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The International Journal of Leadership Studies (IJLS) is a refereed scholarly journal that exists to provide a forum for leadership scholars within the U.S. and around the world. To stimulate scholarly debate and a free flow of ideas, the IJLS is published in electronic format and provides access to all issues free of charge.

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From the Editor

Dr. William O. Welsh, III

Greetings Fellow Travelers. With this issue, I am honored to accept editorial responsibility for the *International Journal of Leadership Studies*. Although our journal is quite small, we nonetheless make an important contribution to understanding leadership responsibility globally in the 21st century. I want to express the deepest appreciation to my predecessor, Dr. Dail Fields, for six plus years guiding IJLS to its present state of development. I also wish to thank Dr. Brenda Johnson for her contributions as associate editor. Although it appears, at the moment, that our reviewer board membership will remain intact, I also want to express my admiration for their past contributions, as well, and look forward to working with them. They are the peers in peer-reviewed.

Looking forward, I and new Associate Editor Dr. Diane Norbutus will ensure that IJLS remains a first-time author friendly environment for high quality articles. As IJLS is foremost a research journal, we will solicit, and readers will certainly notice over time, an increasing emphasis on studies and theory directed toward actual leading in change-seeking circumstances, especially where such leading and theory of leading best reflects 21st century yearning for democracy, equality, and human dignity. We are quite open to proposals for special or themed issues.

I would also like to place very special emphasis on our international focus. Our editorial team fully accepts the hermeneutic challenges to understanding when authors seek to express subtle leadership complexities in a non-native language. It is these very unique complexities that enrich all of us and promote global respect and understanding.

We also gratefully acknowledge the important contribution of Dr. Doris Gomez and her stewardship of our book reviewers. Equally, we appreciate, as well, those authors providing critical applied leadership insights in our Practitioner's Corner.

Finally, Dr. Norbutus and I are so thankful for the talent of our managing editor, Eileen Wiltshire, and her production colleagues, including Julia Mattera, communications specialist, and Brianne Melton, copy editor.

We always welcome your suggestions to improve our performance or IJLS itself. Please feel free to contact us at ijls@regent.edu.

Authors, please note that we have updated and renewed the IJLS entry in Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Management.



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Article Abstracts

BOOK REVIEW: HENRY L. THOMPSON'S (2010) THE STRESS EFFECT

Stuart A. Allen

University of La Verne, USA

Henry L. Thompson's (2010) *The Stress Effect* provides a unique exploration of the impact of stress on leaders' decision-making, viewing the leader through the lenses of cognition, emotion, and stress management, and providing practical insight on how to cope with and avoid stress. Thompson's submission provides a well-grounded understanding with useful anecdotes and examples, as well as a practical primer for stress resilience.

FEAR CAN BE CONQUERED TO ALLOW A PERSON TO LEAD

Sharon Whitehall

Gonzaga University, USA

It is important for people to realize that if they are willing, they can step into a leadership position and help others. The ability to empower comes not from the position a person holds, but from a person's willingness to serve others. When a person has been consumed by fear, it takes much effort to become willing to reach out and help other abused individuals. Abuse survivors work through multiple layers of pain, grief, and loss as they try to find their true selves and their places in the world (Daniluk & Phillip, 2004). Abused individuals need the help of others to guide them through the healing process. A victim needs someone trustworthy to whom to disclose the trauma, and the servant-leader's attributes of honesty, integrity, and trust can be beneficial in helping an abused person. When a former victim is able to actualize her potential—not only due to her efforts, but also because people in her life were willing to prioritize her needs—she becomes “healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and... more servant-like [herself]” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 8).

MOTIVATION AND LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE: EVIDENCE COUNTER TO SIMILARITY ATTRACTION THEORY

John E. Barbuto, Jr.

California State University, USA

Gregory T. Gifford

Federal Executive Institute

This study tests the similarity attraction paradigm using a measure of work motivation and leader-member exchanges. Seventy-five elected officials were sampled along with 368 of their staffers. Results indicate actual self-reported differences in sources of work motivation were not predictive of leader-follower exchanges, which is counter to the similarity attraction paradigm. It is argued that perceived similarity offers greater prediction of leader-member exchange quality than actual self-reported differences.

TOXIC VERSUS COOPERATIVE BEHAVIORS AT WORK: THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP IN CREATING COMMUNITY-CENTERED ORGANIZATIONS

Jacqueline A. Gilbert

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Recent headlines highlight the literal toxicity spewing from companies such as BP (oil spill), Hillandale Farms (salmonella poisoning), and W.R. Grace (vermiculite/asbestos poisoning). These incidents bring to mind an earlier rash of visible and high profile executives from such companies as Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco, who made headlines because of their self-centered, covetous, and irresponsible behavior towards shareholders and employees (Ivancevich, Duening, Gilbert, & Konopaske, 2003). Scholars suggest that such toxic behavior on the part of organizational leaders and managers exerts a negative impact on employee and firm productivity (Goldman, 2008; Vega & Comer, 2005). In this paper, we define the concept of a toxic workplace and discuss what factors contribute to its development. When leaders in organizations routinely display toxicity toward their employees (exhibited through excessive employee monitoring, micro-management, and politically-motivated performance appraisals), the outcomes will be radically different than from organizations in which community or collaboration is practiced. We argue that managers and leaders should attempt to reduce the amount of toxic

influence within their organizations while consciously attempting to cultivate a community-centered organizational culture. We develop several testable propositions that explore how these two contrasting organizational models may influence important human resource and organizational outcomes. We conclude the paper with a discussion of community-centered organizations and provide suggestions on how to test a sample of our propositions with future research.

THE PERSPECTIVE AND PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP BY MANAGERS WITHIN A STATE CORRECTIONAL AGENCY: AN INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY

Elizabeth M. Gagnon

Christopher Newport University, USA

This study explores the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in a state correctional agency in the southeastern United States reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). The LPM is a model of leadership that places leadership perception into five distinct perspectives managers use in their understanding and practice of leadership. Using an instrumental case study method, the research was designed to test the model. The findings of this research reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within the organization only partially reflect the LPM. Recommendations are made for further refinement of the model to strengthen its usability as a mechanism by which leadership perspectives can be identified and potentially enlarged.

MOVING FROM TRANCE TO THINK: WHY WE NEED TO POLISH OUR CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

Joan F. Marques

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Critical thinking is a crucial prerequisite for responsible human performance not only in organizations, but also in every area of life. Yet, this quality is often downplayed, which is reflected in high numbers of disgruntled working adults. Dissatisfied workforce members are often only partly aware of the reasons for their dissatisfaction, which may be linked to sparse critical thinking about their purpose in life. Critical thinking enables a broader perspective and the ability to rise beyond standardized thought patterns. This ability leads to creative breakthroughs regarding directions and activities that fulfill personal and societal needs of longitudinal meaning, motivation, performance improvement, and general wellbeing. As a think-piece for the second decade of the 21st century, this article provides an overview of some important factors that prevent critical thinking, captured in the telling acronym “TRANCE,” and some important actions that enhance critical thinking, represented in the equally divulging term

“THINK.” The article also discusses the specific parts of TRANCE that are addressed as one begins practicing specific elements of THINK.

DEFINING RELATIONAL DISTANCE FOR TODAY’S LEADERS

Laura Erskine

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Work relationships, and thus, the experiences of work itself, are affected by perceptions of “distance.” Distance influences leader-follower relationships, which in turn have been shown to impact many organizational outcomes (Bass, 1990; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Northhouse, 2001). In this study, a literature review across five different scholarly fields provides theoretical arguments for three related dimensions of relational distance. Relational distance is the perception that distance between leaders and followers occurs in three interrelated dimensions: structural, status, and psychological. The dimensionality of relational distance is contextualized with quotes from employees experiencing various types of distance. The multidimensionality of relational distance reveals a fertile ground for future leadership research.

SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOR AND EMPLOYEE PRESENTEEISM

Brad Gilbreath

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Presenteeism happens when employees are at work, but their cognitive energy is not devoted to their work. This study investigated the extent to which supervisor behavior is associated with employee presenteeism. It also investigated the efficacy of a measure of job-stress-related presenteeism. Australian employees completed a questionnaire asking how often they experience job-stress-related presenteeism and about their supervisors’ behaviors. Results supported the hypothesis that supervisor behavior is associated with employees’ presenteeism. Negative supervisor behaviors were more strongly correlated with presenteeism than positive supervisor behaviors. These results suggest presenteeism is subject to supervisor influence. In addition, results indicate that the measure of job-stress-related presenteeism pilot-tested in this study has good internal-consistency reliability and validity.



BOOK REVIEW: HENRY L. THOMPSON'S (2010) *THE STRESS EFFECT*

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Stuart A. Allen

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Henry L. Thompson's (2010) *The Stress Effect* provides a unique exploration of the impact of stress on leaders' decision-making, viewing the leader through the lenses of cognition, emotion, and stress management, and providing practical insight on how to cope with and avoid stress. Thompson's submission provides a well-grounded understanding with useful anecdotes and examples, as well as a practical primer for stress resilience.

Henry L. Thompson's (2010) *The Stress Effect: Why Smart Leaders Make Dumb Decisions* provides a valuable contribution in an area that has been somewhat neglected amongst recent leadership books—the issue of leadership and decision-making under stress. While this topic might at first be seen as somewhat narrow, it is important to remember that leadership and decision-making frequently take place in a context of stress, making this topic broadly applicable to leaders and leadership scholars.

Considering recent concern about stress in the workplace (e.g., Lafair, 2009), Thompson's book is recommended as vital reading for leaders and leadership scholars. Despite the gamut of emotional intelligence and leadership books in the last two decades, many do not directly address the challenges of stress in leadership, and few hone in on the critical topic of stress and its impact on the leader's ability to make good decisions. This book is not an in-depth exploration of decision-making theory and techniques, but rather Thompson helps readers understand how dumb decisions are made and how organizations and leaders can work to manage the effects of stress.

Content

The book begins with a powerful nosedive into a second-by-second experience of Captain Sullenberger and First Officer Skiles as they piloted a US Airways Airbus A320 into the Hudson River in January 2009. This highly publicized event provides a useful backdrop to various portions of the book as the author explores the cognitive and emotional processes that this flight's leadership team applied in a relevant, real-time event that lasted less than five minutes. While it is a common approach for recent leadership books to prey upon major media events, corporate failures, and heroic leaders' rhetoric on their leadership experiences, Thompson handles the Hudson River landing story unobtrusively, focusing the use of the story in a manner consistent with the overall purpose of the book. Through an insightful analysis of this event, Thompson begins the book's exploration of leaders functioning under stress.

After the introduction, Thompson (2010) moved into his opening chapter on how leaders make 'dumb' decisions, thereafter structuring his book broadly around the connections between cognition, emotion, and stress and the outcomes of decisions. While the cognitive and emotional components of the model address their namesake, the stress management component addresses a broader spectrum of stress management issues, including identifying stressors and relaxation. Chapters two through five provide insight into the anatomy of decision-making through the lenses of cognition, emotion, and stress, while chapters five through eight provide readers with insight into practicing the changes needed to cope with and reduce stress. Thompson concluded *The Stress Effect* with a chapter focusing on his trademarked 7-point graphic ARSENAL model, which explores best practices for stress management in Awareness, Rest, Support, Exercise, Nutrition, Attitude, and Learning. Thompson also provided many other models in the book, including a seven-step problem-solving model, a perception-to-action model (called PAMA), and stress-resilient system model.

Compared to the Rest

While comparable texts have been published in the area of emotional intelligence dealing with leaders' thoughts and emotions and which include personal applications for self-leadership, few focus directly on the issue of stress and decision-making. Relative to the flurry of interest in emotional intelligence in the popular literature, Thompson provides a more even-handed account of the role of emotional intelligence versus cognitive intelligence in effective leadership. Many other popular press texts have elevated emotional intelligence as being disproportionately more important than cognitive ability, subsequently ignoring the role of cognition and cognitive ability in being an effective leader.

Books published in recent years that might compare with *The Stress Effect* include *Resonant Leadership* (2005), by Boyatzis and McKee; *Primal Leadership* (2002), by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee; and *The Leadership Mystique* (2009), by Kets De Vries. All of these books touch on some stress related issues as well as effectiveness in the inner emotional being and the cognitive world of leading. While there have been a number of books published in popular self-help areas that address cognition, emotion, stress, and balance, none appear to address the issue of stress, decision-making, and leadership with the integration of academic substance and practical application that Thompson does.

The Author

Without reading the inside jacket, most readers would recognize Thompson's writing for his psychological education and predilection. Thompson runs a consultancy, High Performing Systems, as the founder, president, and CEO, but does not attempt to punt this organization as is ungracefully done in some other mainstream leadership texts. This gives the reader a sense of Thompson's genuine intention to benefit the reader in writing the book.

Thompson holds a Ph.D. in Psychology from the University of Georgia, but he also boasts a 21-year military career and was once a professor and department chair at this same university. He has a long history in working with leaders under stress, which began during his early military experience with stress on the battlefield. The FIRO-B®, Jungian type, teams, emotional intelligence, leadership, and chaos theory are just some of his many areas of expertise. As a speaker, author, and consultant, Thompson brings his military, Fortune 500 consulting, and personal experience to the reader. Having academic heritage in his approach, Thompson writes in a style that is illustrative and easy to read, but that is also anchored in theory and research.

Readers

The Stress Effect has the potential to be beneficial to both academic and leadership audiences. With solid reference to current research and current illustrations, examples, and anecdotes, this book provides easy reading for a range of audiences. This book sits on the edge of the fields of psychology, business, and leadership, with useful references to each of them. The book is definitely not a textbook, and it is not the anecdotal meanderings of many consultant- or leader-authors. Thompson recognizes academic research, writes for an audience interested in leadership in action, and finds a good middle ground between 'real-world' leadership and scholarly understandings.

Observations and Appraisal

Thompson's proposal in *The Stress Effect* cannot be reduced to any single solution or theory. However, his Stress-Resilient System Model summarizes the notion that leaders can maximize their ability to be effective under stress through developing emotional and cognitive competence combined with stress management, which includes reducing stress and coping better with stress. The book shifts from the conceptual to practical and utilizes about as much research commentary as the mainstream leadership reader will cope with. Thompson provides plentiful notes and references at the end of the book, demonstrating his grounding in current research and thinking.

While I would unashamedly recommend this book to fellow leadership practitioners and scholars, a few observations can be made. Of the 286 pages making up the chapters of the book, the bulk address understanding and knowledge instead of practical steps on how to make the changes necessary to become a more stress-resilient leader. It is often a delicate challenge for authors to balance knowledge and understanding versus a how-to-guide of practical steps for action without declining into a seven-steps-to-everything guidebook. Some of Thompson's suggestions for improvement include lists of techniques, but he infrequently explores these methods in depth or highlights how these techniques can make a difference. Most readers will get the message and know to start seeking and implementing changes, but a little more detail on

some practices might be useful for future editions. Like many other organizational leadership books, a workbook to follow *The Stress Effect* might be a useful supplement. Similarly, updates of the book every few years would keep the anecdotes and examples current.

While this book provides numerous useful and accessible models, diagrams, and tools (such as the monitoring dashboard, bubble model, and ARSENAL model), it is free from the somewhat trite now-assess-yourself and do-it-now exercises that often bulk up other mainstream leadership texts. The book is designed and printed to a high industry specification with an appealing cover and no noticeable production errors.

While Dr. Thompson provides anecdotes and illustrations from various arenas—including law enforcement, corporate, non-profit, sporting, health, and education—the book is peppered with military examples from Thompson's 21 years of service. While the military anecdotes might frustrate some readers, the inclusion of these personal examples and experiences gives the book a very authentic feel.

Conclusion

The Stress Effect offers insight into more effective leadership founded on a higher quality of decision-making through mitigating the impact of stress. This book is likely to be useful to a broad audience and has applicability to anyone involved or interested in leadership. When wading through the mass of books written on leadership, Thompson's addition is real, easy to read, and substantial. With few alternatives, *The Stress Effect* is a worthy text to arm readers in overcoming the effects of stress.

About the Author

Dr. Stuart Allen is an assistant professor of leadership at the University of La Verne, California. Stuart is a graduate of the Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership at Regent University, with a special interest in the inner world of leaders and effective self-leadership. Stuart practiced as an industrial psychologist in South Africa for 11 years, taking on numerous leadership roles before transitioning into full-time graduate leadership teaching.

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FEAR CAN BE CONQUERED TO ALLOW A PERSON TO LEAD

Sharon Whitehall
Gonzaga University, USA

It is important for people to realize that if they are willing, they can step into a leadership position and help others. The ability to empower comes not from the position a person holds, but from a person's willingness to serve others. When a person has been consumed by fear, it takes much effort to become willing to reach out and help other abused individuals. Abuse survivors work through multiple layers of pain, grief, and loss as they try to find their true selves and their places in the world (Daniluk & Phillip, 2004). Abused individuals need the help of others to guide them through the healing process. A victim needs someone trustworthy to whom to disclose the trauma, and the servant-leader's attributes of honesty, integrity, and trust can be beneficial in helping an abused person. When a former victim is able to actualize her potential—not only due to her efforts, but also because people in her life were willing to prioritize her needs—she becomes “healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and... more servant-like [herself]” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 8).

It was 1954, and I was seven years old when a man in a large dark car said, “Hey little girl, come over here—I want to show you something.” That was the beginning of my life being consumed by fear. After being kidnapped and raped by the man in the dark car, sexually abused by my father most of my young life, beaten in an attempted rape by someone I thought of as my grandfather when I was nineteen, and married for six years to a very abusive man, I had mentally become a terrified girl who could not look beyond surviving for the next hour or two. I did not discover how skewed my view of the world had become until my late forties. Becoming a leader was never even a glimmer in my dreams; I just wanted to be invisible and raise my sons. I was overwhelmed by fear and did not realize that my life could be improved until several people—who may not have even thought of themselves as leaders, let alone servant-leaders—reached out and helped me by giving encouragement and pointing out positive attributes I had developed.

Purposes of the Paper

This paper has two purposes. The first is to help people realize that there are individuals who have been so abused they live in a world of paralyzing fear. Such people either have no idea they are living and viewing the world through the lens of fear, or they are so beaten down they are unable to try to help themselves.

The second purpose of this paper is to show how someone can reach out and make a difference in abused individuals' lives. A person does not need to hold a formal leadership role to be willing to help others and to step out and become a servant-leader. Victims of abuse need someone to talk to who is empathetic, willing to listen, caring enough to want to help with their healing, and aware of the abuse and its effects. Ideally, that person will have a compelling, inspiring, and empowering vision for the victim's future and will communicate it with honesty and integrity. This vision will help build credibility (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). In 1970, Greenleaf coined a term for a person with these attributes: *servant-leader* (Spears, 1998). Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) designed research to validate the dimensions that define servant leadership. Through their research, they identified nine dimensions: (a) emotional healing, (b) creating value for the community, (c) conceptual skills, (d) empowering, (e) helping subordinates grown and succeed, (f) putting subordinates first, (g) behaving ethically, (h) relationships, and (i) servanthood.

In this paper, the healing process of moving from a terrified individual to a servant-leader is divided into four stages: (a) servant-leadership and living through the abuse (flexibility); (b) facing the abuse and the effects of abuse (awakening, an increasing sense of visibility, congruence, and connection); (c) relationships and a shift in worldview (a sense of regret over what has been lost, emerging sense of self-definition, and self-acceptance); and (d) using the past to help others in the present (empowerment, a sense of resiliency and growth) (Ferrell, 1996; Phillips & Daniluk, 2004). Through each of these stages, I will explore how an intervention by a loving, caring individual—a servant-leader—can have a positive effect on an abused individual immersed in fear.

Servant-Leadership and Living through Abuse

The general perception of a leader is someone who is the head of a corporation or a country, not someone who works with an individual on a one-to-one basis in order to help that person heal from an abusive past; yet that is exactly what a servant-leader can do. Whether a servant-leader is a pastor, a counselor, a former victim, or a friend, that person can play a key role in the healing process and help the individual believe she can have a worthwhile future.

Servant-leaders are able to maintain proper personal values to have a powerful and trustworthy influence on the person they are helping. When describing servant-leaders, Greenleaf explained:

It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. (1977, p. 7)

Greenleaf believed that the best test to determine whether a servant-leader is effective is to see whether the people she is serving grow as persons and become healthier, wiser, freer, able to function on their own, and more servant-like themselves (p. 8). Such leaders inspire hope and

courage in others by living out their convictions, facilitating positive images, and giving encouragement (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). When they prioritize the interests of the person they are helping, they demonstrate empathy and elicit trust (Bennis, 1997; Block, 1993; Greenleaf; Kouzes & Posner; Snodgrass, 1993). These attributes, as well as a commitment to others' growth, are all characteristics of a servant-leader (Spears, 1995).

A servant-leader can also encourage the terrified individual to face the fact that the abuse occurred and it is not healthy to pretend it never happened. Zupancic and Kreidler (1999) emphasized the importance of building trust with abused persons when guiding and gently encouraging them to reacquaint themselves with traumas they experienced while staying grounded in the present. Since abuse can begin at an early age, reacquainting a person with traumas that occurred over many years is a large endeavor.

For many, abuse starts in youth. About one-third of reported sexual abuse cases are perpetrated upon children under the age of six (Mian, Wehrspann, Klajner-Diamond, LeBaron, & Winder, 1986), although the average age is thought to be between seven and nine (Briere & Runtz, 1988; Dube & Hebert, 1988; Finkelhor, Hotaling, Lewis, & Smith, 1990). Unfortunately, the fear inside the child due to this abuse is not always evident. Since fear is a normal part of growing up, sometimes parents and others are not aware when fear begins to control a child's life.

Fear is an adaptive reaction to a real or imagined threat (Gullone, 1996, p. 144) and is a normal part of the development process (Morris & Kratochwill, 1985). But when fear is not age- or stage-specific and it persists over an extended period, it crosses over from normal fear to clinical fear (Gullone). Outside intervention is needed when fearfulness becomes a constant part of a child's life. If a child does not get help in dealing with her or his fears, the child will have persistent fears into adulthood (Goleman, 1988). Mrazek and Mrazek (1987) discussed how maltreated children carry out a restructuring of their painful experiences so they can reprocess past events in their own minds to make those experiences more acceptable or suitable. This type of reprocessing can lead to a serious departure from reality. Since fear becomes anxiety when it goes beyond the specific danger situation, outside intervention is very important in helping abused people begin to view the world realistically (Bourke & Reddy, 2005, p. 1). As Clough (2006) puts it, "Reason is only as good as the data on which it is based. Its effectiveness depends on the data that the reasoning individual has" (p. 23).

Facing the Abuse and the Effects of Abuse

An increasing number of children are mentally, physically, and sexually abused (Sileo, 1993). Ulrich (2005) estimated that 896,000 children were victims of abuse in the United States in 2002. She proposed that many undetected and unreported cases undoubtedly occurred. The more severe the abuse, the more severe the resulting behaviors become (Briere & Runtz, 1988; Browne & Finkelhor, 1986; Friedrich, Urquiza, & Beilke, 1986). Some of these behaviors include fearfulness, depression, self-destructive behavior (Browne & Finkelhor), higher levels of anxiety than normal (Briere & Rutz; Browne & Finkeihor; Friedrich et al.), and substance abuse (Browne & Finkelhor; Singer, Petchers, & Hussey, 1989).

Another negative state that develops due to sexual abuse is toxic shame. This type of shame keeps victims silent, especially since "in many cases, the abuse experience remains secret and hidden throughout a woman's life" (Kaufman, 1996, p. 5). Thus, shame creates "misery that jeopardizes a person's sense of self" (Pines, 1995).

Kaufman (1992) described how an interpersonal bridge is created through communication, caring, and trust with others. When this bond is severed or damaged because of abuse, shame results, causing the abused individual to internalize trauma. As this shame is internalized, the abused person develops a bad sense of self, or an inner sense of failure, which is reinforced by the person's perception of outside experiences. As the person hides more secrets over time, shame rules the person's life, inhibiting her emotional, spiritual, and psychological development.

Philosophers Humphrey and Dennett (1989) noted that dissociative identity disorder exists due to:

[P]rolonged early childhood abuse, usually sexual, and of sickening severity. These children have often been kept in such extraordinary terrifying and confusing circumstances that I am more amazed that they survive psychologically at all than I am that they manage to preserve themselves by a desperate redrawing of their boundaries. What they do, when confronted with overwhelming conflict and pain, is this: They "leave." They create a boundary so that the horror doesn't happen to them; it either happens to no one, or to some other self. (pp. 68-98)

This type of fearful environment and abuse stifles the growth of a child.

Carl Rogers' (1980) famous example of observing potatoes sprouting in a cold cellar speaks directly to the point of a child trying to grow up in an abusive environment. Rogers described how the potatoes would grow, but didn't thrive. The sad, spindly sprouts would never fulfill their real potential. But even under the worst circumstances, the sprouts never gave up, even though they could not flourish. This is analogous to what happens to an abused child. These children grow but are unable to attain their potential.

Flexibility is one of four major themes of healing identified by Farrell (1996) in her qualitative study of women recovering from abuse, along with awakening, relationship, and empowerment. In another study, Phillips and Daniluk (2004) defined the healing themes as: a) an increasing sense of visibility, congruence, and connection; b) an emerging sense of self-definition and self-acceptance; c) a shift in worldview; d) a sense of regret over what has been lost; and e) a sense of resiliency and growth. The themes from these studies are essential components of the healing process, and the attributes of a servant leader are integral in helping the abused individual successfully move from one level of healing to another.

When trauma is hidden, either knowingly or unknowingly, the resulting problems are never addressed and healing cannot take place. As children grow into adulthood, the repercussions of childhood trauma continue to plague them. Fear and shame continue to grow and consume the individual, and "suffocation of all feelings continues until they receive help in undoing the shame and working through their feelings" (Zupancic & Kreidler, p. 29). Integration and connection with the past and present events are ongoing processes.

Survivors of childhood sexual abuse can develop many cognitive distortions to be carried into adulthood (Zupancic & Kreidler, 1999). They may discover that their experiences have tainted their views of the world, and part of healing can include trying to identify truth and which perceptions were skewed due to the abuse. Recognizing this duality and changing one's beliefs is a very difficult process for abused persons. As they begin to heal, they realize that as children they used denial, dissociation, and numbing to survive their abuse (Zupancic & Kreidler). As adults, "they judge themselves as bad, weak and shameful. They deny their feelings of helplessness, powerlessness and anger. Keeping themselves nonreactive and shame-filled costs survivors personal fulfillment and wholeness" (Zupancic & Kreidler, p. 32).

This is where an intervention by a servant-leader could save the life of an individual—not just the physical life, but the prospective useful, happy, and fulfilled life an individual could experience. An abused person needs to be able to talk to someone trustworthy about her experiences. Honesty, integrity, and trust are very important attributes of a servant-leader that can offer great comfort and reassurance to an abused person. The servant-leader can help the abused person “restore the ability to feel good about...[herself]... and uncover the survivor’s goodness and her right to exist. It is important that each woman recognize the courage and creativity it took to survive” (Zupancic & Kreidler, p. 33).

An Emerging Sense of Self-Definition and Self-Acceptance, and a Shift in Worldview

A good analogy of how an abused person perceives life is revealed in Plato’s *Allegory of the Cave*. Plato portrays a scenario of prisoners who have been chained since childhood deep inside a cave. The prisoners see on the cave walls only the shadows of real people who are outside, but, never having been outside or seen such people, they mistake the shadows for reality (Grube, 1992). Like the prisoners in Plato’s allegory, abused individuals are chained by misconception. They unknowingly create small links of fear and abuse that are welded together day by day, year after year. Because they live with abuse and fear continuously, they believe the distorted images on the cave walls are reality. They have no idea that years of living in isolation and fear have left them with a distorted view of the world. As these children grow into adulthood, they are still under the sad delusion that the evil and corruption portrayed on the walls is all the world has to offer them. But Plato offered help in the form of an individual intervention.

Plato did not use the term *servant-leader*, but he stressed the importance of someone helping the prisoner to understand that the images on the walls are only distorted visions and do not represent all the world contains. The prisoner needed to be escorted to the opening of the cave to gain some insight into what the world encompasses. This help is essential to the abused person, and this is how a servant-leader can be beneficial in helping the abused individual. Spears (1998) listed three central characteristics of the servant-leader as listening, empathy, and healing. These attributes are also essential in helping an abused person. Listening is important to identify and clarify what the person is trying to convey. Trust is built when the servant-leader demonstrates empathy by accepting the individual for where she is in life and the circumstances she has endured. From this point, healing, the potential for making broken spirits whole, is possible. Greenleaf (1977) explained that servant-leaders are healers in that they help other people to attain a greater vision and purpose than they probably would have been able to achieve on their own. In this way, servant-leaders help provide what traumatized individuals need: “the motivation to improve and the ability to do so if they really want to make positive changes in their life” (Deci & Ryan, 1994, pp. 3-14).

With the help of the servant-leader, a person (in this case an abused person who is consumed by fear) can begin to see the light of hope. The servant-leader can help the individual discover that she has developed strengths to cope with and survive tragedies, and can now pass this information on to other people to help them not only survive abuse, but grow and develop into more loving, helpful people (Van Toledo, 2007).

John Briere (1992) noted that it is very important for adults who are still struggling with childhood adversity to acknowledge the hurts they experienced as children and to know it is acceptable to seek help in learning how to deal with these issues. During the beginning stages of healing, the abused person’s identity is completely intertwined with the abuse. The person is so

engulfed in the pain of the abuse that there is no room for her to discover who she is outside of that trauma (Daniluk & Phillips, 2004). To use Plato's allegory, when adults are led to the light at the opening of the cave, they are able to view the aftermath of difficulties experienced in childhood and explore ways of strengthening themselves against adversity and increasing their self-esteem and self-awareness. Prior to being led to the light, the abused person was confused about the world as a result of the trauma. The person also suffered from shattered or distorted assumptions about herself, others, and the nature of the social environment that offers an emotional context for life (Janoff-Bulman, 1992; Pearlman & Saakvitne, 1995). It is a huge breakthrough when an abused person realizes that it is not what hurts him that matters, but how he deals with the hurt (Ricco, 1991 p. 4). Accepting this belief is extremely difficult yet freeing. Once a person sees the light of hope, she is faced with making a difficult decision. Even though the cave of an abused person's environment appears to be dark, cold, and full of the fears of abuse, it is still preferred over the unknown. When the individual looks out into the light of the world, it appears that hope and many possibilities of happiness are present. But the individual faces the possibility that even more pain may be encountered, possibly even worse pain than the person has already experienced. When an individual has lived a life of fear and pain and the deep wounds have yet to heal, this is an incredibly scary decision to make. James (1956) described that people make decisions based on prior experiences, but to escape a dangerous situation requires dangerous leaps of faith. With the help of a servant-leader and great courage, an abused person can take the first leap of many into a future with wonderful possibilities.

Fortunately, great progress has been made in the process of working with abused persons. One important change in helping children and adults overcome a past of abuse is the switch from pointing out all the problems an individual has to helping the person discover all her strengths. This swing of the pendulum away from looking for deficits and dysfunctions is supported by recent research on resilience (Garmezy, 1981; Rutter, Giller, & Hagell, 1998; Werner & Smith, 1992; Werner & Smith, 1977; Wolin & Wolin, 1993), asset building (Benson, 1997), positive youth development (Pittman & Irby, 1996), and influential ideas such as the Circle of Courage (Brendtro, Brokenleg, & Van Bockern, 2002) and family privilege (Seita & Brendtro, 2002). One can choose to look at and speak of the negative aspects of life, or to focus on the strengths she has developed due to these circumstances. This paradigm shift of focusing on positive rather than negative aspects of an abused person's life helps victims to recognize the impact they can have on their own lives, as well as on the lives of others, as they begin to build a connection between awareness and action. In this process, according to Markova & Holland, an individual must "understand the best of what is, imagine what could be, and work in partnership with others to create what will be by translating what we value into what we do" (2005, p. 30). The authors added, "As the individual heightens his awareness of his value as a person, he is able to shift in perspective from problem solving to building on what he knows he can do well" (p. 30). As a person realizes all she has to offer, she can share these life lessons, become a leader of tomorrow, and help develop other servant-leaders.

Using the Past to Help Others in the Present

One of the most important aspects of healing for an abused person is the ability to share information learned with others. Lempert (1994) observed that when women begin to share their stories of abuse, their "linguistic tools serve to order experiences, construct reality, and creatively make sense of their violent intimate relationships" (p. 410). A servant-leader can help the abused

person understand how she has developed strengths to cope with and survive tragedies. Lambert (1992) discussed how important it is for the abused individual to perceive that the helping person is warm, trustworthy, nonjudgmental, and empathetic. There is a built-in drive to reduce pain, pursue long-term goals for happiness, and improve interpersonal relationships as the abused person continues to develop self-esteem (Clough, 2006).

