characteristics, in-group members make contributions that go beyond their formal job duties (Linden & Graen). On the other hand, out-group is characterized by low trust, support, and information, due to which out-group members make little contribution beyond their formal job duties (Linden & Graen). The relationship between a leader and his/her subordinate(s) has been shown to be important for a variety of individual and organizational outcomes. For example, the quality of LMX influences organizational commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio 1994; Nystrom, 1990), job satisfaction (Scandura & Graen, 1984), and turnover (Ferris 1985).

EI and LMX

EI involves the ability to accurately perceive, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Most importantly for the discussion of LMX, subordinate EI is vital for developing a leader-member dyad into a high quality exchange

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relationship (Smith, 2006)—that is, more social and less economic, as proposed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). According to Kram and Cherniss (2001), "an existing baseline of emotional intelligence is a prerequisite for taking advantage of developmental opportunities in both formal and emergent relationships. In the absence of these competencies many such opportunities are likely to go unnoticed or at best underutilized" (p. 270). They suggested that a number of EI competencies—such as Understanding Others, Developing Others, Leveraging Diversity, Communication, Conflict Management, Building Bonds, Collaboration, Emotional Self-Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment, Self-Confidence, Self-Control, Trustworthiness, Commitment (to the relationship), Initiative, and Optimism—are essential for relationship development. The following section discusses the role of subordinates' EI abilities in developing high quality LMX relationships with special reference to Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model.

Perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion. People who are high in this ability are good at recognizing their own feelings and feelings of those with whom they are interacting. If an employee wishes to better understand himself and others, he must know how he feels and be able to label his feelings (Caruso & Myer, 2004, p. 40-41). Additionally, building trust and a strong bond with supervisors requires employees to be aware of the verbal and nonverbal messages they send to supervisors. For example, if an employee is calm and at ease but communicates a message that says something different about his emotional state, a supervisor may perceive him as a threat and could take action against the perceived threat (Caruso & Myer, p. 42-43). Identifying facial expressions and accurately expressing emotions is therefore a key to appropriate and successful interpersonal interactions and LMX development processes. Subordinates who are not skilled in identifying their own or others' emotions through subtle cues are likely to behave quite boorishly (whether intended or not) and thus may ruin their relationships with supervisors.

Emotional facilitation of thought. Emotions enhance and assist thinking (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). Emotionally intelligent employees are better able to prioritize thinking with the help of emotions, generate emotions as aid to judgment, and consider multiple points of view (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotionally intelligent employees use their emotions to improve thinking processes and harness the power of positive moods. Because people in positive moods tend to be better at inductive problem solving (Caruso & Myer, 2004, p. 47-48), people high on this ability can easily swing their moods from negative to positive, which in turn enhances and assists their thought processes in a meaningful manner. This enables them to be more creative and more initiative. This ability contributes to the stage of role making in the LMX development process, wherein employees make an offer to engage in effort that goes beyond their formal employment contract. According to Caruso & Myer (p. 49-50), this mood-generating ability may also play an important role in empathy (feeling what other people feel). In order to relate genuinely to their supervisors, employees need to be able to understand their supervisors' feelings. Empathy allows subordinates to sense the emotions of their supervisors and to understand their perspective on various matters that lead them to develop a high quality LMX relationship (Smith, 2006).

Understanding and analyzing emotion. Emotionally intelligent employees are better able to analyze emotions by carefully examining the causes, key factors, and outcomes of emotions and by anticipating the probable emotional trends over time (Mayer & Salovy, 1997). Using this ability, emotionally intelligent employees make correct assumptions about their supervisors and can predict what their supervisors may feel (Caruso & Myer, 2004, p. 54-57). Understanding the causes of emotions enables an employee to judge the situation in appropriate

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manner. If an employee understands the ebb and flow of supervisors' emotions, then he can predict perhaps with some accuracy how his supervisor will feel next if certain events unfold in certain ways (Caruso & Myer, p. 58-59). Since during the role making stage of LMX development the leader and member decide how each will behave in various situations and begin to define the nature of their dyadic relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987), this EI ability enables a subordinate to predict the behavior of his supervisor and mold his behavior to the expectations of his supervisor.

Managing emotion. Employees with a strong ability to manage emotions are passionate, have good emotional self-control, tend to be even-tempered, think clearly when they are experiencing strong feelings, make decisions based on their hearts and their heads, and generally reflect on their emotions often (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994; Caruso & Myer, 2004). Managing emotions is a key element of quality, of social interaction, as indicated in a study conducted by Lopes et al. (2004). Subordinates who demonstrate this EI ability in their ongoing interaction with their supervisors are likely to perceive the LMX relationship as one of the high quality for two main reasons. First, the ability to manage emotions may influence employee's motivation and expectations for social interaction (Cunningham, 1988). Second, this may help them to effectively use their interaction strategies (Furr & Funder, 1998). Thus,

Hypothesis 1: EI is positively related to perceptions of LMX quality.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice involves the perceptions of organizational members regarding the fairness of their conditions of employment (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Over the past few decades various justice models have been proposed by researchers, but in general theorists have focused on two types of justice perceptions: distributive and procedural.

Distributive justice. The concept of distributive justice has its roots in Adams' (1965) equity theory. Adams proposed inequality as arising from an imbalance between inputs and outputs. According to Adams, in a social exchange process employees bring certain inputs to an organization (e.g., education, effort, experience) and in return expect certain outcomes, such as pay, promotion, and intrinsic satisfaction. Equity exists (people are satisfied) when the perceived inputs match outcomes. Conversely, if the outcomes received are perceived as unfair in relation to the inputs, then the individual is likely to experience distributive injustice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Procedural justice. Although notions of fairness in the 1960s and 1970s were dominated by distributive justice, scholars in that area occasionally alluded, at least in passing, to what later become known as procedural justice (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelann, 2005). Leventhal (1980) criticized equity theory by asserting that it ignores the procedures that result in outcome distribution. He delineated six procedural rules that can be used to evaluate the procedural component of any decision. According to Leventhal, procedurally just systems require consistent application, freedom from bias, accuracy, correctability, representation of all parties concerned, and a basis on ethical standards.

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LMX and Organizational Justice

Several researchers have conceived justice as the outcome of LMX or as a mediator of the LMX-outcome relationship (e.g., Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Bhal, 2006; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lee, 2000; Vecchio et al., 1986,). In this nexus, subordinates who are members of a leader's in-group will perceive their leader as treating them more fairly and will be more trusting of their leader than members of the out-group (low LMX quality) (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

According to Erdogan (2002),

> In performance appraisal context employees tend to engage in comparisons. They compare their current ratings with ratings of other employees in their group. During this comparison, employees tend to observe with whom the leader has a high & low-quality relationships, and will link this LMX quality with positive outcomes such as performance ratings, autonomy or promotions. (p. 564)

Erdogan (2002) further argued that individuals may believe closeness between leaders and members will result in higher ratings for high LMX members because the leader may want to protect their high-quality exchanges with these members even when they realize that high LMX members are not performing at high levels. Moreover, if individuals believe that the leader forms high LMXs based on factors unrelated to work-performance, they are more likely to perceive lower levels of distributive justice in performance appraisals. The ratee will assume that low performers are going to be rewarded with high ratings because of their high LMX levels (Erdogan).

In addition, employees who are not part of the leader's in-group are likely to feel that they are not given as much opportunity and/or information as members of the in-group get. Hence, there is not only an unequal distribution of rewards but also of the opportunities to get the rewards by virtue of the subordinate's interactions with the leader (Bhal & Ansari, 2007). Thus,

Hypothesis 2a: LMX quality is positively related to distributive justice.

If leader maintains fairness in procedures, in-group and out-groups may peacefully coexist (Tyler, 1986) and his or her decisions will be accepted by all work groups (Tyler & Caine, 1981). In-group members (high LMX), due to their ability to participate in decisions and their higher quality relationships with the leader, are more likely to perceive the leader as following fair procedures and allowing decision influence (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986).

Folger's (1986) referent cognition theory may provide a sound basis for LMX and procedural justice linkage. According to referent cognition theory, in a situation involving outcomes allocated by a decision maker, resentment is maximized when people believe they would have obtained better outcomes if the decision maker had used other procedures that should have been implemented. People perceive injustice by comparing their current thinking about the fairness of a situation to possible alternative outcomes that might have occurred. An individual's reactions to unfair treatment result not only from receiving poor outcomes, but also from associating unfavorable outcomes with someone else's action (Corpanzano & Folger, 1989, p. 293-294). Thus, behavior of supervisors affects subordinates' perceptions of fairness. Subordinates' perceptions of unfairness are maximized when they believe that they could have obtained better outcomes if a supervisor had used other procedures. Thus,

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Hypothesis 2b: LMX quality is positively related to procedural justice.

Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intention

In the literature, organizational justice has been linked to variety of individual and organizational outcomes. This proliferation of research attests to the importance of organizational justice within organizational settings.

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's affective or emotional response to his or her particular job (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Pay and promotion represent job dimensions that are critical to job satisfaction (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). In this regard, unfair distribution (of pay and promotion) leads to distributive injustice and negatively affects job satisfaction. Since procedural and distributive justices are related (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998), and unfair process often generates unfair outcomes (Parker & Kohlmeyer III, 2005), perceptions about the allocation process of these outcomes will also impact job satisfaction. Various studies have documented the direct impact of both procedural and distributive justice perceptions (jointly and separately) on job satisfaction (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lambert, 2003; Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2007; Lee, 2000; Parker & Kohlmeyer III, 2005). Thus,

Hypothesis 3a: Distributive justice is positively related to job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 3b: Procedural justice is positively related to job satisfaction.

Organizational commitment refers to an employee's loyalty to the organization, identification with the organization, and involvement in the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Several studies have demonstrated the importance of organizational justice perceptions as an antecedent to organizational commitment (e.g., Aryee et al., 2002; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lambert, 2003; Lee, 2000; Lambert et al., 2007). Thus,

Hypothesis 4a: Distributive justice is positively related to organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 4b: Procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment.

Turnover intention is defined as thinking of quitting, intention to search for new employment, and intention to quit (Miller, Katerberg, & Hullin, 1979). Organizational justice perceptions may significantly diminish employees' withdrawal intentions. If equity prevails within organizations and if employees perceive procedures fairly employed in the allocation of resources, they will feel high levels of identification with the organization and will be less likely to develop withdrawal or turnover intentions. Several studies have demonstrated the importance of organizational justice perceptions as an antecedent to turnover intentions (e.g., Aryee et al., 2002; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Lee, 2000). Thus,

Hypothesis 5a: Distributive justice is negatively related to turnover intentions.
Hypothesis 5b: Procedural justice is negatively related to turnover intentions.

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Methods

Participants

Data was collected from employees of six public sector organizations situated in Quetta, Pakistan. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed, 106 usable questionnaires were returned, resulting in a return rate of 26.5%. The age range was 22-63 years (M = 35.7 years, SD = 12.5). 70.5% of respondents were male and 62% had obtained Master's degree. Administration of the questionnaires was carried out by post-graduate students who acted as research assistants.

Measures

Distributive justice. A five-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) was used to measure distributive justice. This scale assesses the fairness of different work outcomes, including pay level, workload, and job responsibilities. Niehoff and Moorman (1993) reported Cronbach *alpha* of .76 for this scale. Sample items include: "My work schedule is fair," and "I feel that my job responsibilities are fair."

Procedural justice. A six-item scale developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) reflecting the presence of formal procedures for making decisions was used to measure procedural justice. The items of this scale are designed to tap formal procedural perceptions. This scale measures the degree to which job decisions include mechanisms that ensure the gathering of accurate and unbiased information, employee voice, and an appraisal process. Sample items in the scale include: "All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees," and "Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions." The scale has been used widely in the literature (e.g., Aryee et al., 2002; Lee, 2000).

Organizational commitment. A three-item abbreviated version of Mowday et al.'s (1979) scale was used to measure organizational commitment. Sample items in the scale include: "I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization," and "I feel that my values and the organization's values are very similar." The response scale is a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree).

Turnover intentions. A three-item scale developed by Tsui, Pearce, Porter, and Tripoli (1997) was used to measure turnover intentions. This three item scale corresponds to the intent-to-stay idea. The higher values in the scale (negatively phrased) correspond with leaving the organization and lower values correspond with intent-to-stay. Sample items in the scale include: "I am likely to leave this organization within the next 12 months," and "I would probably change job if offered a bit more money." Tsui et al. (1997) reported an alpha value of .83 for this scale.

Emotional intelligence. Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS: Wong & Law, 2002) is a self-report scale based on Salovey and Mayer's model (1997) assessing individuals' knowledge about their emotional abilities. Specifically, the WLEIS is a measure of beliefs concerning self-emotional appraisal (ability to understand one's deep emotions and be able to express these emotions naturally), others' emotional appraisal (ability to perceive and understand the emotions of other people), regulation of emotion (ability to regulate one's own emotions), and use of emotion (ability to make use of one's emotions by directing them toward constructive activities and personal performance). The response scale is a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree).

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LMX. LMX was measured with a seven-item measure (LMX7) developed by Scandura and Graen (1984). Results from the meta-analysis of LMX literature by Gerstner and Day (1997) have shown that LMX has the soundest psychometric properties of all LMX instruments. Sample items in the scale include: "My supervisor recognizes my potential," and "Supervisor understands my job problems and needs." The response scale is a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from one (Strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using five items from Brayfield and Rothe (1951) later adopted by Lambert et al. (2007). This scale is a global, rather than a facet, measure of job satisfaction. For studies like the current one, global measure of job satisfaction is preferred over faceted measures because it measures a broader domain of a person's satisfaction with his or her overall job rather than specific facets, such as pay, co-workers, etc. (Lambert et al.). Sample items in the scale include: "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work," and "I find real enjoyment in my work." The reliability of the scale has been established in the previous studies (Aryee et al., 2002; Lambert et al.).

