The *Journal of Strategic Leadership (JSL)* provides a forum for leadership practitioners and students of strategic leadership around the world by publishing applied articles on topics that enhance knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon of strategic leadership at all levels within a variety of industries and organizations. The JSL is published in electronic format and provides access to all issues free of charge.

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From the Editor

Gary Oster, DSL
Regent University
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Jack Welch, former CEO of General Electric, uttered the prescient phrase, “When the change in the environment is greater than the change inside your company, the end is in sight.” Scores of organizations have found that their inability to adapt to the changing demands of the dynamic global marketplace resulted in sudden death (think Kodak, Borders, Solyndra, American Airlines, et al.).

At the heart of this issue of the *Journal of Strategic Leadership* is the important concept of change: personal change, organizational change, global change. Relative to personal change, Jeff Slattery reviews the human and technological requirements of change, Gary Roberts discusses the importance of workplace spiritual intelligence by servant leaders, and Astrid Garza and Jorge Salcedo consider the mechanisms for encouraging leadership among Mexican college students. Regarding organizational change, Jeanne McDonnell held a strategic conversation with Dr. Pat Robertson, founder of The Christian Broadcasting Network and Regent University. Moises Aguirre-Mar details the global structural design and related effects on PepsiCo Mexico, and John Lanier outlines value-creation options in companies and how they alter leadership actions.

Leadership authority Stanley Gryskiewicz noted, “Ignoring the inevitability of change can be fatal.” Through a relentless focus on the necessity of personal and corporate adaptation, may we survive, and thrive, in the tumultuous future.
Article Abstracts

**Change Management**
Jeff Slattery

The ubiquitous nature of change seems to imply that change comes easily, but this is certainly not the case in most instances. The world of business and information technology requires frequent, and at times significant, change initiatives. Successful change appears even more elusive, and thus, the following information strives to address the major factors that aid in change management. The paper describes the technical and human elements of change and includes components of change management that relate to the field of information system management. The results provide guidelines and processes for successfully implementing change initiatives.

**Global Structural Design and Results: PepsiCo Case**
Moises Aguirre-Mar

As a global company, PepsiCo represents an interesting case study for the review of some theoretical elements of structural design: (1) international development level, from Galbraith (2000), (2) international structure, from Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, and Kerr (2002), and (3) healthiness level of its hierarchy. Also, in order to assess the organization’s level of flexibility, the article focuses on PepsiCo’s Mexico Food (PMF) business unit and its Consumer Strategic Insights (CSI) department. PepsiCo is a company that intends to continue its growth by strategically increasing its participation in the healthy food market; in this process, the company has faced many challenges and setbacks that add an interesting perspective for this review.
**Five Elements for Encouraging Leadership Among Mexican Undergraduate Students**
Astrid Garza and Jorge Salcedo

Leadership is formed by a diverse array of elements, and leaders need to be prepared to portray different skills according to the context, situation, and the constituent’s needs. So, how can we teach leadership and prepare the next generation of leaders? The article proposes five elements for encouraging leadership development among Mexican undergraduate students. Also, the article presents some leadership theories and leadership scholars’ ideas. In addition, Mexican history and Mexico’s current context is described, with the purpose of considering it as background information for teaching leadership to Mexican undergraduate students. The five specific elements the authors propose and seek to develop among undergraduate students are: self-awareness, life’s mission and vision, social awareness, critical thinking, and teamwork skills. Using the background information and the five elements of leadership proposed, the authors describe a newly developed leadership course which is currently being taught as a main stream course to all the undergraduate students of the Universidad de Monterrey.

**A Strategic Conversation with Dr. Pat Robertson**
Jeanne M. McDonnell

Strategic conversations can mine valuable information from strategic leaders from which others can draw encouragement, knowledge, and best practices. This essay discusses one such interview with Christian Broadcasting Network founder, Dr. Pat Robertson, who successfully put strategy into practice. Other organizations that he founded include Regent University, Operation Blessing International, and WorldReach. Current strategic leadership literature was reviewed in order to develop a line of questions that would pull out key contributors to his success. The interview revealed several themes that leaders can put into practice in order to improve their own skills. Included were creation and deployment of a vision, personal leadership traits, leveraging technology, encouraging innovation, and more. This strategic conversation also provided advice not normally found in leadership literature including the importance of humility, faith, and harmony.
Value Creation Options and Their Leadership Implications
John A. Lanier

Value creation is integral to organizational enterprise value. Many options are available to leaders, including innovation. The variety of innovative opportunities may elude neophytes. Moreover, innovative principles overlap and complement numerous other value creating concepts. However, these principles stop shy of being synonymous. Innovation is spawned by creativity. Creativity, unfortunately, does not translate into profitability absent the innovative rigor. While innovation may seem obvious and laudable in hindsight, it is not necessarily welcomed upon its advent. Indeed, innovation’s threat to the status quo begs exceptionally intrepid teams of diverse talent. Moreover, the innovative initiatives beg sponsorship by leaders whose vision appreciates innovators’ indispensability to corporate vitality. This essay endeavors to clarify definitions, connectedness, and guiding principles for incorporating innovation into the firm’s operational personality.