As individuals begin to understand the strengths that they possess, they can explore ways to fortify themselves against adversity and increase their self-esteem and self-awareness (Van Toledo, 2007). These strengths will become the building blocks laid down to form the foundation of truth in their lives—the truth of their abuse and the truth that a greater person will develop from the sum of their experiences. As these individuals face the counterproductive coping strategies that were developed and used in childhood, they can work on new and more effective ways of dealing with adversities. Individuals have the opportunity to:

[I]dentify things they may have learned because of hardships experienced as children and how these events have made them more resilient as adults. It allows the person to be validated for their experiences, and makes it acceptable to acknowledge childhood adversity. (Van Toledo, 2007, p. 1)

Not only is it important to recognize the strengths that have been developed due to past adversities, but it is also important to recognize the limitations and difficulties experienced and come up with ways for dealing with these problems (Briere, 1992). With the help of other traumatized people, abused persons can work through the hurts experienced in childhood in a positive and empowering way (Van Toledo, 2007). By using a strengths-based approach to working with abused individuals, servant-leaders, especially those who have also lived through abuse, can help abused individuals feel empowered as they go through the healing and rebuilding process. This empowerment will help the person who is in the process of healing to help others. Abused children have various strengths that can be identified, tapped, shaped, buttressed, and used to create and support powerful caring environments for healing (Brendtro, Ness, & Mitchell, 2001; Seita & Brendtro, 2002). As these former victims recognize their strengths and develop resilience, they can help themselves break down the walls of fear.

A significant shift occurs in the abused person's identity in the move from the perception of the self as a victim to the perception of the self as a survivor (Bass & Davis, 1988; Courtois, 1988; 1999; Draucker, 1992; Herman, 1992; Matsakis, 1996). Ultimately, abused persons need to let go of the survivor identity in order to allow more positive aspects of their identity to emerge. They will eventually see the world as being full of possibilities instead of danger and pain (Crowley, 2000; Grossman, Cook, Kepkep, & Koenen, 1999).

Howard and Johnson (1998) defined resilience as “the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances” (p.1). It is through this process of successful adaptation that individuals develop skills to survive and help others. As they change their perspective, seek out what works, and create images of where they want to go, they will be better able to keep up with the changes in their lives (Watkins & Mohr, 2001). Once they incorporate this new way of thinking into their lives, they will be able to help others. As abused individuals realize the strengths they have developed and can share, they realize that they can demonstrate the change they want to see in the world. They are no longer merely victims or survivors of a traumatic past; their lives contain many other facets, and they become aware that they can positively influence others (Daniluk & Phillip, 2004). They identify the abuse as an experience they had, not who they are (Josselson, 1996), and they can move forward and help others; they have the ability to be servant-leaders.

Conclusion

It is important for people to realize that if they are willing, they can step into a leadership position and help others. Burns (1978) asserted that one of the most important calls of our time is the call for leadership. Leaders are needed to mentor abused individuals. The ability to empower comes not from the position a person holds, but from a person's willingness to serve others. As illustrated in Plato's *Allegory of the Cave*, these individuals need to be led to the light of truth. They are not merely victims of sexual abuse (Daniluk & Phillip, 2004) who should be content to hide silently in shame (Kaufman, 1996). Through the process of surviving their traumas, they developed resilience and self-esteem to help perceive their value and the difference they can make in the lives of others (Van Toledo, 2007).

When a person has been consumed by fear, it takes her a lot of time and effort to become willing to reach out and help other abused individuals. Abuse survivors need to work through multiple layers of pain, grief, and loss as they try to find their "true" self and their place in the world (Daniluk & Phillip, 2004). This journey is categorized as having four stages. The first stage is when the person was abused, whether it was one incident or a lifetime of abuse. Usually the abused person does not receive help at this point because she is too fearful and ashamed to let anyone know what is happening (Kaufman, 1996). Victims either withdraw into themselves or restructure their experiences in order to endure their traumatic life (Mrazek & Mrazek, 1987).

In the second stage, someone helps the abused person face the fact that the abuses occurred, as well as the type of effects the abuses have had on her life. It takes a great deal of strength for the abused person to view her trauma and make the choice to move forward and heal (Zupancic & Kreidler, 1999). The victim needs someone trustworthy to disclose the trauma, which is why the servant-leader's attributes of honesty, integrity, and trust can be beneficial in helping an abused person.

The third stage involves the healing process, where survivors need others to guide them. Gardner (2003) stressed that keeping hope alive is one of the primary functions of a leader. Hope enables the abused person to move forward. In time they will see the world as full of possibilities instead of danger (Crowley, 2000; Grossman, Cook, Kepke, & Koenen, 1999).

When abused people are willing to become servant-leaders and reach out to help others, they have reached the final stage of healing. These former "victims" have developed wisdom, understanding, compassion, and a strong sense of resiliency through their healing process (Daniluk & Phillips, 2004). When a person feels she has value and purpose, she can conquer anything. She eventually reaches a point in her healing where she likes and is proud of who she is (Daniluk & Phillips, 2004). She realizes that she is no longer a "victim" or a "survivor," but a person who can have a positive impact on the lives of other people. That individual has become a servant-leader. She was able to actualize this potential not only due to her own efforts, but also because of people in her life who were willing to help, thereby becoming "healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and... more servant-like themselves" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 8).

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MOTIVATION AND LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE: EVIDENCE COUNTER TO SIMILARITY ATTRACTION THEORY

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This study tests the similarity attraction paradigm using a measure of work motivation and leader-member exchanges. Seventy-five elected officials were sampled along with 368 of their staffers. Results indicate actual self-reported differences in sources of work motivation were not predictive of leader-follower exchanges, which is counter to the similarity attraction paradigm. It is argued that perceived similarity offers greater prediction of leader-member exchange quality than actual self-reported differences.

For several decades, Byrne's (1971) similarity attraction paradigm has guided research on the effects of leader-follower similarities and differences upon individual dyadic relationships, being utilized in examining a variety of variables to understand the antecedents of such relationships. Much of work in this area has tested leaders' attributions of followers' dispositions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Scandura (1999) contributed to this line of research by testing LMX from multiple perspectives. Turban and Jones (1988) tested actual similarity of person-centered variables and found they significant affected job satisfaction and performance. Baldwin (1999) argued that self-reported person-centered variables may reduce social desirability bias by increasing privacy of the respondent and decreasing respondents' anxiety in answering questions "correctly." To better understand similarity attraction theory, self-reported measures of person-centered variables that examine these self-reported differences merit further empirical inquiry.

Similarity attraction theory has been used to test leader-member exchange (LMX) using variables such as sex (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993), race (Cianni & Romberger, 1995), attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and pay ratings) (Turban & Jones, 1988), sources of power (Cogliser & Schriesheim, 2000) and subordinate performance and ingratiation (Deluga & Perry,

1994). Results have generally supported the tenets of similarity attraction theory, indicating that leaders and followers who were similar on the predictor variables had higher quality relationships than those who reported differences on the same variables. Little work has been done in the area of work motivation, which is surprising since motivation is widely considered one of the more salient dispositions in human behavior (Mitchell & Daniels, 2003).

Previous research using the sources of work motivation has found correlations with influence tactics (Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2002), use of transformational leadership behaviors (Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2000), and Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Barbuto & Gifford, 2007). Motivation remains an important matter in the workplace, and the absence of studies testing its impact on LMX leaves a void in the field that requires study. Therefore, this study explores the relationship between motivation and LMX. Particularly, this study tested whether or not sources of work motivation impacted the quality of leader-member exchange relationships.

Leader-Member Exchange

Newcomb (1956) stated that individuals would be attracted to one another based on mutual reciprocation of rewards within the relationship. Byrne (1971) extended Newcomb's work, articulating the similarity-attraction paradigm and proposing that "similarity between two individuals enhances liking and consequently affects interactions and behaviors" (266). Byrne concluded that when a leader and a follower share similar attitudes, opinions, and beliefs, their relationship would be more positive. From this similarity attraction paradigm, Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) developed vertical dyad linkage theory to depict the leader-follower relationship. Dansereau et al.'s findings indicated that leaders fostered differentiated dyadic exchanges with individual followers based upon similarities and differences.

Leader-member exchange theory evolved from this work on vertical dyad linkage (Dansereau et al., 1975; Johnson & Graen, 1973). Early studies indicated that managers developed high and low quality relationships that categorically resembled in-groups and out-groups (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). In high leader-member exchange relationships, managers exhibited high levels of mutual trust, respect, and obligation toward members (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Low quality relationships were characterized by managers exhibiting low levels of mutual trust, respect, and obligation toward members (Graen et al., 1982).

Further research has tested similarities and differences as antecedents of leader-member exchanges. Studies have included dispositional and demographic variables such as attitudes (e.g., Basu & Green, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Murphy & Ensher, 1999), sex (e.g., Larwood & Blackmore, 1978; Pelled & Xin, 2000), race (e.g., Basu & Green, 1995; Bedi, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992), and sexual orientation (Carrasco, Barbuto, & Gifford, 2007). Other studies have tested a combination of demographic and attitude similarity (e.g., McClane, 1991; Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Turban & Jones, 1988).

In sum, theoretical assumptions and empirical findings have supported similarity attraction theory whereby persons who perceive themselves as similar to each other will be inclined to like each other, thereby enhancing their working relationship. Similarity attraction theory research also demonstrates that dispositional and affective components play an important role in the development of leader-member exchanges (Liden et al., 1993).

Sources of Work Motivation

Many perspectives of motivation have been examined. These perspectives include need-based (Maslow, 1954; McClelland, 1961), intrinsic (Deci, 1975), social identity (Ashford & Mael, 1989), value-based (Etzioni, 1961), self-concept based (Brief & Aldag, 1981), and developmental (Kegan, 1982). More recently, scholars have examined work motivation, which is defined as the process by which behavior is energized, directed, and sustained in organizational settings (Steers, Bigley, & Porter, 2003). Much of the research on work motivation has been conducted from the content-based perspective. Content-based motivation refers to an assumption that an individual possesses unique factors that energize, direct, and sustain work-related behavior (Steers et al., 2003). Motivating factors have been differentiated into extrinsic (or external) and intrinsic (or internal) factors (Deci). Deci described intrinsic motivation as an individual's obtainment of pleasure from enjoyment of the task. Extrinsic motivation occurs when an individual engages in an activity or task because completion leads to external rewards such as money, promotion, or grades (Deci, 1971).

Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) proposed an integrative taxonomy of work motivation that further differentiated external and internal sources of motivation. Leonard et al.'s taxonomy included five sources of work motivation, including two intrinsic sources (intrinsic process motivation and self-concept internal) and two extrinsic sources (instrumental motivation and self-concept external motivation).

Internal Sources of Motivation

Leonard et al. (1999) suggested that intrinsic process and self-concept internal were categories of internal motivators. Intrinsic process motivation refers to motivation due to the enjoyment of the task, wherein work itself becomes motivational for the individual due to sheer enjoyment of performing the task (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Self-concept internal motivation was drawn from McClelland's (1961) need for achievement, Deci's (1975) notion of an internal motivating force to overcome obstacles, and Katz and Kahn's (1978) description of an individual's motivation to achieve ideal role performance based upon internal factors. Individuals set internal standards for traits, competencies, and values as a basis for the ideal self. This ideal self motivates individuals to engage in behaviors that reinforce such internally derived standards and, ultimately, higher levels of achievement (Leonard et al.).

External Sources of Motivation

Leonard et al. (1999) suggested that instrumental motivation and self-concept external motivation were two categories of external motivators. Instrumental motivation evolved from Barnard's (1938) exchange theory, as well as from expectancy theory and equity theory, which presumed that organizations and employees enter into exchange relationships where external factors such as money or promotion drive employee motivation to perform a task (Leonard et al.). Self-concept external motivation refers to motivation that is primarily other-directed. Motivation comes from affirmation of values, competencies, and traits (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). This motivation is similar to McClelland's (1961) need for affiliation and Alderfer's (1969) relatedness needs.

Leonard et al.'s (1999) sources of work motivation have been found to be antecedents to transformational leadership behaviors (Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2000), influence tactics (Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2002), watch-wearing behaviors (Spencer, 2001), organizational citizenship behaviors (Barbuto, Brown, Wheeler, & Wilhite, 2003), transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership (Barbuto, Cundall, & Fritz, 2005), influence triggers (Barbuto, 2000), locus of control (Barbuto & Story, 2008), and mental boundaries (Barbuto & Story, 2007). Other research has found cross-cultural differences in work motivation (Barbuto & Gifford, 2007).

The Relationship between Motivation and LMX

This study extends the motivation and leader-member exchange literatures by testing several hypotheses, using internal and external sources of work motivation as an antecedent to the quality of the leader-follower relationship. Leonard et al. (1999) delineated between motivational sources that are external (i.e., other directed, based upon reference groups) and internal (i.e., the ideal self derived from internal standards). Testing self-reported differences in internal and external source of work motivation should provide greater understanding of the effect of motivational sources in leader-member exchange relationships. Because the similarity attraction paradigm has been previously supported (Gerstner & Day, 1997), it is expected that leader and follower differences in motivation will negatively affect LMX quality. Differences in leader-follower internal sources of work motivation will be negatively related to leader-member exchange (H1a). Similarly, differences in leader-follower external sources of work motivation will be negatively related to leader-member exchange (H1b).

The relationship between leaders' and followers' sources of work motivation and the followers' rating of LMX are tested in this study. Steers, Bigley, and Porter (2003) argued that motivation allows employees to focus energies on improving organizational existence, which includes relationships with supervisors. Testing the level of motivation of both leaders and followers in conjunction with quality of LMX should provide additional insight into the effect of motivation on LMX quality. Followers' sources of work motivation will be positively related to leader-member exchange (H2). Leaders' sources of work motivation will be positively related to leader-member exchange (H3).

Methods

Data were collected from seventy-five elected community leaders and 388 raters. Leaders served as treasurers in their respective counties and were elected by eligible voters in those specific counties. Sixty-five percent of the leaders were female with an average age of 51; 50% had earned a bachelor's degree, and 20% had earned an advanced degree. Raters were colleagues or subordinates of the leader. Fifty-three percent of the raters were female with an average age of 46 years; 42% of the raters had earned a bachelor's degree, and less than 10% had earned an advanced degree. Leaders' scores were matched with their individual followers to form a total of 368 leader-follower dyads. Twenty dyads were not included due to missing information from either the leader or the follower that prevented calculation of the scales.

Sources of Work Motivation

Internal and external sources of work motivation were calculated using the Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI). Barbuto and Scholl (1998) developed the MSI to operationalize sources of work motivation. The MSI is a 30-question instrument measured with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “entirely agree” to “entirely disagree.” The external motivation subscale is composed of scores from the MSI’s instrumental subscale and self-concept external subscale. A sample item from the external subscale is: “I will work harder if I get paid for the extra effort.” The internal motivation subscale is composed of scores from the MSI’s instrumental subscale and the self-concept internal subscale. A sample item from the self-concept internal subscale is: “I work harder if I know my skills are needed.”

Followers’ motivation sources subscales returned acceptable reliability coefficients with a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha=.87$ for the external motivation subscale and $\alpha=.75$ for the internal motivation subscale. Similarly, the leaders’ motivation sources subscales returned acceptable reliability coefficients with a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha=.64$ for the external motivation subscale and $\alpha=.68$ for the internal motivation subscale. Differences between individual leader and follower scores were calculated by taking the absolute value of the difference between the leader score and the follower score on each of the subscales (Barbuto & Story, 2008).

Leader-Member Relationship Quality

The quality of the leader-follower relationship was measured using the LMX-7 (Gerstner & Day, 1997). This instrument measures follower’s perception of relationship quality. The LMX-7 is a seven-item instrument with a seven point Likert scale where lower scores refer to lower quality relationships and higher scores refer to higher quality relationships. An example item from the LMX-7 is “This person understands my problems and needs.” The LMX-7 has been shown to have internal reliabilities from $\alpha=.80$ to $.90$ (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1998). The reliability coefficient for this study was $\alpha=.84$.

Procedure

Data were collected during a full-day leadership training seminar sponsored by an association as an annual professional development program. Participants consisted of a group of elected officials who were members of this association. Leaders were asked to complete the instruments and return them directly to the primary researcher in a postage-paid envelope. Each leader was asked to solicit between four and six colleagues and/or subordinates to complete the rater version of the instruments. Raters’ instruments were also returned directly to the primary researcher in a postage-paid envelope. Instruments were coded to protect the identities of the raters; however, leaders’ names were kept on a separate coding sheet for interpretation and feedback. Of the 92 eligible leaders, 75 participated in the study for an 82% response rate. Of the selected 552 raters, 368 usable rater packages were returned for a 67% response rate.

Previous studies have analyzed antecedent variables using correlational analyses in order to understand the relationship between the antecedent variable and LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997). For this study, zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics were calculated for all variables and are reported in Table 1.

Results

Results indicated that none of the hypothesized relationships were significant. Table 2 describes the results of the correlation analysis for differences between leader and follower internal and external motivation and leader-member exchange relationship quality (LMX). From this finding, it cannot be determined that differences in leaders' and followers' internal or external sources of work motivation positively or negatively affect the quality of the leader-follower exchange relationships. Separately, neither leaders' individual sources of work motivation nor followers' individual sources of work motivation were related to the quality of the leader-follower relationship. This result is unexpected and contrary to the extant research on similarity attraction theory.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations for Leader Sources of Motivation, Follower Sources of Motivation, and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Leader – Extrinsic	3.34	.68	(.64)				
2. Leader – Intrinsic	3.36	.71	.67**	(.68)			
3. Follower – Extrinsic	3.54	1.01	.05	.00	(.87)		
4. Follower-Intrinsic	3.48	.84	-.05	-.10	.72**	(.75)	
5. LMX	22.05	4.86	.03	.08	-.01	.04	(.84)

Note. ** $p < .01$. Cronbach's alpha scores are reported in parentheses on the diagonal.

Of interest, however, is the significant correlation between the internal and external sources of motivation (leader's $r = .67$, $p < .01$; follower's $r = .72$; $p < .01$). This positive correlation indicates that as internal sources of motivation increased, so too did external sources of motivation. A significant positive correlation between leader and follower differences in external and internal motivation was also found ($r = .45$) (see Table 2). This appears to be a residual effect from the significant relationships between leader internal and external sources of motivation and follower internal and external sources of motivation, not an independent result. While the result should not be entirely dismissed, it is not considered to be a noteworthy finding.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations for Motivation Differences and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. L-F Difference Ext	.46	.50			
2. L-F Difference Int	.45	.50	.45**		
3. LMX	22.05	4.86	.05	.02	

Note. ** $p < .01$. L-F Difference Ext = Absolute value of difference between leader and follower extrinsic

scores. L-F Difference Int=Absolute value of difference between leader and follower intrinsic scores.

Discussion

This study tested actual self-reported sources of work motivation in leaders and followers and the differences in sources of work motivation between leaders and followers as predictors of the quality of leader-follower relationships. Specifically, it was hypothesized that greater differences in leaders' and followers' self-reported sources of work motivation would be related to lower quality leader-follower relationships. The relationship between leaders' sources of work motivation and the followers' perception of the quality of the leader-follower relationship, as well as the followers' sources of work motivation and the followers' perception of the quality of the leader-follower relationship, were also explored.

Interestingly, none of the hypothesized relationships were found, contradicting the notions purported by the similarity attraction paradigm. These findings indicate that actual self-reported similarity of sources of work motivation is not related to the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship. Practically speaking, leaders should note that they may develop high quality relationships with followers even though the follower may be motivated differently than the leader. Leaders will still need to be aware of these differences of motivation to successfully tap into each follower's dominant source of work motivation in efforts to produce results and meet goals.

Leaders are commonly encouraged to surround themselves with diverse teams. Often, diversity is thought of in terms of demographic characteristics. However, motivation is also an individual characteristic from which leaders can build a diverse team. Teams and organizations with varying levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may be more capable of sustaining effort in spite of the waxing and waning of organizational or team success. Inclusion of varying sources of work motivation may also provide leaders with more effective decision making advice not based purely on either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Leaders, teams, and organizations may experience numerous positive outcomes by embracing sources of motivation as one characteristic of diversity within teams and organizations.

Of particular note in this study is the significant and positive correlations found between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation sources in both leaders and followers. Deci (1975) argued that intrinsic motives within an individual should decrease the effect of extrinsic motives, revealing a negative correlation. However, Bandura (1977) contradicted this logic, stating that in workplace settings it is nearly impossible to find situations that lack either an intrinsic inducement or an extrinsic inducement. In fact, Bandura argued that withdrawing external rewards even for someone highly intrinsically motivated would be viewed as a punishment and thus reduce intrinsic motivation. Cameron and Pierce (1994) found that when employees received an extrinsic reward, there were no detrimental effects regardless of employees' intrinsic or extrinsic motivation preferences. They noted that the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should continue to be examined because the interplay between these two motives remains elusive. This study provides further evidence of the need to more effectively delineate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in work settings, to examine the interplay between these two sources, and to perhaps explore more complex models in which moderating and mediating variables affect motives.

Limitations/Future Directions

While the similarity attraction paradigm posited that leaders and followers who are similar would have higher quality leader-member exchange relationships, this theory was not supported by data from this sample. This study tested self-reported motivation of leaders and followers—not perceptions of differences, as many past studies have operationalized this construct. Since this study found that actual self-reported differences in motivation did not affect the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship, it is entirely possible that the similarity portion of similarity attraction theory should be based upon leaders' or followers' perceived similarity as opposed to actual reported similarity. In this study, it appears that independently self-reported actual differences offer little predictive value to leader-member exchange. Future research should distinguish between subjective attributions of similarity and measured differences of similarity when operationalizing the construct. Both forms of measures may be useful to confirm the conclusions made in this study.

A positive correlation between internal and external sources of motivation was found in this study, indicating that those with high internal motivation appear to also have high external motivation. It is unclear whether increased internal motivation is elevating external motives or vice versa. Closer examination may be warranted to test this relationship.

Conclusion

The similarity attraction paradigm states that individuals are more likely to have better relationships with those who are similar to themselves (Byrne, 1971). Previous research has confirmed this assertion to be true using a number of demographic and dispositional variables. This study does not support the similarity attraction paradigm, as no relationship between leaders' sources of work motivation or followers' sources of work motivation and the quality of the leader-member exchange existed.

Leadership development should continue to train leaders to understand the differences of work motivation and its impact upon individuals in the workplace; however, notions around objectively measured "fit" may be problematic as truly similar individuals will not necessarily develop better working relationships in dyadic exchanges. Future research should test antecedents of leader-member exchanges with particular attention paid to actual self-reported and perceived similarity criteria. The impacts of differences in work motivation, both in the workplace and in the development of leader-follower relationships, may offer plentiful lines of salient inquiry.

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TOXIC VERSUS COOPERATIVE BEHAVIORS AT WORK: THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP IN CREATING COMMUNITY-CENTERED ORGANIZATIONS

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Recent headlines highlight the literal toxicity spewing from companies such as BP (oil spill), Hillandale Farms (salmonella poisoning), and W.R. Grace (vermiculite/asbestos poisoning). These incidents bring to mind an earlier rash of visible and high profile executives from such companies as Enron, WorldCom, and Tyco, who made headlines because of their self-centered, covetous, and irresponsible behavior towards shareholders and employees (Ivancevich, Duening, Gilbert, & Konopaske, 2003). Scholars suggest that such toxic behavior on the part of organizational leaders and managers exerts a negative impact on employee and firm productivity (Goldman, 2008; Vega & Comer, 2005). In this paper, we define the concept of a toxic workplace and discuss what factors contribute to its development. When leaders in organizations routinely display toxicity toward their employees (exhibited through excessive employee monitoring, micro-management, and politically-motivated performance appraisals), the outcomes will be radically different than from organizations in which community or collaboration is practiced. We argue that managers and leaders should attempt to reduce the amount of toxic influence within their organizations while consciously attempting to cultivate a community-centered organizational culture. We develop several testable propositions that explore how these two contrasting organizational models may influence important human resource and organizational outcomes. We conclude the paper with a discussion of community-centered organizations and provide suggestions on how to test a sample of our propositions with future research.

The purpose of this paper is to create and contrast a model of narcissistic, self-focused organizations with high spirit workplaces that exemplify a community-centered approach. The theory we develop provides a framework from which to investigate pertinent research questions, such as whether “community-centered” organizations experience less corruption than their more “toxic” counterparts, and to what degree top leadership is responsible for creating an organizational culture (Schein, 1990) of collaboration. Next, we discuss how several human resource practices would be different based on these organizational typologies. In response to the recent epidemic of both public and noteworthy corporate scandals, we provide specific advice for leaders and managers on both how to avoid corporate narcissism and how to foster a collaborative work environment using current company examples. Leaders and managers set the emotional tone of a workplace. Most employees understand and accept the inevitable fact that their relationships at work will undergo occasional tense periods characterized by problems with their supervisors, co-workers, or customers, which in turn often lead to their experiencing temporary stress or emotional reactions (Ivancevich & DeFrank, 1998). This is normal. More extreme, however, are *toxic workplaces*, which can be detrimental to employee health and emotional well-being.

A workplace may be toxic if: (a) mediocre performance is rewarded over merit-based output (Colligan & Higgins, 2006; Doyle & Kleiner, 1993); (b) employees avoid disagreements with managers for fear of reprisal (Jones, 1996); (c) personal agendas take precedence over the long-term well-being of the company (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003); (d) leaders are constantly on edge and lose their tempers often (“Middle,” 2003); (e) new leaders do not stay long and employee turnover is common; and, (f) employees are treated more like financial liabilities than like assets (Macklem, 2005), and (g) bosses routinely throw temper tantrums, make unreasonable demands, scream, and use obscenities (Anonymous, 2008).

What factors contribute to toxic workplaces? Generally speaking, colleagues who do not feel the need to self-censor their behavior, overly demanding bosses, and an over focus on self-advancement contribute to toxicity at work. Managers who relentlessly pursue unreasonable profits from quarter to quarter can be a major source of this toxicity (Macklem, 2005), along with those who expect subordinates to cater to their every predilection (Anonymous, 2008). In such environments, employees are overburdened with work, strapped with tight deadlines, and unlikely to maintain work-life balance, given that their managers expect them to place work before all other priorities. Such managers are preoccupied with their own status and power and consequently keep their subordinates in the dark regarding key strategic and tactical issues (Hymowitz, 2004). Subordinates can feel left out of the decision making loop and betrayed by these types of managers, who often take credit for initiatives developed by their direct reports.

Social science researchers such as Bandura (2002) and Zimbardo (2004) have argued that it is not necessarily the person who is corrupt, but rather that persons develop a penchant for corruption when placed in institutional structures that encourage its practice. The illusions of grandeur, power, and the “satisfaction” of trouncing an opponent (or, humiliating a colleague) derive from a fragmented, false sense of self, or an egoic fixation, which is the root cause of toxic behavior (Koehn, 2007). Koehn described such toxic behavior as psychological, a self-centered disconnect from our humanity, and a subsequent severing of empathic ties to other people.

Self-centered behavior can lead to an excessive focus on self-gratification at work, which can result in the violation of others' rights or in abuses of control, bullying, and exploitation, as Koehn (2007, p. 3) noted: "Our illusions so consume us that we are not able to feel compassion toward others." In contrast, an integrated self is reflected in a cohesive entity (which we call "community"), which we define as a place where one is (a) surrounded by mutually supportive persons, (b) in an environment comprised of policies that are egalitarian and fair, and (c) supported by colleagues who are engaged in the process of self-development.

In the following sections of this paper, we explore the structural determinants of organizational toxicity and its manifestations in the workplace along with the institutionally sanctioned processes that develop callousness in top managers. Moral disengagement, dehumanization, and ego aggrandizement are used to describe the processes by which organizational policies of monitoring, micromanagement, and certain types of onerous performance appraisals can perpetuate toxicity within companies and can have a subsequent negative impact upon employees. Conversely, we explore the practices and leadership behaviors that encourage "community" within the structural, evaluative, and communicative aspects of organizational behavior. While previous authors have provided psychological perspectives of toxic manifestations (Bandura, 2002; Hollis, 2007; Zimbardo, 2004) and community practice (Peck, 1987) as separate ontological components, in this manuscript we bridge these two research domains by describing the transformation from corporate isolationism to a shared sense of purpose and to resulting communal sharing at work.

Structure and Toxicity within Organizations

The recent flurry of top-level executives who have been subject to public shaming is indicative of a much larger corporate problem (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Gilbert, 2008). Their actions may in fact be the result of systemic organizational forces operating over a prolonged period of time. Organizations, with their potential to institutionalize corrupt practice, have the power to erode empathic behavior and to supplant it with destructive acts. Zimbardo (2004) in fact argues that the focus on individuals acts as a "smokescreen" in that certain persons can be demonized, while leaving the structure that contributed to their depravity intact. He further suggests that both situational and structural elements can overwhelm an individual's dispositional tendencies and formal training, inducing him or her to commit unthinkable acts. In organizations, toxicity is exhibited as a profound disrespect for others, and in a dehumanization, or de-individualization of persons who are adversely affected by corporate policies (Zimbardo).

Egocentric, or "narcissistic" managers can easily perpetuate a self-reinforcing pattern of behavior, one in which the conquered subordinate is transformed into an enabler, or an obsequious follower who willingly serves the boss. Downs (1997, p. 69) described enablers in the following manner: "The enabler makes the narcissist look good, always withholds criticism, and protects the narcissist from others in the organization who would encroach on the narcissist's territory." We suggest that narcissism provides a basis for toxicity within organizations because excessive self-focus precludes an extension of self on behalf of others, and encourages "winning" at any expense. Indeed, researchers found that companies under the directorship of narcissistic CEOs experienced more erratic and extreme measures of performance (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007), which may result from CEOs' single-minded desire to "look good" for the media, investors and corporate peers, combined with their willingness to take large risks in that

pursuit. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-III) lists narcissistic criteria as “grandiose sense of self-importance of uniqueness...[sense of] entitlement, interpersonal exploitativeness, and lack of empathy.” The resulting constellation of selfish, greedy, and myopic behaviors that are an outgrowth of an overriding self-centeredness is what breeds cutthroat tactics, devious office politics, and a Machiavellian orientation. Leaders in a position to model their behavior set the stage for narcissistic tendencies that might otherwise remain under wraps in a culture of connection and mutual support. This tendency has been supported empirically, in that Locke (2009) found a positive association between aggression and narcissism.

In the next section, we suggest that organizationally sanctioned toxicity is a result of manifest narcissism that is present in everyday company operations. These narcissistic behaviors include, but are not limited to, practices of employee monitoring, micromanagement, and politically motivated performance appraisals.

Employee Monitoring

According to Bandura (2002), monitoring mechanisms are a means of “disengagement,” a way of diffusing the agentive role and thus facilitating harmful managerial behavior. Although Kirwan (2009) argued that moral disengagement is emblematic of contemporary corporate leaders, this type of behavior is also present in historical examples. One of the first documented cases of employee monitoring occurred at Ford Motor Company in the 1930s. Ford’s Sociological Department gathered information from employees’ families and friends to determine their eligibility for company profit sharing and to ensure that recipients did not squander their receipts on unseemly endeavors. This trend of employee monitoring may have begun at Ford, but continues today. In 1998, the Kmart warehouse in Manteno, Illinois, hired two private investigators to gather information on their workers’ personal lives. The final executive report included information on its employees’ personal habits outside of work (Prentice Hall, 1998). In the computer age, a much more sophisticated and surreptitious type of monitoring takes place. For example, the American Management Association’s (AMA) 2005 Electronic Monitoring and Surveillance Survey of 526 U.S. companies found that 76 percent of respondents monitor their workers’ Internet activity, 55 percent of respondents said they monitor e-mail activity, and 51 percent monitor telephone calls (AMA, n.d.). In addition, more than half of the companies surveyed use video monitoring in an attempt to prevent theft, violence, and sabotage.

Companies rarely measure the impact of such monitoring on employees, or if employees are negatively affected by an increase in its use. However, academic research has linked monitoring to increased employee stress, decreased job satisfaction, and feelings of social isolation (Aiello & Kolb, 1995). In *Self Esteem at Work*, Branden (1998) explained the decline in morale that results from unwarranted probing: “When people don’t feel safe they become defensive, fearful, timid, and resentful, none of which produces peak performance” (p. 54). In addition, Locke (2009) found a negative association between self-esteem and aggression, with negative verbal assaults carrying five times the impact of positive interactions at work.