Analysis

Inspection of skewness and kurtosis statistics revealed non normality for most of the items. Furthermore, Mardia's (1970) coefficient of multivariate kurtosis provided by AMOS (Arbuckle, 2006) indicated that the assumption of multivariate normality was not tenable. Based on these results, the *Partial Least Squares* (PLS) path modeling algorithm was used. Like covariance based structural equation modeling (CBSEM), PLS is a latent variable modeling technique that incorporates multiple dependent constructs and explicitly recognizes measurement error. However, PLS is far less restrictive in its distributional assumptions and sample size restrictions as compared to covariance-based structural equation modeling. Furthermore, whereas maximum likelihood models are based on assumptions of a specific joint multivariate distribution and independence of the observations (independently and identically distributed, i.e., *iid*), PLS does not impose such requirements on data. PLS applies to situations where knowledge about distribution of the latent variables is limited and requires the estimates to be more closely tied to the data compared to covariance based structure analysis (Fornell & Cha, 1994). Moreover, the application of PLS requires a minimum sample size that is (a) ten times the number of items comprising the most formative constructs, or (b) ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the inner path model (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995). With a sample size of 106 in this study, these requirements were met. Specifically, SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) was employed, which allowed for estimating both measurement model and structural model simultaneously.

In line with Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics's (2009) recommendations, the PLS model was analyzed and interpreted in two stages: the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model describes the relationship between manifest variables (observed items) and latent variables. The measurement model is tested by assessing the validity and reliability of the items and constructs in the model. This ensures that only reliable and valid construct measures are used before assessing the nature of relationships in the overall model. In PLS, individual item reliability is assessed by examining the loadings of respective items on their respective latent construct (Hulland, 1999). Higher loadings imply that there is more shared variance between the construct and its measures than error variance, whereas low loadings add very little to the explanatory power of the model while attenuating the estimates of the

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parameters linking constructs (Hulland). Composite reliability (ρ_c) (Werts, Linn, & Joreskog, 1974) and Cronbach's *alpha* (1951) were used to assess the reliability of scales. Composite reliability is preferred over Cronbach's alpha because it offers a better estimate of variance shared by the respected indicators and because it uses the item loadings obtained within the nomological network (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006). For assessing the convergent validity of constructs, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) average variance extracted (AVE) criterion was employed. An AVE value greater than 0.50 indicates that a latent variable is able to explain more than half of the variance of its indicators on average (Henseler et al., 2009). Discriminant validity of measurement model was tested through Fornell and Larcker's AVE test. Evidence of discriminant validity occurs when the square root of the variance extracted estimation exceeds the correlations between the factors making each pair (Fornell & Larcker). Each latent variable shares more variance with its own block of indicators than with another latent variable, representing a different block of indicators.

Structural model specifies relationships between latent constructs. The structural model is tested by estimating the paths between the constructs, which are an indicator of the model's predictive ability. The nonparametric bootstrapping procedure (Chin, 1998) using 1000 subsamples was performed to evaluate the statistical significance of each path coefficient and to provide confidence intervals for all parameter estimates. Goodness-of-fit (GoF) (Tenenhaus, Esposito Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005) was employed to judge the overall fit of the model. GoF, which is the geometric mean of the average communality (outer measurement model) and the average R^2 of endogenous latent variables, represents an index for validating the PLS model globally, as looking for a compromise between the performance of the measurement and the structural model, respectively. GoF is normed between 0 and 1, where a higher value represents better path model estimations.

Results

Measurement Model

The factor loadings from the final PLS measurement models are reported in Table 1. All items loaded significantly (> .50) on their respective factors which was an indication of indicator reliability. Composite reliability (ρ_c) (Werts, Linn, & Joreskog, 1974) and Cronbach's alpha (1951) values for all scales exceeded the minimum threshold level of .70, thus indicating the reliability of all scales used in this study. Results revealed that the variance extracted for all factors exceeded the minimum threshold value of .50 which was an indication of convergent validity of all scales. Fornell and Larcker's (1982) test for discriminant validity revealed relatively high variances extracted for each factor compared to the inter-scale correlations, which was an indication of discriminant validity of all constructs (Table 2).

Table 1
Item Loadings, Scale Reliability, and Convergent Validity

Block	Loadings	*t* values[a]	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability[b]	AVE[c]
EI[d]					
SEA	0.82	14.52	.88	.92	.74
OEA	0.92	57.58			
UOE	0.91	40.28			

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Table 1
Item Loadings, Scale Reliability, and Convergent Validity

Block	Loadings	*t* values[a]	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability[b]	AVE[c]
ROE	0.78	12.18			
LMX					
LMX_1	0.86	26.87	.89	.91	.65
LMX_2	0.80	14.55			
LMX_3	0.84	24.42			
LMX_4	0.67	9.81			
LMX_6	0.80	20.98			
LMX_7	0.85	29.47			
DJ					
DJ_1	0.63	6.16	.74	.83	.56
DJ_3	0.68	5.91			
DJ_4	0.83	14.10			
DJ_5	0.84	34.34			
PJ					
PJ_2	0.78	18.93	.86	.90	.65
PJ_3	0.88	42.15			
PJ_4	0.91	52.42			
PJ_5	0.84	31.65			
PJ_6	0.55	5.30			
JS					
JS_1	0.61	7.24	.75	.83	.56
JS_3	0.61	4.76			
JS_4	0.87	27.08			
JS_5	0.84	19.01			
OC					
OC_1	0.82	27.57	.88	.90	.51
OC_2	0.82	20.98			
OC_3	0.65	9.53			
OC_4	0.63	9.29			
OC_5	0.55	6.74			
OC_6	0.74	14.14			
OC_7	0.69	8.98			
OC_8	0.73	11.02			
OC_9	0.75	15.41			
TI					
TI_1	0.83	15.16	.81	.88	.72
TI_2	0.85	19.78			
TI_3	0.86	30.37			

Note : EI = Emotional Intelligence; LMX = Leader-Member-Exchange ; DJ = Distributive justice ; PJ = Procedural justice ; OC = Organizational commitment ; TI = Turnover intentions.

[a] t values are calculated through a bootstrapping routine with 106 cases and 1000 samples. All t values are significant at .001 level (two-tailed).

[b] Composite factor reliability = $(\Sigma Li)^2 / [(\Sigma Li)^2 + \Sigma var(Ei)]$.Where Li is the standardized factor loading for a given factor, $var(Ei) = 1- Li^2$ is the measurement error or the error variance associated with the individual indicator variable(s) for that given factor (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

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[c] AVE = $\Sigma Li^2 / (\Sigma Li^2 + \Sigma var(Ei))$, where Li is the standardized factor loading for a given factor, $var(Ei) = 1 - Li^2$ is the measurement error or the error variance associated with the individual indicator variable(s) for that given factor (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
[d] Second order construct.

Table 2
Inter-Factor Correlations and Discriminant Validity

	DJ	EI	JS	LMX	OC	PJ	TI
DJ	***0.75***[a]						
EI	0.34	***0.86***					
JS	0.60	0.26	***0.74***				
LMX	0.50	0.65	0.37	***0.81***			
OC	0.34	0.67	0.47	0.75	***0.71***		
PJ	0.53	0.31	0.50	0.66	0.56	***0.80***	
TI	-0.49	-0.59	-0.65	-0.58	-0.65	-0.51	***0.85***

Note. All correlations are significant at .01 level (2-tailed)
[a]Square root of AVE

Structural Model

As hypothesized, EI was significantly and positively related to LMX (ß = 0.65, $t = 10.49$, $p < 0.001$) and accounted for a substantial amount of variance in LMX ($R^2 = .43$). LMX was significantly and positively related to both distributive justice (ß = 0.50, $t = 6.09$, $p < 0.001$) and procedural justice (ß = 0.66, $t = 13.06$, $p < 0.001$). LMX explained substantial amounts of variance of distributive justice ($R^2 = .25$) and procedural justice ($R^2 = .44$). Distributive justice had a direct positive impact on job satisfaction (ß = 0.46, $t = 5.04$, $p < 0.001$) and a negative direct impact on turnover intentions (ß = -0.31, $t = 3.01$, $p < 0.01$). However, the direct effect of distributive justice on organizational commitment failed to reach significance (ß = 0.06, $t = 0.56$, $p > 0.05$). Procedural justice had a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, (ß = 0.25, $t = 2.60$, $p < 0.01$), organizational commitment (ß = 0.53, $t = 7.38$, $p < 0.001$), and significant negative impact on turnover intentions (ß = -0.34, $t = 3.51$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the results showed that the structural model explained 41.4 percent of variance in job satisfaction, 32.7 percent of variance in the organizational commitment, and 33.2 percent of variance in turnover intentions (see Figure 1).

The value of R^2 may be decomposed in terms of the multiple regression coefficients and correlations between the dependent variable and the explanatory ones (Tenanhaus et al., 2005). This decomposition allows understanding the contribution of each explanatory variable to the prediction of the dependent one. For this model, procedural justice was the most important of the two variables in the prediction of organizational commitment, contributing to 93.09 percent of the R^2. On the other hand, distributive justice accounted for only 6.81 percent (far less than procedural justice). Distributive justice accounted for largest amount of variance in job satisfaction, 68.39 percent, as compared to procedural justice accounting for 31.61 percent. Lastly, for the variable turnover intentions distributive justice and procedural justice accounted for 47.01 percent and 52.94 percent, respectively (see Table 3). The goodness-of-fit (GoF) (Tenanhaus et al.) index for the PLS model was 0.48, which indicated an acceptable data-model fit.

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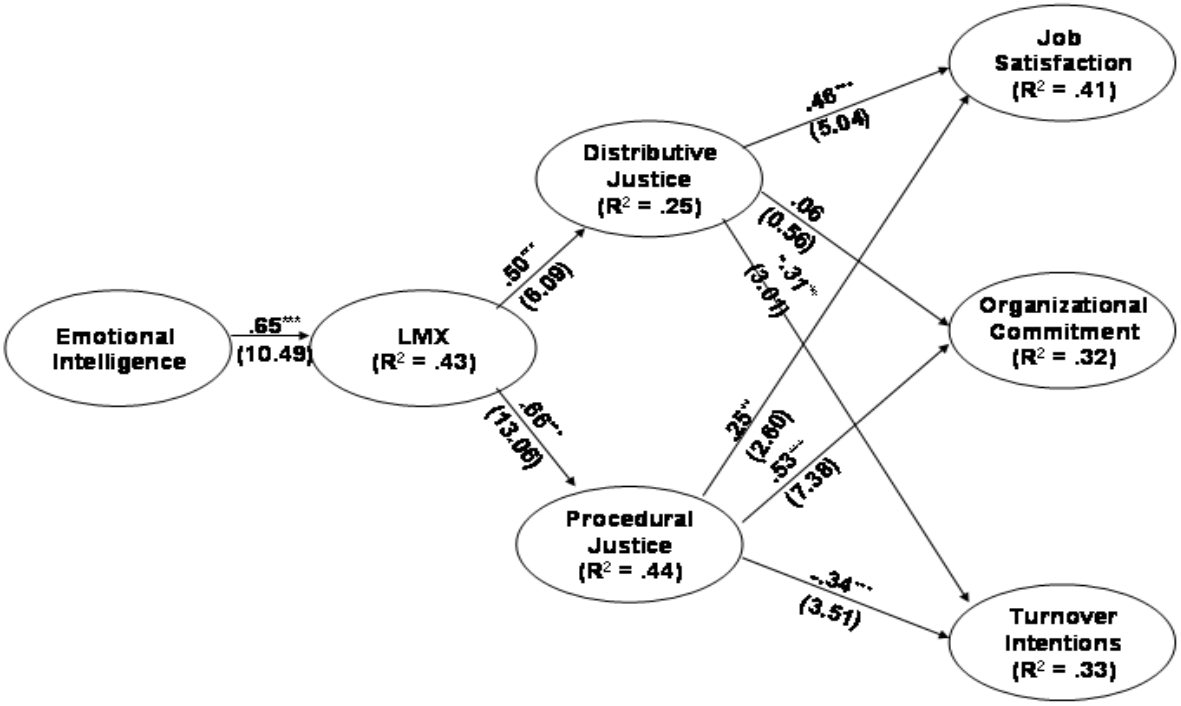

Figure 1. PLS path analytic model. Bootstrapped t-values are listed in brackets below path coefficients. ($^{**}p < .01$, two tailed. $^{***}p < .001$, two tailed)

Table 3
Statistical Explanation of Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intentions

	Correlation	ß$_j$	R^2_{PART} [a]	R^2%
Job satisfaction				
Distributive Justice	0,605	0,468	0,276	68.39
Procedural Justice	0,507	0,258	0,125	31.61
Organizational Commitment				
Distributive Justice	0,348	0,064	0,022	6.81
Procedural Justice	0,569	0,535	0,304	93.09
Turnover intentions				
Distributive Justice	-0,497	-0,314	0,156	47.01
Procedural Justice	-0,511	-0,344	0,175	52.94

[a] correlation x ß$_j$

Discussion and Conclusion

This study examined the relationships amongst EI, LMX, organizational justice, and attitudinal outcome variables in a comprehensive model. The results of the study revealed that

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subordinate EI is a positive predictor of leader-member exchange quality perceived by subordinates (H1). In other words, if an employee is emotionally intelligent, the quality of LMX relationships will be high. This result confirmed the proposition made by Smith (2006) that subordinate's EI is one of the potential predictor of high quality LMX relationships. Thus, emotionally intelligent people are more likely to be able to maneuver through the stages of the exchange relationship well to eventually move into an in-group relationship with the supervisor. Thus, the ability to accurately identify emotions (in self and others), to appropriately use emotions, to understand emotions, and to successfully manage emotions leads to the development of high quality relationships. It is worth noting that the current study only investigated the relationship between subordinate EI and LMX quality and not between supervisor EI and LMX quality. According to Smith (2006), both leaders' and subordinates' EI impact the quality of LMX relationships. Hence, one productive avenue for future research is to explore the roles of both leader EI and subordinate EI in the development of high quality relationships.

In line with previous studies (e.g., Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lee, 2000; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1993), the results of this study revealed that LMX is a positive predictor of distributive justice (H2a). Employees link LMX quality with outcomes such as performance ratings, autonomy, or promotions (Erdogan, 2002) and will form justice perceptions keeping in mind distribution of these outcomes. In other words, if an employee perceives that his/her relationship with his/her supervisor is of high quality, then outcomes being allocated (by supervisor or organization) will be perceived as just.

Furthermore, an individual's reaction to unfair treatment results not only from receiving poor outcomes, but also from associating unfavorable outcomes with someone else's actions (Corpanzano & Folger, 1989, p. 293-294). In this regard, in-group members are more likely to perceive the supervisor following fair procedures due to their high ability to participate in decision making and their high quality relationships with the supervisor (Scandura et al., 1986). In other words, if an employee perceives a high level of quality in exchange in the supervisor-subordinate relationship, the employee also perceives a high level of procedural justice (H2b).

The results of this study supported the contention that organizational justice remains a salient dimension of the work environment, shaping employee perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (H3, H4, & H5). Overall, the influence of organizational justice was consistent across three work outcome variables. Distributive justice had a direct impact on job satisfaction (H3a). This result was consistent with the results of previous studies (Aryee et al., 2005; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Deconinck & Bachmann, 2005; Lee, 2000). People tend to be more satisfied with outcomes they perceive to be fair than with those they perceive to be unfair. Results suggest that when employees perceive they are treated fairly in the amount of rewards allocated (distributive justice), they are more satisfied with their jobs. Perceptions of injustice occur when a negative outcome arises. An employee will perceive distributive injustice if another employee is receiving a larger outcome when other employee's job does not require as much responsibility and effort (DeConinck & Bachmann, 2005).

This study's finding that procedural justice is an important predictor of job satisfaction (H3b) was also consistent with previous studies (Aryee et al., 2005; Deconinck & Bachmann, 2005; Lambert et al., 2007; Lee, 2000). Increased perceptions of procedural justice help in incorporating positive feelings among workers toward their jobs. Moreover, employees are more accepting of decisions that result from fair procedures than with decisions that result from unfair processes. According to Lambert et al., (2007), "When an employee feels that he or she has been

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betrayed via an unfair organizational processes or outcome, it is hard for the employee to feel that his or her job is satisfying." Contrary to hypothesized relationship, distributive justice did not significantly influence organizational commitment (H4a).

Two plausible explanations could be attributed to this unexpected result. First, Lee (2000) did not test the direct relationship between distributive justice and organizational commitment. Instead, he examined whether distributive justice significantly predicted job satisfaction, which in turn significantly predicted organizational commitment. Thus, we can infer that distributive justice does not directly influence organizational commitment; rather, it does so through job satisfaction. Second, research linking the two types of justice perceptions (distributive and procedural) with employee attitudinal outcome variables has shown that, between these two, procedural justice is more important in predicting organizational commitment (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Martin and Bennett (1996) asserted that it is possible that an employee is dissatisfied with the current outcomes which he receives (distributive injustice) but even then remains committed to the organization if he views the procedures as fair (procedural justice) in allocating those outcomes (p. 89). So, in line with Martin & Bennett's assertion, results indicated that procedural justice was significant predictor of organizational commitment (H4b).

These results correspond with findings reported by earlier researchers (Aryee et al., 2002; Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Hassan & Chandaran, 2005; Lambert et al., 2007). This demonstrates that managers and organizations need to pay attention not only to the rewards, but also to the processes though which these rewards are determined and distributed. Results revealed that organizational justice perceptions were negatively related to turnover intentions (H5). This result was also in line with previous studies (Ansari, Hang & Aafaqi, 2007; Aryee et al.; Lee, 2000; Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005). In other words, if an employee perceives distributive and procedural justice within the organizational setting, he is less likely to quit the organization. The results relating to turnover may be particularly important for managing organizations given the high cost of recruiting and training. As we know retention of current employees is less costly then attracting new employees, managers should pay special attention to formation of justice perceptions among employees.

Implications

What can organizations do to increase the perception of organizational justice among employees? First, organizations must endeavor to allocate rewards as consistently as possible across individuals and also communicate to employees that the consistency principle is important to the organization and is integrated into the allocation decision making process (Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005). This means application of similar procedures to all potential recipients of rewards and giving special advantage to none. Second, performance evaluations should be conducted and they must be perceived as fair by all employees. Organizations need to provide a thorough explanation for how and why an evaluation was reached and should provide all employees a voice in the evaluation process (DeConinck & Bachmann, 2005). Third, allocative procedures must reflect the basic concerns, values, and outlooks of all stakeholders impacted by allocation decision. Fourth, transparency and neutrality should prevail in decision making processes. Last, it is suggested that a participative style of management should be adopted, which would give opportunities to employees to participate in the decision making and allocative procedures. This would ultimately enhance the procedural justice perceptions within the organization and among middle level mangers.

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This study's results show that EI through LMX can promote positive attitudes among employees. Thus, it has become increasingly vital for modern organizations to learn how to enhance the EI of employees in order to achieve maximum business results. In brief, if LMX quality does indeed predict organizational justice perceptions as indicated by the results, the organization can benefit by encouraging an environment that fosters the development of high-quality LMX relationships between leaders and subordinates. In this regard, incorporation of EI criteria into selection and training and development could serve to ameliorate the LMX quality (Smith, 2006), leading ultimately to positive justice perceptions.

Limitations

The findings of this study are subject to several limitations that are common in this type of research. First, the results are specific to only six organizations in one geographical area and may or may not be generalizeable to other organizations and other areas. Second, the cross-sectional data precludes any inference of causality. The direction of causality (in cross-sectional studies) cannot be established and will have to be examined using longitudinal data (Aryee et al., 2002). Moreover, since LMX and EI are developmental in nature (Ansari et al., 2007, Goleman, 1995), only future longitudinal investigations can uncover the stage at which employees develop job satisfaction, organizational commitment, or turnover intentions. Third, since most of the respondents in sample were males (70.5%), this constrains the generalizability of findings to women. Gender plays an important role in moderating the various relationships in our model. Fourth, all respondents were full-time employees and these findings may not be applicable to part-time employees. Fifth, this study used a trait (self report) measure of EI. Though prior studies reported good reliability and evidence of validity, it would be useful to conduct a study comparing results of this study with those employing other ability measures of EI, such as MSCEIT. Sixth, this study tested the role of organizational justice as a mediator between LMX-attitudinal outcome relationships, but LMX also mediates the organizational justice-attitudinal outcome relationships (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999). Thus, future studies should test the model where LMX serves as mediation between organizational justice perceptions and attitudinal outcome variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Seventh, research suggests that both leaders (LMX-L) and members (LMX-M) approach and perceive the exchange relationship differently (Paglis & Green, 2002). Thus as already suggested by Smith (2006), future research should investigate the relationship of EI with both LMX-L and LMX-M. Additionally, in current study only members' EI was measured through self report. Since both subordinate's EI and leader's EI impact the quality of LMX (Smith, 2006), future research should investigate the impact of leader's EI on LMX quality. Eighth, in this study global measure of LMX was employed, and since LMX is a multidimensional construct (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) future research should investigate the relationship of sub dimensions of LMX with EI and organizational justice perceptions. In addition, while testing the LMX-attitudinal outcomes relationship, other forms of organizational justice perceptions—that is, interactional and informational—should be incorporated as a mediating variable along with distributive and procedural justice. Lastly, this study only explored the relationship of organizational justice perceptions with three outcome variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Future studies should also explore the impact of organizational justice perceptions on other attitudes and behaviors, such as life satisfaction, absenteeism, objective performance, and counterproductive behaviors.

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SUSTAINABLE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF A CROSS-CULTURAL BLENDED LEARNING PROGRAM

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This longitudinal cross-cultural case study demonstrates that sustainable leadership can evolve from carefully orchestrated educational programs. Using a mixed-methods approach to study learners during a two-year graduate program and two years post-graduation, this research confirmed that leadership sustainability was an intricate weaving of multiple factors in three critical areas: (a) sustained communication in the ICT/Blended environment, (b) sustained mentoring, and (c) sustained curriculum and learning. In response to the research question—how do we enhance leadership sustainability in a cross-cultural blended learning leadership education program—we found the synergy of sustained educational and communicational elements to be key. Together, they immersed learners in a virtual/blended learning environment that focused on ethics, values, and transformation at the personal and organizational levels. Through modeling and mentoring, learners received intentional leadership support while learning to build leadership sustainability within themselves and their followers. Such learning creates a cycle of ongoing leadership development that continuously moves current and future leaders from information to the creation of reservoirs of knowledge and wisdom, further deepening and sustaining leadership. This continuous leadership growth provides an important constant in the evolution of sustainability, demonstrating that like sustainable development, *sustainable leadership* represents a *process*, not an end state.

Leadership's role in sustaining corporate and societal change is well-documented by renown experts such as Burt Nanus (1992) with his focus on visionary leadership, the late Peter Drucker (1996) with his emphasis on leaders of the future, and Warren Bennis (1998) with his notion of becoming a leader of leaders. Further reinforcing the leader's significance in sustainability, Brady (2005) cited Burson-Marsteller's (2001) study conducted on the CEOs of the top 30 publicly traded companies in Germany, in which "the result suggested that the public

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reputation of the company is to almost two-thirds determined by its leader" (p. 107). Confirming this finding, a subsequent Burson-Marsteller study conducted in the U.S. "of 1155 key stakeholders found that the reputation of the CEO contributes heavily to how companies are perceived today" (as cited in Brady, p. 108). With a proclivity toward receiving ongoing sustainability accolades, Brady noted that leaders at companies such as Ben and Jerry's (Ben Cohen), BP (Lord Browne), DuPont (Chad Holliday), and Patagonia (Michael W. Crooke) have made sustainability an organizational priority. But what is sustainability and how does it relate to sustainable leadership development in global societies; and, most importantly for the work here, does advanced education through modern technologies promote leadership sustainability across and among cultures?

Sustainability and Sustainable Development

Driving sustainable development in the global environment, the UN resolution *Agenda 21* called for the examination of four key areas: (a) social and economic dimensions (e.g., promoting health, combating poverty, and decision-making based upon environmental development); (b) conservation and management of resources (e.g., combating pollution and protecting forests and other fragile environments); (c) strengthening the role of major groups (e.g., children, women, and workers); and (d) means of implementation (e.g., education and technology) (UN Department of Economic & Social Affairs, 1992). One cannot combat poverty or promote sustainable agriculture and rural development without sustainable leadership in economic, educational, and civil realms. Nor can one strengthen the roles of children, workers, farmers, business and industry, or the scientific and technological communities without leadership that recognizes the need for an ongoing investment in the community. From these initiatives, one thing is clear: a key element to the success of this agenda and the productive advancement of society in this century is leadership, thus making sustainable leadership development imperative.

One critical challenge is to define sustainability and its related concept, sustainable development. Acknowledging a need for explicit definitions, Portney (2003) conceded that these are often considered broad concepts with multiple meanings. Asserting that while sustainability is often understood, Riddell (2004) concurred with Portney that it is not well-defined. In contrast, Brady (2005) subsequently tackled the definitions. In his opinion, "sustainability refers to the ability of something to keep going *ad infinitum*" (p. 7), and sustainable development "represents a journey, not a destination" (p. 6).

Although some trace the genesis of the term sustainability to Lester Brown, an ardent environmentalist and founder of Worldwatch Institute (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006), others identify the 1987 *Bruntland Report.* Interwoven with sustainability, this report claimed that sustainable development "implies meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (United Nations General Assembly, 1987, ¶ 2). This theme was reiterated in *Agenda 21,* emanating from the 1992 United Nations (UN) Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro (Earth Summit), and again at the UN 2002 Johannesburg Summit (Earth Summit 2).

Historically, the term sustainability is most often seen in the environmental and ecology lexicons (e.g., Brandon & Lombardi, 2005); however, it more recently has been embedded in economic development literature, particularly in the realm of sustainable cities (Ling, 2005; Portney, 2003; Riddell, 2004; Sorensen, Marcotullio, & Grant, 2004). Beyond

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economics and the environment, Brady (2005) found a sustainability emphasis in what he classifies as "'hard-core' business journals" (p. 11). He went so far as to say that "corporate sustainability could be set to represent the revolution of the twenty-first century . . . . [He further claimed that] 'smart companies' are trying to engage civil society, moving from being a part of the problem to being part of the solution" (p. 12). This is in keeping with Fullan's (2005) definition of sustainability: "the capacity of a system to engage in the complexities of continuous improvement consistent with deep values of human purpose" (p. ix). To achieve this sustainability, Fullan called attention to the role of leadership. He noted Archimedes, the first to explain the principle of the lever. In Fullan's judgment, Archimedes pointed to a very important element of sustainability when he said, "'Give me a lever long enough and I can change the world.'" Fullan further declared, "for sustainability, that lever is leadership" (p. 27).

Implying the importance of leaders to not only understanding organizational structures but also ethics and morality, Fullan (2005) stressed that all levels of a system must take moral purpose seriously in the sustainability process. In conjunction with this, the Sustainability Leadership Institute (n.d.) teaches that "humanity has the ability to make development sustainable" (¶ 3). Such institutes develop and increase leadership capacity locally, nationally, and internationally to create economic, environmental, and social sustainability.

While a paucity of literature on leadership sustainability exists, one primary study sponsored by the Spencer Foundation emphasized the importance of sustainable leadership. In their three-decade study of educational change at eight Canadian high schools, Hargreaves and Goodson (as cited in Hargreaves & Fink, 2003) indicated "that one of the key forces influencing change or continuity in the long term is leadership, leadership sustainability" (p. 2). Furthering this and embracing the environmental stance, Hargreaves and Fink claimed that sustainability is more than merely making things last:

> Sustainable leadership matters, spreads and lasts. It is a shared responsibility, that does not unduly deplete human or financial resources, and that cares for and avoids exerting negative damage on the surrounding educational and community environment. Sustainable leadership has an activist engagement with the forces that affect it, and builds an educational environment of organizational diversity that promotes cross-fertilization of good ideas and successful practices in communities of shared learning and development. (p. 3)

From this definition, Hargreaves and Fink specifically cited seven critical principles of sustained leadership:

1. Sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustaining learning.
2. Sustainable leadership secures success over time.
3. Sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others.
4. Sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice.
5. Sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources.
6. Sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity.
7. Sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment. (pp. 3-10)

In 2004, Hargreaves and Fink reframed these seven principles into a more concise form: sustainable leadership matters, spreads, lasts, is socially just, is resourceful, promotes diversity,

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and is activist. Continuing the evolution of this concept in 2006, the authors promoted the depth, length, and breadth of sustainable leadership while reinforcing justice, diversity, resourcefulness, and conservation, which they clarified as learning "from the best of the past to create an even better future" (p. 20). In fact, Hargreaves (2007) went so far as to say that sustainable leadership "preserves and develops deep learning for all that spreads and lasts, in ways that do no harm to and indeed create positive benefits for others around us, now and in the future" (p. 224). At the core of these principles is the need for leadership education to encourage leaders to know themselves, their gifts, and personality tendencies, as well as their leadership abilities within the organization.