Interestingly, management researchers have found that narcissistic individuals tend to rise in disproportionate numbers to positions of power. Those who are able to rise with the least resistance may in fact possess “psychopathic tendencies” (Babiak & Hare, 2006). In other words, narcissistic managers are readily able to gauge other people’s vulnerabilities and subsequently

exploit them, without feeling any remorse or regret in the process. In a sample of two hundred high-potential executives, researchers found that the prevalence of psychopaths was three and one half times higher than in the general population (Babiak & Hare, 2006). The emotional wreckage that they leave behind as a result of harassment and bullying toward those whom they perceive as “weaker” is subsequently reflected in dysfunctional organizational cultures and structures (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1989).

In monitoring and castigating employees, management may thus be ignoring the systemic source of the problem, which may be inequitable treatment such as underpayment (Greenberg, 1990), career stagnation, or a significant degree of disrespect. Hollis (2007) described the dilemma with which organizational development professionals are faced: “They may have been summoned by leadership to deal with a corporate problem, but that same leadership will also fiercely resist change, genuine dialogue, and the critiques of those who are most affected by the common neurosis.” Taken together, the following two propositions are suggested:

P1: In companies that engage in employee monitoring activities, employees are more likely to have a perception of being treated inequitably in such areas as supervision and compensation.

P2: In companies that engage in employee monitoring activities, employees are more likely to report less self-confidence, less organizational commitment, and greater job search behaviors than in companies that do not monitor their employees.

Micromanagement and Distrust

Micromanagement is a belief that quality work will not occur unless it is carefully supervised. The implication of micromanagement is that workers cannot be trusted to: (a) finish a task on time; (b) finish a task at all; or (c) finish a task to specification (Barnard, 2008; Lubit, 2004). We suggest that such distrustful behaviors (e.g., nagging, harping, and cajoling) may be disguised as helping behaviors, which are a corporate form of parental guidance.

Micromanagers are psychologically distant, insensitive, and imposing (Kim & Yuki, 1995; Pedraja et al., 2006). These same traits are shared with psychopaths, who have been characterized as “malignant narcissists” in that they also possess the characteristics of grandiosity, extreme self-centeredness, and a sense of entitlement (as do narcissists) but further tend to manifest antisocial and destructive tendencies (Babiak & Hare, 2006). The zero tolerance manager is equally insensitive—he or she attributes poor performance to individual employee characteristics, such as laziness, incompetence, or a lack of effort (Moss & Sanchez, 2004). Both types of managers tend to reside in their own ethical enclave created by the insularity of their position (Austin & Larkey, 1992). One researcher referred to this phenomenon as “dean’s disease,” a result of “...the tug of flattery that those in power are the heirs to and the comfort of being surrounded by people who never contradict them” (Bedeian, 2002, p. 165). Bedeian explained that the process of learned superiority creates individuals who are rigid, suspicious, easily slighted, distrustful of others, insensitive, undiplomatic, and inconsiderate. The resulting stress and anxiety caused by a narcissistic manager may stem from behavior such as “relentless micromanagement, crude attacks on people, impulsive firings, and obstinacy,” which Wasylyshyn (2005) identified as systemic barriers to effective leadership.

Micromanagement breeds what Zukav and Francis (2001) termed “pleasers,” or persons devoid of self-respect whose mindset is formed from hearing others’ opinions. Pleasers operate from the premise that the other person is always right. Their intense desire to please is created by fear of not gaining their manager’s admiration, not meeting his or her psychological needs (Zukav & Francis, 2001), or potentially losing their status as most favored sycophant. Pleasers are in a constant state of fear and arousal: “An individual who needs to please is constantly trying to see how others are feeling so that she will know how to be with them. She cannot take their requests and communications at face value. She tries to guess what they are really saying or requesting. This occurs because she herself does not communicate what she is feeling, thinking, or requesting” (Zukav & Francis, 2001, p. 174). Therefore, the following proposition is suggested:

P3: In organizations that micromanage, there will be fewer avenues for upward feedback than in organizations that do not employ such management techniques.

Politically-Motivated Performance Appraisal and Political Gaming

Although there is anecdotal evidence that toxic work environments are common, one in particular that stands above the rest is Enron (Ivancevich, Duening, Gilbert, & Konopaske, 2003). One way in which Enron created a toxic work environment was by maintaining a reward system in which financial allocations (e.g., bonuses) were determined by political motives. The company formed a Personnel Review Committee (PRC) to rank approximately 400 Enron executives and managers (Kuney, 2003; Moohr, 2004). The size of bonuses at Enron could vary dramatically based on the recommendations of the PRC. Twice per year, the PRC would require its members to obtain performance evaluations on each of the 400 executives and managers. Since the PRC could only make decisions by unanimous consent, this encouraged PRC members to coerce and lobby fellow members for favorable rankings (which resulted in larger bonuses) for their own subordinates. As an example, then CFO Andy Fastow had acquired a reputation for stopping the PRC evaluation process for days so that he could lobby PRC members into agreeing to give higher rankings to his direct reports (Bryce, 2002; Cruver, 2002). Thus, the PRC system encouraged negative and toxic managerial behaviors such as coercion, ingratiation, and manipulation. As Babiak and Hare (2006) argued, narcissists are known for focusing on their needs at the exclusion of other peoples’ desires.

Corporate-mandated performance evaluations are often perceived as bothersome chores that are grudgingly performed at year-end. They can either be given in a supportive, developmental fashion, or (as in the case of narcissists) can be used both to punish (Sulkowicz & Foust, 2007) and to flaunt the manager’s ego. When used in a negative manner, performance appraisals can become the tool through which organizationally sanctioned harassment occurs, euphemistically guised as “discipline meetings,” “quality assurance sessions,” or “performance documentation.” Coen and Jenkins described the potential destructiveness of rating systems:

The performance appraisal, more than any other aspect of our people system surreptitiously sends a number of resounding, negative messages about the nature and potential of people. People need to be prodded to put forth their best effort. The assumption that we can even rank or precisely measure a person’s contribution is

degrading in a sense. In blindly accepting this assumption, we trivialize an individual's work. (2002, p. 40)

Although systems like forced ranking (in which employees are individually sorted and numerically arranged) appear to be an efficient way of measuring employees, deliberate distinctions where none may exist create an atmosphere rife with politicking (Hazels & Sasse, 2008) and in which favoritism and other forms of gamesmanship routinely occur (Bates, 2003). Used by as many as one-third of corporations in the U.S., forced ranking systems have been criticized for pitting co-workers against one another, unfairly treating groups made up of top performers, and decreasing collaboration and risk taking (McGregor, 2006). A recent study concluded that forced rankings may actually have a negative impact on employees' willingness to maximize their overall performance in that the rankings encourage employees to focus their energies on only performing relatively better than their peers (Garcia & Tor, 2007). Moreover, they are destructive in that employees are continually on edge about losing their jobs (particularly if these systems are used as a "weeding" tool) and are less apt to help peers, who have been systematically transformed into competitors (Hazels & Sasse, 2008). Both Ford Motor Company and Lexmark have abandoned forced systems in response to decreased employee morale among other potential problems (Sloan, 2008). Even General Electric, a long-time advocate of forced rankings, is adding more flexibility surrounding their use (McGregor, 2006).

For the manager who feels threatened or slighted, ambiguous systems provide a convenient avenue for personal vindication used against disliked subordinates. Kennedy (1980, p. 18) stated, "I've seen performance appraisal used as a part of guerrilla warfare against people a manager couldn't fire but wanted to." When appraisals are not linked to actual performance, bosses can easily cast their frustration through a formal, written disparagement. Babiak and Hare (2006) described the "macho psychopath," or the boss who may be particularly vindictive and ruthless to those who cross his or her path. Narcissists who are frequently found in upper level management (Kets de Vries, 1993) are callous and intolerant of criticism (Babiak & Hare, 2006), traits which may be leveled at a subordinate who displays anything less than abject loyalty. Abuse is evident when "You have received a performance review that is radically different from your last review, or that grossly misrepresents the quantity or quality of the work you have done since the last review" (Wyatt & Hare, 1997, p. 195). For those who are not "mainstream" (i.e., female or minority employees) numerical appraisal is a way to express bias, cronyism, racism, sexism, and religious intolerance (Alger, 2002).

Therefore, we suggest the following two propositions:

P4: In narcissistic organizational cultures, employees will be evaluated by means that are more political in nature, and their ratings will be linked less to performance.

P5: In narcissistic organizational cultures, racial minorities and women will receive lower performance appraisal ratings than their majority counterparts.

Characteristics of the Community-Centered Organization

“...community [is] where people care about what happens on their turf even to the person or property of strangers, with the reciprocal assumption that they would also care about them” (Zimbardo, 2004, p. 10).

Community-centered organizations, in contrast with toxic work environments, are typically warm, nurturing, positive, caring, and supportive places. Although theories of human connection are primarily emphasized in the nursing and healing sciences research literatures, the “centrality of human connection for health, healing, and well being” (Smith & Liehr, 2008, p. 175) is especially important in the creation of a “civil” organization. Patch Adams, physician and founder of the Gesundheit Institute, described the liberating sense of security that he experienced while living in a sense of community or a close circle of committed friendships. Although 95 percent of companies are characterized as authoritarian (Mueller, 2000), it is possible that a more supportive organizational culture (where insidious practices are brought to light and dealt with in a healthy manner) can be created through a restructuring of human resource policy. Companies that have implemented a community-centered culture and set of processes should be more closely examined. The lessons learned through their examination and study can provide insights into what is possible and positive in terms of employee morale, trust, and performance effectiveness.

Peck (1987) presented the importance of human connectivity and the role it serves regarding community in succinct terms (see Appendix). He suggested that community can be created by working toward the common good despite one’s personal desires to the contrary. Roberts et al. (2005) conceptualized the notion of the “Best Reflected Self” (BRS), which is constructed through a process known as social architecting, in which supervisors seek to actively promote their employees’ strengths through constructive feedback, creation of positive experiences, and the nurturance of supportive relationships. In order for a manager in a community-centered environment to be successful, he/she must be a facilitator, a developer, an orchestrator, and a coach as opposed to a micromanager who relies on compliance by use of command, control, power, and authority (“The Essence of Great Workplaces,” 2004). In community-centered organizations, managers and leaders will be responsible for modeling thoughtfulness, selflessness, compassion, and generosity in the evaluative and communicative aspects of interpersonal interaction. Organizations that espouse the community model experience far fewer of the insidious practices (e.g., employee monitoring, micromanagement, and politically-motivated performance appraisals) that permeate toxic firms (Pedraje et al., 2006).

Trust vs. Monitoring

Semco’s Richard Semler commented,
What can be expected from employees at the lower levels whose opinions are rarely sought, and to whom explanations are rarely given. They know that the decisions that matter, the decisions that will affect them, are made on high. Is it reasonable to ask, year after year, for a special effort from these people and then reward them with a few public thank you’s? While the lucky few at the top enjoy fancy cars and big offices, not to

mention bonuses that exceed the combined salaries of 100 or even a 1000 ordinary workers. (1993, p. 188)

Lavish executive rewards are now so engrained that they have become synonymous with executive entitlement. Unfortunately, even today few managers consider their employees trustworthy. Donkin (2009) reported that less than eight percent of 3,500 respondents surveyed at U.K. companies trust employees to work unsupervised.

Recent arguments suggest that the most resilient and internally cohesive companies display the traits of (a) a shared set of values; (b) a commitment to the common good; (c) a high level of staff engagement; and (d) a shared vision of the future (Cain, 2009). Yet, leaders who deviated from the corporate norm of selfish indulgence in the past were considered suspect. This may be the reason that Pepsico's Craig Weatherup, former Chairman of the Board of the Pepsi Bottling Group, was questioned regarding his lack of ruthlessness despite the fact that he had nearly doubled his company's domestic sales (and more than tripled its operating profit) during his tenure. Weatherup has ironically been criticized for being too "values driven." He was quoted as saying, "If keeping to principles means that the stock is at \$50 instead of \$55, I'll take that" (Dauten, 1997, p. B1). Semler (1993, p. 284) further argued, "No company can be successful in the long run anyway, if profits are its principal goal." Ironically, under his leadership Semco's profits grew by 900 percent, the number of Semco factories expanded from one to six, and company employment increased from 100 to 830 employees.

Another oft-cited potential disadvantage of being too trusting is that employees may take advantage of a system in which they are not closely supervised (Kopelman, Protzas, & Falk, 2010). As Semler (1993) noted, however, he would rather create an environment of trust and live with the handful of employees who may exploit the system than create an environment of clandestine surveillance that undermines a culture of "family" involvement. When managers treat employees with empathy and compassion, the workplace climate reflects that level of respect (Childers, 2005). Top leaders set the emotional tone and expectations in the workplace, which result in either a positive community-centered climate or a negative, toxic work culture. Similarly, Salamon and Robinson (2008) found that perceived employee trust was positively correlated with a sense of responsibility toward the organization, as well as sales and customer service performance. Therefore, we suggest the following proposition:

P6: There will be a positive relationship between a community-centered organizational culture of trust and employee performance.

Democratic Management vs. Autocratic Management

Companies that practice "marketplace spirituality" realize that they serve those within their community as well as those inside their organizations. Art Collins of Medtronic stated that service to patients and corporate integrity are more important than maximizing profit: "...the true test of success is when every patient who needs our new products and therapies can receive access to them" (Wharton Executive Education, 2006). CEOs should remain humble, or what Collins refers to as "modest." At Medtronic, values are an integral component of the mission statement, which was subsequently woven into the company's value system. Collins stated that the primary cause of Enron's implosion was the company's failure to enact a moral code by which all employees, including top management, were expected to abide. He argued that the

most important criteria for a CEO are judgment and integrity, combined with humility (Jenkins & Visser, n.d.), and he further explained that truly great leaders consistently exhibit qualities of humility, modesty, and others-centered focus.

Unbounded pursuit of shareholder wealth through profit maximization is diametrically opposed to consistent executive decision-making that promotes virtuous action throughout the company. The humility practiced by leaders at community-centered organizations thus places employees and management on a more equal footing. Community-centered leaders practice egalitarian consultation, work with individuals as partners instead of chastising them as critics, and encourage others by drawing forth their latent capabilities instead of illuminating what they consider to be their present weaknesses.

Contrast these characteristics with those of Enron executives, who were described as “bullies in the boardroom” (Maharaj, 2008). Petrick and Scherer (2003) explained the self-centeredness and absence of leadership and wisdom at Enron that was evidenced in “a visionless accumulation of rapid wealth” that occurred in a “moral jungle.” Taken together, the following proposition is suggested:

P7: Organizations with community-centered cultures will tend to be more democratic than autocratic in their management practices.

Clearly, leaders such as Weatherup and Semler set a tone resulting in the creation of a community-centered organizational culture. Top-level executives wield the greatest influence, but managers at any and all levels can also make a positive difference.

A contrast of behaviors in narcissistic and community-centered organizations is provided in Table 2.

Discussion, Future Research and Concluding Remarks

James Oakley (2004) of Purdue University concluded that how leaders and managers treat employees dramatically impacts the way employees treat each other, customers, and other stakeholders. Leaders and managers influence the emotional tone of the organization, consciously or not, through policies, procedures, and day-to-day operations. Oakley (2004) supported these claims by reporting linkages between organizational characteristics and employee attitudes and behavior. He found a direct association between employee and customer satisfaction, as well as improved financial performance in firms with satisfied workers. He concluded that satisfaction is a necessary antecedent of employee engagement, as measured by the degree of motivation, sense of inspiration, personal involvement, and supportiveness:

"Organizational culture is another significant driver of employee engagement and includes management designing jobs well, providing support and setting goals" (2004, p. 4). He also concluded that all employees, not just the front line, have an impact on customer satisfaction.

At Medtronics, the attraction, retention, and development of individuals is one of the company's foremost priorities, and each employee is held responsible for talent identification and development. Goleman (1995) argued that executives skilled in emotional competencies will be able to provide a competitive advantage to their company. In his opinion, the “virtuoso in interpersonal skills” is a key to the corporate future precisely because of economic exigencies and structural implosion. Emotional intelligence contributes to social capital (Bolino & Turnley,

2003) when it forms a strong sense of trust, loyalty, and reciprocity. Goleman also pointed out the harmful consequences of low EI, such as the demoralization and exit of employees who are forced to endure tyrannical bosses and the character assassination that can result from emotional ineptitude. Chronic abuse may further impact a company's bottom line through increased health claims, absenteeism, and reduced productivity.

Table 2

Differences between Toxic and Community-Centered Organizations

	<u>Toxic</u>	<u>Community-Centered</u>
Conflict resolution	Winners and losers; conflict is squelched; a model of conversation as a point scoring coup. ¹	Differences are openly discussed; all employees feel equally comfortable in openly challenging company policy; dialogue is the norm.
Organizational culture	Ingroup/outgroup; forced acceptance of the dominant viewpoint; groupthink is prevalent. ²	Community and a sense of company ownership; a sense of safety, recognition, and empowerment.
Interaction	Patronizing, arrogant condescension; managers give orders instead of asking for feedback; tattling, scapegoating; feedback occurs only in a top-down direction. ³	Respectful discourse among independent professionals; frequent solicitation of their viewpoints and opinions; horizontal as opposed to hierarchical.
Managers	Suspicious truant officers and omnipresent watchdogs; micromanagement; a plethora of rigid rules and restrictions. ⁴	Servant leadership; humility; coaches and unleaders who direct others with circumspection; solicitation of others' opinions.
Selection and Promotion	Organizational citizenship to achieve self-promotion; cronyism, bias, and an undue emphasis on sycophancy. ⁵	The result of other enhancement and self-development, and a track record of relational and job mastery.
Appraisal	Reprimands without investigation or two-way communication; fearful, degrading episodes of abuse; only administered at annual intervals; subjective criteria that give managers room for political maneuvering.	Collegial, on-going discussions that focus on enhancing employee strengths; performance based on pre-specified contracts and explicit job criteria. ⁶
Organizational Change	Individuals conform themselves to a fixed unyielding set of policies;	Modeled after processes in nature that continually regenerate themselves in response to environmental conditions and external threat; impetus for change is

inflexible and unresponsive
attitudes toward change;
preserve the status quo and
vested interests.

the voice of dissent from employees who have access to
free expression.⁷

¹Barnard (2008). ²Lubit (2004). ³Austin & Larkey (1992). ⁴Kim & Yuki (1995). ⁵Khatri & Tsang (2003).
⁶Taylor et al. (1995). ⁷Volberda (1996).

In sum, organizational leaders and managers would be well advised to take steps to infuse their organizational cultures with a more community-centric orientation. As stated previously, such a cohesive entity or community is characterized by mutually supportive persons, an environment comprised of policies that are perceived as egalitarian and fair, and colleagues who are engaged in the process of self-development. Although the majority of companies in the US are characterized as authoritarian in nature (Mueller, 2000), it is our hope that more leaders and managers will seek to align their human resource strategies and policies in a manner that reinforces their organization's evolution toward a more community-centered culture. These leaders could focus more on trust-based management practices like empowerment, job enrichment, and decentralized decision making instead of relying on distrustful practices like excessive employee monitoring. Trust is an important element in the effective functioning of organizations. In their 40-year review of the research literature, Dirks and Ferrin (2001, p. 450) concluded that trust has a number of important benefits for organizations, including "positive effects on attitudes, perceptions, behaviors, and performance outcomes within organizational settings."

Similarly, leaders and managers can encourage a more community-centered organizational culture by reducing the ability of narcissistic managers to use performance appraisals in a politically motivated manner. Bernardin (2007, p. 176) provided several recommendations for developing sound performance appraisal procedures, including that they should: (a) be standardized; (b) be formally communicated to employees; (c) provide formal appeal mechanisms; (d) provide notice of performance deficiencies and opportunities to correct them; and (e) use multiple, diverse and unbiased raters. By requiring managers to follow these guidelines, leaders can cultivate a more community-oriented workplace that is perceived as more performance and merit-driven as opposed to being dysfunctional and political in nature. Taken together, the lessons learned throughout this research study can provide insights into what is possible and positive in terms of employee morale, trust, and performance effectiveness.

With regard to future research, the following suggestions are offered as a starting point to test a sample of the propositions presented in this paper. Proposition 1 states: "In companies that engage in employee monitoring activities, employees are more likely to have a perception of being treated inequitably in such areas as supervision and compensation." In order to test this proposition, researchers could conduct a field study comparing two organizations: one that engages in excessive employee monitoring of its employees' emails, and one that does much less monitoring of its employees' emails. Both organizations would have to inform employees of their email monitoring policies in advance of the study. Employees in both organizations would complete questionnaires that contain scales measuring how the monitoring impacts their perceptions of distributive (i.e., compensation) and interactional (i.e., supervisor) justice. The responses to these scale items could then be correlated to the actual amount of monitoring that was occurring at that particular organization. Our proposition would be supported if there were a

statistically significant (and positive) correlation between the level of employee email monitoring and the mean employee responses to the items in the distributive and interactional justice scales.

Proposition 2 states: “In companies that engage in employee monitoring activities, employees are more likely to report less self-confidence, less organizational commitment, and greater job search behaviors than in companies that do not monitor their employees.” Similar to the previously proposed research study, employees from two organizations (one that engages in high levels of employee email monitoring, and another organization that engages in low levels of email monitoring) could be asked to complete anonymous questionnaires that measure their self-reported levels of self-confidence, organizational commitment, and job search behaviors. Our second proposition would be supported if those respondents that work for the organization that engages in high levels of email monitoring report lower levels of self-confidence and organizational commitment, and higher levels of job search behaviors (e.g., updating their resumes, contacting job search firms, and searching the want ads posted on online career websites like Monster and Career Builder).

In addition to testing some of our propositions in this paper, researchers may want to take the ideas presented here in other interesting and fruitful directions. For example, future research could investigate optimal conditions for creating confluence at work, such as whether organizations that engage in “community” practices are more likely to engender high-performance, cohesive teams in which all members feel comfortable. Are these organizations more likely to have compassionate, sensitive, and mindful leaders? Or will these organizations have leaders who are more ego-centered, myopic, and driven by gaining competitive advantage over others? Based on the previous arguments which suggest a sense of community enhances a plethora of positive organizational outcomes, future investigations can also seek to uncover whether there exists (in a community-centered firm): (a) a higher degree of trust, compassion, and support; (b) less corruption and unethical behavior; (c) greater psychological health and moral maturity; (d) enhanced individual creativity and organizational innovation; (e) lower turnover and absenteeism; and (f) increased employee empathy toward fellow workers.

In sum, contributions of our paper include the explanation of toxic and community-centered organizations with particular emphasis on how the community model can enhance workplace functioning. In this paper, we presented an “egoless” form of management that extends into a community-centered model, in which the synergy of employees is enhanced when the corporate culture promotes other-development through self-improvement. We have also outlined the process of changing dysfunctional human resource and organizational practices (e.g., employee monitoring, micromanagement, and politically-motivated performance appraisals) to those that are more aligned with a spiritually-evolved organizational culture comprised of trust, democratic management, egalitarian consultation, and shared power. Further, specific action plans for leaders and managers who wish to operate within the community-centered model have been provided through an examination of proactive CEOs and corporate leaders who practice humility, empathy, and egalitarianism within their organizations. The toxic versus community-centered organization comparison and analysis and the propositions in this paper await rigorous empirical examination by researchers with roots in leadership, ethics, organizational behavior, and organizational theory research domains.

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* Dr. John ("Jack") M. Ivancevich passed away before this manuscript went to press. Jack was a true mentor, friend, colleague and leader who will be greatly missed by and continue to live in the hearts of all who knew him.

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Appendix
Descriptors* of a Connective Community-Centered Organization

Members in Community-centered organizations:

1. Feel safe
2. Feel accepted
3. Feel included
4. Experience recognition for their efforts
5. Celebrate differences
6. Work with clear and non-contradictory rules
7. Receive rewards for success that are far greater than the penalties
 for failure (Branden, 1998)
8. Experience tranquility
9. Feel relaxed
10. Feel empowered – participate fully in decisions affecting them (Carse,
 1986)
11. Have options
12. Feel that heaven and earth have somehow met
13. Have relationships that go deeper than their masks of self
 composure; and
14. Willingly extend themselves on behalf of others

*Source: Adapted from Peck, M. S. *The different drum: Community-making and peace*.
New York, NY: Simon and Schuster, 1987.



THE PERSPECTIVE AND PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP BY MANAGERS WITHIN A STATE CORRECTIONAL AGENCY: AN INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY

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This study explores the extent to which the perspective and practice of leadership by managers in a state correctional agency in the southeastern United States reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). The LPM is a model of leadership that places leadership perception into five distinct perspectives managers use in their understanding and practice of leadership. Using an instrumental case study method, the research was designed to test the model. The findings of this research reveal that the perspective and practice of leadership by managers within the organization only partially reflect the LPM. Recommendations are made for further refinement of the model to strengthen its usability as a mechanism by which leadership perspectives can be identified and potentially enlarged.

Ambiguous and conflicting definitions of leadership have confounded leadership scholars and practitioners for over 100 years. Leadership is a phenomenon that has been widely debated, prolifically researched, and extensively discussed in the literature, yet its meaning remains elusive. It has been examined in terms of the traits of leaders, the behaviors of leaders, the situations leaders face, the values of the leader, the context in which leadership occurs, and a number of other ways (Yukl, 2006). Attempts to define leadership seem to be contingent upon the context and intent of the individual providing the definition (Pfeffer, 1977). In fact, it has been observed that there are as many definitions of leadership as there are people trying to define it (Bass, 1990).

In many organizations, the terms management and leadership are used interchangeably, suggesting that leadership falls under the purview of management. Some distinguish between the two by asserting that leadership is “good” management (Bennis, 1989; DePree, 1987). Sometimes the two are differentiated by defining management as dealing with tasks, and leadership as dealing with people (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Although the distinction between

management and leadership is often made clear in the literature, it is not always clear in practice (Rost, 1993). The terms are often used interchangeably in practice, and in most organizations managers are called upon to be leaders (Mintzberg, 1973). If these managers do not see a distinction between management and leadership, or do not understand the distinction, the leadership role becomes unclear and potentially less effective. Even when managers do distinguish management from leadership, their definition and understanding of leadership can vary greatly from one manager to another. Thus, in the absence of agreement about what leadership is and who a leader is understood to be, those who practice leadership may do so from very different mindsets (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a; 2004b).

G. W. Fairholm (1998) introduced five distinct perspectives of leadership that he believes managers use to understand and practice leadership. According to G. W. Fairholm, one's perception of leadership can be categorized in terms of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust/cultural leadership, or spiritual (whole soul) leadership. These perspectives are considered to be paradigmatic in scope and, as such, shape the manager's practice of leadership in terms of how leadership is defined, the tools and behaviors used on the job, and the approaches taken toward followers. Initially referred to as the virtual leadership realities model, these perspectives were later more fully developed, operationalized, and tested by M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b), resulting in the emergence of The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM). The LPM, according to M. R. Fairholm, is both descriptive and prescriptive. It defines how leadership may be perceived by managers who are called upon to be leaders and places these perceptions into an overarching framework. It also prescribes the underlying philosophy, tools, behaviors, and approaches that are necessary to be effective within each perspective.

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) tested the LPM in a study using a sample of managers from local government agencies in the Washington DC metropolitan area. His results supported all five perspectives of leadership. Of the five, he found the strongest support for the perceptions of leadership as scientific management and values leadership, and the weakest support for excellence management and trust cultural leadership. Spiritual (whole-soul) leadership was moderately supported. M. R. Fairholm recommended further study to validate his findings that all five perspectives exist and that individuals can and do move through the perspectives. This study is a response to M. R. Fairholm's call to further explore the nature of the LPM. The purpose of this study and the research question it analyzes is: To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers within a state correctional agency reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model.

This research is important in validating the model as operationalized so that it can be used to inform leadership training. If research can verify that managers have different perceptions of leadership and these perceptions can be categorized and defined, then leadership development training can be focused on helping individuals to enlarge their perception of leadership and provide training on the tools and behaviors and the approaches to followers that are inherent in each perception.

The model may have global implications as well. If the perception of leadership by managers within a single state agency is shown to vary, then the perception of leadership by managers within global organizations will most likely have an even greater variance. Greater still may be the differences in perceptions of leadership across cultures. The Leadership Perspectives Model, if fully developed, may provide a useful tool in understanding leadership from the perspective of leaders in various cultures. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) leaders

across cultures are increasingly confronted with problems that require cooperation for their solution. However, these individuals may approach such problems in different ways based on how they understand leadership and their individual roles as leaders. These differences must be explored and understood for solutions to be effective, and the Leadership Perspectives Model holds promise as a tool for such exploration and understanding.

Perspectival Leadership Theory

The leadership perspectives model is based on perspectival leadership theory, a theory developed by G. W. Fairholm (1998) based on prevailing leadership literature. Perspectival leadership theory acknowledges that individuals often have different understandings of leadership and will practice leadership based on these understandings. G. W. Fairholm developed perspectival leadership theory using Barker's (1992) notion of employing paradigms to understand organizational realities. Paradigms are the realities an individual uses to explain a phenomenon. Whether the paradigm is "right" is of no consequence; as long as the paradigm is useful in explaining the phenomenon, the individual will hold on to it. When the paradigm no longer works, usually because the individual realizes that it can no longer explain the phenomenon, the individual will shift to another paradigm (Kuhn, 1996). G. W. Fairholm contended that individuals hold leadership paradigms that influence the "values, beliefs, traditional practices, methods, tools, attitudes and behaviors... [as well as] ...leadership practice, laws, theories, applications and work relationships in a corporation or team" that individuals possess (1998, pp. xvi-xvii). Thus, the way one defines and practices leadership is shaped by his or her paradigm. G. W. Fairholm identified five paradigms of leadership that individuals hold: leadership as scientific management; leadership as excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership, and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership. Each of these paradigms was identified and categorized by G. W. Fairholm through a review of the leadership literature. The following section briefly outlines the literature that was used as the foundation for each perspective, followed by a discussion of how each perspective has been operationalized into the Leadership Perspectives Model.

Leadership as Scientific Management

The evolution of management dates back to the early 1900s and the conception of scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919). Taylor recognized the propensity to look for a "great man" to head an organization and then leave the details of running the organization to him. The success of the organization, according to Taylor, is then dependent upon the ability of the man at the helm, placing a great deal of power in the hands of that individual. According to Taylor, this scenario creates inefficiencies within the organization. While acknowledging that "great men" are needed, he also introduced the proposition that the system itself must be structured and managed in a way that creates efficiency. To this end, Taylor introduced the principles of scientific management with three objectives: to point out the great inefficiency in organizations; to proffer that the remedy for such inefficiency lies in systematic management; and to prove that the best management techniques lie in the foundations of science.

The tenets of scientific management sparked a series of studies to determine the one best way to complete organizational tasks for optimal efficiency. These studies were steeped theoretically in the rational model of science, which deems that everything can be measured and

quantified. In the management realm, observation and measurement of production processes resulted in standardization of these processes for maximum efficiency. Under this scenario, the manager was tasked with ensuring that the staffing and incentive systems were in place to motivate workers to perform the standardized processes. The term POSDCORB—planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting—was developed as a mnemonic to summarize the tasks of management (Gulick & Urwick, 1937). In the early studies, workers were considered a part of the process that needed to be managed for efficiency.

Drucker (1954) defined management by virtue of its function within the organization. The primary function of management, according to Drucker, is economic performance, and the tasks of economic performance are: 1) managing the business; 2) managing the managers; and 3) managing the workers and the work. Furthermore, Drucker asserted that management can be learned through "... the systematic study of principles, the acquisition of organized knowledge and the systematic analysis of his own performance in all areas of his work and job and on all levels of management" (Drucker, 1954, p. 9).

McGregor (in Bennis & Schein, 1966) agreed that the primary objective of a manager is to achieve organizational objectives and that the tasks of a manager can be learned. However, McGregor asserted that managers needed to learn proper motivation techniques in order to incent their workers to achieve the highest possible level of production. For McGregor, management was defined as setting the organizational structure, objectives, tasks, and processes; while leadership was concerned with the relations based behavior that is necessary to achieve the objectives. Thus, while Drucker made no distinction between management and leadership, McGregor made a clear distinction between the two.

The confusion regarding leadership and management became even more apparent after Burns (1978) clearly identified leadership as separate from management, causing scholars to search for new approaches to understanding leadership. Still, the "leadership as management syndrome" (Rost, 1993, p. 132) continues today, despite many efforts to distinguish between the two (see also Barker, 1992; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Follet, 1949; Zaleznik, 1977). As a result of the confusion in the literature, and among scholars and practitioners, the perspective many individuals hold of leadership is that it is management in some capacity. Even if leadership is seen as a role of management, the two go hand-in-hand for individuals with the scientific management perspective. Thus, the focus of managers and/or leaders is on the POSDCORB functions as well as worker motivation, incentive and control. At this level of understanding, the concepts of leadership and management are used interchangeably.

Leadership as Excellence Management

A more evolved perception of leadership is that it defines not only management, but good management. In this perspective, the focus is on excellence within the organization, and "excellent" management is considered leadership (G. W. Fairholm, 1998). Although the origins of some of the ideas behind organizational excellence can be traced to Barnard (1964) who defined good management as shaping the values of individuals within organizations, the excellence movement itself was ignited by Peters and Waterman (1982). In their book, *In Search of Excellence*, Peters and Waterman outlined the attributes that characterize excellent organizations and proffered that leaders in the excellence tradition are focused on the ability and creativity of employees throughout the organization as a mechanism for producing excellent products and services.

The total quality management (TQM) movement of the 1980s was closely related to excellence management. With the aim of "...transforming the style of American management" Deming (1988, p. ix) introduced the tenets of quality management to United States businesses. Although "management by walking around" (MBWA) was a foundation of the excellence movement (Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982), Deming found it to be lacking as a form of leadership. According to Deming, walking around is not enough; the leader must know when to pause, when to ask questions, and what questions to ask. An important component of Deming's approach is that it requires leadership, rather than mere management. The aim of leadership, according to Deming, is to improve performance and quality, to increase production and to instill pride of workmanship among employees. In this capacity leaders do not find and correct errors, they help people to do their job well.

In an analysis of scientific management versus excellent management, the two are sometimes considered to be at opposite ends of the same continuum, with Deming's work capitalizing on and extending Taylor's work (Washbush, 2002). Washbush contended that Taylor's work in scientific management made great strides in helping managers to efficiently structure organizational systems, while Deming taught them how to improve those systems. The work of leadership, according to Deming (1988), is the work that creates excellence within an organization. Thus, some may view leadership as excellence management. Excellence is about change – change within the leader, the followers and the organization itself. The values that are necessary for such change are the foundation of the next perspective, values leadership.

Values Leadership

In the 1980s and 1990s, leadership research began focusing on the relationships that leaders were engaged in and the values inherent in those relationships. This values-based focus differed from previous approaches in that the focal point of the leader is not on production and efficiency; rather it focuses on the people themselves. While acknowledging that organizations have an underlying purpose that requires productivity, values-based approaches differ dramatically in the ways in which productivity is pursued (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b; Burns, 1978, 2003; DePree, 1987; G. W. Fairholm, 1998; Greenleaf, 1977). The theories inherent in values leadership acknowledge the transactional and transforming nature of leadership (Burns, 1978), as well as the transformational nature of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a, 1985b). These theories primarily view the leader as a servant (Frick & Spears, 1996; Greenleaf, 1977) who focuses on the needs of followers as a mechanism to raise the leader, the follower and the organization itself to higher levels of performance. In the values approach, a clear distinction is made between management and leadership (DePree, 1987; Rost, 1993). Although principles of management are acknowledged as important and necessary, leadership is viewed as the vital factor that moves organizations to meet the challenges of a global economy, rapid technological changes, and an increasingly educated and demanding workforce (Rost, 1993).

According to G. W. Fairholm, values-based leadership is uncomplicated. "It is leader action to create a culture supportive of values that leads to mutual growth and enhanced self-determination" (1998, p. 61). Within the perspectival approach to leadership, M. R. Fairholm (2004a) sees values leadership as a bridge between the lower level perspectives of scientific management and excellence management, and the higher order perspectives of trust cultural leadership and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership.

Trust Cultural Leadership

Schein (1993) defined the creation of culture as the most important thing that a leader must do. The leader creates culture by defining and inculcating shared values and beliefs within the organization. According to Schein, values define what is right and wrong; while beliefs define what people expect to happen as a result of their actions. The shared values and beliefs held by the individuals within the organization become the culture of the organization. Each organization has a culture; and the responsibility for defining and shaping it lies with the leader.

In the trust culture perspective of leadership, the leader shares the creation and maintenance of culture with the followers. It is the first perspective that recognizes that the follower has an integral role in the leadership process. In this perspective, the focus is on the interaction between the leaders and the followers; with the followers influencing both the leader-follower relationship and the culture of the organization (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). In the trust culture perspective, followers are viewed as capable individuals who are eager and able to engage with the leader in a relationship that promotes the success of both the organization and the individuals within the organization. The hallmark of the relationship is that the follower is not compelled through management mechanisms to participate in the relationship. Instead, the follower voluntarily participates because of the trust he or she has in the leader and in the organization itself.

The voluntary nature of the relationship makes this perspective substantially different from the perspectives that come before it. Followers choose to follow because they trust that the leader will lead with integrity and honesty. In this environment of trust, there is less need for the control mechanisms used in management to motivate followers to do their job. Followers do their job because they want to, and they are confident that their contribution is important to the success of the organization, the success of their coworkers, and to their own, individual success. According to G. W. Fairholm (1998), trust is the single-most important factor that separates leadership from management. In the absence of the trust culture, the only avenue left is management. Thus, without trust, leadership is impossible.

Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership

Spirituality, as defined by G. W. Fairholm (1998, 2000), refers to the whole being—the essence of who we are. Thus, spiritual leaders are leaders who are concerned with the whole person. G. W. Fairholm suggested that individuals do not compartmentalize their being into professional and personal selves; when an individual comes to work his whole being comes to work. The spiritual part of this being contains morality, values, integrity, creativity, and intelligence. While the work of management has traditionally been to create conformity and uniformity in the workplace; spiritual leadership seeks to remove conformity and uniformity and to celebrate the whole person.

The foundation of spiritual leadership is servant leadership. Servant leadership was first introduced by Greenleaf (1977) in response to his reading of Hesse's *Journey to the East* (1956). In this story, the great servant, Leo, turned out to be a great and noble leader. Greenleaf suggested that the leader, as a servant, is one who will "make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (1977, p. 15). According to G. W. Fairholm, "this model values the education, inspiration and development of others. To function in this way, leaders need a

change of heart - of spirit - not just technique. The model of spiritual leadership asks leaders to put those they serve first and let everything else take care of itself" (1998, p. 118). The servant leader views leadership not as position or status, but as an opportunity to help others to reach their full potential. To this end, the servant leader is willing to allow others to be the focal point in the organization, rather than the leader himself (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). The primary goal of spiritual leadership is the continual improvement of both the individuals and the organization, so that all are transformed into higher levels of being.

Spirituality in the workplace has begun to receive a great deal of attention in the literature, although it is considered to be a theory in its infancy (Dent, Higgins, & Wharff, 2005). In an analysis of 87 scholarly articles on spiritual leadership, Dent, Higgins and Wharff found that the most advanced theories on the topic are those developed by G. W. Fairholm (2000) and Fry (2003), and they found that more confirmatory work needs to be done on each of these models.

Conclusions Regarding Perspectival Approach

G. W. Fairholm (1998) identified five perspectives of leadership and devoted a great deal of study and research to the development of each perspective. The lower level perspectives are clearly founded in the literature regarding scientific management (Taylor, 1912, 1919), excellence management (Deming, 1988; Peters & Austin, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982), and values leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985a; Burns, 1978, 2003). The higher level perspectives of trust culture leadership and spiritual (whole-soul) leadership represent newer approaches that are recognized in the literature, but are less defined and understood (Burke et al., 2007; Dent et al., 2005; G. W. Fairholm, 2000; Fry, 2003; Gini, 1997; Greenleaf, 1977). Although G. W. Fairholm makes a strong argument that each perspectives exists, there has been little research to support this claim. His work defined each perspective, but did not operationalize the model in a way that could be tested. As a result, the perspectival approach to leadership described by G. W. Fairholm, and the use of the virtual leadership realities as a model of leadership, lacked validity as a theory with well defined constructs and propositions that could be tested until 2004, when the model was used in a study of municipal managers.

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) explored the extent to which the leadership perspectives discussed by G. W. Fairholm's in his virtual realities model of leadership exist within managers in local government organizations. The purpose of M. R. Fairholm's study was two-fold. First, he defined and operationalized the model so that it could be explored through research efforts. Second, he conducted research to determine if the model as operationalized did, in fact, exist within his sample. The resulting Leadership Perspectives Model is discussed in the following section.

Leadership Perspectives Model

The Leadership Perspectives Model (LPM) as developed by M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) placed the propositions of perspectival approach into a model that could be operationalized and tested. He first defined each of the five perspectives in the following general terms:

1. *Leadership as Scientific Management* – Leadership equals management in that it focuses on getting others to do work the leader wants done, essentially separating the planning (management) from the doing (labor).
2. *Leadership as Excellence Management* – Leadership emphasizes the importance of quality and process improvement rather than mere production, and the importance of people over either product or process, and requires the management of values, attitudes, and organizational aims within a framework of quality improvement.
3. *Values Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of group behavior with shared values through setting values and teaching them to followers through an articulated vision that leads to excellent products and service, mutual growth and enhanced self-determination.
4. *Trust Cultural Leadership* – Leadership is a process of building trust cultures within which the leader and follower (in an essentially voluntary relationship, even perhaps, from a variety of individual cultural contexts) relate to each other to accomplish mutually valued goals using agreed-upon processes.
5. *Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership* – Leadership is the integration of the components of work and self – of the leader and each follower – into a comprehensive system that fosters continuous growth, improvement, self awareness, and self-leadership so that the leader sees each worker as a whole person with a variety of skills, knowledge and abilities that invariably go beyond the narrow confines of job needs.

Although these general descriptions are helpful in understanding M. R. Fairholm's conception of each perspective, more definition was required to operationalize the perspectives into a testable model. Thus, M. R. Fairholm (2004a, 2004b) determined that each perspective could be defined using three specific and unique operational elements: (a) implementation description focuses on how one describes leadership; (b) tools and behaviors focuses on how one implements leadership; and (c) approach to followers focuses on how one interacts with others. These elements reflect the fundamental proposition of the LPM that the way an individual defines leadership, categorized as implementation description in the model, will affect the tools and behaviors used on the job and the approach taken toward followers. Thus, he proposes an individual can be "typed" into a perspective using the three elements collectively. Each element is further defined and operationalized into variables, as depicted in Table 1.

The five leadership perspectives of the LPM are each distinct, but they also relate in a hierarchical manner from the lowest order perspective of scientific management, to the highest order perspective of whole-soul leadership. Each perspective is true in that it depicts a certain aspect of leadership, but it is the five taken together that provide the full picture of leadership. The hierarchical nature of the model is intended to convey that each perspective encompasses those below it. Thus, as a leader moves up the hierarchy, he or she takes all of the concepts, methods and behaviors of the lower order perspective. Figure 1 depicts the LPM as conceived by M. R. Fairholm.

Table 1

Key Variables for Operational Elements of Each Leadership Perspective

	Implementation Description	Tools and Behaviors	Approach to Followers
Scientific Management	<p><i>Efficiency</i>- Ensure efficient use of resources to ensure group activity is controlled and predictable.</p> <p><i>Productivity</i> - Ensure verifiably optimal productivity and resource allocation.</p>	<p><i>Measurement of Individual</i> – Measure, appraise, and reward individual performance.</p> <p><i>Organizing</i> – Organize work to include such activities as budgeting and staffing</p> <p><i>Planning</i> – Plan work to include such activities as coordination and reporting.</p>	<p><i>Incentivization</i> – Provide incentives for performance.</p> <p><i>Control</i> – Apply control mechanisms to insure that work is completed properly and on time.</p> <p><i>Direction</i> – Provide direction for task completion.</p>
Excellence Management	<p><i>Continuous Process Improvement</i> - Foster continuous process improvement environment for increased service productivity.</p> <p><i>Transform</i> - Transform the environment and perceptions followers to encourage innovation, high quality products, and excellent services.</p>	<p><i>Process Improvement</i> –Focusing on process improvement.</p> <p><i>Listen</i> – Listen actively.</p> <p><i>Accessibility</i> – Being accessible (to include such things as management by walking around, and open door policies).</p>	<p><i>Motivation</i> – Motivate employees to higher levels of performance.</p> <p><i>Engage People</i> – Engage employees in problem definition and solution.</p> <p><i>Courtesy</i> – Express common courtesy and respect.</p>
Values Leadership	<p><i>Proactive Contributors</i> - Help individuals become proactive contributors to group action based on shared values and agreed upon goals</p> <p><i>High Performance</i> - Encourage high organizational performance and self-led followers</p>	<p><i>Values Setting</i> – Setting and enforcing values.</p> <p><i>Visioning</i> – Creating an organizational vision</p> <p><i>Communicating Vision</i> – Focusing communications around the vision.</p>	<p><i>Values prioritization</i>– Prioritize values for employees.</p> <p><i>Teaching</i> – Provide teaching and coaching to employees.</p> <p><i>Empower</i> – Foster ownership by empowering employees to determine the best way to achieve their goals.</p>
Trust Cultural Leadership	<p><i>Mutual Trust</i> - Ensure cultures conducive to mutual trust and unified collective action.</p> <p><i>Cultural Values</i> - Prioritization of mutual cultural values and organizational conduct in terms of those values.</p>	<p><i>Creating Culture</i> – Creating and maintaining culture through visioning.</p> <p><i>Sharing Governance</i> – Sharing governance through mutually agreed upon goals and processes.</p> <p><i>Measurement of Groups</i> – Measuring, appraising, and rewarding group performance.</p>	<p><i>Trust</i> – Develop an environment of mutual trust.</p> <p><i>Team Building</i> – Foster an environment where individuals work together.</p> <p><i>Shared Culture</i> – Create an organizational culture that all members can be part of regardless of various subcultures that may exist within the organization.</p>
Spiritual (Whole Soul) Leadership	<p><i>Concern for Whole Person</i> - Relate to individuals so that concern for the whole person is paramount in raising each other to higher levels of awareness and action.</p> <p><i>Continuous Self and Organizational Improvement</i> - Best in people is liberated in a context of continuous improvement of self, culture, and service delivery.</p>	<p><i>Individual Wholeness</i> – Developing and enabling individual wholeness in a community (team) context.</p> <p><i>Intelligent Organization</i> – Fostering an intelligent organization that allows for creativity, new patterns of thinking, learning.</p> <p><i>Morals</i> – Setting moral standards.</p>	<p><i>Inspiration</i> – Create an environment that inspires individuals to do more for the organization.</p> <p><i>Liberation</i> – Liberate followers to build community and promote stewardship.</p> <p><i>Service</i> – Model a service orientation.</p>

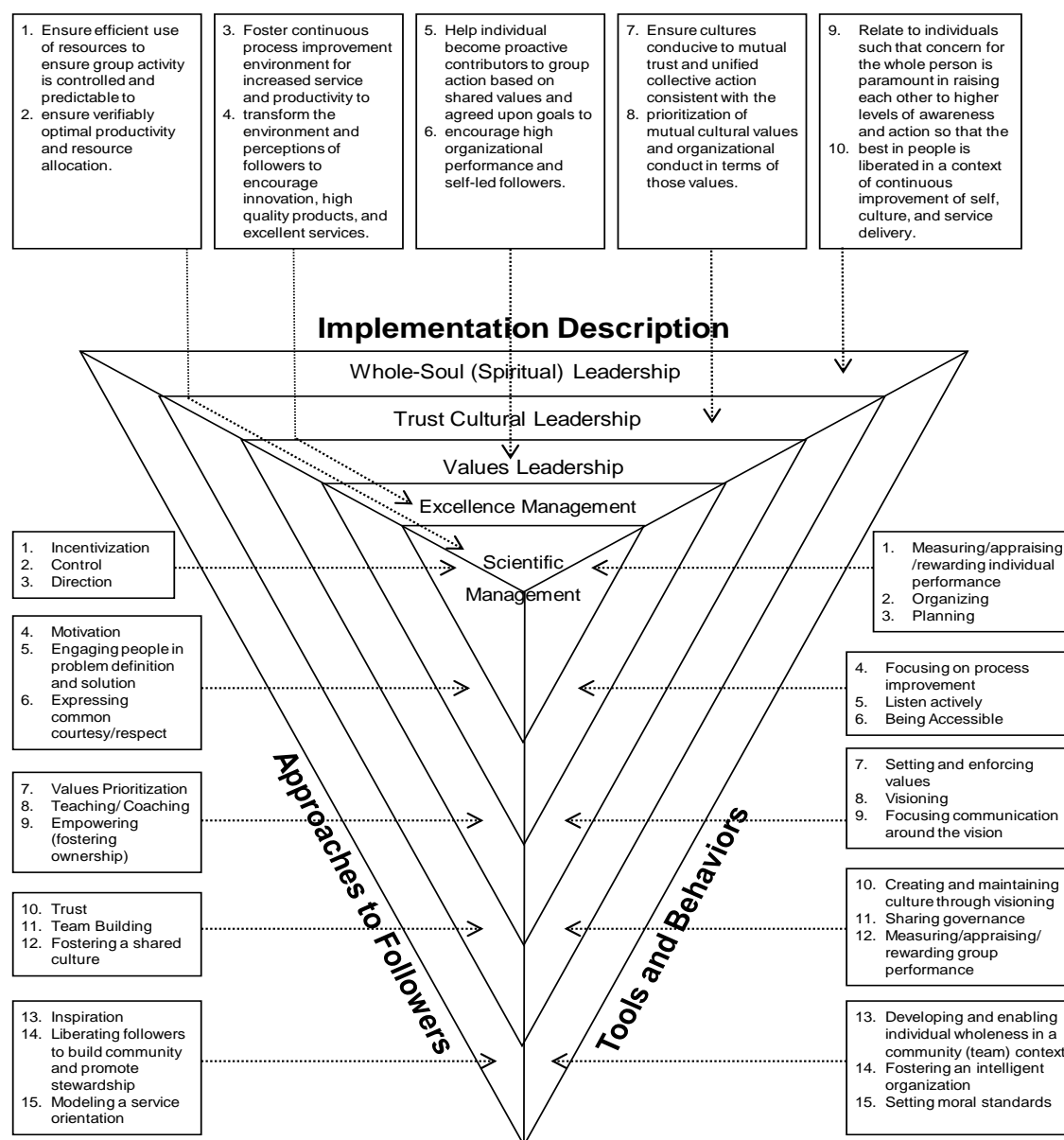


Figure 1. Leadership Perspectives Model with Variables.

Method

M. R. Fairholm (2004a) conducted a qualitative study to determine if the five perspectives of leadership proposed in the model existed among public managers from local government agencies. He performed a content analysis of 103 essays written by middle and upper level public managers from the District of Columbia government. He also interviewed an additional 30 lower, middle, and upper level public managers from local governments in Arlington, Virginia, the District of Columbia, and Prince Georges County, Maryland. The essays used in his study were written as part of the application process for entrance into the Program in Excellence in Municipal Management (PEMM) at The George Washington University. The interviews were conducted with 10 managers from District of Columbia municipal government agencies who were graduates of PEMM and 20 public managers who were not involved in the program. In his findings, M. R. Fairholm found support for the LPM, with evidence of all five perspectives found in both the content analysis of the essays and the interviews. His research was designed to determine if the model could be supported, and he was able to convincingly support the model. However, in order to further test the reliability of the model, the study must replicated and extended (Patton, 2002).

Replication duplicates previous work in an effort to increase generalizability of research findings. Replication is done using the same methods on the same population. Replication with extension means that the study is extended to another population, level of analysis, time frame, or geographical location to determine the extent to which findings may be generalizable to a larger population (Hubbard, Vetter, & Little, 1998). Such research is critical to knowledge development and considered to be “the route to determining whether research results are useful and can be applied to practical problems” (Hubbard et al., 1998). This replication of M. R. Fairholm’s study maintains the public sector focus, but extends to a different population (employees from a single government agency), at a different level of analysis (state government), in a different geographical location, during a different time frame to determine the extent to which M. R. Fairholm’s findings were generalizable to a larger population.

Perhaps the most distinct difference in the replication effort was that the sample was taken from a single agency, rather than numerous smaller agencies. This allowed for a better understanding of how the sample participants might be influenced by the context and culture of their organization, a variable that is difficult to gauge in a study of multiple organizations across three geographical areas. However, using a single organization meant that the organization had to be large enough to draw a sample from numerous functional areas to alleviate bias toward a specific job function. A large correctional agency in the Southeastern region of the United States provided a population large enough to contain the study within one organization, and still provide the depth (level of management) and scope (job function) required.

Research Setting and Sample

The research in this study was conducted with managers from a large correctional agency in the Southeastern region of the United States. The organization employs approximately 13,000 individuals who staff 43 probation and parole districts, 32 major institutions, 16 work centers, 4 detention centers, 5 diversion centers, 3 regional offices and an academy of staff development. As a public sector organization focused on public safety, the agency has strict policies and procedures in place that all employees must adhere to. However, each member of the managerial

staff has access to ongoing leadership training that focuses largely on building relationships with subordinates, peers, and superiors in an effort to apply principles of leadership to their managerial structure. Thus, the managerial structure of the organization is balanced with a strong concern for the wellbeing of the people connected to the organization; both employees and those they serve.

The organization is comprised of five separate divisions that manage the daily operations of the correctional system: The Operations Division focuses on management of institutions; the Community Corrections Division focuses on probation and parole; the Administration Division focuses on general support of the agency to include procurement, privatization projects, and architectural and engineers services; the Inspector General Division focuses on internal auditing and special investigations; and the Human Resources Division focuses on employment, benefits and staff development. The sample for this research was purposefully selected from managers within the Operations, Community Corrections, and Administrative Divisions. Managers within these divisions have similar job responsibilities across levels of management, and the divisions are structured in a similar hierarchy. The sample contains 18 managers from institutions, 18 managers from community corrections, and 19 managers from administration, for a total of 55 participants. Managers were included from the lower, middle and upper levels of management. These levels are balanced as equally as possible, with 14 participants from upper management, 21 participants from middle management, and 20 participants from lower level management. The upper managerial level has less representation because there are fewer employees at that level. Managerial level was established with a point of contact in the human resources department of the agency by associating each job title with a managerial level and coordinating the levels across departments. Table 2 provides the breakdown of the sample stratified by division and level of management.

Table 2

Purposeful Sample Stratified by Division and Level of Management

	Institutions Division	Community Corrections	Administration Division	Total Participants
Upper Management	4	4	6	14
Middle Management	7	7	7	21
Lower Management	7	7	6	20
Total Participants	18	18	19	55

Data Collection and Analysis

The research design for this study was developed to streamline data collection and analysis so that a single researcher was able to complete the study. Thus, validity was built into the design through the use of a pre-structured case study design, with semi-structured interview questions, and a predefined, descriptive coding scheme. A pre-structured case is one in which the conceptual framework is precise, the research questions are explicit, and the investigator has a

clear sense of the data that needs to be collected (Miles & Huberman, 1994). According to Miles and Huberman, when those factors are in place, qualitative data collection procedures can be streamlined to reduce the amount of time and resources required for data reduction and sense-making. The LPM provided a concise conceptual framework with the constructs, operational elements and variables explicitly defined (see Table 1). Since the research question sought to determine the extent to which the model is reflected in the sample, the only data of interest were those that explicitly related to the model. Thus, structured interview questions were designed to map specifically to the constructs of the model, with follow-up questions used for clarification. In this manner, the interviewer was able to collect data that clearly evaluated the constructs of the model and could be analyzed using a descriptive, pre-defined coding scheme.

Descriptive coding entails minimal interpretation and is used to attribute a phenomenon to a segment of text (Miles & Huberman, 1994), allowing for the data to be coded by a single researcher. The list of descriptive codes was predefined to identify both the leadership perspective and the operational element of the construct found in the segment of text, resulting in 15 codes. For example, when asked how a manager would engage followers in a departmental project, the comment "I would determine the tasks that need to be accomplished and assigned them to the most qualified individual" would be coded as "SMAF" meaning, scientific management (SM) approach to followers (AF), because this comment clearly indicates the approach of directing, a variable that falls into the SMAF category. Content that did not fall clearly into one of the 15 categories was not used for this study.

A limitation in the original study (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a) was that support was found for each operational element if any hits were found within the elements. Similarly, the perspectives were found to be supported if any subject typed within the perspective. As a result, an element with few hits was deemed as being represented and supportive of the model in the same way that an element with many hits was represented. Since M. R. Fairholm was focused on determining the existence of both elements and perspectives, this was a reasonable methodology for his purposes. However, for this study, cut points were established to determine the strength of support for each element and each perspective, and to provide a mechanism by which comparison could be made.

Cut points were established by dividing the number of data categories by 100. Any number above that result indicated strong support. The result was then divided by two to find the cut points for weak and strong support. For example, there were five leadership perspectives and five divided by 100 is equal to 20, and 20 divided by two is equal to 10. Thus, for the five leadership perspectives strong support was indicated with more than 20 percent of the hits, moderate support was indicated with 10 to 20 percent of the hits, and weak support was indicated with less than 10 percent of the hits. When looking at the three operational elements, strong support was indicated with more than 33 percent, moderate support was indicated with 17 to 33 percent, and weak support was indicated with less than 17 percent of the hits. When looking at all operational elements of all perspectives, there are 15 categories. Strong support was indicated with more than seven percent of the hits, moderate support was indicated with four to seven percent of the hits, and weak support was indicated with less than four percent of the hits. The following section further discusses how the data were analyzed and presents the findings.

Findings

The demographics of the sample closely resembled the population of the organization. The sample contained 65 percent males and 35 percent females. The ethnicity of the sample was 78 percent Caucasian, 20 percent African American, and 2 percent Asian. Data that were collected at the ordinal level revealed that the median age range of the subjects was 50 to 54 years of age. Subjects had been in their current position for a median range of 0 to 5 years, and they had been a manager for a median range of 16 to 20 years. Ninety percent of the subjects held different management positions within the organization, while ten percent did not. Fifty-five percent of the subjects held positions with other government agencies prior to employment with the organization, while 45 percent did not. Thirty six percent of the subjects held positions in private industry prior to their employment with the organization, while 64 percent did not. The median educational level of the sample was completion of a bachelor degree, and 89 percent of the subjects had prior leadership training.

In this study, the research question asks: *To what extent does the perspective and practice of leadership described by managers within a state correctional agency reflect the Leadership Perspectives Model?* This question is addressed by evaluating (a) the extent to which the operational elements of implementation description, tools and behavior, and approach to followers are found to differentiate leadership perspectives; (b) the extent to which the five perspectives of leadership are represented in the data; and (c) the extent to which the perspectives are found to be hierarchical in nature. After coding the data from 55 interviews, a total of 1220 hits were recorded. These hits were dispersed across the three elements of the five leadership perspectives in various strengths. Following is an analysis of the hits by operational elements, leadership perspectives, and perspective hierarchy.

Operational Elements

The first analysis of the operational elements examined the distribution of hits across the three operational elements. Out of the 1220 hits, 18% (n=222) were found in implementation description; 31% (n=378) in tools and behavior, and 51% (n= 620) in approach to followers. These data identify approach to followers as the strongest element of the model, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description last. This indicates that the subjects of the research define leadership largely in terms of their relationship with followers. One subject stated, “we try to make people feel like we appreciate them and they are important...a lot of little things can be done to help show that you are the leader and that you do respect and appreciate the people.” Another subject discussed the importance of followers in the leadership relationship by stating, “a lot of people can progress into leadership...I try to groom my people to be leaders.” Finally, another subject stated, “followers should be involved in the process...some of the things they come up with become a main goal and they feel good about having had the idea and participating in the process.” Each of these statements illustrates the importance of the follower in the eyes of the leader, as indicated in the data.

Since the data revealed that all of the operational elements were present to some extent, the next step was to determine if the three elements were present across the model, in each of the five perspectives. Figure 2 shows the results of this analysis in terms of percentage of total hits found in each of the three operational elements of the five leadership perspectives.

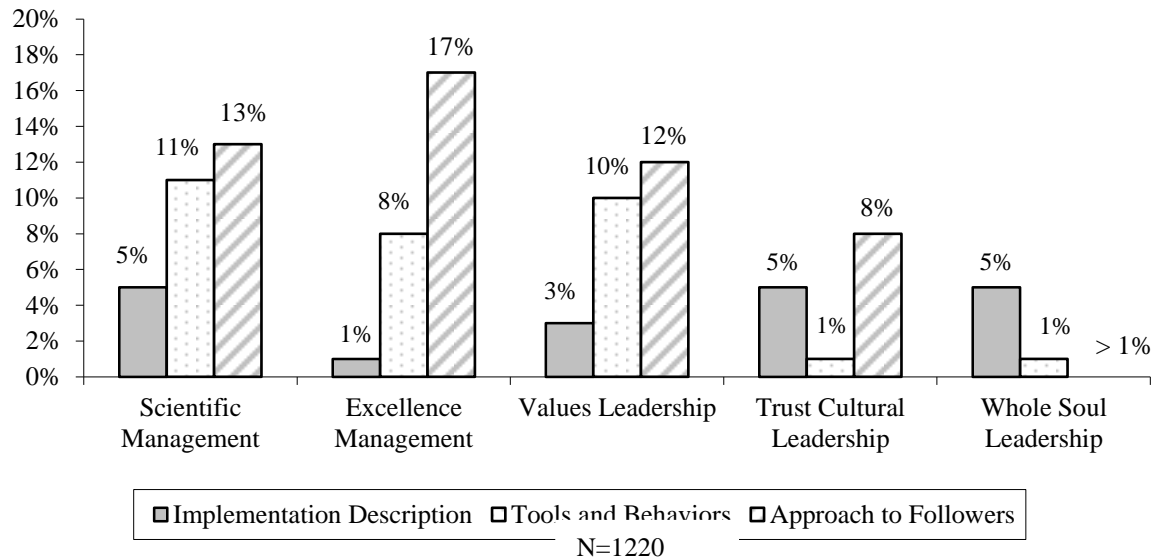


Figure 2: Percentage of total hits found in each operational element of the Leadership Perspectives Model.

These data indicate that the most strongly supported element in the entire model is approach to followers in the excellence management perspective. An important variable of this element is engaging people in the process, and this variable was consistently found among interview responses, regardless of the leadership perspective the subject held. For example, a subject who typed in the values leadership perspective clearly stated the importance of engaging people in the process when commenting, “You have to give them the opportunity and let them know that as a leader I respect what you can bring to the table; that is why I brought everyone to the table.” Another subject explained that the aspect of engaging followers is an important part of the culture of the organization. This manager explained that in a culture dominated by policy and procedures, it is important to give individuals the opportunity to provide input into the procedures whenever possible.

The remaining elements that were strongly supported are found primarily in the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership; with the only other element that is strongly supported found in approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. With over 75 percent of all the hits found within the first three perspectives, these data are skewed toward the first three perspectives. The skewed data does not immediately raise any issues with the model since it could simply indicate that this sample of managers tend toward the first three perspectives. However, when analyzing the data trend illustrated in Table 1, there is some discrepancy in the way the five perspectives are utilized.

Each of the first three leadership perspectives shows the data trend for the elements to be exactly the same, regardless of the strength indicators. Approach to followers is the most strongly represented, followed by tools and behaviors, and then implementation description. When analyzing the last two leadership perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul

leadership, the data trend changes. Implementation description is proportionally stronger in these perspectives than the first three perspectives, with tools and behaviors proportionally weaker. Similar to the first three perspectives, approach to followers has the strongest percentage in trust cultural leadership, but this element is almost non-existent in whole soul leadership, with only two hits. The remaining elements in the last two perspectives are all weakly supported. These data indicate that the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are more strongly supported and differently supported than the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This difference in data trends suggests that the last two perspectives are different in substantial ways from the first three perspectives. Although the data do not provide enough information to fully explain the difference in the data trend found in the last two perspectives, they suggest that something about these perspectives is incorrect in the model. This may mean that either the operational elements are incorrectly defined for these perspectives, or that the perspectives themselves are not supported as constructed in the model.