While meeting leaders where they are, developing today's leadership in a global society demands an educational model that enhances leader sustainability. This begs the question that became our foundational research inquiry: how do we enhance leadership sustainability in a cross-cultural blended learning leadership education program?

Methods

Leadership sustainability is the ability of leaders to recognize the intricate systems interwoven with human values that promote sustainability. Therefore, examination of a successful leadership development program will provide insight regarding leadership education. Using a mixed-methods approach, this study involved a longitudinal case study of a two-year cross-cultural graduate-level leadership program. In addition, the researchers tracked these participants for two years post- graduation (a) to determine the participants' leadership sustainability and (b) to assess program quality in sustaining leadership development.

The Program

The selected program emphasized leadership transformation and ethics, consistent with Hargreaves and Fink's (2003, 2004, 2006) concern for social justice and Fullan's (2005) concern for the moral underpinnings required for sustainable leadership development. It also reflected the complexity of systems, information, and culture with which today's leaders constantly wrestle.

Cross-cultural in nature, the program used face-to face (f2f) communication and Information Communication Technologies (ICTs). Garnering resources and using wisdom to cross multiple boundaries—geographical, interdisciplinary, and intercultural—successful educational models often employ ICTs to reach and sustain leaders as learners who in turn sustain their societal and corporate structures. The use of these ICTs in this institution allowed educators to not "just do education as normal," but to diffuse education throughout even remote areas of society as it brought professors and learners together across geographic, national, and intercultural boundaries. It also required an understanding of distance learning pedagogical frameworks, such as that of Bocarnea, Grooms, and Reid-Martinez (2006). In many ways, this blended-learning approach transcended the customary face-to-face environment that requires participants to limit their dialog and interaction to specified learning periods in any given week.

Employing multiple delivery modes, this blended learning program incorporated two course modules per term, with six terms throughout the length of the program. Each module consisted of a one-week onsite residency in Sao Paulo, Brazil with intensive f2f instruction followed by six weeks of online learning in a virtual classroom using ICTs. While the content of

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each course rested on theoretical principles, each course required practical leadership application.

Participants

Although this program consisted of 11 professors (7 males, 4 females) from a university in the southeastern US, the study focused on the two lead professors (2 females) and the 17 Latin American learners from multiple professions (7 males, 10 females). Learners chose this program to enhance their leadership skills by pursuing a master's degree with a concentration in educational leadership. Upon entry into the program, the age range of the learners was 23 to 53 with a mean age of 34. All except two learners completed the program and all forms of data collection. The two who discontinued their studies (1 male, 1 female) terminated at the conclusion of the second term for personal reasons.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

In order to understand this group, the researchers used multiple data collection strategies to assess personal leadership development as it related to their respective roles within their organizations throughout the two-year program and two years post-graduation. While so much measurement over a four-year period has the potential of "tool fratricide," multiple instruments were used because of the intercultural and international dimensions of the program. Stark language and cultural differences were presumed to require more attention to the nuance of change within the learners. Constant and diligent oversight of the progress of the students in understanding leadership in a global context was achieved through "erring" on the side of over-measurement.

Self-assessments were administered at strategic points throughout the program—first and second terms, midway, and end of program— not only providing insight into where the learners began in this leadership journey, but also revealing their growth and development throughout the program. Providing a psychological and leadership profile, these metacognitive activities facilitated formative opportunities for learners to specifically explore their personal psychosocial and cultural dimensions, leadership traits and styles, and conflict resolution preferences. Learner communication preferences were also examined in light of the program's mentoring functions and how communication supported conflict resolution.

First, psychosocial and cultural dimensions of the learners were probed. The psychosocial dimension included self-assessments of learners' motivational levels, functional gifts, and personality tendencies (Selig & Arroyo, 1989) as well as the 93-item *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Form M*. In addition, two underlying cultural issues were continually monitored: ethnocentrism and high/low context. Cultural acuity was first measured through a modified 18-item ethnocentrism scale based on the work of Neuliep, Chaudoir, and McCroskey (2001), and second by a 9-item high (collective) and low (individual) context scale developed from DeVito's (2004) work, which was based on the research of Hall (1983), Hall and Hall (1987), Gudykunst (1991), and Victor (1992). Due to the cultural differences in learners and the two lead professors, both groups self-assessed in these areas.

Second, learners explored their various leadership traits and styles using Northouse's (2004) 10-item *Leadership Trait Questionnaire* and 20-item *Style Questionnaire*. While highlighting the leader's strengths and weaknesses, the *Trait Questionnaire* "quantifies the

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perceptions of the individual leader and [five] selected observers" (p. 30). The *Style Questionnaire* provided the opportunity for learners to self-assess their tendency toward task or relationship behavior. To complement these quantitative measures, learners also reflected on their leadership through time logs, personal leadership autobiographies, personal leadership philosophies, and culminating portfolios.

Third, the learners' conflict resolution preferences were explored using Shockley-Zalabak's (2002) *Personal Profile of Conflict Predispositions, Strategies, and Tactics.* This 44-item instrument measures preferred style for handling conflict: avoidance, competition, compromise, accommodation, and collaboration.

And fourth, communication preferences were assessed with McCroskey and Richmond's (1996) *Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC)* and Grooms and Bocarnea's (2003) *Computer-Mediated Interaction Scale (CMIS).* The *WTC* is a 20-item instrument that measures an individual's predisposition to communicate in a variety of contexts. Based on Grooms' (2000) work on computer-mediated interaction, the *CMIS* is a 122-item instrument that measures the importance of task and social learner-faculty and learner-peer interaction.

After compiling a personal psychological and leadership profile, learners conducted organizational assessments to clarify their leadership roles, which helped them develop strategic organizational goals. This process included planning, scheduling, implementing, and evaluating organizational growth and aligning personal leadership goals within that context. All of these activities were facilitated through the curriculum, which culminated in participants' professional portfolios.

An additional instrument appraised mentoring the learners received during their program. Based upon Jacobi's (1991) work, the following mentoring functions were explored on a 15-item assessment: (a) acceptance/support/encouragement, (b) advice/guidance, (c) access to resources, (d) challenge, (e) clarification of values and goals, (f) coaching, (g) information, (h) protection, (i) role modeling, (j) social status, (k) socialization, (l) sponsorship, (m) stimulation of acquisition of knowledge, (n) training/instruction, and (o) visibility/exposure.

To assess program quality in sustaining leadership development, the researchers conducted formative program assessments using surveys, multiple onsite interviews, and onsite focus groups to enable necessary adjustments to meet learner needs as they surfaced. The study also used summative assessments such as graduation rate, cumulative grade point average (GPA), and learner self-assessment of their leadership growth. Two years post-graduation, the researchers solicited open-ended responses via email to determine where the graduates were in terms of their careers and ongoing leadership development, also asking what impact the program had on their current leadership placement.

Findings and Interpretations

Following analysis, findings and interpretations were divided into four major categories: Leadership Development Program Outcomes, Strategically Designed Curriculum for Leadership Development, Mentoring, and ICT/Blended Communication.

Leadership Development Program Outcomes

In examining program quality for sustaining leadership development, two levels of summative outcomes were measured: one immediate and the other longitudinal. The first level of

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outcome measurement was at the conclusion of the two-year program. This included graduation rate, cumulative grade point average (GPA), and a qualitative component of leadership growth self-analysis. Eighty-eight percent of the cross-cultural learners graduated (n = 15). Based on a 4-point scale, the mean GPA was 3.8. Self-analysis comments reflected that 100% of the learners experienced significant leadership growth at program completion. For example, one learner noted, "Before I started this [program], I would look at my natural skills and find it hard to detect the profile of a leader. Nevertheless, today I have a different view." A second student expressed, "My conclusion is that I have been transformed through the knowledge and wisdom acquired during this master's." Finally, another said, "I have learned so much about myself and my leadership style, traits, and abilities, and that has helped me to improve my performance . . . in every situation I am expected to exert leadership."

The second level of summative outcome measurement followed learners two years post-graduation. These longitudinal outcomes fell into two categories: career development and continued self-assessed leadership growth. Aligning with the goals of the program, all learners cited increased and sustained capacity for leadership in terms of their career development. Four were pursuing additional graduate studies at institutions such as Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; two had moved to East Asia to assume educational leadership responsibilities; and two were serving on executive educational boards. One, an entrepreneur in the field of security, reported expanded growth and capacity in his organization. A second entrepreneur began an English language program for adults and children. One, a banking vice-president, credited the program with his ability to better understand human resources and for increasing his team's capacity, which in turn increased quarterly earnings. Others also continued to excel in their endeavors as a marketing research director, a teacher, a translator, and an export analyst in a major medical supply company.

In addition to career development, learners reported continued leadership growth. Some claimed that due to the learning and application of the knowledge gained from the program, they were placed into higher levels of national and international leadership. All credited the program with challenging and giving them space to develop their own leadership philosophies, resulting in attitudinal and behavioral changes still demonstrated two years post-graduation. As represented by the following response, learners provided powerful self-reports about their changes: "the leadership training . . . gave me more knowledge of peoples' behavior and polished my soul and heart . . . It brought me wisdom and experience which I can apply in the relationships of everyday life and work." Others concurred, reporting that the most important leadership moral and ethical principles they learned were how to deal with and influence people. This influence included their ability to more effectively handle issues of social justice by implementing appropriate policies, processes, and procedures that assured equity within their organizations and teams. In turn, this increased the human resource capacity within their leadership span. According to the participants, such attitudes and behaviors sustained their leadership and helped them grow other leaders.

Strategically Designed Curriculum for Leadership Development

Catapulting the success of these outcomes was a curriculum strategically designed around three areas: (a) course content, (b) personal self-assessments, and (c) organizational assessments. Interviews with students two years post-graduation resulted in an interesting finding best expressed by one student representing the group: "I can say that the curriculum is still alive

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within me and I really perceive myself as living, walking curriculum." This reflects that the curriculum lives within learners as they now employ and teach concepts gained in the program either directly or indirectly. They see themselves as living curricula as they constantly evolve and continue to grow as leaders. As another student stated, "I do believe it is still living within me—especially about leadership."

Course content. Guided by professors, the first dimension of the curriculum provided materials and experiences essential for leadership. The course content included effective leadership theories and models; philosophical and ethical/moral moorings in leadership; effective communication, conflict resolution, and negotiation theory and skills; organizational strategic planning, finances, start-up, and operations; and specific school applications, such as curriculum methods and assessments. Learners also studied research design and developed a culminating professional project while completing multiple strategically structured exercises incorporating worldview, values, and ethics. The program and curriculum were consistently monitored and assessed on a quarterly basis, ensuring continual alignment with immediate and projected longitudinal learner needs in the cross-cultural context.

Personal self-assessments. To understand their psychological and leadership orientation, learners' used multiple measures. Assessment occurred in three categories: (a) psychosocial and cultural dimensions, (b) leadership traits and styles, and (c) conflict resolution preferences.

Psychosocial and cultural dimensions. Using assessments from Selig and Arroyo (1989), learners demonstrated capacity for self-appraisal while recognizing the diversity of gifts, motivational levels, and personality tendencies of others. Equipped with this knowledge, they learned to use encouragement and positive reinforcement to empower their teams. For themselves and those around them, they demanded a high ethical and moral standard.

Based on the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, almost 75% (n = 11) of the learners had judging style personalities, which indicated a preference for structured and decisive environments. Forty percent (n = 6) were sensing, thinking, and judging (STJ). Thorough, dependable, logical, practical, and realistic are characteristics representative of the STJ personality, which values "security, stability, belonging, preserving traditions, and applying established skills" (Clancy, 1997, p. 434). Analytical and concrete with a keen sense of responsibility, these learners work steadily toward goals while their desire for routine and order match their linear-thinking style. They carried out their responsibilities consistently and forcefully (The Myers & Briggs Foundation, n.d.). There was an almost even distribution between those preferring Introversion and those preferring Extraversion (one additional extravert), and the remainder of the learners represented a range of the *Myers-Briggs* psychological types.

The *Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale* reflected that all 15 Latin American learners and the two lead U.S. professors and mentors had low ethnocentrism scores. In response to the high- and low-context scale derived from DeVito (2004), all 15 Latin American learners had high high-context scores, aligning with the expected cultural norms. This reflects a need for face-saving and conflict avoidance, yet also that relationship is of utmost importance. Follow-up focus group responses demonstrated the same theme. In contrast, the two lead U.S. professors scored high in low-context, which revealed their individualistic natures and attendant explicit and direct communication.

Leadership traits and styles. From their *Leadership Trait Questionnaire* self-assessments, this group primarily described themselves as trustworthy, determined, perceptive, and persistent. The *Style Questionnaire* revealed that 40% (n = 6) of the group reported a balance

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in their relationship versus task leadership orientation. Three were task-oriented, one of which was extremely task-oriented. These were of particular interest because at the end of the program, all three reported dramatic leadership changes. One credited the program with significant improvement in his people skills, while another noted he now appreciated people more. The learner who identified as extremely task-oriented said, "For the first time in years, I am paying more attention to people . . . than to tasks and results . . . this [program] time was a turning point in my life."

Self-reflection through learners' autobiographies, philosophies, time log analyses, and portfolios demonstrated that this program enhanced leadership capacity. These exercises required learners to increase their self-awareness, resulting in what they referred to as personal transformation. Each learner reported that this transformational process helped them prioritize and focus while gaining strength to overcome obstacles and achieve leadership vision and goals. Leadership trait and style transformation, a recurring theme, occurred through and throughout this educational process.

***Conflict resolution preferences*.** Important to leaders is the ability to manage conflict (Hackman & Johnson, 2004; Shockley-Zalabak, 2002). From the learners' results on the Shockley-Zalabak (2002) *Conflict Profile*, this group preferred a collaborative style of conflict resolution, with males preferring a competitive style more often than females. Compromise was the second most popular choice, and one learner chose accommodation. Of interest, when responding to the *WTC* scale, this group confirmed their need for relationship: almost 75% of the cohort was willing to communicate, with 40% highly willing. This may explain why this group was primarily collaborative in their conflict resolution style.