The final analysis of the operational elements is an evaluation of the elements as a percentage of the total hits within each perspective. Analysis of the operational elements as they relate within each perspective places the data in a context that allows for an analysis of the strength of the element in defining the perspective. Out of the 1220 total hits, 358 hits were found in scientific management; 310 in excellence management; 304 in values leadership; 166 in trust cultural leadership; and 82 in whole soul leadership. For this analysis, the number of hits in

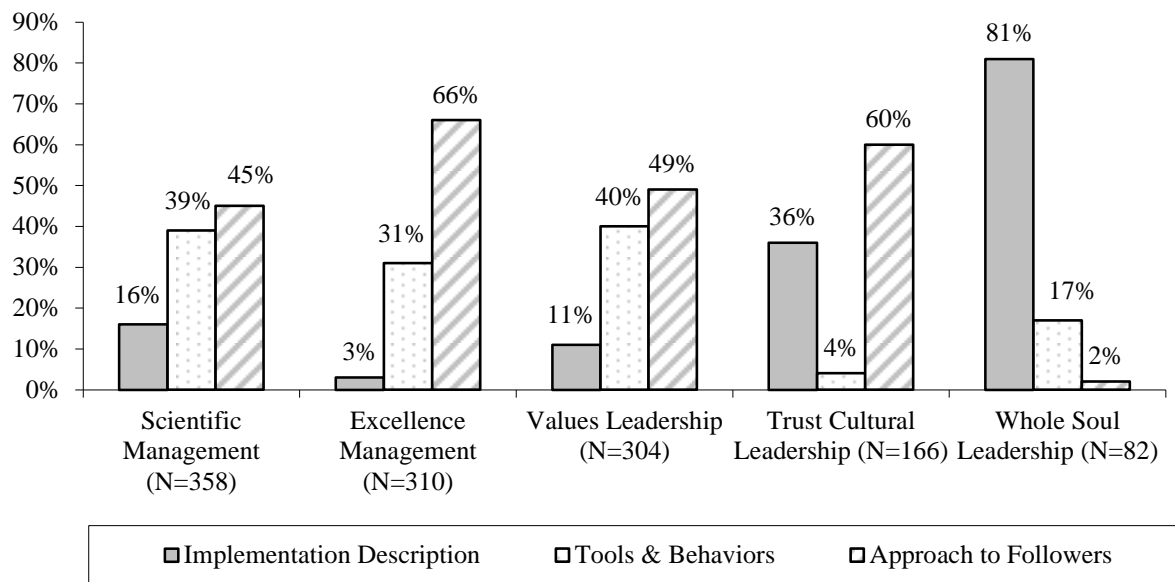


Figure 3: Percentage of hits for each operational element within each leadership perspective.

each perspective is not of primary importance. The distribution of hits across the elements of the perspective is more important because it illustrates how well the elements define the perspective. Figure 3 shows the data for the percentage of hits for each operational element within each leadership perspective.

Eight of the 15 elements provide strong indicators for their perspective. Approach to followers is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence

management, values leadership and trust cultural leadership; tools and behaviors is strongly supported in the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership; and implementation description is strongly supported in the trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership perspectives. Moderate support is found for the element of tools and behaviors in the scientific management and whole soul leadership perspectives. Weak support is found for the element of implementation description in the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership; the element of tools and behaviors in trust cultural leadership; and the element of approach to followers in the whole soul leadership perspective.

These data indicate that implementation description is a weak descriptor of the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership. Another issue that this analysis raises is the same problem with the data trend that was noted in the previous analysis. The trends for the first three perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are different than the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. In each of the first three perspectives, the data trend shows approach to followers to be most strongly supported, with tools and behaviors second, and implementation description most weakly supported. For the last two perspectives, the data trend is different from the first three and different from each other. These data indicate that implementation description is a strong descriptor of the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership, the complete opposite of the finding for the first three perspectives. Again, this is troubling because the expectation would be that the data trend would be stable, even if the strength of the support was weak.

Leadership Perspectives

A second approach to analyzing the research question is to analyze the extent to which the five leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership are found within the data. The analysis of leadership perspectives was twofold. First, the data were analyzed to determine the distribution of hits across each perspective. This analysis provided an overall description of how well each perspective is represented. The second analysis evaluated the primary perspective of each subject, calculated as the perspective with the highest number of hits

The data revealed that the 1220 hits were disbursed as follows: 29 percent (n=358) scientific management; 25 percent (n=310) excellence management; 25 percent (n=304) values leadership; 14 percent (n=166) trust cultural leadership; and 7 percent (n=82) whole soul leadership. In terms of percentage of hits, the perspective of scientific management is most strongly represented, with each subsequent perspective represented with a declining number of hits. Strength indicators reveal that the perspectives of scientific management, excellence management and values leadership are strongly supported within the data; the perspective of trust cultural leadership is moderately supported; and whole soul leadership is weakly supported. These data do not show a great deal of difference among the first three perspectives in terms of the strength of support, but show a considerable drop in support for the last two perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership. This finding is consistent with all previous analyses, where support for trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is moderate to weak.

The findings are different, however, when the data are analyzed in terms of the perspective in which each individual is typed – the primary perspective. The primary perspective

for each subject was determined by calculating the perspective in which the subject had the highest number of hits. These data indicate that the 55 individuals interviewed were typed as follows: 42 percent (n=23) scientific management; 18 percent (n=10) excellence management; 29 percent (n=16) values leadership; 9 percent (n=5) trust cultural leadership; and 2 percent (n=1) whole soul leadership. When analyzed in terms of primary perspective, only the perspectives of scientific management and values leadership are strongly supported, with moderate support for excellence management, and weak support for trust cultural leadership and values leadership.

A notable difference is found among the two analyses used for leadership perspectives. Support for excellence management in terms of number of hits, is reduced from strong to moderate support in terms of individuals who typed in the perspective. Similarly, trust cultural leadership is reduced from moderate to weak support in terms of number individuals who typed in the perspective. Although the data do not clearly explain this phenomenon, it may indicate that individuals freely use elements from perspectives other than their primary perspective. For example, the following quote clearly shows the use of more than one perspective. When asked about accomplishing a project with a two week deadline, a subject gave the following response:

I think there are times when a leader needs to manage. I know what a leader does and I know what a manager does and they are not the same. I would say that ideally I could empower them [followers] to get the job done and sit back. [I could] empower them to come up with the ideas for the project and to make it their own, with me standing on the outside to see the big picture and to see how it is coming along. You can only do that when you have people you can trust. But sometimes you don't empower. I think somewhere down the line with a project, especially one with a tight deadline, I would think along the lines of directing and delegating, not empowering.

This manager spoke of empowerment, an approach to followers in the values leadership perspective, as the ideal approach to leadership. The manager also spoke of the necessity of having trust in employees, an approach to followers in the trust cultural leadership perspective. Finally, the value of directing and delegating was discussed, an approach to followers in the scientific management perspective. This indicates that the manager is not necessarily focused in one specific perspective, but rather, uses the approach to followers that is most appropriate for the situation. This particular subject was typed into the scientific management perspective as the primary perspective, but only one hit separated the primary perspective of scientific management from the secondary perspective of values leadership. This clearly shows that a subject may utilize a perspective other than the primary perspective.

Multiple Leadership Perspectives

When an individual types in one leadership perspective, but continues to use elements of other perspectives, multiple leadership perspectives exist. This seems to contradict M. R. Fairholm's (2004a), assertion that each perspective is unique and discernable from the others, and that the perspectives are paradigmatic in nature and relate in a hierarchical manner. M. R. Fairholm does not fully explain what he means by paradigmatic when referring to the perspectives. He states that some individuals view paradigms as commensurable (Harman, 1998), meaning they can exist together; while others view them as incommensurable (Kuhn, 1996), meaning that the presence of one paradigm precludes the presence of another. Without

defining the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives, it is difficult to analyze the extent to which the perspectives are supported in the data. If the paradigmatic nature of the perspectives is commensurable, the data support that proposition, but calls into question whether the perspectives are, in fact, distinct and separate from one another. If they are incommensurable and, therefore, the existence of one precludes the existence of another, the data do not support that proposition. This definitional problem represents a limitation in the model that must be resolved.

M. R. Fairholm acknowledged this issue and commented that individuals were “not always exclusive in the leadership perspective they defined, mixing and matching elements of different perspectives” (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a, p. 152). He considered that this may mean either that individuals understand leadership in complex ways, or that their conceptions are changing from one perspective to another. M. R. Fairholm acknowledged that this problem makes it difficult to analyze the data in terms of support for each perspective. Thus, he introduced the existence of pure forms and majority perspectives as critical to supporting the five separate perspective of leadership in the model.

Pure Forms and Majority Perspectives

With the presence of multiple perspectives in the data, the existence of “pure forms” and “majority perspectives” is a measure that can be used to substantiate the existences of all five perspectives (M. R. Fairholm, 2004a). A subject is considered to type as a “pure form” in their perspective when 100 percent of their hits are contained within that perspective. A “majority perspective” is established when over 50 percent of the hits are found within the perspective. When pure forms and majority perspectives are present in the data, the data indicate that those subjects function primarily within their perspective and rarely use other perspectives. The existence of pure forms would indicate that the perspectives are incommensurable, while the existence of majority perspectives would indicate movement from one perspective to another – an idea that is not in conflict with the notion of an incommensurable paradigm. Thus, when M. R. Fairholm found evidence of pure forms and majority perspectives for each leadership perspective, with the exception of excellence management, he established this finding as evidence that the perspectives do exist in the data, and provided support for the model.

The data in this study reveal that there are no pure forms among the sample, and only eight majority perspectives, for a total of 15 percent of the sample. Out of the eight majority perspectives, seven are found in the scientific management perspective, with a range of 52 to 71 percent of the total hits found in that perspective. The other majority perspective is found in excellence management, with 67 percent of the hits found in that perspective. It is notable that seven of the eight majority perspectives are found within the perspective of scientific management, and one is found in excellence management. Since pure forms and majority perspectives are used as part of the validation of each perspective in the model, the lack of majority perspectives for values leadership, trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership is troubling. Of particular concern is the lack of pure forms or majority perspectives for values leadership, since this perspective has been strongly supported in all other analyses.

The existence of multiple perspectives and the lack of pure forms and majority perspectives are difficult to understand in terms of support of the model, since their meaning in the model has not been fully established. For example, the data provides support for all of the leadership perspectives and elements, although some are more strongly supported than others.

However, the presence of multiple leadership perspectives and the absence of pure forms and majority perspectives conflict with these findings. Thus, the construction of the model needs further development to define the constructs and how they relate to one another. This is clearly an area for further research to validate to the model.

Hierarchy of Perspectives

The final analysis conducted to determine the validity of the model is used to determine if the perspectives are hierarchical in nature. According to M. R. Fairholm (2004a), the relationship between the primary and secondary perspective determines the extent to which the perspectives relate in a hierarchical manner. These perspectives should be progressive, meaning the secondary perspective is related to the primary perspective as the next highest perspective in the hierarchy. The data collected in this study illustrate that the relationship between many of the primary and secondary perspectives is not progressive. Further, even when the secondary perspective is a higher level perspective, it does not always progress to the next higher order perspective. For example, 13 of the 23 subjects who typed in scientific management had a secondary perspective that was higher than excellence management, the next perspective in the hierarchy. Five of the ten subjects who typed into excellence management as the primary perspective, had scientific management, a lower order perspective, as their secondary perspective. Likewise, 12 of the 16 subjects who typed in values leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective that was lower than values leadership. In trust cultural leadership, four out of the five subjects had a secondary perspective lower than their primary perspective. Finally, the one subject who typed in whole soul leadership as the primary perspective had a secondary perspective of scientific management.

According to these data, there is limited support for the hierarchical nature of the LPM. Instead, subjects seem to operate within several of the perspectives, although they usually prefer one over another, as evidenced by their primary perspective. This relationship between perspectives is clearly seen in the qualitative data. One subject stated,

A leader is a person who has vision and goals for the organization. Not that they can necessarily achieve all of them, but they set them and work towards them. But the department looks at how I manage my facility or my budget or my staffing when they look at me as a leader.

When this individual discusses leadership in terms of vision and goals for the organization, the values leadership perspective is tapped into. However, the individual goes on to discuss the importance of managing, budgeting, and staffing, all tools of the scientific management perspective.

Another respondent suggested, "Leaders should mentor followers, teach them to be successful so they [followers] can grow professionally and personally. Sometimes they [leaders] also have to say this is your job – do your job – this is what you get paid for." Again, the subject discusses the teaching and mentoring element of values leadership, but also clearly discusses the tools of scientific management. Another manager when asked about accomplishing a task with employees stated, "I would make sure I chose the right person for the task. I would talk to everyone and tell them my vision about getting this done, but also ask them what they think, then put those two things together." In this statement the subject begins with the scientific management approach of staffing, moves into the values leadership approach of visioning, and then concludes with the participatory approach of excellence management. These data illustrate

that when analyzing the primary and secondary perspectives, as well as and the qualitative data, the hierarchical relationship of the perspectives is not supported.

Limitations of the Study

Before discussing the conclusions drawn from this research, it is important to acknowledge two limitations that are inherent within the study. First, although the instrumental case study method strengthened the overall design of the study in many ways, it also presented a limitation. It is possible that the findings could be attributable to something within the culture of the organization itself, rather than differences in the perception and practice of leadership among the managers. Organizational function is an area that was cited by M. R. Fairholm (2004a) as potentially skewing the results. The paramilitary structure of the sample as a public safety organization could have skewed the results toward the first three perspectives due to its emphasis on structure and policy. However, this does not explain why the data trends for last two perspectives are different from the first three. The explanation for this phenomenon may be found in construction of the model itself. The first three perspectives are well supported in the literature and well defined in the model, while the last two perspectives remain somewhat ambiguous. Further research needs to be done, particularly on the last two perspectives, to determine if the skew toward the first three perspectives reflects a weakness in the model. While the organization culture may explain why the sample is skewed toward the first three perspectives, it does not explain why the data trends for the last two perspectives are so different from the first three.

A second limitation to the study is that it did not lend itself to triangulation. Although data triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation are not appropriate for this study, investigator triangulation could have strengthened the results by reducing the potential for investigator bias. This limitation is addressed through the use of a tight research design, a strong theoretical framework, clear research questions and a precise method for data collection and analysis. However, further study regarding the LPM would be strengthened with a team of researchers to create investigator triangulation.

Conclusion

The data collected in this study only partially reflects the Leadership Perspectives Model. The operational elements of tools and behaviors, and approach to followers are strongly reflected in the data, but implementation description has weak support. The leadership perspectives of scientific management, excellence management, and values leadership are strongly supported, but the perspectives of trust cultural leadership and whole soul leadership have weak support. There is evidence that multiple perspectives exist within the data and that these multiple perspectives are not incommensurate. There are no pure forms of any perspective and majority perspectives only exist within scientific management and, marginally, within excellence management. Finally, the perspectives do not convincingly relate in a hierarchical manner.

Although the LPM is only partially supported through in the study, this research has been helpful in determining the strength of the model in identifying the leadership perspectives managers may have. In the original study, M. R. Fairholm (2004a) was looking for support for each element and perspective, and considered any support at all to affirm the model. Since his research was the first study of the model, the important contribution he made was in developing

and testing the model and its constructs. Thus, most constructs were supported in that they were visible within the data, but many were not strong within the data. This analysis established parameters for determining the strength of the model. Adding the strength indicators has shown the areas of the model that have limitations, and provides indicators for further research. The immediate concern is to validate each of the constructs in terms of their definition and their relationship to each other. If the leadership perspectives model can be validated and modified through future research, it holds promise as a diagnostic tool for identifying the way managers view leadership so that, through training and development, their view may be enlarged.

About the Author

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CULTIVATING INTERCULTURAL LEADERS

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With the aim of informing future efforts to cultivate intercultural leaders, this article explores factors contributing to twelve native-born Koreans' rises to prominent positions of intercultural leadership. Research participants were purposefully selected from three different leadership levels: three cross-cultural community leaders, three cross-cultural national leaders, and six international leaders. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews, emailed open-ended questions, and the review of archival materials. Data analysis identified six key factors divided into two broad categories: external influences and internal dispositions. External influences consisted of family heritage, pivotal encounters, and academic achievement/schooling. Internal dispositions consisted of individual attitudes, acquired skills, and personality traits. The article concludes with recommendations for parents and educators cultivating intercultural leaders in the next generation.

Where do leaders come from? Are they born? Are they fashioned? Do ordinary people rise to leadership when galvanized by dramatic events? Scholars have long debated this matter without coming to a definitive conclusion. What is clear, however, is that organizations and societies need competent leaders at all levels and in all environments. Nowhere is this statement truer than in intercultural contexts.

Introduction to the Study

In recent decades, Korea and Koreans have burst upon the global scene in business, sports, entertainment, and religious endeavors. This increased global involvement demands competent intercultural leaders. Yet Korea's production of intercultural leaders appears incommensurate with its apparent industry and potential. We believe Korea's monolingual, mono-cultural society demands an intentional effort to cultivate intercultural leaders among members of the younger generation in order to sustain and fuel global development.

To better understand how native-born Koreans become competent intercultural leaders, we explored the lives of twelve prominent native-born Koreans who have overcome experiential, cultural, and linguistic barriers to achieve prominence as leaders in intercultural contexts. Through an analysis of their varied lives we sought to discover the common denominators of their success.

While the research method employed does not allow the study's findings to be generalized to a larger group of leaders, those interested in developing leaders in non-Korean contexts might deem them transferable to their cultural environments. Further, the study grants new insights into cultivating leaders for a global society.

The central question guiding this study was, "What key factors contributed to native-born Koreans' (NBKs) rise to prominence as intercultural leaders?" The study did not deal with a vast host of leadership theories or domains. Hence, it did not discuss participants' leadership style, leadership effectiveness, or their perception of their leadership achievements. Nor did it consider participants' ethical practices unless they impinged directly on the study's purpose. Rather, this inquiry was limited to an examination of the key factors contributing to the rise of NBKs to intercultural leadership prominence.

Given the local, national, and international renown of the research participants, complete confidentiality with regard to their identity was impossible. The participants understood this limitation and indicated their willingness to take part in the study by signing letters of informed consent.

Research Methods and Procedures

The study utilized a grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis and employed validation strategies common to a number of qualitative research approaches, including triangulation, member checks, and peer review. Data collection was preceded by the purposeful selection of twelve research participants. We engaged in data analysis and validation throughout the data collection process.

Study participants were selected according to the principle of stratified purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2006). Participants, while not necessarily the world's most prominent Korean leaders, all met the chief selection criterion in that they exercised leadership in cross-cultural, multicultural, or global contexts. Further, they were intentionally selected from three different leadership levels—civic, national, and international—in hopes that the diversity would help identify important common traits (Creswell).

The civic leaders consisted of the mayor of Irvine, CA, and city council members in Irvine and Cerritos, CA. The national leaders consisted of a U.S. congressman, an advisor to former President George W. Bush, and an executive director of the Oxford Centre for Mission Studies in the UK. The six international leaders consisted of two global presidents of church movements, two leaders of Christian missions, the general secretary of the United Nations, and the first vice-president of the World Trade Center.

Data collection began with studying the books and documents related to the twelve participants, followed by in-depth, individual interviews with six participants. The interviews were informal, free flowing, and guided by open-ended questions. Additional data were collected from three more research participants via email. Biographies and other archival documents supplemented these data, particularly for the three final participants not available for interview or email correspondence. Data were analyzed during the collection process using grounded theory

methods and procedures (cf. Charmaz, 2006). We initially coded all data sources to discover potentially important themes. Through a process of constant comparison of various sources and emerging themes, the coding process became increasingly focused until several factors emerged as central to understanding the study's central phenomenon.

Research Findings

Data analysis resulted in 24 important themes, from which emerged six key factors contributing to the study participants' rises to prominence as intercultural leaders. The six key factors fell into two broad categories: external influences and internal dispositions. External influences consisted of family heritage, pivotal encounters, and academic achievement. Internal dispositions consisted of individual attitudes, acquired skills, and personality traits (see Figure 1).

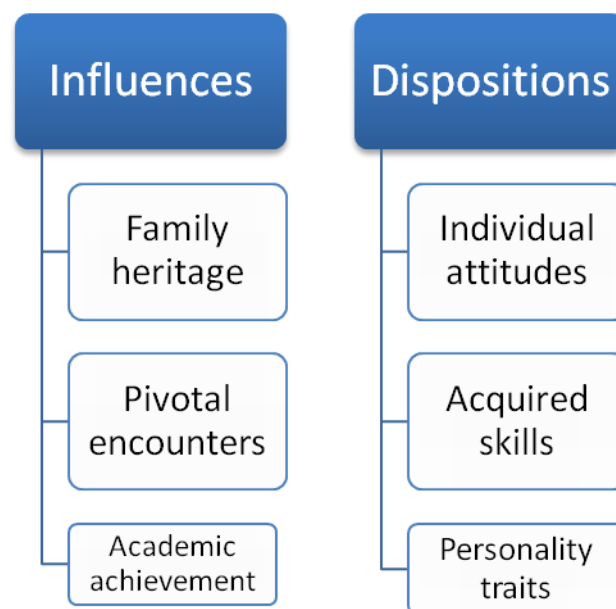


Figure 1. Key factors in understanding intercultural leaders' rise to prominence.

Not all factors emerged as equally important across the sample of research participants. Those present in the lives of eleven or twelve participants we labeled "decisive." Those present in the lives of nine or ten participants we labeled "important." Those present in the lives of six to eight participants we labeled "helpful." Four factors emerged as decisive: heritage, pivotal encounters, attitudes, and skills. Personality traits emerged as important and academic achievement as merely helpful. Table 1 illustrates the relative importance of the six key factors.

The six key factors were divided into two broader categories: external influences (i.e., external to the participants) and internal dispositions (i.e., characteristics possessed by the participants). These factors are further discussed in the following sections.

Table 1

The Relative Importance of the Six Key Factors

Decisive	Important	Helpful
Family heritage	Personality traits	Academic achievement
Pivotal encounters		
Attitudes		
Skills		

Category One: External Influences

While family heritage, pivotal encounters, and academic achievement all emerged as factors in participants' rise to prominence as intercultural leaders, only the first two emerged as decisive.

Family Heritage

With the exception of one participant, who declined to reveal his family background, family heritage deeply impacted all the intercultural leaders in this study. Two aspects of heritage emerged from the data: *values exemplified* and *values taught*.

Values exemplified. As the following biographical material and interview excerpts illustrate, participants' parents' or grandparents' good deeds and sacrificial spirits marked study participants profoundly.

Gimoon's father was a good and generous person. His father was considerate of others and enjoyed giving to others. Thus, when people came to his father to request help, his father never rejected them. When Gimoon was a high school student, his father took in a friend who had nowhere to go, letting him stay in his house and feeding him for a year.... His father also accepted a friend who was cast out by his family because he had Hansen's disease. For six months he served this friend with love, giving him meals and encouragement. (Shin, 2007, pp. 100-101, 154-155) [Our translation]

Yonggi's grandmother was a very warmhearted woman who liked to serve others. Many relatives and poor neighbors wanted to live together in his grandparents' house because they had no food to eat. His grandparents accommodated them. Therefore, 13 families lived in the house due to his grandparents' generosity. His grandparents helped them cultivate the rice field and farm. In addition, his grandparents fed wanderers and travelers and provided them with a place to sleep. Therefore all the village people praised his grandparents. (Han, 2008, p. 61) [Our translation]

My [Byungyoon] father gave a rice field to the village to expand the road. In addition, he helped poor elementary and middle school students. In my village, he provided food and clothes to the poor. My mother also shared her possessions with the poor, and was warm toward neighbors. She offered lodging to wanderers, gave food to the hungry, and helped many people in difficult positions. Specifically, she contributed a lot of money to the village community for the poor. (Interview transcript or email [our translation]).

Values taught. Informal instruction at home reinforced important family heritage values. This theme emerged from the data collected from all but one of the research participants.

My [Sukhee] parents taught me to keep my promises to others. They always taught me the importance of gaining peoples' trust. Thus, I always have made efforts to keep promises, even though it cost me personally. This resulted in people seeing me as a consistent man. This is my big fortune. One of the reasons that I got this position was that everybody acknowledged my consistent character. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Yonggi's grandmother told him when he was a child that men should put others first, because if a man lived just for himself, both he and others would perish at the same time (Han, 2008, p. 62) [Our translation]. Gimoon's mother always instructed him: "Because a person will get exactly what he deserves, if you harm others, bad things will happen to you afterwards" (Shin, 2007, p. 29). "Be benevolent to others. You should live in a kindly manner without quarreling with others" (Shin, 2007, p. 155) [Our translation].

The principle to emerge here is that the soil for cultivating a successful intercultural leader is a healthy family. Parents and grandparents who pass on heritage values position their offspring to succeed as leaders.

Pivotal Encounters

A pivotal encounter is here defined as meeting someone who profoundly changes one's life. Pivotal encounters strongly affected all participants but had various outcomes. Participants were motivated to study hard, challenged to become leaders, given opportunities for advanced or overseas study, provided models of accomplishment, and stimulated to develop self-confidence. Pivotal encounters played a vital role in all participants' rise to prominence as intercultural leaders. For example, when asked about the factors contributing to his becoming a prominent leader, one participant responded,

I cannot answer with just one. In my case, three major factors contributed to my rise to leadership prominence: First is self-confidence, second is *the fortunate pivotal encounter*, and third my always doing my best. Specifically, I had a lot of fortunate encounters, which led me to success. Thus, I cannot say, 'I rose to prominent leadership due to just my ability.' On the other hand, I can say, 'through many others' help, I rose to this leadership position.' (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Pivotal encounters in participants' lives provided motivation, role models, help, and guidance.

Motivation. Pivotal encounters motivated most research participants to dream and achieve. When Gi-moon Ban, UN General Secretary, heard Foreign Minister Byun speak during his elementary school years, he was inspired to be a great man for his mother country. An encounter with American President John F. Kennedy in 1962 solidified his dream of becoming a diplomat. When Billy Kim met the evangelist Billy Graham as a high school student, he was motivated to become a great evangelist like Billy Graham. When Won-suk Ma met his high school principal, who graduated from Princeton University, he was motivated to study abroad in order to grow in stature. One of our participants said,

In my life's journey, I have been fortunate to have pivotal encounters that influenced my life's direction. For a long time I did not know why I was blessed with these pivotal encounters. However, I have now realized that God's unseen hand was working in my life. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Role models. For Gi-moon Ban, Foreign Minister Byun was not only an inspiration but also a model of what it meant to be a successful diplomat (Shin, 2007). In a similar manner, Won-suk Ma's high school principal proved an excellent role model for him. Likewise, after his pivotal encounter with Billy Graham, Jang Kwan (Billy) Kim emulated him to the point of adopting the great evangelist's first name.

Help and guidance. For some participants, pivotal encounters offered a chance to receive financial aid. For others, they helped them learn English or gave them direction in life. For example, Billy Kim's pivotal encounter with an American soldier serving in Korea changed Billy's life completely:

When Billy was in the military corps in the Kyungsan Korea, he met a master sergeant Powers who would take him to America. One day, when Billy was playing the harmonica, Powers came to him and asked him, "Do you want to go the US?" To Billy, at that time, going to the splendid US that Billy saw in the "Sears Roebuck" catalog was a dream.... The pastor Billy Kim says it is very curious that Karl Powers who was not a Christian had chosen the School of Bob Jones and that he himself, who had never gone to the Church, had entered the Christian School, and that the Bob Jones School that had required students with good grades and Christian faith had accepted Billy Kim himself to the School without any requirement. (Lee, 2006, pp. 35, 53)

Shin (2007), Gi-moon Ban's biographer, explained how one pivotal encounter in the diplomat's life led to another.

If Gi-moon Ban, who studied in a rural school, had not met the passionate English teacher, if he had not visited the USA, and if he had not met the American President John F. Kennedy, his dream would not have been realized. Fortunately, Gimoon Ban had pivotal encounters with people who guided, developed, and challenged him. (pp. 83-84) [Our translation]

Academic Achievement (Schooling)

Academic achievement did not emerge as a decisive or even an important factor in participants' rise to intercultural leadership prominence. Many Koreans might consider this finding counterintuitive because they equate success in life with success in school. Nevertheless, academic success did emerge as *helpful*. In looking at the impact of academic success, we explored three aspects of schooling: 1) excelling in primary and secondary school, 2) succeeding at college, and 3) earning an advanced degree.

Excellence in primary and secondary school. Academic excellence at an early age emerged as a factor in only half of the twelve participants. These six took first place in their elementary school classes. However, a total of eight (including the six previously mentioned) were honor students in middle and high school. The remaining four participants were average students.

At the time when the research participants were in elementary school in Korea, no one attended pre-school. Hence, those with apparently higher "innate school intelligence" emerged quickly. Half of the prominent leaders manifested this school intelligence. Of the six participants that took first place in their classes in their early schooling, five continued their exceptional academic level in college. The remaining one struggled in the college environment and considered dropping out. In the end, however, he not only persevered but also earned a doctoral degree. One participant said,

When I [Jaegil] was a student in Elementary School, I had no time to study, because I had to work for my family instead of my father who was forced to work in the Japanese army as a laborer. However, even though I never could study at home, I always took first place. At that time, a high school education was very popular because the graduates could become teachers. Thus, only five percent of the students in the nation could enter the school. I graduated from the school and entered the College of Education in the Seoul National University. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

A biographer wrote,

Whenever Yonggi Cho was tested as a little child, he took first place in the class and his presentation ability was outstanding. The teacher “Arai” used to praise him while patting him on the head: “You are truly an extraordinary boy. You will be a great man.” (Han, 2008, p. 100) [Our translation]

Success in college. In college, ten participants were ranked as honor students. Among the 12, seven participants graduated from prestigious universities. Ten of the 12 studied abroad in a day when it was yet difficult to do so. Their overseas educational experience appeared crucial to their achievement as intercultural leaders.

Advanced degrees. Ten participants held graduate degrees, eight at the doctoral level. For six of the eight doctoral degree holders, a doctorate was essential to the attainment of their leadership position. The two remaining doctorate holders earned their Ph.D. degrees in China. However, for both of these politicians, their doctorate appeared unrelated to their leadership attainment. The attainment of an advanced degree emerged as related to a particular field or role rather than as having independent or general value. For four participants, it had no relevance. However, advanced study emerged as noteworthy in the lives of the remaining eight.

Category Two: Internal Dispositions

The second category, called internal dispositions, consists of three key factors: personal attitudes, acquired skills, and personality traits. Participants’ dispositions emerged as five personal attitudes, six acquired skills, and five personality traits.

Personal Attitudes

Five characteristic attitudes emerged as decisive to NBKs’ rise to prominence as intercultural leaders: self-confidence, drive, passion, optimism, and constancy.

Self-confidence. Some participants gained self-confidence through parental encouragement; others through pivotal encounters; still others through getting outstanding grades in school. One got his self-confidence through a landslide victory in a political race. In all cases, participants were not born with self-confidence, but rather gained it through life experience.

One participant commented, “Self-confidence was implanted by my parents. My parents always believed in me. My father always used to say to me, ‘You can survive wherever you are.’ My father’s words helped me have self-confidence in any circumstance.”

Drive. All participants consistently tried to do their best in every area, such as study, prayer, work, and ministry. Even though all were gifted persons in specific areas, they never settled for “good enough” but put their utmost effort into all they did. For example, Gi-moon found Harvard’s Kennedy School a tough academic environment, even though his English was

excellent (Shin, 2007). One day, his wife called to Korea to ask her sister-in-law to stop her husband from studying too much:

Sister, I am worry that my husband would die from over studying. In a day, he just sleeps for two or three hours to study. Today, he even had a nosebleed. Please call my husband and tell him not to study too much. (...) He got all A+ in all his classes in the Kennedy School and received the award of the founder of the School in the commencement day. (Shin, 2007, p. 194)

Passion. All research participants emerged as having passion. Passion was perhaps the most common personal attitude among the participants. They were passionate in their work, ministry, and study. They would do or pay anything, go without food, sleep, or reward, to accomplish their mission. One participant's passion would not let him stop planting churches – he planted over 100 in various mission fields. One participant's passion led him to establish the biggest church in the world. Another participant's passion encouraged him to study English in the U.S. for a year so he could enter – and win – the National Speech Competition in High School in Korea. Still another participant's passion challenged him to overcome his disability and become a role model for other people with disabilities. One participant commented,

In my opinion, a leader's passion is the most important disposition among many important qualities. For me, even though I have many shortcomings, I could cover my deficiencies with my strong passion. If I had not had ardent passion, I would not be what I am. I believe that even if someone does not have enough talent, giftedness, or capability, if he or she has ardent passion to achieve his or her goal, he or she could overcome these shortcomings and be a leader. In history, almost all great men were passionate men, such as, Napoleon, Churchill, Lincoln, Roosevelt, Korean Admiral Soon-shin Lee, and so on. I feel that passion is like a car's engine that pulls the car. Likewise, passion could be called a leader's leadership engine. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Optimism. The data showed that an optimistic or positive attitude was a decisive factor in participants' rise to leadership prominence. When asked how he dealt with almost insurmountable difficulties in his life journey, one participant answered,

First of all, I never thought of those difficulties as bad things. I thought of those problems as chances for me to take off. I always have thought there is no such thing as a question that cannot be answered. Sometimes, some difficulties are not solved, but I never despaired because of that. I waited for it to be solved or turned around in a new way. However, I have never given up. I believe that if I believe that I can solve it, there is an answer, but if I do not believe that I can do it, there is no answer. Thus, for a leader, the positive belief that any problems can be solved is so important. In my opinion, positive thinking brings positive attitude or positive attitude brings positive thinking. There is a deep correlation between them. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Another participant said,

I believe that in the world, the person who has the biggest shortcoming is not the person who has weak points but the person who has negative thoughts and a negative attitude. Even though one has a severe problem, if he sees it through a positive perspective, to him or her, it could even be a blessing. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Constancy. Among 12 participants only one person answered, "I am a normal person in consistency because I sometimes cannot work consistently." The remaining 11 reported being exceptionally consistent. One participant said,

Consistency is my distinctive characteristic. The most important reason I got this leadership role is my distinctive *consistent* attitude. I never would change in the middle. I never break my promise even if I have to suffer a large loss. Since 1983, the year that I arrived in the US, I have attended church. After becoming Mayor, many people recommended I move to another mega church for political gains. I never changed church and will not change. When I ran as a candidate for City Council and Mayor, many people recommended that I use an American name. However, I never changed because I believed that consistency is important in interpersonal relationships and for winning public trust. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

One participant's wife reported,

My husband's distinctive characteristic is that he is a *consistent* person. He cannot make a decision easily. He needs enough time to make a decision. However, if he decides his plan or goal, he never changes it halfway. When I saw the situation objectively, in my thinking his plan or goal should be changed. However, he never wavered. Finally, his goal was achieved. Because of his distinctive *consistent* character, he has achieved many things in difficult circumstances. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Acquired Skills

Five acquired skills emerged as closely related to the participants' leadership attainment: creativity, communication ability, English proficiency, cultural competence, and interpersonal competence (or social intelligence).