In summary, these learners were well-balanced, self-reflective individuals. They were predominately relationship rather than task-oriented and were willing to collaboratively resolve conflict. Their ability to incorporate program information, self-reflection, and lived experience enabled learners to transform themselves and their leadership capacity. By placing these psychosocial, cultural, leadership, and conflict resolution assessments at strategic points throughout the program, the curriculum modeled the need for ongoing self-transformation through sustained self-learning.

Organizational assessments. Learners assessed their organizations by directly applying knowledge gained from course content. Organizational assessments enabled learners to determine direction for their leadership, while Gannt charts and other planning tools helped them anticipate and define strategic goals for organizational growth.

As the above assessments suggest, learners gained substantial self-knowledge during this program. In tandem with the organizational assessments and strategic organizational goal development, learners evaluated their personal leadership growth and adjusted it in light of organizational needs, assuring alignment. In evaluating themselves, learners eagerly applied what they discovered; however, challenges, including the *angst* of personal reflection, assailed the learners on many fronts. As one student described it, "I can say that the whole program was like a 'watershed' for me." Throughout the process as learners discovered their strengths and weaknesses, professors mentored them in not only developing a strategic plan for personal growth, but also in refining their leadership at each stage of development.

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Mentoring

Embedded throughout the program, Grooms and Reid-Martinez's (2006, 2008) interaction function and Jacobi's (1991) mentoring function surfaced repeatedly. Supporting Grooms' (2000) work, the *CMIS* responses revealed learners desired task interaction in three categories: (a) informational feedback, (b) evaluative feedback, and (c) intellectual discussion. Regarding informational feedback and mentoring functions, all learners stated that access to resources and information about organizational culture and key personnel were *frequently* to *always* provided. In addition, all reported that professors *frequently* to *always* clarified goals and values through evaluative feedback and mentoring. While all noted knowledge acquisition occurred through intellectual discussions, one learner asked for more challenges in those discussions. This illustrates that task interaction directly related to the mentoring functions.

Additional *CMIS* findings support that socio-emotional functions of mentoring and interaction in the leadership development process fell into two categories: (a) motivation/support and (b) socializing, again aligning with the work of Grooms (2000). In the area of motivation/support and its related mentoring functions, all learners indicated they *frequently* to *always* received: adaptation of instructional materials; acceptance, support, and encouragement; advice and guidance; coaching; role modeling; and a safe and supportive environment in which to learn. For mentoring functions that paralleled socializing, learners had varied responses. Fifty-seven percent agreed that professors *frequently* to *always* enhanced their social status. Fifty percent said they *frequently* to *always* received visibility and exposure, while 64% said they received sponsorship or advocacy. Only 7% (n=1) said they were socialized into their professions, perhaps indicative of the variety of professions represented and the transcontinental dimensions of the program with professors and students in different cultures and geographical locations. Thus, all 15 mentoring functions occurred at various levels with mentoring sustained throughout the program.

ICT/Blended Communication

Designed to meet the needs of current and future leaders and to provide learning from a cross-cultural perspective, one distinctive element of this program was the virtual, blended learning environment. This context, which demanded the use of ICTs and f2f platforms, required learners to operate in today's technology-laden global environment while maintaining the richness of interpersonal communication. As was expected, learners and professors used the f2f environment to establish and deepen relationships. It also afforded the opportunity and format for quickly resolving issues as they sat together in one location. At the same time, the virtual environment allowed learners to connect with greater breadth of information and with the broader community of experts while remaining in touch with their professors after the f2f meetings. By combining the richness of f2f and the connectivity of ICTs, learners sustained communication over time and space.

Through assignment assessments, observations, and interviews, the professors observed student use of ICTs in the learning process. Although the program was designed with designated roles for technology, learners quickly adapted ICTs to meet their cultural expectations and needs. For example, in online assignments created to teach problem solving, these learners automatically moved to a blend of f2f and virtual communication. Requiring sensitivity and adjustment in working with learners on technological adaptations, professors modeled

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empowerment, an important leadership skill. Additionally, the process taught learners advantages and disadvantages of various communication channels.

Through ICT connectivity, professors gave the cross-cultural learners guidance; as a team, they provided responses to learners on an almost 24/7 basis. As technology allowed learners to interact continuously with peers, it also facilitated swift and easy connections with local, regional, national, and international experts. This experience further prepared learners to incorporate ICTs at new levels of organizational team building as they came to understand which medium applied most appropriately to which messages and functions of communication and leadership. For example, learners were encouraged to network for virtual mentoring and to use ICTs for the content of their courses (e.g., virtual libraries, audio and video streaming, chat rooms, and the early stages of Web2 technologies). Furthermore, they gained an understanding of how to lead in cross-cultural, virtual contexts as they immediately applied this new leadership knowledge in their organizations. This presented yet another avenue for assuring the ease of sustaining learners' leadership through sustained learning, sustained support of a network of peers, and sustained and deepened organizational relationships as they learned to use ICTs as an important means of communication for broader networking and knowledge development.

Discussion

From this case study, an educational model emerged illustrating the synergistic relationship that facilitates sustained leadership in educational programs. Key elements confirmed that leadership sustainability, demonstrated through learner outcomes, was an intricate weaving of multiple factors in the educational program. Three critical areas emerged: (a) sustained communication in the ICT/Blended environment, (b) sustained mentoring, and (c) sustained curriculum and learning. Figure 1 portrays the elements and relationships of sustainable leadership development model.

Sustained Communication in the ICT/Blended Environment

The first key element, sustained communication, resulted from the blended learning environment that combined f2f and ICTs, including the use of virtual classrooms, so that learners were connected with information, peers, professors, and experts. Due to the cross-cultural, cross-continental dimensions of this educational endeavor, use of ICTs made a dynamic 24/7 learning opportunity possible. It also facilitated timely post-graduation leadership development follow-up.

Additionally, in this case study learners used media for their own purposes and in their own ways, and the professors adapted to that usage. This was congruent with traditional understanding of media uses-and-gratifications and functions of such media, such as transmission of information and culture (e.g., Carey, 1989; Katz, Blumler, & Gurevitch, 1974; Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; McQuail, Blumler, & Brown, 1972).

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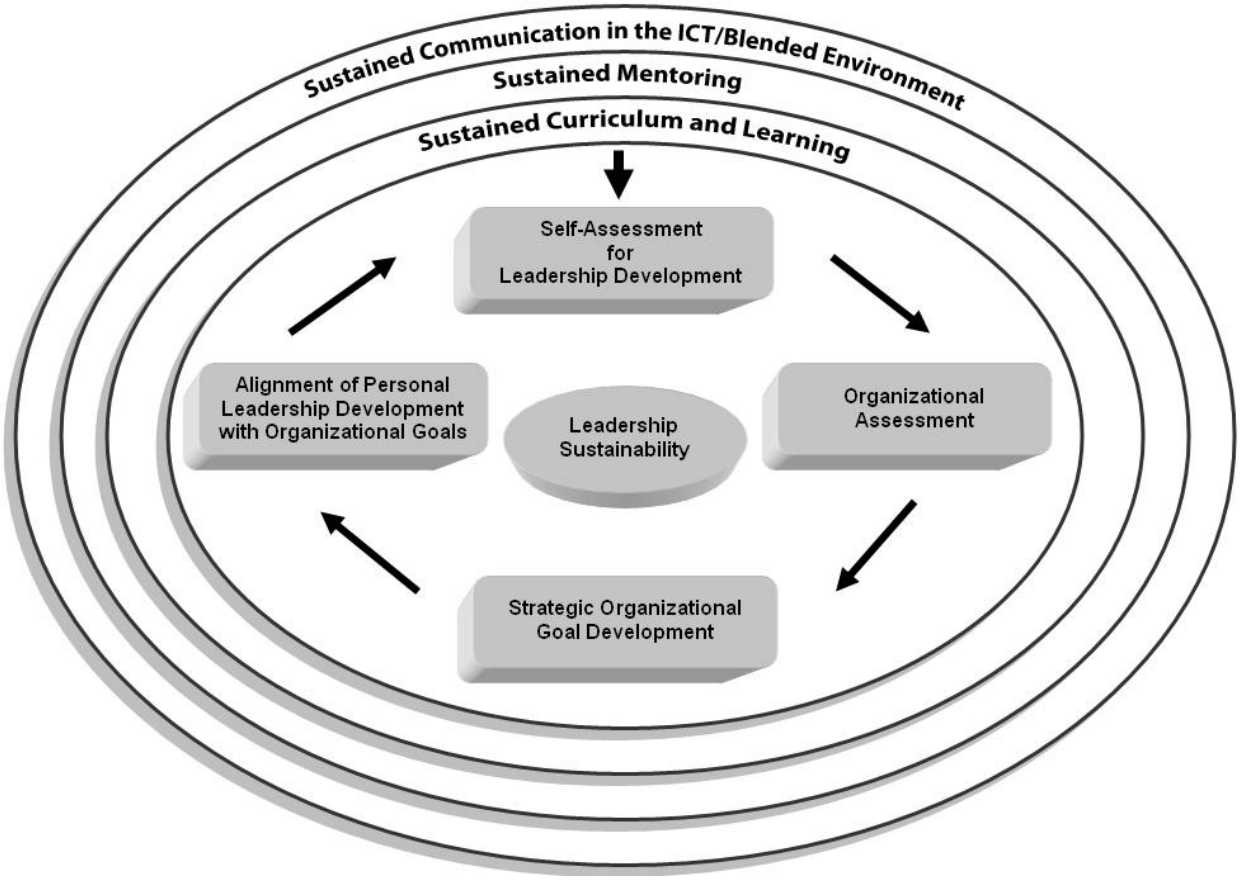

Figure 1. Sustainable Leadership Development Model. Adapted from Reid-Martinez & Grooms (2008).

In the communication process, students were empowered to more clearly manifest their leadership roles in both the f2f and virtual environments as they transmitted a new cultural ethos grounded in their axiological, ontological, and epistemological development. This development, especially the learner's self-analysis with its transformational dimensions, revealed the strategic and essential roles of both the educational medium and the learner's newly enhanced ontological and axiological leadership character and fiber. This character was the important membrane through which learners' virtual communities evolved as they were created and sustained through the transmission of culture using multiple mediated channels. With the merger of medium and culture, the old adage that "the medium is the message" (McLuhan, 1964) surfaced as media influenced the ways in which these learners defined their newly created virtual communities with their related leadership and learning development.

Most importantly, the creation of these communities deepened learners' leadership capabilities. The connectivity offered by technology aided in sustaining the participants' leadership in healthier and more intentional ways. Taking advantage of the strengths of available media, learners came to understand best leadership communication practices. This sustained communication in the ICT/Blended environment promoted leadership sustainability over time along with leadership succession as the learners trained future leaders.

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Sustained Mentoring

Sustained mentoring surfaced as an essential element in this leadership development program, confirming Stoddard's (2003) conclusion that "in a real sense, mentoring is leadership—leading a mentoring partner to self-discovery, self-fulfillment, and paradoxically, selflessness" (pp. 192-193). Wilkes (1998) further stated that mentoring is how leaders "prepare the next generation of leaders for service [and] unless there are future leaders, there is no future" (p. 236). Indeed as individuals in this study were observed two years post-graduation, all were actively teaching, modeling, or implementing, as well as mentoring, what they had been taught.

These learners understood mentors to be professors who were guides and facilitators providing content, pointing the way, assessing for quality, and filling in gaps with recommendations, information, and wisdom as needed. To further assure that mentoring took place, the curriculum was embedded with assessments related to Jacobi's (1991) mentoring functions and was designed to operate in tandem with the professors mentoring in the f2f and ICT learning environments. These assessments allowed timely and quality feedback to learners throughout the process. As a team, professors provided 24/7 mentoring support through interpersonal and mediated communication. When combined with the embedded mentoring functions, this created a fail-safe opportunity to ensure sustained mentoring.

Sustained Curriculum and Learning

Designed to provide transformational opportunities for learners, the curriculum also created a sustained learning environment. As mentioned earlier, learners demonstrated this by noting that the curriculum "still lives within them," indicating the sustained curriculum had a dynamic rather than a static effect.

The curriculum's transformational element resulted from the synergy of leadership theory, self-analysis, and praxis. Most importantly, these three were placed within ethical and practical applications that pushed the learners to understand themselves in real-life contexts. The learners had to first "know themselves" and their ethics and values to better assess their organizational leadership. This ontological and axiological perspective required learners to complete a number of leadership self-assessments that were revisited and reassessed at different points of the program. This process demonstrated levels of personal internal transformation. When combined with their organizational assessment, learners checked for alignment and made appropriate changes in their personal leadership development in light of strategic organizational goals. By helping learners continuously make connections and alignments between their deep internal locus of control with leadership and their external leadership environment, the learners as leaders were better positioned to effectively influence and meet the needs of their evolving organizations. This resulted in sustainable leadership through sustained curriculum and learning that granted a high level of satisfaction for these learners as they transformed themselves and their organizations.

The Model and Sustainable Leadership Education Programs

Mirroring contemporary learning theories and consistent with the earlier works of Reid-Martinez (2006) and Reid-Martinez, Grooms, and Bocarnea (2009), the Sustainable Leadership Development Model demonstrates the importance of educational programs combining social

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constructivism (Berger & Luckman, 1967; Vygotsky, 1978) and connectivism (Siemans, 2005) for successful learning. This approach recognizes that students do not learn strictly within the confines of their educational institutions, but rather within the broader context of their personal lives. In this educational program, use of ICTs expanded the learner's ability to gather knowledge from multiple contexts.

Consequently, the boundaries of the educational institution blurred as ICTs and the larger community were integrated into the learning process. With ICTs and their capacity to transmit both information and culture, learners worked collaboratively to bring their own and others' worldviews and experiences into the learning community. In this process, they negotiated and generated meaning through shared understanding and experiences filtered by their axiological screens. Thus, in this constructivist environment education moved from a single individual's solitary pursuit of knowledge to a collaborative learning community that reciprocally shaped and informed learners as they in turn shaped and informed the community. Such an approach focused on constant regeneration, refinement of personal internal values, and transformation of the leaders within their learning communities, supporting the earlier work of Hargreaves and Fink (2003, 2004, 2006) that implied the leader as learner is key to sustainable leadership.