Creativity. The twelve participants were variously gifted, but all were creative. For example, one participant testified,

I think I was able to take a prominent intercultural leadership position because I had worked to accomplish my goals with creative thinking. In my personal opinion, the person who wants to be a prominent leader should be able to think creatively or strategically. Without creative thinking power, one cannot lead followers. Leaders should have advanced creative thinking skills that are greater than the skills of their followers. The radical difference between leaders and normal people is in their creativity. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Banden Hubell, the chief director of the Roosevelt Foundation, introduced one participant by saying,

Dr. Kang has worked with us from the day of the establishment of the Roosevelt International Disabled Award. His original and creative leadership is very exceptional. He is a visionary person who inspires frustrated people to hope and who challenges those who work hard to work even harder for their future. As we know, Dr. Kang is a blind man who has no sight. However, he is an outstanding leader who presents the vision and direction that show the future, the world, and life to the people. (Kang, 2006, p. 127) [Our translation]

Communication ability. All twelve participants possessed the ability to converse effectively with others. For example, the wife of one participant said,

My husband believes he received an outstanding talent in talking to others. Even though I thought that no matter how he tried, he couldn't solve the problem through conversation with the person concerned, he always did it through conversation. I cannot remember how many times he solved difficult problems just through conversation. (Interview

transcript or email [our translation])

English proficiency. All study participants took advantage of opportunities to become proficient English speakers at different times—five in junior and senior high school, three in university, and four in graduate school. All but one participant affirmed that the ability to communicate in English was essential to being an intercultural leader in today's global society. Two participants considered English proficiency the most important skill for an intercultural leader. One stated,

In my opinion, to be a prominent intercultural or global leader, English is an essential factor and the most basic requirement. Although a person can have excellent talents, ability, and strength in every area, if the person cannot speak English, then how can the person express his opinion to another country's people and persuade them to follow his opinion? (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

The other said,

In these global times, to have intercultural competences, the ability to speak English fluently is an essential factor. I know many Koreans who, despite having powerful spiritual ability and other outstanding talents, cannot exercise their leadership in the global or intercultural worldwide stage. I think that although Koreans have excellent talents in many areas, most of them cannot become influential global leaders because of the language barrier. Thus, a person who wants to work on the worldwide stage should overcome the language barrier. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Cultural competence. Cultural competence is the capability to interact effectively across cultures and with "people from different cultural backgrounds" (Thomas & Inkson, 2004, p. 62). Closely related is Earley and Ang's (2003) definition of cultural intelligence: "a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts" (p. 59). They elaborated,

Cultural competence can be generally defined as the process by which individuals and systems respond effectively to people of all cultures, languages, classes, races, ethnic backgrounds, religions, and other diversity factors in a manner that recognizes, affirms, and values the worth of individuals, families, and communities and that protects and preserves the dignity of each. (p. 263)

The research showed all participants were culturally competent. For example, one participant observed,

To me, joining groups from different cultures is not awkward but very natural. I frequently participate in different national events because I am a politician and enjoy the different national cultures. Thus, people who belong to different cultures like me very much. I believe that being familiar with different cultures is essential to be a leader in an intercultural society. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Another said,

To becoming an intercultural leader as a Native Born Korean, I think it is essential to have cultural competence in multi-cultural settings through experiential understanding. To have cultural competence, NBKs should develop the capacity to work in a multi-cultural, multi-racial, and multi-linguistic background. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Interpersonal capacity. Ten of the twelve participants were excellent at relating well to others. However, the other two confessed they had to work hard at forming relationships, thus underscoring the importance of developing this skill. One of them admitted,

That was my weakness as a politician. Thus, I made firm efforts to change my unsociable

character. I think my attitude could be sociable but my unsociable character cannot be changed to a sociable character. However, I manage my relationships with others well through hard work because relationship is so important to politicians. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

The other said,

I have no ability to have a good relationship with others because of my introverted nature. Even though I had tried to overcome my introvert character to extrovert in order to be a social person, I realized that it was not natural for me. Thus, I have made efforts to deal with people with authenticity and love. Although I have envied the persons who were sociable persons, I believe that I have merits that they do not have. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Personality Traits

Four personality traits emerged important (but not decisive) to participants' rise to prominence as intercultural leaders. Nearly all the participants were tolerant, resolute, empathetic, and persistent.

Tolerance. Nine of twelve participants were very tolerant, understanding, and charitable. The wife of one participant commented, "My husband has a mind so open that I cannot understand it. My husband tolerates and accepts someone whom I would never forgive and accept. I believe that the open mind is the gift of God." Another participant explained,

From childhood, I have been so open-minded as to accept men of all shades. When I was a student, I always got first place in the tests, and was the representative in the classes. However, I always befriended students who were ostracized by other students and who did not study well. I regarded myself as a person who has to accept all other people with magnanimity. Because of my capacious mind, I can associate with others naturally. From childhood, I dreamed of becoming Korea's President so that I could deliver the poor in the agricultural areas. I live with a sense of mission that I have to relieve the poor and the weak. Thus, I never wore a wristwatch and a tie for myself. Keeping in mind the problems of the nation, emigrants, laborers, and minorities, I have lived for the benefit of the weak rather than for my family, my economic wealth, and my individual ambitions. Today, I work for minorities' political rights and for the protection of their interests. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Persistence. Ten of the twelve participants had experienced various trials that would have crushed most people. However, they overcame these trials through patient persistence. For example, one participant said,

I have experienced many severe hardships in my life. If I could not endure trials, I think that today my leadership would not exist. I have seen many people fail because of their deficiency of persistence. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Nevertheless, one participant admitted, "My characteristic weak point is enduring to the end. For me enduring for such a long time in trials is so hard." However, this participant was elected once to city council, once as mayor, and three times to the House of Representatives.

Resoluteness. The data indicated that a resolute character in decision-making was important to prominent leadership. For example, the participant who described himself as not being persistent had strong decision-making abilities. Even so, not all participants found decision-making easy.

One of my characteristic features is that I waver in decision-making. When I make a decision, I have to think deeply and examine many possible situations. However, once I decide on a goal, I never change it. To me, I lack in decisiveness and resolve. However, I have never thought it has been my weak point. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Another participant admitted,

Whenever I have to make a serious decision, I cannot easily make it. I need much time to consider many situations. Specifically, when I make a decision, I always deeply consider the situations of many people related to my decision. These make me delay my decision-making. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

Empathy. The research revealed that ten participants were particularly considerate of others. One participant, who admitted he was weak in thoughtfulness, said,

Perhaps I am aware of my weakness in thoughtfulness because my wife used to say to me, “You should consider others’ situation and feelings” more. It is a fact that I have not been a thoughtful husband to my wife. When I have to make a serious decision, I focus on it and consider the whole rather than individuals. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

On the contrary, participants who reported being thoughtful said things like,

When I have to make a serious decision, I consider who would be hurt or not because of the decision. When I make a decision, it is most important for me to consider each member’s situation because I expect to heighten the dramatic effect through harmony of all the members. (Interview transcript or email [our translation])

One biographer wrote,

His grandmother used to teach her grandson: “Fundamentally, a man should think of others rather than himself.” ... He cannot pass by when he sees people in difficulty. Whenever a feature appeared on TV about people in difficulty, he used to soak a handkerchief with tears for the people. Then he would write down the contact information, which he later used to help them. His grandmother’s teaching, that man should serve others’ needs rather than himself, played an important part in *shaping the character* of the man. (Han, 2008, pp. 62-63) [Our translation]

Conclusion on Key Factors

While not all six factors contributing to the twelve participants’ rise to prominence as intercultural leaders were equally present, they emerged unambiguously as the most common to the greatest number of them. In particular, four factors surfaced as decisive: family heritage, pivotal encounters, certain attitudes, and several critical skills. In addition, certain personality traits emerged as important and academic achievement was found to be helpful. Given these findings, what, if anything, can a society, family, educational program, or individual do to cultivate successful intercultural leaders?

Cultivating Intercultural Leaders

While the origin of leaders is debated, the following discussion assumes leaders can be cultivated. Bennis and Nanus (1997) described the development of leadership theory:

Leadership skills were once thought a matter of birth. Leaders were born, not made,

summoned to their calling through some unfathomable process. This might be called the “Great Man” theory of leadership. When this view failed to explain leadership, it was replaced by the notion that great events made leaders of otherwise ordinary people. This “Big Bang” idea in which the situation and the followers combined to make a leader, like the “Great Man” theory, was another inadequate definition. Therefore, some looked at the leader and some looked at the situation. Now, in a stasis uninterrupted by either Great Men or Big Bangs, we have a new opportunity to appraise our leaders and ponder the essence of power. (pp. 5-6)

Some individuals may appear born to lead. Nevertheless, we side with those who affirm that even people with little or no apparent aptitude for leadership can be developed into leaders (Bennis, Spreitzer, & Cummings, 2001; Parks, 2005). Further, even individuals with proven leadership abilities are in need of development (Charan, Drotter, & Noel, 2001).

In this section, we discuss how parents and educators might cultivate intercultural leaders and suggest ways emerging leaders can prepare themselves to become intercultural leaders. These suggestions parallel the life experiences of our 12 study participants. While we directly address only the Korean context, readers will find a number of the principles discussed to be transferable to other ethnic contexts.

Parenting to Cultivate Intercultural Leaders

The socialization of children in the home emerged as critical to the cultivation of prospective leaders, far more significant than academic success. However, much in Korean society today militates against the inculcation of heritage values. The study participants grew up in a largely agrarian society in which family education was natural because families were large and several generations lived together. Communication between adults and children was frequent and often prolonged. However, in Korea today, both parents regularly work outside the home, meaning children are likely to spend more time with their computers than with their parents. A return to the old days is impossible. Therefore, we suggest the following strategies for contemporary families to promote intercultural leadership development: (a) instilling heritage values, (b) facilitating pivotal encounters, and (c) fostering good attitudes.

Parenting to instill heritage values. Traditionally, parental roles for children’s education were divided between fathers and mothers. Fathers were charged with children’s social education, such as personal relationships, social ethics and morals, social etiquette, and ways to succeed in society. Consequently, most fathers were strict, even severe toward their children. On the contrary, mothers were warm and kind to their children, taught children their role in the family, and contributed toward shaping good character.

Contemporary Korean society has changed in many ways, specifically in regard to parents’ roles and the family atmosphere—from multi-generation family to nuclear family; from parental leading roles to parental helping roles; from collective family atmosphere to individual family atmosphere; and from mom-centered family to working mom family. Today, it is difficult to define separate roles for moms and dads. Today’s young parents must be more flexible in nurturing their children and passing on heritage values to them.

Traditional Korean households were large and multigenerational, but contemporary Korean households have come to resemble the Western nuclear family. With both parents working and children occupied with burdensome schoolwork and interfacing with electronic media, parental influence has suffered greatly. However, it is often still possible to involve

grandparents in children's lives. Many Korean grandparents do not work outside the home and are available to share valuable experiences with their grandchildren. Parents would do well to integrate grandparents into their households. Rather than sending children to after-school academies to improve their test scores, parents could place them with grandparents capable of cultivating family heritage values.

Parenting to facilitate pivotal encounters. As discussed previously, pivotal encounters changed participants' lives dramatically. Whereas these encounters appeared to be largely serendipitous, some may be related to participants' character (i.e., attitudes and personality). For example, self-confidence, passion, optimism, and constancy attract the attention of well-placed individuals positioned to get involved at a critical juncture in a young person's life. Hence, ancestors sowing good seeds could bring descendants unexpected and fortuitous pivotal encounters that dramatically change their lives.

In addition, not all pivotal encounters are accidental. While the participants did not seek out their pivotal encounters, parents or grandparents of future intercultural leaders may be able to do so for their offspring by exposing them to inspirational role models and introducing them to models of achievement and potential mentors.

Parenting to foster good attitudes. Fostering good attitudes is closely related to family heritage, which is transmitted through *values exemplified* and *values taught* in the home context while children are growing up. Many contemporary Korean families sacrifice family time in the quest for financial security, believing they are thus securing a good future for their children. They discover too late that their efforts were counterproductive. We recommend parents plan ahead to set aside time for family interaction, such as eating and playing together and interactions surrounding important heritage values (e.g., family worship time).

Schooling to Cultivate Intercultural Leaders

Contrary to expectations, academic achievement or schooling emerged as the least important of the key factors in NBKs' rises to prominent intercultural leadership positions. Perhaps the relatively feeble connection between schooling and leadership success can be explained by the disparity between the abilities rewarded by schooling and those required of successful intercultural leaders. Of course, academic intelligence is not a handicap in leadership. However, contemporary Korean schooling focuses almost exclusively on cognitive objectives, thus rewarding abilities other than those most needed in leaders (e.g., recall of information as opposed to self-confidence, tolerance, and empathy). Of the three educational domains, affective and the psychomotor (i.e., skills) emerged as most significant in participants' rise to prominence as intercultural leaders. Without neglecting the cognitive, Korean schooling should place greater emphasis on character and skills to develop future intercultural leaders.

One skill in particular merits special mention: English proficiency, which is crucial for today's intercultural leader. Again, success in "school English" as an academic subject (cognitive task) is insufficient. English is first and foremost a communication skill whose mastery requires learners to step out of their mono-cultural, mono-linguistic context to interact with English speakers.

Positioning Oneself to Become an Intercultural Leader

Clearly, who you are matters more than what you know. Those aspiring to intercultural

leadership must first and foremost foster crucial internal dispositions—self-confidence, drive, passion, optimism, and constancy—followed by tolerance, resoluteness, empathy, and persistence. In addition, they should be intentional about developing skills in creativity, communication, English proficiency, cultural competence, and interpersonal capacity (i.e., social intelligence). Such skills, for the most part, require exiting the comfort zone of one's monocultural, mono-linguistic context into order to encounter, understand, and befriend the "other."

Regarding external influences on an aspiring leader's life, some things obviously are outside a person's control (e.g., parents and grandparents). However, one can still pursue relationships with "pivotal" people. In particular, aspiring leaders would do well to seek out mentors who can guide them in the next steps along the path toward competence and confidence.

Conclusion

Are leaders born, fashioned, or galvanized by dramatic events? In the case of the twelve native born Korean leaders in this study it was likely a combination of all three, but life experiences dominated their rise to prominence. In particular, two external influences outside the individuals' control (family heritage and pivotal encounters) and two internal dispositions they could cultivate (attitudes and skills) emerged as nearly universal. Granted, the intercultural nature of their leadership required certain attitudes and skills that might be less important in a monocultural context. Nevertheless, their stories illustrate the possibility and importance of intentionally cultivating the values, attitudes, and skills required of intercultural leaders.

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MOVING FROM TRANCE TO THINK: WHY WE NEED TO POLISH OUR CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

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Critical thinking is a crucial prerequisite for responsible human performance not only in organizations, but also in every area of life. Yet, this quality is often downplayed, which is reflected in high numbers of disgruntled working adults. Dissatisfied workforce members are often only partly aware of the reasons for their dissatisfaction, which may be linked to sparse critical thinking about their purpose in life. Critical thinking enables a broader perspective and the ability to rise beyond standardized thought patterns. This ability leads to creative breakthroughs regarding directions and activities that fulfill personal and societal needs of longitudinal meaning, motivation, performance improvement, and general wellbeing. As a think-piece for the second decade of the 21st century, this article provides an overview of some important factors that prevent critical thinking, captured in the telling acronym “TRANCE,” and some important actions that enhance critical thinking, represented in the equally divulging term “THINK.” The article also discusses the specific parts of TRANCE that are addressed as one begins practicing specific elements of THINK.

One of the advantages of having been exposed to multiple cultures is that you can see how people in one place take things for granted or settle for limitations that are entirely unacceptable in another. Intrigued by this notion, I engaged in deeper contemplation on the topic of critical thinking. I became aware of the fact that many people dwell in miserable situations because they have never learned to critically evaluate their options and the possible solutions that could improve the quality of their lives. Nevertheless, critical thinking has become a survival skill in the rapidly changing world of today. This article reviews the essence of critical thinking from a personal development perspective, assuming that personal development lies at the core of any other development. After a brief literature review, I will present some important impediments and supporting factors of critical thinking. I will end with a brief overview of the constructive cycle that can be established when critical thinking becomes embedded in one’s performance.

Why We Need Critical Thinking

Critical thinking has been defined in many ways, oftentimes depending on the focus being considered. Hobaugh (2010) presented a definition for critical thinking, formulated by The American Philosophical Association: “We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgment that results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based” (p. 48).

Hobaugh (2010) underscored that, in order to instill critical thinking, there should first be proper understanding that it involves the quality of thinking and not, as is often claimed, mere decision-making, creative thinking, intuitive thinking, problem-solving, brainstorming, or out-of-the-box thinking. Cotter and Tally (2009) clarified that critical thinking should entail the evaluation of information sources, the act of challenging assumptions, the skill of context understanding, the ability to analyze arguments, and the readiness to use metacognition. Natale and Ricci (2006) drew the conclusion that critical thinking is crucial for organizational advancement. They recommended that organizational teams consist of members with different perspectives yet with the ability to collaborate and achieve healthy consensus. Schott Karr (2009) stressed that critical thinking largely replaces technical knowledge in workplaces today, which makes it more essential than ever. Sawin (2004) opined that critical thinking is also essential for personal progress: “To increase our coping ability we need critical thinking skills to cultivate flexibility and creativity in our decision making and problem solving” (p. 240).

In education, the value of critical thinking has also been proven. Savich (2008) conducted a comparison study between two high school history student groups. One group received its course through the traditional lecturing method, while the other was exposed to a creative inquiry method. While the study indicated that lectures were effective for background and introduction, it was copiously demonstrated that critical thinking skills were more effective in achieving in-depth understanding of the topic, while proper integration between the critical thinking skills and subject content, as well as students’ general motivation increased. Noblitt, Vance, and Smith (2010) found that students in a junior forensic science course consistently performed better when they were allowed to present case studies that required critical thinking, as opposed to the traditional paper presentations.

Would Most People Rather Die than Think?

Unfortunately, critical thinking has not been emphasized sufficiently in past decades. Perhaps the need was not as critical as it has become. Bertrand Russell once stated, “Most people rather die than think – in fact most do.” Russell, who died in 1970, came to his conclusion in a time when the pace of life was slower than it is today, and he was not even referring to critical thinking – just thinking. Forty years after Russell’s passing, we can establish that many people still suffer from the same problem: they don’t think to an extent where they really question their status quo and consider their options beyond certain limitations. This, then, is the root of all progress impediments, which explains why more than half of the working population in leading nations such as the U.S. and the U.K. are dissatisfied. People are trapped by limitations that they have allowed to be erected around them.

In a 2010 Huffington Post article, Pattakos contemplated how much people can learn from a fly that keeps buzzing and banging against the closed window—he wants to go out into

the light, but doesn't have the awareness to try other windows or doors. Pattakos (2010) stated that, unlike flies, we humans can think and evaluate our circumstances and thus plan toward improvement. But how many of us really do that? Sawin (2004) made the pointed remark that birds are better at being birds than humans at being human because birds do what birds are supposed to do, from building their nests and feeding their chicks to promoting survival of their species, but human beings, with all their capacities and knowledge toward constructive and survival oriented behavior, cannot seem to figure out how to live successfully and rationally on a massive scale.

In line with Sawin's notions, I agree with Pattakos' (2010) assertion that in spite of our ability to think, we humans are dealing with two major problems that often keep us from thinking critically: fear and misconception.

- Fear inhibits the courage to deviate from a familiar path and try new avenues, especially if those are in unknown territory.
- Misconception makes us think that we think critically while we remain within pre-set boundaries, determined by our culture or environment. As a result, we only consider options that fit within "acceptable" cultural, habitual, religious, psychological, or emotional boundaries. Consequently, we may explore the "windows" in one room, but fail to try windows and doors in other rooms.

TRANCE: The Sleepwalkers' Cluster

At this point, it might be useful to take a step back since many people do not even make it to the dimension where horizon expansion comes into play. While they do use their minds, many simply do so with regard to issues that will refrain from rocking their cradle of comfort. They prefer to "sleepwalk," or they perform as if they are in trance. When one is in trance, one follows orders without thinking. Trance is, therefore, the most important opponent to critical thinking, and it consists of at least six elements.

Tradition. Tradition is captured in one's culture and in the social habits one has acquired over years. It may be possible that certain inadequate traditions once made sense, but much has changed and they gradually became outdated. Such traditions may even hinder progress. However, there may be too much at stake to consider changing these traditions or habits. We may worry about what others might say if we would explore new avenues that may be "off-limits" in our community. We may even find loved ones discourage us from exploring these alternatives because they may fear that we will fail, change too much, or leave them behind; so they will make efforts to have us explore only certain windows and avoid others. Critical thinking is perceived differently in different cultures. Lun, Fisher, and Ward (2010) conducted a study as a result of the general concern expressed by Western college professors that their international Asian students are less apt in critical thinking. The authors found that the Asian students may have more of a cognitive problem than a reduced degree of critical thinking. Yet, McGuire (2007) contradicted this assertion by positing that the critical thinking movement has failed to enter Korea thus far, and Davidson (2002) deliberated different ways to make critical thinking useful in Japan, thereby affirming that "Objections to bringing critical thinking to Japan are usually based on the view that critical thinking is a Western cultural attribute unsuited to Asia" (p. 39).

Religion. Religion in and of itself should be given credit for keeping order in some societies. However, many contemporary religions were not established as peacefully as they

proclaim to be today. Moreover, they are stranded in patterns that are grave misinterpretations of what their “founders” intended. Most major religions were inspired by highly awakened people who were not members of the religious group because it was founded long after their passing. The people who actually founded the congregations were often times not as awakened as their role models, so they set rules and created confinements to keep order and to refrain from losing control. Paul and Elder (2009) described the limitations that religion can bring: “Religious beliefs, when dominant in a human group, tend to shape many, if not all, aspects of a person's life with rules, requirements, taboos, and rituals” (p. 40). Analyzing the philosophy behind this limiting trend, Paul and Elder continued, “Most of these regulations have no ethical force beyond the members of one group. In fact, they are, in themselves, neither right nor wrong, but simply represent social preferences and culturally subjective choices” (p. 40).

Anxiety. Anxiety is a result of both tradition and religion. People who belong to certain cultural or religious groups, especially if these groups are stern and rigid, often do not dare to step out to follow their individual purposes. Fear is either naturally in them or instilled by others. Anxiety is, however, a much more encompassing factor than simply fear of failure or lost loved ones. Fear can also be instigated by lack of self-confidence, unfamiliarity with changed circumstances, loss of something that is considered precious, such as comfort, income, status, or friends. Anxiety is a proven and often discussed element in resistance to change, aversion to thinking, and descending in trance. Whisner (1993) agreed that many people are afraid to face present or future discomfort and therefore start rationalizing their fate and engaging in self-deception.

Negligence. Negligence often manifests itself in people who prefer the easy way out. They have allowed themselves to become lethargic. They choose non-challenging activities and gradually become more aloof, uncaring about changes around them, and set in their easy ways, even when dissatisfied. Weiler (2005) presented the findings of a study among college students, which revealed that Generation Y students who have grown up in front of television and computer have developed an aversion for reading and lack critical thinking skills. These students often lack strong viewpoints and have little they can relate to, and they are dreadfully unfamiliar with research methods and resources (Weiler).

Conventionalism. Conventionalism, or conformism, is oftentimes a consequence of anxiety toward change and/or longitudinal negligence. People who cling to conventional ways and things will not encourage new developments nor question their established activities. In an article on Muhammad Yunus, the only business-person who has won a Nobel Peace Prize, Loveland (2009) presented an example of the dulling that occurs in critical reasoning when people mindlessly cling to conventional approaches. Yunus set out to end poverty in Bangladesh by trying to help poor laborers in the streets escape the stranglehold from moneylenders. Unfortunately, no conventional bank wanted to provide these people a loan. They clung to the conventional belief that poor people don't pay their loans. Yunus ultimately started Grameen Bank, proving the conventional banks wrong and becoming highly successful through the courage to question the status quo, think critically, and correct something that was wrong.

Excessive focus on left brain activities. Excessive focus on left-brain activities is a very difficult problem to overcome because it is embedded in our modern civilization. Throughout formal education we have been taught to focus on abstract matters and stay away from the creative (right-brain) activities. We look up to the first and down on the last. As a result, our creative skills have been reduced, since childhood, to a super-meager level that requires personal intervention in order to tap into the well of creativity (drawing, dancing, art, writing) again.

Robinson (2009) provided numerous examples of people who, against all odds, made it big in life through their creative, artistic, or other right brain skills in a world where abstract (left brain) thinking and a high emphasis on numbers still reigns. Similarly, Pink (2005) explained the difference in easy terms. The left part of our brain is where language is understood; this part has been prioritized because language is considered the skill that separates humans from other species (Pink). Although the right hemisphere was long considered inferior, it was gradually discovered to be crucial in holistic reasoning, pattern recognition, emotion, and non-verbal interpretations (Pink). Both Robinson and Pink made a strong argument for the importance of right brain thinking in the near future.

THINK: the Path toward Increased Critical Thinking

The 21st century has presented us with a broad package of developments, some wonderful and others scary, but all intended to make us realize that we need to change our tune. The entire mindset about what is considered “mainstream” today is changing. More and more organizations understand the advantage of involving people and allowing them to bring their creative thought to the table. Innovation is no longer the CEO’s or even the manager’s responsibility. In the most successful corporations, such as Google, Atlassian, Wholefoods, IKEA, and Southwest Airlines, to name just a few, it’s the creative input of the frontline employee that counts. But how can you start engaging in critical thinking if you have been moving in TRANCE so far? The answer is easy, but the implementation will take some more time: snap out of it! THINK!

To engage in increased critical thinking, these are some of the areas to seriously explore:

- **Traveling:** in order to break the TRANCE elements of Tradition, Anxiety, and Conventionalism, you will have to open yourself to different impressions—expose yourself to different places, read different books, and talk to different people. You will see and hear entirely different things than the ones you used to take for granted in your established world and become aware of the narrow-mindedness caused by these three factors.
- **Holism:** in order to break the TRANCE elements of Negligence, Conventionalism, and Excessive focus on left brain thinking, you will have to pick up an old creative activity that you buried long ago. What did you like in earlier, simpler years? Drawing? Painting? Puzzling? Sculpting? Do-it-yourself? Reading or writing poetry? Dancing? Create some time again to engage in this creative expression. It is more important than you think. Many leaders today realize that succeeding depends more on thinking creatively, and setting new, constructive trends, is far more important and rewarding than continuously counting the numbers.
- **Investigation:** in order to break the TRANCE elements of Tradition, obsessive Religion, and Conventionalism, you will have to engage in some serious self-reflection: where do your habits and mindsets come from? Why exactly are you holding on to them? How many of them are based on obsolete patterns? What is at stake if you release them? How are they limiting your progress in life? You will be better able to reflect on these issues if you have started to expose yourself to other environments, books, and people (see Traveling above).
- **Nexus:** Breaking the TRANCE elements of Tradition, Anxiety, Negligence, and Conventionalism, will require you to connect with broader and different oriented

audiences on a regular base. The 21st century has brought us Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn, Twitter, and numerous other ways of communicating with people from all over the globe. We can now access newspapers and blogs from everywhere and read them. Through these “other” sources, we can expand our horizons and are no longer limited in accepting information and tendencies from local or national sources. If you use the Net in a more constructive fashion, it can become a valuable source in helping you develop critical thinking skills.

- **Kindle:** In order to break all of the TRANCE elements, Tradition, obsessive Religion, Anxiety, Negligence, Conventionalism, and Excessive focus on abstract thinking, you will have to awaken! You will have to deviate from mind-numbing activities, and gravitate toward mind-challenging activities. All of the 4 previous elements, Traveling, Holism, Investigation, and Nexus, are crucial in order to get yourself into mental and physical action again and ignite a fire inside.

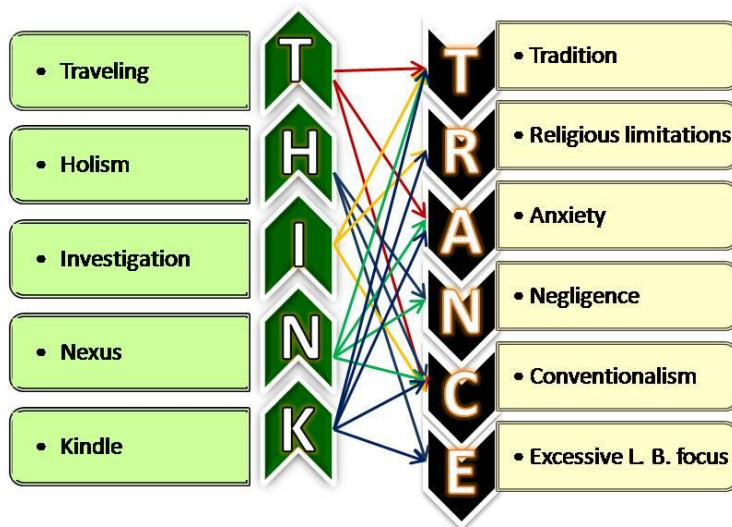


Figure 1. Trance-Think.

You can only start formulating your purpose if you teach yourself how to think about it. You cannot get far with thinking if you remain in TRANCE mode. But then again, it's up to you to decide. However, rest assured that once THINK has replaced TRANCE, you'll wonder how you ever allowed yourself to be buried alive, and ensure that you never again fall into the trap of TRANCE.

Critical Thinking toward Performance Improvement and General Wellbeing

There are various approaches that are designed to represent or enhance critical thinking in work settings. One of the better known strategies is the five why approach, where a person needs to ask “why?” five times in order to get to the root of an issue. However, Ayad (2010) criticized this strategy and presented some interesting examples that demonstrate how the five why approach does not always result in a sensible outcome or useful insight. Ayad therefore suggested an additional step, which entails deeper and more reflective questioning about the issue at hand. Ayad argued one should consider (a) the exact issue, (b) the reasons, (c) ambiguous parts of the issue, (d) possible conflicts or assumptions, examination of the reasoning

used so far to find out if there are any flaws, (e) potential rival causes that underlie the issue, (f) possible omission of critical information, and (g) possible conclusions to be drawn.

Regardless of whether you rely on quick fixes to enhance your critical thinking abilities or decide to seriously consider the suggestions provided in this article, critical thinking is something we cannot ignore any longer. People who engage in critical thinking acquire a broader perspective, which enables them to see more options than those who stick to conventional patterns. Due to this broader perspective, critical thinkers can rise beyond the modes of thinking they have held thus far. As they do so, their creative insights increase and they start considering options they had previously failed to address because they were not aware of them or considered them “taboo.” Yet, because they are now able to access multiple paths on their way to progress, these critical thinkers attain greater fulfillment of their personal needs and, oftentimes simultaneously, societal needs as well. By expanding their mental horizons, critical thinkers thus obtain meaning, find their performance improving (because they now do what they really want and not what is dictated to them), and contribute to the development of society; a society where performance is high is usually a rapidly progressing one. See Figure 2 for a visual depiction of the positive cycle of critical thinking.