Simultaneously, a connectivist approach to learning was observed as well. Technology created a dynamic nature of multiple networks, and leaders as learners sifted through rapidly changing databases. They gleaned and gathered from the montage of regional and global experts, journeying through constantly evolving social networks and congregating electronically with others to discuss themes and ideas. In these shifting and fluid digital communities, learners used a constructivist approach filtered through their ontology and axiology to garner what they needed for leadership empowerment and sustainability. As they married their internal constructivist state with their external connectivist environment, the learners developed knowledge in the social construction and practice of their leadership. This ongoing connective and constructive process of learning and leading helped to create sustainable leaders.

Limitations and Future Research

Limitations of the current study center on the question of over-measurement. As noted earlier, over-measurement can create a problem with "tool fratricide," which may have skewed the results in this leadership development study. Future researchers should select instruments that would be most effective for studying nuances of leadership development in specific intercultural and international learning environments. Future research could also focus on which learning methods and andragogies are best aligned within the cultures of both the learners and the facilitators. At the same time, research could focus on third culture development as it relates to leadership education. Third culture here references what occurs in the new learning spaces created through contemporary use of virtual and f2f blended education to create and sustain leadership development in global learning initiatives.

Conclusion

In conclusion and in response to the research question, this study suggests that a strong leadership program will model the way of empowerment and development of individuals rather than deplete human resources as it encourages sustained leadership through sustained communities of learning. This educational initiative immersed learners in a virtual/blended

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learning environment that focused on personal transformation in order to transform their organizations and communities.

Through modeling and mentoring, learners were provided with intentional leadership support structures and, for their futures, they gained the ability to build sustained learning communities for sustained leadership within themselves and their followers. Such sustained learning creates a cycle of ongoing leadership development that continuously moves current and future leaders from information to the creation of reservoirs of knowledge and wisdom, further deepening and sustaining leadership. This continuous leadership growth provides an important constant in the evolution of sustainability, demonstrating that like sustainable development, sustainable leadership represents a process, not an end state.

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THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY FACTORS ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: EXPLORING THE MODERATING ROLE OF POLITICAL SKILL

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Several articles have resolved that a leader's individual personality plays a role in determining his or her leadership style. This review addresses this verdict by providing a theoretical examination of the relationship between the "Big Five" and transformational leadership (TFL), introducing political skill as a potential moderator. It investigates the dimensions of the Big Five as independent variables and explores how these intrinsic qualities correlate with transformational leadership. It also defends its proposal of political skill as a moderator of the Big Five-TFL relationship. Propositions concerning direct relationships and interactions are provided, as well as a conceptual model, implications, and suggestions for future research.

Individuals' personalities can be observed through their attitudes and behaviors and can reflect the lasting qualities that they possess. A pattern evolves over time, and the traits solidify and become engrained in them to embody their personality. However, personality is not simply a means of differentiating one individual from another. It is an important construct because it affects other crucial concepts in the fields of organizational studies and human resource development. For example, studies have explored the relationship between personality and job performance criteria such as job proficiency and training proficiency (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Driskell, Hogan, Salas, & Hoskin, 1994); the relationship between personality, stress, and coping (Bolger, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1986); as well as the relationship between personality and citizenship behavior/contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, & Judge, 2007).

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Another essential concept that personality is suggested to influence is leadership. In fact, numerous studies have been performed globally in an attempt to show a relationship between personality and leadership (Cilliers, van Deventer, & van Eeden, 2008; Kok-Yee, Soon, & Kim-Yin, 2008; Quigley, 2008). In addition, there is empirical and theoretical reason to believe that this personality-leadership relationship would be moderated by political skill. As regards leadership in Australia, Tiernan (2006) stated that former Prime Minister John Howard's PMO (prime minister's office) was a reflection of his experience, political skills, and personality, in addition to the advisory structure of the office. As regards leadership in the United States, Pearson (2006) reiterated that leadership *requires* political skills and *depends on* personality, political skills, time, place, and circumstance.

The purpose of this review is to examine the correlation between personality and transformational leadership (TFL), as well as to explore the moderating effects of political skill. TFL is viewed as an essential leadership style that has a positive and extensive influence in a number of countries, sectors, and occupational fields (Bass & Riggio, 2006a). Studies have shown that transformational leadership increases employee and organizational performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006b; Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Garcia-Morales, Matias-Reche, & Hurtado-Torres, 2008; Whittington & Goodwin, 2001); increases employee commitment, loyalty, and satisfaction; reduces social loafing; and lessens stress in the workplace (Bass & Riggio, 2006b). In addition, research has also been conducted regarding the positive correlations between transformational leadership and employee motivation (Adebayo, 2005; Bono & Judge, 2003; Masi & Cooke, 2000; Webb, 2007) and between transformational leadership and creativity (Jung, 2000/2001; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998).

Since TFL has such a powerful, practical, and beneficial impact in organizational development, it would be useful to investigate its antecedents, explore the moderating effects of other constructs, and thus determine the qualities and/or skills that transformational leaders possess. Therefore, this paper will venture to examine personality dimensions according to the five factor model of personality (hereafter also referred to as the Big Five), reflecting on their influence upon leadership style with an emphasis on transformational leadership and its components. It will also explore political skill as a moderator. Propositions and a conceptual model will be provided, as well as implications and new outlooks for future research and practice related to personality, political skill, and leadership. As a result, a greater understanding of the importance and intricacy of personality and political skill and the roles they play in influencing leadership style and ability in the workplace will be achieved. These are significant steps because leadership style and ability can positively or adversely affect leadership effectiveness in an organizational setting.

Five Factor Model of Personality

Colquitt, LePine, and Noe (2000) defined personality as relatively stable characteristics of individuals (other than ability) that influence their cognition and behavior. Ones, Viswesvaran, and Dilchert (2005) described personality traits as enduring dispositions and tendencies of individuals to behave in certain ways. Therefore, an individual's personality forms part of his/her identity, consistently distinguishing him/her from others, and is reflected in his/her propensity to think, feel, and act in certain ways. The widely accepted Five Factor Model of Personality (FFM) began with a lexical hypothesis (Mayer, 2003; Ones, Viswesvaran, & Dilchert, 2005) and refers to personality elements that have been discerned through empirical

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research. Also labeled "The Big Five," the model consists of five dimensions: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion/introversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism/emotional stability (OCEAN). These personality domains involve a cluster of other associated characteristics, facets, and/or preferences (Chih-Chien & Yann-Jy, 2007; Graziano, Bruce, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007; Mayer, 2003), as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Personality Dimensions and Their Elements

Personality Dimensions	Elements
Openness to Experience	imagination, curiosity, artistic sensitivity, originality
Conscientiousness	reliability, dependability, industriousness, organization, achievement orientation
Extraversion/Introversion	friendliness, gregariousness/sociability, assertiveness, cheerfulness, excitement seeking, energy/activity level, talkativeness
Agreeableness	cooperation, cheerfulness, supportiveness, social responsiveness/harmony
Neuroticism/Emotional Stability	anxiety, depression, instability

The five factor model of personality is practical because it can be used to predict as well as clarify a number of constructs and phenomena. In fact, Ones, Viswesvaran, and Dilchert (2005) affirmed that the big five variables have sizable operational validities for predicting job performance and other criteria, including behaviors at work. Over the years, studies have utilized the Big Five to investigate the relationship between supervisors' personalities and subordinates' attitudes, including satisfaction, commitment, and turnover (Smith & Canger, 2004); to explore the correlation between personality and individual job performance (Barrick & Mount, 2005); and even to examine the connection between personality traits and physical health (Smith & Williams, 1992), which can affect performance. This review will add to the academic collection of articles on persona by focusing on the link between personality characteristics and transformational leadership, as well as the interaction between personality and political skill that influences transformational leadership.

Transformational Leadership

Effective leadership is viewed universally as vital to organizational success, and many attempts have been made to categorize leaders according to their instinctive characteristics and varying styles. Several paradigms have emerged, including servant leadership, transactional leadership, and the laissez-faire manner. Servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) refers to the ideal that the leader focuses on helping others rather than satisfying his/her own selfish needs or desires, understanding his/her role as a servant first and foremost of those he/she leads. Transactional leadership (Bass, 1985) is used to exert influence through extrinsic reward(s) and/or discipline that is reliant on the subordinate's performance and can include contingent

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reward, active management by exception, and/or passive management by exception (Bass & Riggio, 2006c). Laissez-faire behavior, in actuality, is an absence of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006c).

Recognized as highest on the scale of effectiveness is transformational Leadership (TFL), which was originally articulated by Burns (1978). It can be described as leadership which transpires when the leader engages the follower, ensuring that both entities are elevated to higher planes of motivation and morality while attending to a common purpose. It has been developed to include four central components, namely Idealized Influence (II), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individualized Consideration (IC) (Bass & Riggio, 2006b). II is associated with admiration, respect, ethics, trust, and sharing risk. IM is connected to passion, team spirit, and a shared vision. IS incorporates the prompting of originality and innovation, and IC includes responsiveness to the follower's needs for growth and development (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bass & Riggio, 2006c). The components and their elements can be viewed in Table 2.

Table 2
TFL Components and Their Elements

TFL Components	Elements
Idealized Influence (II)	being a role model that is highly regarded, valued, trusted, and deserving of emulation
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	encouraging enthusiasm in others through challenge and instilling a sense of significance while promoting cohesion, harmony, and confidence
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	kindling creativity and inventiveness by encouraging novel ideas, questioning, and thinking outside the box
Individualized Consideration (IC)	paying particular attention to the individual needs of each follower

Political Skill

Individuals that possess political skill have the ability to read others and suitably adjust their behavior in accordance with the situation to achieve favorable outcomes. It is defined as an interpersonal style construct that combines social astuteness with the ability to relate well, and otherwise demonstrate situationally appropriate behavior in a disarmingly charming and engaging manner that inspires confidence, trust, sincerity, and genuineness (Ferris, Perrewe, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000). According to Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas, and Lux (2007), it is the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives. The authors characterized it as a "comprehensive pattern of social competencies, with cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations" (Ferris et al.).

Therefore, political skill is a multi-dimensional construct that involves perspicacity, the art of persuasion, the knack of forming the right connections, and the seeming embodiment of authenticity. Ferris et al. (2007) explained the dimensions, namely social astuteness,

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interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity. The dimensions and their elements can be viewed in Table 3.

Table 3
Political Skill Dimensions and Their Elements

Political Skill Dimensions	Elements
Social Astuteness	the ability to incisively observe others, understand social interactions, and accurately interpret behavior
Interpersonal Influence	the ability to adapt and calibrate behavior to elicit desired responses from others
Networking Ability	the ability to identify and develop diverse contacts and networks of people
Apparent Sincerity	the ability to appear to others as having high levels of integrity, and as being sincere and genuine

Social Exchange Theory: The Foundation

The propositions for this review are based on Social Exchange Theory, which refers to reciprocal relationships in the workplace. Bowler and Brass (2006) suggested that friendship ties lead to reciprocity and social exchange and facilitate the allowance of short-term inequity necessary for social exchange to occur. Friendship ties reflect connections due to strong relationships, and the Big Five dimensions of personality all have the ability to affect relationships and the quality of exchange experienced in those relationships. Friendliness is included in the agreeableness dimension, so agreeable individuals are more likely to form friendships easily and thus benefit from a high quality of social exchange as a result. However, extraverted, emotionally stable individuals who are open to building and maintaining relationships with others would also find it easier to keep relationships. In addition, conscientious individuals who recognize relationships as essential to achieving certain goals would be committed to relationship preservation.

Transformational leadership embraces engagement, which is more effortless when strong relationships are present; thus, all the components of TFL would be more readily practiced if the leader-follower relationship or leader-member exchange (LMX) was of a high quality. Political skill is in part a social construct, and politically skilled individuals have the capacity to be observant and read social cues in order to adjust behavior and influence others. They also possess the ability to network effectively and convince others of their sincerity. All these skills are useful in nurturing powerful exchange relationships.

People are inclined to reciprocate high quality relationships. For example, Cardona, Lawrence, and Bentler (2004) mentioned the tendency of individuals to reciprocate high quality relationships by engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Thus, since the Big Five, political skill, and a transformational style of leadership should assist in relationship

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building and maintenance in the workplace, employees should be induced to reciprocate with heightened performance, commitment, loyalty, satisfaction, motivation, creativity, and other outcomes shown to be influenced by these three constructs. Therefore, social exchange theory is a rational and sound foundation for the propositions in this paper.

Personality, Political Skill, and TFL: Tying the Three Together

Human beings possess intrinsic qualities and preferences that make them individuals. These distinct qualities determine their perceptions of various situations and behaviors under varying conditions and differentiate some people's responses from others. Therefore, if innate characteristics that establish individuality generally lead people to behave in certain ways, it is reasonable to surmise that these characteristics specifically guide them to also approach leadership in certain ways.

Personality is an individual difference that should not be overlooked. Several studies have been conducted in an attempt to link personality with leadership styles, including scrutiny of prominent foreign political figures like Indira Gandhi (Steinberg, 2005) and examination of renowned American leaders including but not limited to Bill Clinton, Ronald Reagan, and Richard Nixon (Goethals, 2005). These studies and others have considered the influence of personality patterns on approaches to leadership, and the relationships and connotations have been quite interesting. The following sections pertain to individual personality dimensions according to the Five Factor Model and how they are related to transformational leadership components. The moderating role of political skill is also discussed.

Openness to Experience

Openness to experience can be likened to openness to change. Leaders are expected to be more willing to consider and/or accept divergent thinking and take the risks, which relates to being open to experience or change. One study found that more open leaders were more likely to listen to opinions presented by their followers, thus giving them more "voice" (Detert & Burris, 2007). It may be assumed that such openness also leads to intellectual stimulation since individuals would be encouraged to share their thoughts even if they challenged the status quo. Interestingly, a study conducted by Hetland and Sandal (2003) confirmed that openness to change was significantly correlated to TFL when rated by superiors, although it showed no considerable relationship when observed through subordinates. This remarkable result accurately suggests the essential nature of context when determining these relationships.

According to Judge and Bono (2000), the correlation between openness to experience and TFL does exist. In fact, the study produced a correlation that was quite significant. This is understandable, considering that leaders that are open to experience should be more creative and inventive and thus more visionary in nature and willing to embrace change. Having a vision and being able to stimulate followers to pursue that vision, accepting and taking full advantage of change when it arises, is extremely important for a transformational leader.

Unexpectedly, some studies find no direct relationship between openness to experience and TFL except when a mediator is involved. This was the case with a study by De Hoogh, Den Hartog, and Koopman (2005), where a perceived dynamic work environment acted as a mediating variable. According to the study, there was only a significant correlation when the work environment lacked stability.

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Political skill is a potential moderator of the Big Five-TFL relationship due to the possible interaction with the openness dimension. Ferris et al. (2007) mentioned the political skill dimension of interpersonal influence, which reflects the individual's convincing style and captures the individual's flexibility by which he/she is sufficiently open to adapt his/her personal style and behavior to achieve goals. Such a leader would be more likely to be transformational as he/she would be more likely to be considered a role model and thus impact the follower through idealized influence. He/she would also be more likely to stimulate followers intellectually and to demonstrate individualized consideration due to his/her readiness to adapt. Therefore, political skill, as a moderator, would strengthen the openness-TFL relationship through the interpersonal influence dimension, which includes openness. The following propositions reflect the associations put forward among openness to experience, political skill, and TFL:

Proposition 1A: Openness to experience is positively related to TFL.

Proposition 1B: Political skill moderates the relationship between openness to experience and TFL such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who possess high levels of political skill than it is for individuals who possess low levels of political skill.

Conscientiousness

While conscientiousness is the personality trait most researched and most consistent in predicting other concepts like performance or organizational citizenship behavior (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001), it has been less considered for research concerning transformational leadership and even less found to impact transformational leadership. It can be argued that conscientiousness should be a predictor of TFL because transformational leaders should be industrious and achievement oriented. It can be disputed that leaders must first set an example in order to be positive, influential, inspirational role models that motivate and stimulate their followers to perform to a high standard and exceed expectations. Surprisingly, neither Judge and Bono (2000) nor Lim and Ployhart (2004) found conscientiousness to display any significant correlation with TFL.

Since conscientiousness is associated with the desire and drive for achievement, it is expected that conscientious individuals would be open and willing to make necessary changes to accomplish goals; this flexibility would be an asset to a transformational leader. This readiness to adjust, different from reflecting conscientiousness and openness to experience, as well as the political skill dimension of interpersonal influence, also mirrors self-monitoring. Ferris et al. (2007) mentioned the perceptiveness theme, which alludes to an individual's ability to monitor and regulate his/her behavior based on social cues. The social astuteness dimension of political skill allows the leader to be more perceptive, paying close attention to his/her environment, and to monitor and adapt his/her behavior in order to project the appropriate social image and reap the desired reward(s). Ferris et al. explained that politically skilled individuals keep a healthy gauge on their accountability to both self and others, suggesting that they are conscientious. Results from a study conducted by Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, and Frink (2005) also showed that there is a significant relationship between the social astuteness dimension of political skill and conscientiousness.

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It is also reasonable to purport that conscientious leaders would be willing to go the extra mile to network and build relationships with followers and other key persons to fulfill objectives. These actions also reflect the political skill dimension of networking ability and would assist the transformational leader as he/she attempts to engage his/her followers. Thus, this paper proposes political skill as a moderator that would strengthen the conscientiousness-TFL relationship. The following propositions reflect the suggested associations among conscientiousness, political skill, and TFL:

Proposition 2A: Conscientiousness is positively related to TFL.

Proposition 2B: Political skill moderates the relationship between conscientiousness and TFL such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who possess high levels of political skill than it is for individuals who possess low levels of political skill.

Extraversion/Introversion

Engagement is essential in all the components of TFL, and Rubin, Munz, and Bommer (2005) noted both agreeableness and extraversion as key traits enabling the mutual engagement of leaders and followers. However, extraversion, which is usually associated with assertiveness and gregariousness, surprisingly did not predict TFL in their study.

Also, according to the study by De Hoogh, Den Hartog, and Koopman (2005), there was no relationship between extraversion and TFL regardless of the work environment, which theoretically should play a role in determining whether leaders are open with employees and communicate with them on a regular basis. However, a significant positive correlation was found between extraversion of followers and their perception of transformational behavior from their leaders (Felfe & Schyns, 2006). It was explained that the followers' outgoing nature motivated them to seek interaction and interpersonal relations with their leaders, and thus they perceived more TFL.

Studies conducted by Judge and Bono (2000) and Lim and Ployhart (2004) did result in extraversion displaying a significant correlation with TFL. This was the expected outcome since the traits associated with extraversion seem to be attributes of transformational leaders. Extraverts are expected to be charismatic individuals who are communicative, persuasive, and able to rally others to perform. The meta-analysis by Bono and Judge (2004) later confirmed this belief by indicating extraversion to be linked to the charisma dimension of TFL.

As mentioned previously, extraverts are friendly, outgoing, and assertive. Ferris et al. (2007) stated that extraversion reflects an affability or sociability theme. Politically skilled individuals also possess these qualities. One dimension of political skill is networking ability, which allows individuals to make valuable connections that would assist in achieving goals. Ferris et al. (2007) also stated that individuals with political skill are adept at identifying and developing diverse contacts and networks of people to ensure organizational gains. The authors stated that politically skilled individuals possess networking ability in part as a result of their aptitude for easily developing friendships. Extraverted individuals would be more successful at initiating and maintaining these relationships and thus would be more likely to use relationship-building to influence and motivate their followers. Thus, it would be reasonable to suggest that

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political skill as a moderator would strengthen the extraversion-TFL relationship. The following propositions reflect the associations propounded among extraversion, political skill, and TFL:

Proposition 3A: Extraversion is positively related to TFL.

Proposition 3B: Political skill moderates the relationship between extraversion and TFL such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who possess high levels of political skill than it is for individuals who possess low levels of political skill.

Agreeableness

Agreeableness is an important personality trait when considering transformational leadership because it alludes to the nurturing character of the leader, who acts to bring out the best in his or her followers and is sensitive to their needs. In fact, Hetland and Sandal (2003) found agreeableness (termed warmth) to be the strongest personality correlate of TFL in their Norwegian study. Judge and Bono (2000) also found that agreeableness displayed the strongest relationship with TFL. It was also mentioned that agreeableness was related to consideration, which is expected since agreeable individuals are compassionate and empathic. However, a bit surprising was that agreeableness was the Big Five trait most strongly related with charisma. One would expect that extraversion would be more responsible for the charismatic nature of leaders. Agreeable individuals are affectionate, generous, trusting, cooperative, and good with relationships. They are concerned with others and willing to attend to their needs. Therefore, understandably, the study conducted by Rubin, Munz, and Bommer (2005) supported agreeableness as a predictor of TFL, maintaining hypotheses that transformational leaders are more interpersonally sensitive than transactional leaders or those that rely heavily on contingent reward.

Occasionally, research is conducted on various personality characteristics that fall under the umbrella of agreeableness and can therefore be used to corroborate the relationship between agreeableness and TFL. For example, a study conducted by Hetland and Sandal (2003) confirmed that warmth was significantly linked to TFL, which is understandable since warmth is expected to impact a leader's demonstration of individualized consideration. In this same study, warmth was shown to have a significant correlation with openness to change, which was mentioned earlier as also being positively related to TFL.

Contrary to other research conducted, Lim and Ployhart's (2004) study revealed a negative relationship between agreeableness and TFL. This finding reinforces the importance of taking contextual factors into account and being wary of generalizations when conducting empirical research.

The warmth and compassion associated with agreeable individuals are also included among the assets of leaders with political skill. According to Ferris et al. (2007), the affability theme, in addition to reflecting dispositional characteristics like extraversion and positive affectivity, also represents the agreeableness construct. Affability is linked to the political skill dimensions of interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity, all of which are valuable in transformational leadership. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose that political skill would interact with agreeableness to influence TFL, and that as a moderator political skill

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would strengthen the agreeableness-TFL relationship. The following propositions reflect the associations set forth among agreeableness, political skill, and TFL:

Proposition 4A: Agreeableness is positively related to TFL.

Proposition 4B: Political skill moderates the relationship between agreeableness and TFL such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who possess high levels of political skill than it is for individuals who possess low levels of political skill.

Neuroticism/Emotional Stability

Judge and Bono (2000) hypothesized a relationship between neuroticism and TFL because of neuroticism's link to self-esteem and self-confidence. The researchers thought these traits were necessary for an individual to be able to take risks and set high standards, as well as to motivate followers to take risks and achieve those standards. However, their study did not find neuroticism to display any significant relationship with TFL. This was a bit surprising as one would anticipate a negative relationship, expecting neurotic individuals to be considerably sub-standard regarding interpersonal relationships and thus to be less likely to display the characteristics associated with TFL.

A subsequent meta-analysis by Bono and Judge (2004), however, did indicate that neuroticism was linked to TFL through the charisma dimension. They considered this dimension part of both idealized influence and inspirational motivation. Results of the investigation also established that neuroticism was negatively linked to the TFL dimensions of intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Lim and Ployhart (2004) also found neuroticism to be negatively related to TFL.

Interestingly, it has been found that emotional stability among employees, or the lack thereof, influences their perception of their leader's transformational qualities. In a study conducted by Felfe and Schyns (2006), neuroticism of followers was negatively related to their perception of TFL exuded by their leaders, and the negative relationship was especially significant between neuroticism and the TFL component of idealized influence. This was attributed to the fact that neurotic followers would have lower self-esteem and higher anxiety and may experience more insecurity. Thus, they may experience avoidance or withdrawal when confronted with a transformational leader.

Emotionally stable leaders are more secure in themselves and confident in their abilities and thus lack the nervousness and vulnerability that prevent individuals from building and managing relationships through effective communication, negotiation, compromise, and conflict resolution, as well as making sound decisions and leading through engagement. As mentioned previously, political skill is also essential in relationship building. Ferris et al. (2007) stated that politically skilled individuals are often highly skilled negotiators and deal makers and are adept at conflict management. The authors also contended that individuals high in political skill would possess greater perceptions of control and interpret workplace stressors differently, resulting in less strain and anxiety. These skills would be assets to leaders as they attempt to motivate their followers and as they practice both idealized influence and individualized consideration. Thus, as a moderator, political skill would strengthen the emotional stability-TFL relationship. The

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following propositions reflect the suggested associations among emotional stability, political skill, and TFL:

Proposition 5A: Emotional stability is positively related to TFL.

Proposition 5B: Political skill moderates the relationship between emotional stability and TFL such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who possess high levels of political skill than it is for individuals who possess low levels of political skill.

It is reasonable to propose that all the Big Five dimensions would be positively related to TFL. Openness to experience allows the leader to be more accepting of novel ideas and thus more likely to stimulate the follower intellectually. Conscientious leaders are achievement oriented and thus more likely to motivate their followers to achieve organizational goals. Extraverted and agreeable individuals are more outgoing and pleasant, respectively, and more likely to have successful interpersonal relationships. Thus, they are more likely to influence their followers and to be considerate towards them. Emotionally stable leaders would be better able to influence their followers because their stability would enable them to be better role models to followers and to thoroughly engage them in the goal fulfillment process.

Political skill would also play an important role as it moderates the Big Five-TFL relationship. Politically skilled leaders would have the capacity to ardently observe others and aptly interact with them to achieve the goals of the organization and thus to truly engage followers through a transformational style of leadership. Ferris et al. (2007) maintained that politically skilled individuals are keenly attuned to diverse social settings and have the ability to be influential, to identify with others, and to be sensitive to their needs. These "people skills" would be valuable in the practice of transformational leadership.

Political skill is also useful in emanating a sense of honesty and uprightness, which instigates trust and confidence and thus promotes the leader as a source of influence. According to Ferris et al. (2007), politically skilled individuals appear to have high levels of integrity and to be authentic, sincere, and genuine. These qualities are assets to the transformational leader as he/she practices idealized influence and inspirational motivation. Figure 1 provides a conceptual representation of the relationships shared among the Big Five, political skill, and transformational leadership.

Summary and Discussion

The manuscript examines, from a theoretical perspective, the relationship between the "Big Five" dimensions (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion/introversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism/emotional stability) and transformational leadership (comprised of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), and investigates political skill (encompassing social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity) as a possible moderating variable.

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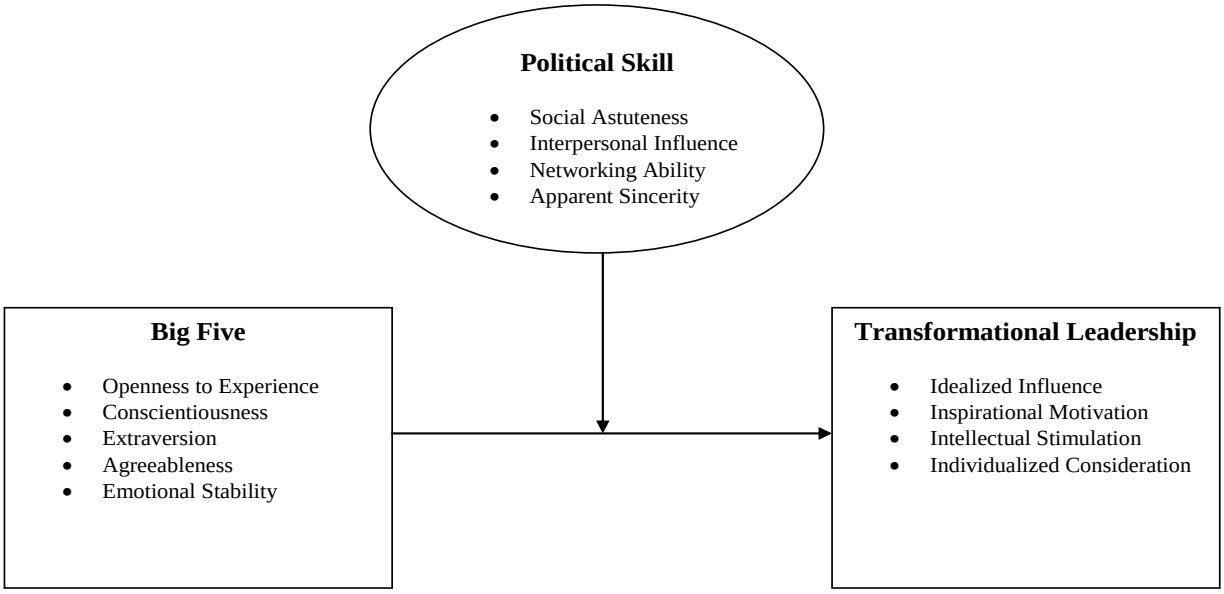

Figure 1. Conceptual model of relationships shared among the Big Five, political skill, and transformational leadership.