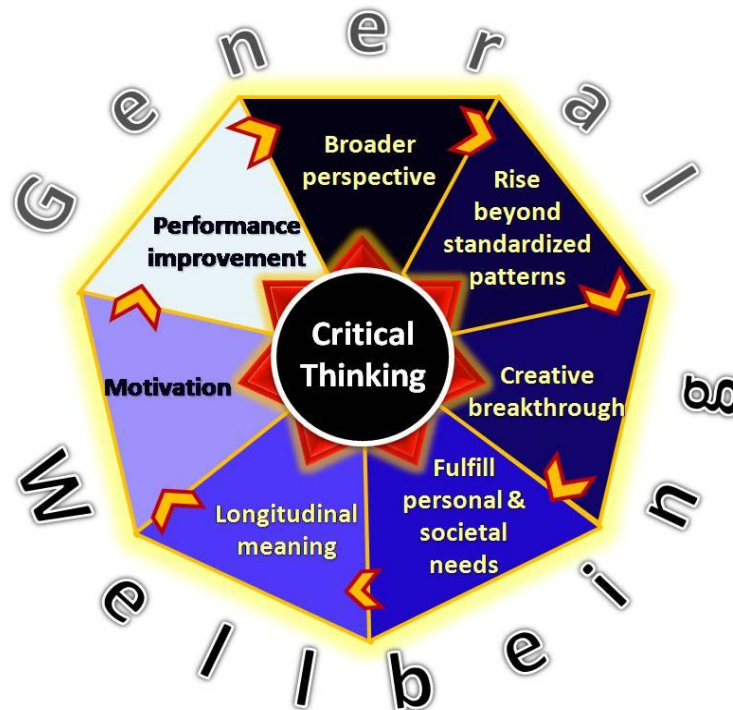


Figure 2. The constructive cycle of critical thinking.

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DEFINING RELATIONAL DISTANCE FOR TODAY'S LEADERS

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Work relationships, and thus, the experiences of work itself, are affected by perceptions of “distance.” Distance influences leader-follower relationships, which in turn have been shown to impact many organizational outcomes (Bass, 1990; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Northhouse, 2001). In this study, a literature review across five different scholarly fields provides theoretical arguments for three related dimensions of relational distance. Relational distance is the perception that distance between leaders and followers occurs in three interrelated dimensions: structural, status, and psychological. The dimensionality of relational distance is contextualized with quotes from employees experiencing various types of distance. The multidimensionality of relational distance reveals a fertile ground for future leadership research.

Over the years, researchers have gradually introduced distance as a variable in the analysis of organizational phenomena and have argued that distance may be a critical factor in understanding the relationships among individuals, groups, and organizations (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Ghemawat, 2001; Hambley, O'Neil, & Kline, 2007; Napier & Ferris, 1993). Understanding relational distance, or the distance between individuals, is important for the study of leadership because leadership is inherently relationship-based (Hunt, 2004; Küpers, 2007; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2001).

Many different ways of exploring distance have been used in the study of organizations. Approximately 33.7 million Americans (11% of the workforce) telework at least once per month—an increase of 43% since 2003 (WorldatWork, 2009). Organizations are becoming flatter and less centralized (Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 1999), and individuals have less clear and less tangible links with their organizations (Wiesenfeld et al., 1999). Buoyed by higher birth rates among minorities and rising immigration, organizations have become increasingly diverse (Chen & VanVelsor, 1996). New research is examining the generative processes that better the health of individuals and groups within organizations (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). Finally, global expansion and mergers have led to increased workforce diversity and the need for collaboration across functional and geographic boundaries (Cummings, 2004; Espinosa, Cummings, Wilson, & Pearce, 2003; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Monge & Contractor, 2003; Randel

& Jaussi, 2003). In this changed world, the relevance of relational distance becomes imperative. Because leaders must learn how to operate in this new world and to guide others through these changes, understanding relational distance in the leadership context is a primary step.

Prior research on distance has covered various aspects including social, physical, structural, psychological, spatial, and functional (D. Byrne, 1961; Crouch & Yetton, 1988; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Ferris & Rowland, 1985; Giles & J. L. Byrne, 1982; Ibarra, 1995; Schmann, 1978; Sundstrom & Sundstrom, 1986; Turban & Jones, 1988). It is becoming increasingly apparent that distance must be viewed as an interaction between multiple aspects. Building on the work of Antonakis and Atwater (2002) and Napier and Ferris (1993), relational distance is defined here as multidimensional and interactive distance between individuals. While this article reviews and synthesizes existing ideas about distance, it also extends earlier work by using a multidisciplinary lens and integrating findings from a larger number of disciplines. The three dimensions of relational distance are structural distance, status distance, and psychological distance (see Figure 1).

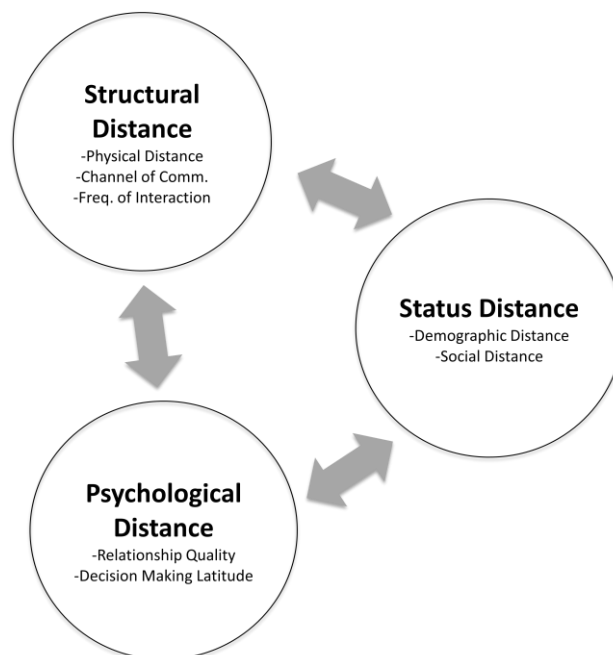


Figure 1. The Construct of Relational Distance.

It is important to contextualize the use of the word relational in the context of the relationship between leader and follower. In contrast with the relational view of organizations that identifies persons and organizations as ongoing multiple constructions (Hosking, 2000), this paper utilizes an entity perspective to understand previously organized perceptions and cognitions that influence assessments of distance between a leader and a follower in a relationship. In contrast, relational leadership theory proposes leadership as “a social influence process through which coordination and change are constructed and produced” (Uhl-Bien, 2006, p. 668). It is entirely possible that relational distance could influence or constrain this social influence process, but in order to understand its impact on the process, we must first understand relational distance itself.

The Multidimensionality of Distance

A multidimensional understanding of relational distance is necessary for two reasons. First, organizational participants are not likely to perceive different types of distance (e.g., physical separation, channel of communication, and frequency of interaction) as existing independently. Classic decision-making literature informs us that individuals do not generally refer to all aspects of any given situation before making a decision but instead use a collection of heuristics to determine the most important aspects of that situation (March & Simon, 1958). These simple decision rules allow individuals to process a large amount of information quickly and efficiently (Allport, 1955; Chaiken, 1980; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Because automatic processing and simple decision rules are commonly used to construct perceptions, it is unlikely that evaluations of distance are made by explicitly calculating the measurement of each different type. Instead, individuals combine multiple ideas of “being apart” into one idea of distance, making the dimensionality of relational distance more realistic.

The second reason for understanding the multi-dimensionality of relational distance is the incomplete and potentially misleading or contradictory picture that results from attempts to understand distance by looking at any type independently. For example, in measuring only spatial distance between superior and subordinate, Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, and Huber (1984) found that contingent reward leadership led to higher performance in close rather than distant conditions. Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) also looked at contingent reward leadership and measured spatial distance using a specific scale for very close (within 100 feet) and very distant (different city), but they found the opposite result. These contradictory results indicate that distance needs to be studied across multiple dimensions (not just one, such as spatial) in order to get a more accurate and replicable way of describing relational distance.

Existing theoretical models of distance, such as Napier and Ferris' (1993) dyadic distance and Antonakis and Atwater's (2002) leader distance, address the multidimensionality of distance between individuals. Napier and Ferris (1993) were the first to propose multiple dimensions of distance as a way to improve understanding and effects of distance in organizational behavior research. They proposed that functional distance (affect, decision-making latitude, relationship quality) is caused by both structural (office design, spatial distance, opportunity to interact) and psychological distance (demographic differences, values differences, power distance). A second model of distance was proposed by Antonakis and Atwater, who separated Napier and Ferris' structural distance dimension into two categories: physical distance and frequency of interaction. Furthermore, rather than propose psychological distance and functional distance as two different dimensions, Antonakis and Atwater suggested a third dimension: social distance (representing the intimacy of the relationship). These three factors, although independent, coexist to create leader distance.

These models introduce the multidimensionality of distance and demonstrate similarities between the types each model includes. However, the models do not agree about how different types of distance are combined or whether they are connected to organizational experiences. These models are presented visually in Figure 2 and Figure 3 and can be compared with the proposed model of Relational Distance (shown in Figure 1) to reveal differences in the dimensions highlighted in each model. As a result of the differences across these models, it is necessary to revisit distance between leaders and followers to determine the dimensions that are part of relational distance.

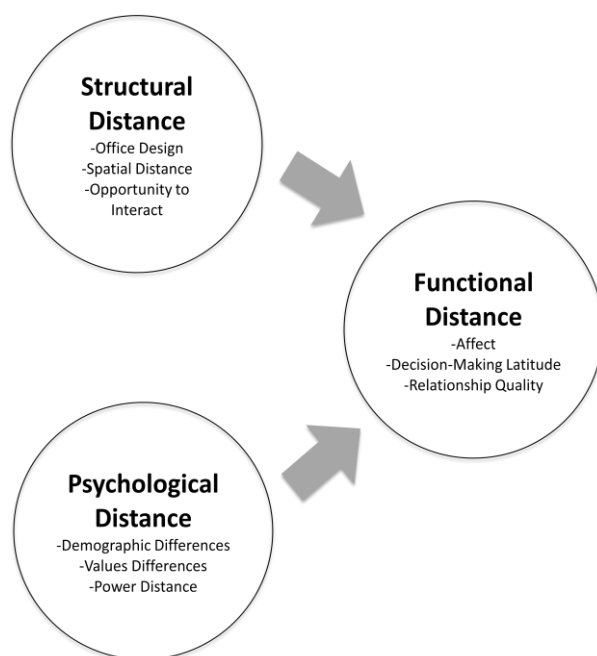


Figure 2. Napier & Ferris' Model of Dyadic Distance.

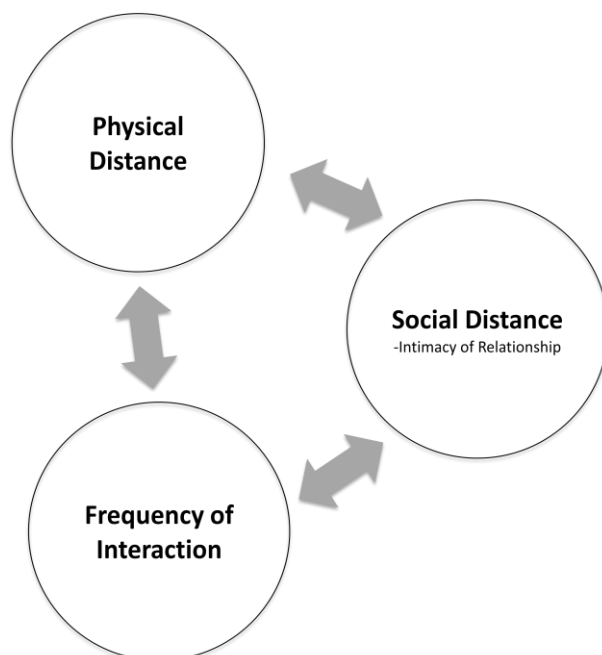


Figure 3. Antonakis & Atwater's Model of Leader Distance.

Building a Model of Relational Distance

A review of literature in multiple fields—including psychology, communication, organizational behavior, and sociology—yielded seven unique categories of distance. These seven types of distance have potential impacts on the relationship between leaders and followers: Physical Distance, Channel of Communication, Frequency of Interaction, Demographic Distance, Social Distance, Relationship Quality, and Decision Making Latitude. A closer examination of the seven types showed significant interdependence among some of them. A thorough literature review shows that these seven types can be combined to form three dimensions of relational distance. These interdependencies are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 <i>Summary of the Dimensions of Relational Distance</i>			
Dimension	Type	Characteristics	Sample References
Structural	Physical	Spatial distance, location, geographic proximity	Allen, 1977; Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Ghemawat, 2001; Monge & Contractor, 2003; Sorenson & Stuart, 2001
	Channel of Interaction	F2F/computer-mediated, synchronous/asynchronous	Daft & Lengel, 1996; Elsbach & Cable, 2003; Mann, Varey, & Button, 2000; Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976
	Frequency of Interaction	Number of communications (regardless of media used)	Latane, 1995; Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 2001
Social	Demographic	Age, race, gender, education, experience	McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995; Sorenson & Stuart, 2001; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Zenger & Lawrence, 1989
	Social	Power, status, rank, authority, social standing, cultural norms	Ahuja, Galletta, & Carley, 2003; Ghemawat, 2001; Latane, 1995; Monge & Contractor, 2003; O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Shamir, 1995
Psychological	Relationship Quality	In-group vs. out-group; affect; extra effort	Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997
	Decision Making Latitude	Autonomy; trust; empowerment	Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Spector, 1986; Spreitzer, 1995

In order to corroborate the types of distance evidenced in the literature and make connections between theory and practice, interviews were conducted with fifteen people working in a variety of contexts (human resources, middle- and senior-management, technology development, and sales) and for a variety of organizations (technology, banking, health services, and consumer products). Interviewees were chosen based on personal and professional contacts, and all worked for organizations that supported remote work for some employees. The interviews lasted approximately one hour; most interviewees chose to be interviewed at work, but some were conducted in people's homes and at coffee shops. Participants were promised anonymity, and all interviews were recorded and later transcribed. Using an interview guide (Appendix A), interviewees responded to questions about their working relationships with leaders and co-workers. These semi-structured interviews were not intended to provide a theoretical foundation but instead to provide contextual illustration of the themes discussed in the literature. Interviewees' anecdotes revealed several types of distance, which are also evidenced in the multidisciplinary literature. While interviewees did not always use the same terminology as the literature, significant overlap was found by rereading the interview transcripts for supporting quotes.

In the following sections, I define each dimension, describe how each type fits within one of the three dimensions (structural, status, or psychological), and discuss why these dimensions are a useful way to describe distance between leaders and followers. Unlike previous distance studies, this model both increases richness and deepens context by including information coming from individuals who experience various types of distance at work. Selected participant quotes are included to illustrate literature-based concepts from the five scholarly fields (psychology, organizational behavior, communication, sociology, and information technology) that inform the construct of relational distance.

Structural Distance

I propose that structural distance includes the characteristics or properties of a technology, task, or organization that influence organizational communication. It includes three types of distance: physical distance, channel of communication, and frequency of interaction.

Physical Distance

It is often physical distance (spatial separation) that comes to mind when issues of distance at work come up because, for many, this is the most visible and dramatic change. In fact, all of the interviewees spoke about physical distance, remote locations, or geographic separation. As one interviewee noted, "There is no question that people are used to working in proximity to each other. There have been practices that have been built up over at least 100 years or more on how people work together when they are together" (E. R., personal communication, October 1, 2004). The rich literature on virtual teams investigates how the new organizational structure of people working at a physical distance from each other is related to many classic constructs of organizational studies, including communication and collaboration (Cohen & Mankin, 1999), team maintenance (Gibson & Manuel, 2003), and effectiveness (Townsend, DeMarie, & Hendrickson, 1998).

Physical proximity plays an important role in organizational relationships as physical separation has been found to decrease influence, inhibit social interaction, and cause perceptions of inactivity (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). One interviewee specifically addressed the issue of others' perceptions of what remote workers are actually doing and described the strategies for dealing with this potential problem:

What I am worried about is that people will question what I am doing in California. So [the trip report] is a method for me to make me feel better that they know that I am doing stuff. In reality what it's doing is giving them information about what's going on. The information doesn't flow as easily from HQ to myself. (K. H., personal communication, October 18, 2004)

Physical distance is becoming more prominent in organizations, and is important to both scholars and organizational participants in determining the amount of distance that exists between leaders and followers.

Channel of Communication

Elsbach and Cable (2003) found that reduced face-time affects an individual's ability to get work done and affects others' perceptions of their work, regardless of actual outputs. Some interviewees felt face-to-face meetings were sometimes necessary to maintain effective communication:

I always have a list of things that I want to chat with people about and email is not a good tool just to chat with someone. And everybody else's schedule is just like mine. There are meetings that start at 8 in the morning and go 'til 6 at night. So it's not like I am going to pick up the phone and call one of my cohort and they are going to miraculously answer the phone. So there are some reasons to meet in person. (R. L., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

Another interviewee explained that, in the workplace, "face time becomes important because nothing compares to face-to-face. I get more accomplished in three days having face-to-face conversations with people than in three weeks remotely" (T. H., personal communication, October 19, 2004). The importance of different channels of communication's capabilities is well known among communication scholars, but the fact that all the interviewees mentioned the channels they used to communicate with colleagues lends credence to the idea that this is an important issue for organizations as well.

Frequency of Interaction

Most of the interviewees mentioned frequency of interaction, a factor that is also discussed in the management literature. Interaction frequency is a prerequisite to the development of organizational identity (Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 2001), and it creates a sense of shared meaning, which helps employees feel like they are active and included participants (Wiesenfeld et al., 1999). Frequency of interaction further increases the ease and efficiency of communication (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). One interviewee discussed the advantages of collocated office space. "Our offices in Orange County have three floors and 150 people and so you don't even force the interaction, it just happens. On the elevator, in the hallway, whatever" (S. H., personal communication, September 30, 2004). When individuals are not collocated, interaction needs to be scheduled.

We have points where we connect with our boss. Every two weeks we have one-on-one discussions where we talk about ongoing projects, any problems that have arisen, any new things that need to be addressed. Our manager also has a weekly staff meeting that lasts an hour. It's more of a one-way flow. He tells us what is going on with the company and what is going on with the managers in the group as far as their current thinking. (L. K., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

Research shows that increased interaction not only may lead to increased communication but also is a necessary condition for enabling network links (Monge & Contractor, 2003).

Interdependence of the Three Types

There is ample evidence that the impact of physical separation is often difficult to isolate from channel of communication or frequency of interaction. In reference to starting a remote work program, one interviewee directly addressed this mutual dependence:

That was a challenge ... because you can't just go are you collocated/are you not? Do you have an office/do you not? Because people have offices and are never in them. I ended up having to do hours of face time versus hours of phone interactions to try to get at that because it's very difficult. My boss could be down the hallway and I only interact with her every other week. That is a tricky part (K. W., personal communication, October 1, 2004).

By questioning the importance of leaders' and followers' physical locations and addressing how and how often they might use different channels of communication (e.g., phone or face-to-face), K. W.'s response reinforces the interdependence of physical separation, channel of communication, and frequency of interaction within the structural dimension of distance.

In the literature, Stanko (2006) showed that higher physical distance forces reliance on communication technologies (e.g., email as a communication channel) for interpersonal communication. Physical distance is also tightly tied to frequency of interaction, as research shows that having two people in close proximity increases both the likelihood and frequency of communication (Allen, 1977; Barnlund & Harland, 1963; Monge & Contractor, 2003; Sorenson & Stuart, 2001). Shamir (1995), in his definition of "close" leaders, reflected the assumption that there is both greater frequency of interaction and more immediacy of transactions between physically close leaders and followers. Face-to-face communication has much higher levels of immediacy than asynchronous communication channels, such as email or letters and memos (Daft & Lengel, 1996).

Thus,

Proposition 1: Structural distance is a dimension of relational distance and is comprised of three mutually dependent types: physical distance, channel of communication, and frequency of interaction.

Status Distance

Status distance refers to distance created by differences in sociodemographic factors, power, and prestige and is akin to relationship inequality. The literature (see Table 1) refers to these types of distance as demographic and social distance.

Demographic Distance

In the organizational behavior and psychology literature, there exist both theoretical and empirical studies exploring the impact of demographic differences on organizational outcomes. Demographic differences are forms of distance that encompass factors such as age, ethnicity, gender, education, and experience.

As the workforce becomes more demographically diverse and equal opportunity laws are enforced, organizations increasingly need to address the distance that results from demographic differences. While demographic differences within the workplace were not mentioned in interview conversations, a few interviewees spoke about the cultural differences (specifically ethnic and racial differences) that must be addressed when interacting with global companies:

Then there is the challenge of working across cultures and that can be a real challenge. If you have someone who is new into the team, how do you get them off to a smooth start when you don't know them and aren't familiar with the site where they work. (L. K., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

My group is 75% Indian so there are certain norms that differ. I am still working through some of those differences and learning their styles. They are wonderful – absolutely the most warm, welcoming individuals I have worked with, to be honest. Discussion is a big deal and they are very upfront and forthright so it's a lot of fun. But it's interesting being the only female in the room and a Caucasian female at that. It's interesting because I stick out ... like a sore thumb. (K. W., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

Research has also investigated what happens when people feel like they “stick out.” The literature demonstrates much evidence of the effects of demographic differences and relational demography. Demographic distance can have both positive and negative effects. Zenger and Lawrence (1989) found that communication among high-technology researchers was positively associated with both age and tenure. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found that dissimilarity in supervisor-subordinate dyads (relational demography) is linked to lower performance assessments and increased role ambiguity. Additionally, studies by O'Reilly and colleagues (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992) found that age differences can hinder communication and social integration, resulting in lower commitment and greater turnover. Given the interviewees' comments about demographic differences and the important impacts of relational demography and demographic differences, it is necessary to include this type of distance when understanding the conceptualization of distance between leaders and followers.

Social Distance

While demography looks at differences in observable attributes, social distance looks at value and attitude differences. Several interviewees referred to social distance, which includes elements described by Napier and Ferris (1993)—such as the degree of similarity in values (e.g., culture and sex role orientation)—and by Antonakis and Atwater (2002), such as the degree of similarity in status, rank, authority, social standing, and power. It can also refer to organizational cultural understanding, such as a shared professional language: “Both my boss and I share the same consulting background so we share terminology and have the same expectations. Most of the people here speak a different language” (R. J., personal communication, October 5, 2004).

Social distance may be especially suited to explain the effects of demographic variables that typically reflect social status (e.g., age, tenure, education) (Perry, Kulik, & Zhou, 1999). Social distance may also describe the distance that arises from being apart from those in positions of power, such as in this example:

The staff meeting goes back and forth to make sure it's fair that way. One of the things that I do is that I actually go to east every couple of months. So that, in fact last time I actually did the staff meeting with the folks in [the remote location] so that the ones in the [home office] were kind of virtual for me. They were on video. It moves the balance of power. (R. L., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

The impacts of social distance for organizations are mixed. While perceptual differences stemming from hierarchy and past experiences (among other factors) positively impact productivity, they negatively impact communication effectiveness between leaders and followers (Gibson, Cooper, & Conger, 2009). In their investigation of network centrality (i.e., the importance of an individual in a social network), Ahuja, Galletta, and Carley (2003) found that individual role characteristics, such as status, can influence structural positions or individual centrality, which in turn influences access to opportunities and performance.

Another explanation for differences stemming from social distance is the interaction between social distance and cultural differences. One cultural difference, power distance (Hofstede, 2001), may be particularly relevant. "Power distance refers to cultural conceptions regarding the degree of power which authorities should have over subordinates" (Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000, p. 687). While power distance is unlikely to explain actual differences in status or demography, it is likely to impact followers' assessment of the legitimacy of status distance. Individuals with low power distance may have better relationships with authority, which could also influence access to opportunities and performance.

Interdependence of the Two Types

While the interview data was essentially absent of connections between demographic and social distance, the literature supports their interdependence. Previous research shows a strong connection between demographic distance and social distance, stating that status incongruence can explain the effects of demographic differences on work outcomes (Perry et al., 1999; Tsui et al., 1992).

Both demographic and social distance describe how alike (or different) individuals can be. As such, they are deeply interdependent. Attraction-Selection Theory suggests people are attracted to similar others, and, as a result, organizations tend to be homogeneous (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). Similarity is most frequently determined by visible cues such as race and gender but can also be determined by hierarchical rank and organizational status. This can limit people's organizational worlds with powerful implications for the information they receive, the attitudes they form, and the interactions they experience (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001; Monge & Contractor, 2003). Once individuals perceive they belong to a given group, this membership becomes part of how they self-identify (Gibson et al., 2009). To the extent that this is true, people are expected to evaluate members of their own group more positively than those of other groups to maintain a positive self-regard. Status distance describes the impacts of the demographic and social differences between leaders and followers.

Thus,

Proposition 2: Status distance is a dimension of relational distance and is comprised of two mutually dependent types: demographic and social distance.

Psychological Distance

Psychological distance refers to a lack of affinity between people and is driven by internal and sometimes unconscious factors. It is comprised of low relationship quality and limited decision-making latitude.

Relationship Quality

People develop different quality relationships with co-workers, leaders, and subordinates. Nearly all of the interviewees spoke about the quality of the relationships with their supervisors, their subordinates, or both. These relationships develop in unique ways depending on the context and the individuals involved. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) is based on the premise that leader-follower relationships are developed or negotiated. A close (high quality) relationship is developed between a leader and a few subordinates, while the leader relies on formal (low quality) relationships with the rest of his or her subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Dockery & Steiner, 1990). LMX theory proposes that, in exchange for loyalty and commitment, followers in the in-group receive favorable treatment from their supervisor, including privileged information, support, and improved access to developmental assignments (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

Dansereau, Yammarino, and colleagues (Dansereau et al., 1975, 2002) found that leaders develop relationships with individual subordinates that are completely independent from the relationship they experience with other subordinates. As one of the interviewees noted, “there is no guarantee that managers will treat all employees equally” (J. M., personal communication, October 21, 2004). These findings, dubbed “individualized leadership,” show that departures from an average style are not random and are found to be predictive of organizational outcomes, as this interviewee remarked: “I receive individual attention from my boss. He wants a sense of what I am doing. Because I am trusted, I may be able to circumvent rules. Trust comes from proving the profitability of deals but it takes longer because [my boss] is far away” (F. C., personal communication, September 30, 2004).

Relationships, revealed through interpersonal interaction, are the building blocks of many organizational functions. Specifically, close relationships are more likely to fulfill psychosocial functions and can enhance individual competence and effectiveness (Ibarra, 1995). As these high quality exchange relationships develop, common goals are internalized and mutual trust, respect, and obligation are fostered (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Here is how one supervisor interviewed described the relationship quality in his in-group: “I have a great team of people and they are unique in the skills they do and they are ... again, you have to hire great people that are motivated and have a clear set of deliverables that they have to deliver against” (R. L., personal communication, October 1, 2004). Relationship quality appears to be important to both scholars and interviewees. This suggests that the way individuals describe their interactions with their leader is pertinent to relational distance.

Decision Making Latitude

Decision making latitude describes the autonomy an employee has and was mentioned by two-thirds of the interviewees. Spreitzer (1995) defined autonomy as leaders delegating decision-making to followers. One interviewee, in exploring some of the issues associated with “remote work,” spoke of autonomy:

I think, for some managers, there is a fear of losing control in terms of if you can't see somebody, how do you know they are being productive. But when you are dealing with knowledge work, it is more important to ask whether deadlines were met. If you didn't work today but then worked 'til midnight, I don't really care. I just go by the work. (R. L., personal communication, October 1, 2004)

Decision making latitude, or the lack of it, can exist regardless of where people are actually working, as evidenced by another employee's statements about his or her own boss' influence.

My boss doesn't direct my daily work. I do that at my own pace and with my own style. I am assigned a beat and I work it. However, she can influence planning and my long-range goals. I set my own priorities by thinking about the needs of the department. I know what has to be done because I have been doing this for a long time. (M. B., personal communication, October 28, 2004)

Evidence from both the empowerment and autonomy literature supports higher levels of performance and productivity when subordinates are given more control over work-related decisions (Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). In a meta-analysis, autonomy was found to explain almost 50% of variation in supervisory satisfaction (Spector, 1986), indicating that autonomy is closely tied to the supervisor since he or she has ultimate control over the degree of autonomy experienced by subordinates. It also shows that employees favor autonomy. Hackman and Oldham (1976) described the desirability of high autonomy and high “experienced responsibility” for achieving beneficial work outcomes. Autonomy is given to those employees who have a proven track record of success as well as to those who share a positive relationship with leaders.

Interdependence of the Two Types

Employees who receive more autonomy from their supervisors perceive closer affect and better relationships with those supervisors (Spreitzer, 1995), demonstrate a willingness to put forth extra effort, and seek feedback about the quality of their performance (Russo & Campbell, 2004).

Interviewees saw different reasons for differential treatment, which speaks to the connectedness of relationship quality and decision making latitude. One individual saw three reasons for his or her own ability to work remotely: first, he or she had a history that spoke to the unlikelihood of abusing the “privilege;” second, the individual had a pattern of delivering results; and finally, he or she had achieved a level in the organization that afforded some specialized treatment (M. B., personal communication, October 28, 2004). Other interviewees spoke about how their behavior had changed over time with a given supervisor. For example,

I've been here for less than a year. When I first started, I wanted to respond to every email within half a second. I wanted to be here early in case the phone rang. I wanted to stay late in case the phone rang – just so that I was seen to be putting in the effort. I suppose the more I am seen to do that and the more results I'm actually getting that are

measurable, the less important it is to continue with that really odd behavior. (S. H., personal communication, September 30, 2004)

The above quote demonstrates that performance led to increased autonomy given by the leader and felt by the subordinate.

The interdependence of relationship quality and decision making latitude is demonstrated throughout the literature review. Thus,

Proposition 3: Psychological distance is a dimension of relational distance and is comprised of poor relationship quality and limited decision making latitude.

Discussion and Conclusion

The role of physical distance in leader-follower relationships is certainly not a new concept. Jesuit missionaries, military field commanders, and traveling salesmen have all had to deal with the challenges inherent in managing from afar. Due to remote work and organizational changes, physical distance is increasingly prevalent in the workplace. Increasing physical distance has spawned a discussion of distance that delves into many aspects of the leader-follower relationship. Organizations now are forced to consider what contributes to a distant relationship and the impact relational distance might have on leader-follower interactions.

While this paper reviewed and synthesized existing ideas about distance, it also goes beyond earlier work by using a multidisciplinary lens and integrating findings from a larger number of disciplines to produce a richer, more complete understanding of the construct of relational distance. The theoretical base is highlighted with quotes from individual employees who experience relational distance.

Beyond its contribution to theoretical understandings of relational distance, this research also has implications for practitioners. The prevalence of remote work has brought discussion of physical distance to the forefront, and organizations now recognize that highly functioning work relationships depend on more than physical proximity. Indeed, these functional relationships are the building blocks of organizations and critical to organizational functioning. Leader-follower relationships in particular can contribute to a variety of work outcomes. As a result, leaders need to gain a deeper understanding of the interrelated dimensions of relational distance because this multidimensional construct will surely impact factors such as commitment, satisfaction, and performance.

Conceptualizing relational distance as the interplay among perceptions of structural, status, and psychological distance provides fruitful avenues for future research. First, it is important to test how dimensions of relational distance relate to organizational outcomes. While it is proposed that relational distance affects the factors mentioned in this paper, only an empirical study can confirm this. When looking at the impact of relational distance on organizational outcomes, researchers must compare the construct of relational distance to other related constructs (e.g., relational demography, leader-member exchange) to assess the value of adding this construct to the scholarly toolkit. In addition, leadership is rarely binary with each leader having one follower and vice versa. Therefore, the complexity of the differential relationship between leaders and multiple followers should be investigated. Further, since relational distance can be perceived by anyone involved in an organizational relationship of any kind, this understanding can be applied across levels of analysis to answer questions relating to leadership effectiveness, team performance, and inter-organizational cooperation. In the spirit of relational leadership theory (Uhl-Bien, 2006), this may help in shifting attention from leaders as

people to leadership as a process, which would allow for an examination of both formal and informal leadership processes at any level of an organization.

Centuries after distance became a factor for individuals and organizations, we now need to develop a holistic understanding of how distance is perceived by leaders and followers. This paper is intended to encourage further research on the dimensions of relational distance and the impacts of their interaction. It is reassuring that other researchers have begun to recognize the importance of distance, but we must move beyond uni-dimensional, independent operationalizations. I anticipate that further use of this three-dimensional construct of relational distance will lead to greater recognition of its complexity and its effects on a wide variety of organizational relationships.

About the Author

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Appendix Interview Guide

1. What is your job title? Describe your job responsibilities.
 - a. Describe the nature of your work. What sorts of tasks do you work on?
 - b. Do you have the ability to determine/alter the type/number of tasks, the way tasks fit together to make up the whole, the individuals with whom you interact, the nature of those interactions?
2. Tell me about the relationship that you have with your co-workers.
 - a. How do you communicate with your co-workers?
 - b. How often do you communicate with your co-workers?
 - c. Do you consider yourself part of a work group? What size is the group?
 - i. Do you feel connected to your work group? To the company?
3. Tell me about the relationship that you have with your supervisor.
 - a. How do you communicate with your supervisor?
 - b. How often do you communicate with your supervisor?
 - c. Does he/she have an effect on you, the way you do your job?
 - d. When was the last time that they influenced you? What happened?
4. Do you ever meet with your supervisor or your co-workers outside of work? Tell me about it.
5. Are there organizational processes for working remotely?
6. Do you have any experience working virtually?
 - a. Tell me about how and when you started working virtually.
 - i. Probe: voluntary, instigator, reward, reasons, length of time, technology used
 - ii. Do you think you are effective when working virtually?
 - iii. How did you learn what to do in this situation?
7. What is working virtually like?
8. What are the issues?
9. What are the benefits?
10. What bugs you?
11. Who (in this organization) has the most influence on you?
 - a. How and why?



SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOR AND EMPLOYEE PRESENTEEISM

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Presenteeism happens when employees are at work, but their cognitive energy is not devoted to their work. This study investigated the extent to which supervisor behavior is associated with employee presenteeism. It also investigated the efficacy of a measure of job-stress-related presenteeism. Australian employees completed a questionnaire asking how often they experience job-stress-related presenteeism and about their supervisors' behaviors. Results supported the hypothesis that supervisor behavior is associated with employees' presenteeism. Negative supervisor behaviors were more strongly correlated with presenteeism than positive supervisor behaviors. These results suggest presenteeism is subject to supervisor influence. In addition, results indicate that the measure of job-stress-related presenteeism pilot-tested in this study has good internal-consistency reliability and validity.

Those who seek to improve employees' quality of work-life by creating psychologically healthy work environments face a challenge: How does one get top management to devote the high-degree of attention necessary to improve the work environment? Top managers deal with a host of competing demands, so adding another item to their list of concerns is likely to be difficult. However, it may be easier to convince managers and business owners to monitor and improve workplace psychosocial factors if one can demonstrate that those factors affect outcomes of concern to them. Some organizations have already done this. Harrah's Entertainment and American Standard, for example, quantitatively measured how management practices affect employees and how those effects are transmitted through the service-profit chain to earnings (Grossman, 2006).

Although using these types of sophisticated measurement systems is tenable for organizations with sales of billions of dollars per year, it may not be for many organizations. What we seek, therefore, is a more simple, though still convincing, means of showing managers how it is in their interest to create psychosocially healthy work environments. This goal does not

include complicated causal chains and layers of intervening variables. Instead, we would like to show managers how their own behavior affects employee behavior.

Managers get things done mostly not by way of their own efforts, but through the efforts of their employees. For high-level results, managers need employees who are focused and productive. Mid- and lower-level managers are likely to be particularly affected by employees who are not highly focused on their work. Cooper (1994) argued that the costs of such employees,

...come in the form of lack of added value to the product or service rendered, or indeed, even a decrement to performance, in the sense that additional labour or materials are required to rectify the poor quality product or service. This is the great hidden cost of stress at work, that is, of not adequately creating the work environments that lead to enhanced well-being and productivity. (p. 2)

We, therefore, set out to identify management-practice outcomes that would be salient to managers, but not prohibitively difficult to assess. We wanted variables (a) with evident effects on productivity and on managers themselves; (b) that would not be unduly difficult to measure or which are causally ambiguous (such as health-care costs); and (c) that would be easily understood and face valid. The concept of presenteeism fulfills this description.

Presenteeism

Presenteeism occurs when employees are physically present, but mentally absent. In other words, employees are at work, but their cognitive energy is not devoted to their work. In some cases, they will be going through the motions of work while their attention is focused elsewhere. In other cases, they will not be working at all. So, unlike absenteeism, where the employee is either present or absent, there will be varying degrees of presenteeism.

We were introduced to the construct by Cooper (1994), who defined presenteeism as "...people turning up to work, who are so distressed by their jobs or some aspect of the organizational climate that they contribute little, if anything, to their work" (p. 2). As defined by Cooper, then, presenteeism is a consequence of a negative work environment. This article agrees that employees suffering from presenteeism are not giving their full attention to their job. Such employees are likely to be less productive, make more mistakes, provide lower-quality service, and be less innovative, which has repercussions for the organization and its managers. Managers are judged by their results, and many of these results are achieved through the efforts of rank-and-file employees. Many organizations today are downsized and lean, and there are fewer co-workers who can pick up the slack left by presentees.

Furthermore, mistakes or "intellectual accidents" (Williams & Cooper, 1999) made by mentally absent employees can be extremely costly. Williams and Cooper related how a machine setter, "Geoff," distracted by domestic worries, performed his work on autopilot. Unfortunately, the job he was working on was an initial production run for a new customer for whom Geoff's employer had spent a great deal of time and money to win business. His supervisor monitored the setup, but could not tell that, "although Geoff's body was doing the work, his mind was elsewhere" (p. 52). The parts produced and shipped did not meet the customer's needs and caused a serious loss of production, resulting in a cancellation of further business with the firm. This incident clearly illustrates how managers and organizations have an interest in minimizing presenteeism.

Presenteeism and Job Stress

Research on presenteeism has been predominately related to presenteeism resulting from health problems. In fact, some researchers have defined presenteeism as “the problem of workers being on the job but, because of illness or other medical conditions, not fully functioning” (Hemp, 2004, p. 49). We disagree with this narrow view of presenteeism. This would be analogous to conceptualizing absenteeism as not being on the job because of illness or other medical conditions when absenteeism can be a result of a variety of different causes. This paper purports that presenteeism is better conceptualized like absenteeism, or as a phenomenon with a nearly limitless number of possible causes. Additionally, more accurate nomenclature for presenteeism scales should also be implemented. The *Stanford Presenteeism Scale*, for example, would be more aptly named the Stanford Health-Related Presenteeism Scale. The reason for pointing this out is not to malign worthwhile streams of research. Rather, it is to ensure that researchers interested in presenteeism and its effects are clear about what they are attempting to measure, which, in this case, is job-stress-related presenteeism. More precise nomenclature (e.g., “sickness presenteeism”) has emerged in some recent articles (Caverley, Cunningham, & McGregor, 2007; Quick, Macik-Frey, & Cooper 2007).

Along with other researchers (Beehr & Schuler, 1978; Dohrenwend, 1978; Mohr & Puck, 2007; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Perlman & Hartman, 1982; Sulsky & Smith, 2005), this article conceptualizes stress as the mediator between stressors and strains. In terms of the nomological network, what we are referring to as *job-stress-related presenteeism* is a form of psychological strain whose antecedent is job stress. It is predicted that job-stress-related presenteeism will have non-causal negative correlations with outcomes such as job satisfaction and work engagement, and positive correlations with other psychological strains (e.g., burnout). The consequences of presenteeism are hypothesized to be reduced quality and quantity of work. It is expected that work quality will be especially vulnerable because, as illustrated by the Geoff scenario, it is possible for workers to go through the motions of their work while suffering from stress-related presenteeism.

Among related constructs, job-stress-related presenteeism is most closely the opposite of Rothbard's (2001, p. 656) conceptualization of engagement, which focuses on attention (“the cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role”) and absorption (“the intensity of one's focus on a role”). This paper, however, does not regard presenteeism as merely work disengagement or low engagement. Most definitions of engagement (Rothbard; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Roma, & Bakker, 2002) characterize it as pervasive and role-based, whereas presenteeism is more transitory and situational (event-based).

The next section focuses on one potential stressor and our primary independent variable: supervisor behavior. The term supervisor is used because this study is primarily targeting the effects of an employee's immediate boss rather than management in general.

Supervisor Behavior

It is known that supervisors can have a significant influence on employees' morale and their work behavior (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Walker, Guest, & Turner, 1956). Since the 1970s, researchers have learned that supervisors affect employees' psychological well-being (Gavin & Kelley, 1978; Sheridan & Vredenburg, 1978). These findings continued to cumulate through the 1980s and 1990s (Duxbury, Armstrong, Drew, & Henly, 1984; Landeweerd &

Boumans, 1994; Martin & Schinke, 1998; Seltzer & Numerof, 1988). Stout (1984), for example, found that supervisor behavior was related to employees' health problems and their level of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion.

More recently, Karlin, Brondolo, and Schwartz (2003) found that support from supervisors was negatively related to systolic blood pressure for employees in high-stress conditions. Similarly, Wager, Fieldman, and Hussey (2003) found that employees' blood pressure was higher when they were working under a less-favorably perceived supervisor, and the measured difference was high enough to make it a potential risk factor for the development of coronary heart disease. Karimi (2008) reported that supervisory support has significant effects on employees' well-being and intrinsic job satisfaction. In similar studies (Karimi & Nouri, 2009; Karimi, Karimi, & Nouri, 2011), researchers reported that the degree of perceived managerial/supervisory support in the workplace is associated with the experience of work-family conflict and employees' perceived level of well-being. Gilbreath and Benson (2004) found behavior of supervisors to be predictive of employees' psychological well-being. They also found that supervisors were a more significant influence on well-being than co-workers, friends, and family members.

It is apparent that supervisors can be a key influence on what employees experience at work, and the list of outcomes associated with supervisor behavior continues to grow. Jansson and Linton (2006) found that employees who perceived their supervisor as supportive were more likely to recover from insomnia than employees who saw their supervisor as unsupportive. And Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that abusive supervision was associated with family undermining, suggesting that abused employees unload supervisor-induced aggression after they get home. Findings like these are less surprising when one considers that, for many employees, the supervisor is the most influential psychosocial factor in one's workplace (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). Furthermore, supervisors are a particularly accessible leverage point from which to alter the workplace (Bunker & Wijnberg, 1985). Supervisors should play a role in creating healthier workplaces because they can eliminate or reduce the effects of some negative work factors plaguing employees. Even supervisors with limited control over other workplace stressors can control their own behavior (Stout, 1984).

The Supervisor Behavior-Presenteeism Link

Donaldson (2003) noted, "anyone who has ever worked for anyone else will tell you that one's manager has an enormous influence on the level of stress in the workplace" (p. 27). It is not difficult to find further support for Donaldson's assertion (e.g., Lind & Otte, 1994; Oaklander & Fleishman, 1964; Offermann & Hellmann, 1996). Peterson (1999) found lack of consideration by management to be the major determinant of stress among employees he studied. Also, Gilbreath (2001) found that supervisor behaviors such as ignoring employee suggestions, being a guarded (i.e., not open) communicator, and leaving employees out of the communication loop had particularly strong correlations with employees' job stress.

Supervisors can also have positive effects on employees' degree of experienced stress. Yarker, Donaldson-Feilder, Lewis, and Flaxman (2007) identified 19 clusters of supervisor behaviors reported to be helpful in managing employees' pressure and stress, including managing workload and resources, dealing with work problems, increasing accessibility and visibility, and taking responsibility. Gilbreath (2001) found behaviors such as planning work to manage its demands, balancing workloads equitably, and trying to see employees' sides of

situations to have especially strong negative correlations with employees' job stress. Therefore, *ceteris paribus*, employees working for a supervisor who treats them well will experience less stress and presumably less presenteeism than employees working for one who treats them poorly. Thus, the first general hypothesis for this study is:

- H1: Both negative and positive supervisor behavior will be associated with employees' job-stress-related presenteeism.

Although both positive and negative supervisor behavior may influence the degree to which employees experience presenteeism, we wondered which would have a greater influence. A review of theory and literature related to that question revealed Taylor's (1991) mobilization perspective, which suggests that negative events receive a disproportionate amount of cognitive attention. This perspective conforms to our experience as researchers of managerial behavior. We have collected hundreds of critical incidents of managerial behavior from employees at many different work sites. Although we have asked for both positive and negative incidents, we have found that negative incidents outnumber positive incidents by roughly a 3-to-1 margin.

Taylor's (1991) work indicated that negative events "elicit more physiological, affective, cognitive, and behavioral activity...than neutral or positive events" (p. 67). As Newsom, Nishishiba, Morgan, and Rook (2003) stated, "negative information or events have adaptive significance and lead to greater physiological arousal, trigger more cognitive processing, and are ascribed greater importance" (p. 752). This could be a result of natural selection, which may have led us to have stronger reactions to negative stimuli than to positive stimuli (Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997). Some researchers believe that negative stimuli attract attention through an automatic vigilance mechanism and that, once attended, have stronger effects than positive stimuli (Ito, Larsen, Smith, & Cacioppo, 1998). This is supported by the work of Newsom et al., who concluded that negative social interactions have longer-lasting effects than positive social interactions. In addition, in their study on employee burnout and its relationship with leadership styles, Hetland, Sandal, and Johnsen (2007) found that perceptions of negative leadership behaviors are more important for burnout than perceptions of positive leadership behaviors.

Based on Taylor's (1991) mobilization perspective and the related body of previous research, it is also predicted:

- H2: Negative supervisor behavior will have stronger associations with job-stress-related presenteeism than positive supervisor behavior.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from Australian employees in two hospitals. This was a "convenience sample" in the sense that we contacted these organizations and they permitted access to their employees. Packets containing an introduction to the study, an invitation to participate, and a questionnaire were mailed to 400 employees. An email reminder was also sent to potential participants. A total of 180 responses were received, yielding a response rate of 45%. A review of data revealed that 31 questionnaires were unusable because of incompleteness,

resulting in a final dataset based on the responses of 149 employees. The resulting sample was 59% male with a median age of 31. Eleven percent of respondents were in managerial/supervisory positions, 18% were in manual positions, and 71% were in non-manual (e.g. administrative, technical, sales) positions. Among these, 46% were working part-time and 54% were full-time employees.

Measures

The data were collected via a paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Except for demographics and controls, all variables were measured using Likert-type response formats.

Demographic and control variables. Data were collected on each respondents' age, type of work (part-time or full-time status), and hours worked per week.

Supervisor behavior. Supervisor behavior was measured with the *Supervisor Practices Instrument* (SPI), which was created to study the effects of supervisor behavior on employee well-being (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, n.d.). It is a conglomerative measure of positive and negative supervisor behaviors from which composite scores are calculated (Gilbreath, 2005). Higher scores on the SPI indicate that, according to employee respondents, their supervisor engages more frequently in positive behaviors and less often in negative behaviors. The response anchors range from *all the time* (5) to *never* (1). Scores on the SPI have been found to be predictive of employee psychiatric disturbance (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004).

The SPI was chosen because the primary interest of this study is the overall effect of supervisor behavior on employees' stress-related presenteeism, not in narrow sub-types of supervisor behavior (e.g., initiation of structure, supervisor support). In other words, this study is investigating the extent to which how someone supervises employees affects the employees' degree of presenteeism rather than in associations between specific factors of supervisor behavior and presenteeism. The aim of this study, therefore, is more closely aligned with a question such as, "does whether someone is perceived by employees to be a good or bad boss affect employees' presenteeism?" than it is with a question such as, "does transactional or transformational leadership show stronger associations with presenteeism?" The SPI's 63 items encompass a wide variety of supervisor behaviors, including those related to job control (e.g., "Is flexible about how I accomplish my objectives"); leadership (e.g., "Makes me feel like part of something useful, significant, and valuable"); communication (e.g., "Encourages employees to ask questions"); consideration (e.g., "Shows appreciation for a job well done"); social support (e.g., "Steps in when employees need help or support"); group maintenance (e.g., "Fails to properly monitor and manage group dynamics"); organizing (e.g., "Plans work to level out the load, reduce peaks and bottlenecks"); and looking out for employee well-being (e.g., "Strikes the proper balance between productivity and employee well-being") (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004).

In addition to the breadth of behaviors it encompasses, using the SPI enabled us to create measures of positive supervisor behavior and negative supervisor behavior. The measure of positive supervisor behavior is comprised of the SPI's 52 positive behaviors. Example items include: "Shields employees from unnecessary interference so they can perform their jobs effectively and productively"; "Balances the workload among employees equitably"; and "Admits when he/she is wrong or makes a mistake." The variable *positive supervisor behavior* was created by calculating the mean score on the 52 items. Likewise, the measure of negative supervisor behavior is comprised of the SPI's 11 negative behaviors. Example items include:

“Ignores employee suggestions”; “Tends to be guarded (e.g., not open) in his/her communication”; and “Remains aloof from employees.” The variable *negative supervisor behavior* was created by calculating the mean score on the 11 items.

Job stress. Job-related stress was measured with two items created by Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986) to assess the stress employees experience because of their job: “I have felt a great deal of stress because of my job”; and “My job has been extremely stressful.” The scale anchors were *strongly disagree* (5) and *strongly agree* (1). For final analysis, the scale anchors were reversed to be consistent with other study variables. Thus, higher scores on this scale suggest higher levels of job stress.

Job-stress-related presenteeism. As noted earlier, the working definition of presenteeism for this study is when employees are physically present, but mentally absent. Job-stress-related presenteeism occurs when employees are at work, but, because of job stress, only a portion of their cognitive energy is devoted to their work. To measure job-stress-related presenteeism, a self-report scale created by Gilbreath and Frew (2008) was used. This study is the first applied use of that scale, which was created to fill the need for a measure of job-stress-related presenteeism. The scale anchors are *all the time* (5) and *never* (1). It asks employees to respond to six items: “I’m unable to concentrate on my job because of work-related stress”; “I spend a significant proportion of my workday coping with work stress”; “work stress distracts my attention away from my job tasks”; “mental energy I’d otherwise devote to my work is squandered on work stressors”; “I delay starting on new projects at work because of stress”; and “I spend time talking to co-workers about stressful work situations.”

Results

Internal-consistency reliability for most measures was good. The Cronbach’s alpha for the measure of negative supervisor behavior was .92, .98 for positive supervisor behavior, and .91 for job-stress-related presenteeism. Internal-consistency reliability for the measure of job stress was acceptable ($\alpha = .80$).

To test the discriminant validity of the positive and negative dimensions of supervisor behavior, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed with the entire sample. Since there are computational limitations for a structural equation analysis involving too many indicators, three-item parcels were used for each construct to reduce the number of indicators, consistent with other researchers (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). Specifically, the items with the highest and the lowest loading were combined by averaging them until three aggregated items were yielded. Model fit was evaluated using the chi-square statistic, the chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio, the goodness-of-fit index, the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index, and the root-mean square error of approximation. The one-factor model (no dimension of supervisor behavior) was compared with the two-factor model (positive and negative supervisor behavior). The results suggest an adequate fit to the data. As shown in Table 1, the chi-square statistic and associated fit indices showed a substantial improvement for the two-factor model ($\chi^2 = 18.58$, robust CFI = 0.99) compared to one factor model ($\chi^2 = 486.50$, robust CFI = 0.54), suggesting the validity of the two-factor model of supervisor behavior.

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all study variables are presented in Table 2. As indicated, employees’ presenteeism was significantly correlated with age, job stress, and negative and positive supervisor behavior ($p < .01$).

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Two-Factor Model of Supervisor Behavior

Models	χ^2	df	CFI
One-factor model (one dimension)	486.50	9	0.54
Two-factor model (positive-negative supervisor behavior)	18.58	8	0.99

Table 2

Pearson Inter-Correlation among All Variables (N = 149)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	31.1	7.5		0.33	0.33	-0.23	-0.06	-0.11	0.15
2. Work type (full-time/part-time)	--	--			0.72	-0.14	0.02	-0.09	0.08
3. Working hours	38.0	5.83				-0.16	0.07	-0.12	0.16
4. Presenteeism	1.44	0.81					0.53	0.57	-0.36
5. Job stress	1.64	0.95						0.34	-0.35
6. Negative supervisor Behavior	1.51	0.69							-0.53
7. Positive supervisor Behavior	2.30	0.66							

Recall the first hypothesis that both negative and positive supervisor behavior would be associated with employees' job-stress-related presenteeism. This hypothesis is supported by the statistically significant correlations between presenteeism and positive and negative supervisor behavior. Further analysis, using hierarchical regression, was conducted to investigate the level of association of each dimension of supervisor behavior with presenteeism. As shown in Table 3, Step 1 of the hierarchical regression analysis required controlling for the effects of demographic variables that often are associated with employees' reactions to work: age, part- or full-time employment, and hours worked per week. Then, Step 2 involved entering the negative supervisor behavior variable to test its ability to make an incremental contribution to the prediction of presenteeism beyond that made by the control variables. The results show that negative supervisor behavior made a statistically significant contribution to the prediction of presenteeism scores ($\beta = 0.50$) beyond the Step 1 variate, comprised of age, part- or full-time employment ("work type"), and hours worked per week (i.e., "working hours").

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Presenteeism, Demographic, & Negative Supervisor Behavior Variables (N = 149)

Variables	Step 1	Step 2
	β	B
Age	-0.23**	-0.20*
Work type	-0.15	-0.05
Working hours	0.02	.003
Negative supervisor behavior		0.50***
R	0.30	0.56
ΔR^2	0.09	0.32
F	3.56**	12.52***

Note: *** = $p < .001$; ** = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$.

Similar results were found for positive supervisor behavior. As reported at Table 4, positive supervisor behavior made significant contribution to the prediction of presenteeism ($\beta = -0.33$).

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Presenteeism, Demographic & Positive Supervisor Behavior Variables (N = 149)

Variables	Step 1	Step 2
	B	B
Age	-0.23*	-0.18
Work type	-0.16	-0.17
Working hours	0.03	0.07
Positive supervisor behavior		-0.33**
R	0.31	0.45
ΔR^2	0.09	0.20
F	3.88*	6.98**

Note: ** = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$.

The correlations in Table 2 provide some indication of the veracity of the second hypothesis—that negative supervisor behavior would have stronger associations with job-stress-related presenteeism than positive supervisor behavior. The absolute value of the correlation between positive supervisor behavior and presenteeism (-.36) is much smaller than that for negative supervisor behavior (.57). Hierarchical regression analysis was used to conduct an additional test of the difference in degree of association. Control variables (age, part- or full-time employment, and hours worked per week) were entered in Step 1, positive supervisor behavior in Step 2, and negative supervisor behavior in Step 3. As shown in Table 5, although positive supervisor behavior was significant at Step 2 of the analysis ($\beta = -0.36, p < .01$), it did not make a statistically significant contribution to the prediction of presenteeism beyond negative supervisor behavior (Step 3 of the analysis) ($\beta = -0.08, p > .01$). This supports the hypothesis that negative supervisor behavior will have stronger associations on job-stress-related presenteeism than positive supervisor behavior.

Table 5 <i>Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Presenteeism, Demographic & Supervisor Behavior Variables (N = 149)</i>			
Variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Age	-0.23	-0.17	-0.18**
Work type	-0.15	-0.16	-0.06
Working hours	0.02	0.05	0.01
Positive supervisor behavior		-0.36**	-0.08
Negative supervisor behavior			0.43***
<i>R</i>	0.30	0.46	0.56
ΔR^2	0.09	0.12	0.10
<i>F</i>	3.56*	17.03***	16.77***

Note: The coefficients are standardized beta weights. *** = $p < .001$; ** = $p < .01$; * = $p < .05$.

To express the effect sizes of supervisor behavior, the common language effect size indicator for bivariate normal correlations was calculated (Dunlap, 1994). Results in the sample indicated that if employees rated their supervisor's behavior above average, the probability was 43% that their presenteeism would be below average.

Thus, these supervisor behaviors had the highest correlation (positive or negative) with employee presenteeism (with corresponding Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients):

- *fails to properly monitor and manage group dynamics* (.58);
- *makes decisions that affect employees without seeking their input* (.47);
- *shows disinterest in employees' ideas and projects* (.47);
- *is easily threatened by competent employees* (.46);
- *remains aloof from employees* (.46);
- *ignores employees' suggestions* (.45);

- and *tends to be guarded (e.g. not open) in his/her communication (.42).*

The supervisor behavior with the highest negative correlation with employee presenteeism (Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient = $-.38$) was *helps employees keep work in perspective (e.g., there is more to life than work).*

Discussion

Summary of Results

Internal-consistency reliability and discriminant validity for the measures of job-stress-related presenteeism and the two dimensions of supervisor behavior were acceptable. As expected, job stress and presenteeism were positively correlated. The first hypothesis, that both negative and positive supervisor behavior would be associated with employees' job-stress-related presenteeism, was supported. Further analysis showed that negative supervisor behaviors had the strongest associations with employee job-stress-related presenteeism. Among demographic characteristics, age showed a negative and significant correlation with job-stress-related presenteeism.

Implications for Research

This study marks the first known attempt to operationalize Cooper's (1994) conceptualization of presenteeism. To the extent that a construct can be "seen," like Cooper, we have observed presenteeism in ourselves and our co-workers. Although further refinement and testing is needed, we believe job-stress-related presenteeism is a legitimate construct and one that should be incorporated into models of occupational stress and lists of stress outcomes.

Initial psychometrics used in this study for the job-stress-related presenteeism scale (Gilbreath & Frew, 2008) were favorable. Internal-consistency reliability and validity were high, and reactions of our respondents to the measure suggests it is not difficult to comprehend or taxing to complete. If further tests of its utility and validity are favorable, it may prove useful to others who are interested in the effects of job stress on employees.

The finding that negative supervisor behaviors had the strongest correlations with job-stress-related presenteeism contributes to understanding of outcomes associated with negative leader behavior (Fox & Stallworth, 2004; Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). It is not particularly surprising that negative supervisor behaviors had strong associations with employee presenteeism, but it was surprising that *all* of the most strongly associated behaviors were negative. These results align with Taylor's (1991) assertion that negative events elicit more cognitive analysis than positive events. As Taylor explained, "extended energies are taken up in the management of negative information and events" (p. 80). Incidents of negative supervisor behavior and other negative work events will therefore be of particular interest when identifying antecedents of employee job-stress-related presenteeism.

However, this study also suggests there are positive supervisor behaviors that may affect the degree to which employees experience presenteeism. Supervisor behaviors that help employees keep their work in perspective may be especially helpful. This may be because of the pressure many employees experience in attempting to balance their work and home life. Employees with role pressures from the non-work domain may experience more presenteeism at work. A supervisor with the attitude that there is more to life than work could help employees

maintain balance in the face of competing demands, thereby helping to reduce role conflict, stress, and presenteeism.

We believe that considering presenteeism as an outcome with a variety of antecedents will help to discover which antecedents are most prevalent and which have the strongest effects. This study was based on the premise that, like health problems, job stress is a causal antecedent of presenteeism. Longitudinal research is needed to establish the validity of that presumed relationship.

Implications for Practice

The finding that supervisor behavior is associated with job-stress-related presenteeism is important given the competitive environment faced by organizations today. Many organizations are downsized and operating with lean workforces, exacerbating the effects of employees who are distracted and unable to concentrate on their jobs. Many organizations are facing global competition, and a productive, focused workforce is a competitive advantage. Organizations, therefore, may be interested in minimizing stress-related presenteeism by ensuring that supervisors engage in appropriate behaviors. In this study, the association of supervisor behavior with presenteeism was large enough to be not only statistically significant, but also practically significant.

Strengths of Our Study

Although this study clearly has practical implications, it makes theoretical contributions, as well. First, it makes a case for broadening the conceptualization of presenteeism. Second, it establishes a new supervisor behavior-outcome link. Job-stress-related presenteeism, an understudied phenomenon, is another outcome subject to supervisor influence. Third, it pilot-tested a measure of job-stress-related presenteeism. This scale appears to have good face validity and internal-consistency reliability. Fourth, it suggests presenteeism is another factor subject to supervisor influence, and it provides additional evidence of the important effects supervisors can have on employees.

Limitations of Our Study

There are potential shortcomings of this study that qualify the conclusions drawn. The exclusive use of questionnaire-based measures creates the potential for mono-method bias. One way to detect inflated correlations caused by mono-method bias or other causes (e.g., social desirability) is to examine correlations between all variables in a data set for a baseline level of correlation. As Spector (2006) noted, “unless the strength of CMV [common method variance] is so small as to be inconsequential, this baseline should produce significant correlations among all variables reported in such [cross-sectional, self-report] studies” (p. 224). In this case, although the sample size was big enough to provide a power of .80 to detect even small correlations ($r = 0.23$), 11 out of 21 correlations (52%) were insignificant.

Another potential limitation is the study's exclusive reliance on data provided by employees rather than data from co-workers or outsiders. This study, however, was concerned with variables for which employee-provided data are arguably the best feasible measures. Concerning supervisor behavior, observer effects and threats to validity, such as reactivity,

makes it questionable whether a third party could provide a more valid measure of supervisor behavior. Although employee reports of supervisor behaviors are undoubtedly subject to potential distortion, when compared to outside observers, employees are proximal and frequent observers of their supervisors' behaviors. Furthermore, employees have a better understanding of the work context and the implications and nuances of a particular behavior.

Concerning presenteeism, Donaldson and Grant-Vallone (2002) noted, "one should not automatically assume that self-reports are the inferior source of data in workplace research" or "that co-worker or supervisor reports are necessarily better than self-reports" (p. 257). Presenteeism is, for the most part, an unobservable mental state that is difficult to verify. Because of employees' ability to appear to be working while distracted by stressors, even co-workers may not be reliable judges of the degree to which an employee suffers from presenteeism. Still, extensions of this exploratory study should, when possible, utilize multiple data sources. Co-worker-reports of employees' presenteeism, for example, could serve as a complementary source of data to help limit mono-method bias.

Another limitation is that this study was cross sectional. An ideal study of the effects of supervisor behavior would study a sample of employees over time, making it possible to measure changes in presenteeism, for example, after work groups were assigned new supervisors. Although this study was cross sectional, this does not invalidate the results. Stress-related presenteeism often quickly follows causal supervisor behavior. For example, if a supervisor behaves rudely in a morning meeting, many of his employees are likely to spend a proportion of the rest of the workday attempting to cope with the after-effects. In contrast to some other stress-related problems (e.g., musculoskeletal disorders), presenteeism would not take long to manifest.

Could reverse causality explain these findings? It is likely that supervisors behave differently with employees who are known to frequently engage in presenteeism. It is unlikely, however, that this would explain away the correlations found in this study. Although supervisors' behavior may sometimes fluctuate depending on the employee they're interacting with, most of them will have a generally consistent style of supervision.

Avenues for Future Research

It remains to be seen how the research community will perceive stress-related presenteeism. Some scholars (T. W. Taris, personal communication, February 27, 2008) take issue with our conceptualization of presenteeism, arguing that we are creating problems by deviating from the dominant paradigm, which we prefer to call *sickness presenteeism*. However, at conferences we have heard other scholars make the same objections made here about the narrowness of the current conceptualization of presenteeism. Furthermore, we have noticed problems with research using the dominant paradigm. Musich, Hook, Baaner, Spooner, and Edington (2006), for example, defined presenteeism as "health-related on-the-job work impairment" (p. 128). The questionnaire instrument used in their study, however, asks respondents: "how much time did your *stress levels* [italics added], physical or emotional health make it difficult for you to do the following."

A continued dialogue among interested scholars would be helpful to determine which viewpoint will best serve the field. If our broader conceptualization of presenteeism as a type of psychological strain that can result from a variety of causes is judged as potentially value adding, research will be needed to establish convergent and divergent validity for the presenteeism sub-

type focused on in this study. How does job-stress-related presenteeism relate to concepts such as stress, burnout, anxiety, attentional strain, rumination, motivation, job neglect, etc.?

Perceptions of situations are often influenced by individual differences, and there are, undoubtedly, some relevant individual-difference variables (e.g., coping style, ruminative activity) not measured in this study. Research on the individual-difference variables that make people more or less prone to presenteeism would be valuable, as would research on work-environment factors that moderate the relationship between job stress and presenteeism. It seems likely that particular types of social support from co-workers and supervisors could be effective in attenuating the effects of stress.

Conclusion

There have been numerous research and media reports about how bad bosses affect employee well-being (e.g., *Are Mean Managers Making You Sick?*, 1995; Pisano, 2006; Study: Bad bosses abound in U.S., 2007). Any researcher who spends time asking employees about important work factors affecting them will quickly come to appreciate the potentially strong effects of supervisors on employees. As Kelloway, Sivanthan, Francis, and Barling (2005) stated, “leadership is a critical element of context that needs to be considered in understanding organizational stressors” (pp. 90–91). To date, however, there has not been much action in organizations specifically focused on producing healthy supervision. While we believe that well-meaning managers care about the well-being of their employees, individual concern from good bosses is not enough. Organizations need to track how their work environment is affecting their employees. They need to do this not only because it affects employees’ quality of life, but also because it affects organizational effectiveness.

The problem is that monitoring the work environment and changing supervisor behavior will take focused time and attention, which requires top management to buy into the importance of doing it. It is our opinion that more is needed to show line managers how their treatment of employees affects them as managers. Managers are evaluated by the results they achieve, and these results are generally dependent on the employees who implement managers’ directives. Since most organizations are unable to quantitatively track their service-profit chain, it is necessary to demonstrate how the work environment affects performance in a way that is meaningful to managers. Outcomes such as health care costs or employees’ psychological well-being—although of concern—may be less salient than factors that directly affect work unit performance. It is our hope that job-stress-related presenteeism will prove to be an outcome that is salient to managers and a construct that is credible to researchers.

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