The quest to determine the predictors of TFL is a useful one because TFL is considered the most important and most productive of the leadership styles. According to Rubin, Munz, and Bommer (2005), it represents the most active and effective form of leadership because of the close engagement involved and the focus on motivation to perform beyond basic transactional agreements.

Analyses of the reviews and journal articles support the premise that personality influences TFL. This paper focuses on the Big Five; even though many of the personality instruments measure different personality dimensions, there are several variations that embrace fascinating similarities to the Big Five. For example, Steinberg (2005) did use an instrument that measured different personality elements (ambition, reticence, contentiousness, and dominance) from the Five Factor Model to assess and compile the personality profile of Indira Gandhi. Interestingly, the elements measured did have some corresponding attributes to the Big Five. For instance, it was mentioned that the aspects of Gandhi's dominant style usually associated with control, force, and intimidation may sometimes be linked to disagreeableness but also have a propensity to be associated with emotional stability and conscientiousness. In addition, her mild reticent pattern, although insignificant in her leadership style as compared to her other patterns, could be linked to extraversion/introversion and conscientiousness.

Although research supported the personality-TFL relationship, results vary concerning which components of the Big Five affect TFL and whether the link is positive or negative. One example is the study by Bono and Judge (2004), which found that sometimes agreeableness and openness to experience were positively linked to charisma, while at other times they were negatively linked to charisma. The inconsistency in strength and direction of relationships suggests that there may be interaction due to moderating variables that affect the relationships. Political skill literature provides empirical and theoretical reasons to consider the construct as a moderator of the Big Five-TFL relationship.

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Finally, it has also been determined that there are some variables that mediate the relationship between personality and TFL—for example, the existing work environment (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005). De Hoogh et al.'s study established that four of the Big Five—agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and neuroticism—were related to TFL at varying levels, depending on the stability or dynamic nature of the work environment. Further research is necessary to determine the existing relationships between personality and TFL, and many other intervening factors should be taken into account. These dynamics should be investigated to determine their influence as well.

Conclusion

In light of the research and considering the results of previous studies, it does seem sensible to conclude that distinctions in individual personalities influence leadership behaviors in general and transformational leadership in particular. However, not all personality characteristics are significant predictors of TFL. With respect to the Big Five, some forecasters (e.g., agreeableness) are usually stronger than others. Studies also suggest that one personality dimension from the Five Factor Model is not always sufficient to predict TFL. Occasionally, the combined effect of several personality traits brings about TFL, or the influence of other variables such as political skill drives or strengthens the relationship between personality and TFL. Also, caution must be taken with respect to generalizability, especially concerning contextual factors such as the origin of ratings. Some of the inconsistencies stem from leader ratings as opposed to follower ratings.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

Transformational leadership, and leadership in its entirety, is a complex construct that has neither a distinct origin or precursor, nor a lone output or end product. Many variables can influence leadership style, which in turn can impact numerous outcomes. Therefore, although personality does influence leadership, it is not the only antecedent. Greasley and Stoker (2008) maintained that leadership is not simply a product of personality but plays a part in determining the style and approach of the individual leader. Thus, in addition to conducting research on personality, there is a need to investigate other temperamental constructs (e.g., mood) and other constructs in general that affect leadership. Future research should also aim to determine the primary source for the development of transformational leaders.

Apart from political skill, other similar constructs reflecting parallels to the dimensions of social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and/or apparent sincerity (e.g., impression management and self-monitoring) should also be investigated as potential moderators of the personality-leadership relationship and more specifically the Big Five- TFL relationship. An individual may possess certain traits that should materialize into a transformational style of leadership, but this is not always the case. Interestingly, although Prime Minister Indira Gandhi was a very powerful and respected leader, she was not very transformational but rather competitive and controlling (Steinberg, 2005). Although leaders may have some personality traits associated with TFL, other qualities or certain circumstances may interact with or override these traits and cause a different leadership style to emerge. Therefore, it would be practical to conduct research on additional moderating variables that temper the influence of personality on TFL. Moreover, the individual dimensions of political skill (social astuteness, interpersonal

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influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity) should be independently examined to determine their moderating effects on the relationship.

Research on this topic has revealed that many individuals have what Steinberg (2005) referred to as multi-faceted personalities. Human beings are complex individuals who have the ability to be very versatile, even with their dispositional qualities. Therefore, an individual usually does not have one personality pattern but a combination, with some elements being more prevalent than others. It has also been proposed that combinations of personality markers will be more descriptive than individual indicators, and will serve to clearly distinguish between TFL and TAL (Church & Waclawski, 1998). Thus, personality clusters should be identified and analyzed to determine relationships among personality variables and leadership behaviors and styles. It would be interesting to research which combinations work best together to develop a leader that is truly transformational in character and style.

An interesting concept referred to as emotional intelligence was broached through the research conducted. It encompasses five factors—empathetic response, mood regulation, interpersonal skill, internal motivation, and self-awareness—and in a study conducted by Barbuto and Burbach (2006), a combination of all five factors shared positive relationships with each transformational leadership component. Specifically, empathetic response shared significant variance with each subscale of TFL, especially with intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Also, interpersonal skill was positively related to individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence. Empathetic response could be considered as encompassing agreeableness, and interpersonal skill as embracing agreeableness and some form of extraversion. Therefore, empirical support may show some correlation. Additional research should be conducted to ascertain the specific relationship between emotional intelligence and personality and their correlation with TFL.

Quite often, research is conducted on leadership effectiveness without focus on any particular style of leadership. Since many claim TFL as the most effective leadership style, it would be interesting to find out whether variables that affect leadership effectiveness would also affect TFL. Specifically, for example, mention was made of moderating variables (e.g., work environment) that affect the relationship between personality and TFL. Mediators have also been found to affect the relationship between personality (e.g., the traits of neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness) and leadership effectiveness. These mediators include leadership self-efficacy, job demands, and job autonomy (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008). It would be interesting to determine whether these moderating and mediating variables have the same effect on TFL.

Finally, based on this conceptual framework, a quantitative study should be conducted to test the proposed relationships herein and to determine whether findings would support the links proffered. Results could be consequential, having considerable implications for both the selection and training of organizational leaders.

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Practitioner's Corner

ARE CONFIDENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY INTERCHANGEABLE: A CRITICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

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Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) is a field of research that has gained attention in recent years for "looking at those human strengths and psychological capacities that lend themselves to developmental approaches specifically designed to enhance workplace performance" (Luthans, 2003). In much of the literature, the POB construct of confidence is described as based upon self-efficacy; therefore, many theorists have stated that the terms are interchangeable. The purpose of this paper is to conduct a review of the current literature regarding each construct with the intent of conducting future research. Also included is correspondence with Drs. Bandura and Luthans (2009) regarding this topic.

Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) is a field of research that has gained attention in recent years for "looking at those human strengths and psychological capacities that lend themselves to developmental approaches specifically designed to enhance workplace performance" (Luthans, 2003). POB looks at the psychological and behavioral processes from a positive perspective (Nelson & Cooper, 2007). The historical basis of POB is rooted in positive psychology, which is a movement calling for a more balanced approach in the research, looking at the positive and negative aspects of organizational issues. Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed the constructs of confidence, hope, and optimism as the foundation of POB.

In previous literature, the construct of confidence is noted to be the most valid of the three constructs because it is theoretically based upon the concept of self-efficacy. In fact, in much of the literature the terms are said to be interchangeable. However the relationship between the two terms is debated. According to Bandura (direct correspondence, 2009) it is not appropriate to interchange the two terms.

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Literature Review

The Historical Roots of Positive Organizational Behavior

A number of years ago, many psychologists became increasingly concerned about the field of psychology's emphasis on the negative aspects of people and the lack of research on positive aspects (Nelson & Cooper, 2007). Many were concerned that the field of psychology had ignored the reasons why some organizations were successful and consistently focused on the failures of followers. Seligman & Csikszentmihali (2000) explained that the initial emphasis on the negative was appropriate during its time but is not appropriate now. In earlier research, it was assumed that characteristics such as courage and optimism gave followers a buffer against the negative consequences of difficult experiences (Nelson & Cooper).

In time, the field of positive psychology developed into what is now commonly referred to as positive organizational behavior (Nelson & Cooper, 2007). Luthans (2002b, 2000) pioneered the positive approach in organizational behavior by focusing on building human strengths in organizations rather than only managing the weaknesses (Nelson & Cooper). POB is defined as "the study and application of positively-oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002a, p. 59). This definition includes measurable criteria that contribute to performance improvement in the workplace (Luthans).

Psychological Capital/PsyCap

The concept of psychological capital, or PsyCap, was developed by Luthans as a measurable way of assessing performance. PsyCap is the process of "going beyond human (what you know) and social (who you know) capital to who you are (the actual self) and what you intend to become (your possible self)" (Avolio & Luthans, 2006, p. 147). PsyCap is also defined as:

> An individual's positive psychologcal state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting path to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success. (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 3)

The PsyCap Construct of Confidence: The Definition

According to Luthans (2002b), the PsyCap construct of confidence is primarily based on the work of Bandura (1986, 1997) and social cognitive theory. Under this theory Bandura (1997) referred to the probablility that people will estimate that they can take on a particular task as a demonstration of their self-efficacy. "Although Bandura did not use the term confidence often in research, the terms efficacy and confidence have become interchangable in positive psychology" (Maddux, 2001, p. 257). Luthans (2006) described confident people as having the following five important characteristics:

1. They set high goals for themselves and self-select into difficult tasks.

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2. They welcome and thrive on challenge.
3. They are highly self-motivated
4. They invest the necessary effort to accomplish their goals.
5. When faced with obstacles they persevere (p. 38).

Confidence can be defined as "an individual's conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action necessary to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). From a simplistic standpoint, a confident individual will trust his or her own abiltiies. It is this confidence which gives a person the ability to choose challenging tasks, invest the ncessary time and energy to achieve their goals, and persevere when faced with obstacles and discouraging signals (Stajokvic & Luthans).

Luthans (2006) noted five key discoveries of the PsyCap characteristic confidence which will aid in the level of understanding of one's own efficacy and therefore guide one's progress in life. Luthans once again used the terms confidence and efficacy interchangably. The key discoveries of confidence are:

1. Discovery 1: PsyCap efficacy is domain specific. One may be quite sure of themselves in one domain but, not at all confident in others. Confidence which is built in one domain may not be transferrable to another domain.
2. Discovery 2: PsyCap efficacy is based on practice or mastery: It is likely that one is most confident with the tasks one practices routinely. Efficacy is based on one's estimate of future probabiity of success.
3. Discovery 3: There is always room for improvement in PsyCap efficacy. Even in a domain where one feels quite confident there may be aspects of that task one needs to improve upon.
4. Discovery 4: PsyCap efficacy is influenced by others. What others may say or demonstarate about one's behavior will affect the self-evaluation process.
5. Discovery 5: PsyCap efficacy is variable. Confidence level may be affected by many factors including knowledge, skills and abilities to attain goals (Luthans, 2006).

Luthans (2006) argued these five discoveries mold the efficacy of individuals and increase their ability to perform well over extended periods of time:

> People with high confidence do not wait for challenging goals to be set for them; they continuously challenge themselves. People with low confidence are shown to have self-doubt, skepticism, negative feedback, social criticism, obstacles and setbacks, and even repeated failure. (p. 50)

Confidence and Self-Efficacy: Are The Terms Interchangable?

Luthans (2006) posited that the POB construct of confidence and Bandura's (1997) construct of self-efficacy are interchangable terms. However, according to Bandura this assertion is not necesarily correct (personal communication, March 13, 2009). Bandura responded in the following way when asked if the two terms were interchangable:

> Self-efficacy is rooted in a theory of human agency. Self-efficacy concerns beliefs in one's capability to effect changes by one's actions. Confidence is simply the strength of that belief. Where is the theory of how you build confidence, the mechanisms through which it works, its diverse effects, and how it can be used for personal and social change? (Bandura, personal communication, March 13, 2009).

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The field of positive psychology needs to be addressed from the agentic perspective of the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 2006). "To be an agent is to influence intentially one's functioning and the course of environment events" (Bandura, in press). Therefore, the people themselves contribute to their lives and are not simply products of them (Bandura). The most important mechanism of agency is personal efficacy (Bandura). Bandura described efficacy as a core belief in motivation, well-being, and accomplishments. People need to believe they are able to produce desired effects by their actions or else they will have very little incentive to act or face difficult sitautions (Bandura). "Whatever other factors serve as guides and motivator, they are rooted in the core belief, that one has the power to effect changes by one's action" (Bandura).

Bandura (in press) noted there are numerous benefits to the study of agentic positive psychology that can actually accent human enablement rathan than focus primarily on people's problems and failings. However, "the potentials they cultivate and the life paths that become open to them are partly determined by the societal systems to which their development and well-being are entrusted" (Bandura, in press). The social systems in which people live can build competencies, build people's belief in their efficacy to influence life, and allow the individual to become self-directed (Bandura).

Discussion

Based on the available literature regarding the constructs of confidence and self-efficacy, it appear that there is a need for further research in this area. Clearly there is dissention among theorists regarding the operational definition of each construct.

Luthans (personal communication, January 13, 2010), when asked about the operational defintion of confidence, responded that "it's basically self-efficacy"; no further information was given regarding the theoretical basis of confidence. On the other hand, Bandura (personal communication, March 13, 1999) clearly disagreed with Luthan's assertion regarding confidence. Bandura does not believe that the term confidence can or should be based upon the theoretical foundation of self-efficacy. Bandura stated that "confidence is simply the strength" behind human agency and self-efficacy (personal communication, March 13, 1999). Therefore, the question has to be raised as to whether confidence is in fact a moderating variable to self-efficacy.

This paper serves as a platform for future research regarding the construct of confidence. It will be important for future research to determine empirically whether confidence and self-efficacy are in fact interchangable. Can confidence be operationally defined outside of the theoretical basis of self-efficacy? Additionally, the potential moderating effect of confidence on self-efficacy should be studied.

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