Leadership Coping Skills: Servant Leader Workplace Spiritual Intelligence
Gary E. Roberts

This paper presents the results of a pretest of 77 human resource and city manager respondents in the area of servant leader workplace spiritual intelligence (SLWSI). SLWSI is a subset of research on spiritual intelligence which consists of five components: a capacity for transcendence; the ability to enter higher states of consciousness; the facility to interject the sacred into everyday events; the capability to utilize applied sanctification principles to solve problems; and the ability to engage in ethical and virtuous behavior such as forgiveness, love, transparency, and humility. The results indicate that respondents who scored higher on servant leadership, an important workplace spiritual intelligence attribute, reported lower levels of job stress and higher levels of workforce engagement (more satisfied with peers and job challenge, higher organizational commitment and loyalty, greater motivation to improve performance, and higher overall performance level). SLWSI has great relevancy and promise for managers and executives.
The ubiquitous nature of change seems to imply that change comes easily, but this is certainly not the case in most instances. The world of business and information technology requires frequent, and at times significant, change initiatives. Successful change appears even more elusive, and thus, the following information strives to address the major factors that aid in change management. The paper describes the technical and human elements of change and includes components of change management that relate to the field of information system management. The results provide guidelines and processes for successfully implementing change initiatives.

The level of global competition, corporate scandals, and continually changing governmental regulations and standards requires that firms of all sizes implement change initiatives in order to survive, remain competitive, and be in compliance with laws and standards. The changes range from minute to enterprise-wide and bring many challenges and benefits. Firms that embrace change and utilize it to their advantage receive a comparative advantage that increases their ability to compete and remain efficient in the marketplace. Due to the critical nature of change, the following information describes the role of change management in organizations, discusses the key factors of change, the potential impact, leadership characteristics, common barriers to change, and offers guidelines to aid in the successful implementation of change initiatives.

Gans (2011) states that 80% of firms polled reported experiencing “some” confusion with the concept of change management and another 57% indicated that they “often” experienced confusion during the process of change. These statistics clearly indicate the necessity to implement a clear, consistent, and comprehensive change management strategy (p. 48). Information technology projects are not devoid of change issues, as well. In fact, as Flynn, Pan, Keil, and Mahring (2009) state, IT projects at times “grossly exceed their planned budget and schedules, often by a factor of 2-3 fold or greater”; again these instances emphasize the need to focus on key initiatives and the process of change management (p. 131). The stakes are simply
too high; firms must take change management seriously and dedicate the time and resources necessary to effectively implement the initiatives. The very survival of a firm often depends on their ability to adapt and effectively change with the quickly adapting global business marketplace.

As stated prior, change in business remains a constant and continual process. Firms need to manage changes and, at times, seek to limit the degree of change while at the same time aggressively forging forward with changes, prioritizing becomes a key point.

Change creates a sense of uncertainty, stress, and anxiety for employees, which is often interpreted as resistance by change agents who are already aware of the change and the end results or ramifications. The change agents have spent countless hours developing, revising, and strategizing about how the change will improve business operations or advance the firm, but when the information is presented to frontline employees, they are often surprised and upset by the suggested or required changes. Balestracci (2003) states that firms and individuals in our technological age are “expected to absorb in 10 years what used to be assimilated in two or three generations,” which creates untold stress and has been identified as “corporate craziness” (p. 39). This same author goes on to cite the 85/15 rule: 85% of the problems in an organization derive from faulty process while only 15% or fewer are related to employees, and thus, management should take the stance to “blame the process, not the person” (Balestracci, 2003, p. 40). For some firms this may be a major cultural shift, but doing so decreases defensiveness, makes the actual problem the problem, and enables employees to unite against the problem in creating a solution. Depersonalizing the problem decreases the emotional reactivity to the situation, which allows for, and even encourages, change. Once the emotional reactivity has dissipated, the firm and employees are able to move into the change mode. The ability to respond appropriately requires five essential skills:

1. Self-awareness
2. Emotional maturity
3. Self-motivation
4. The ability to show empathy
5. The ability to develop and maintain positive relationships (Balestracci, 2003 p. 42)

Displaying these skills and abilities makes the change process much easier and flow more smoothly, but there are leadership and corporate cultural characteristics and factors that are also essential for a success change process.

Bejestani (2011) states that, “management is partly science and partly art” (p. 302). The human-side or soft-skills account for a major element of change, even with regard to the technical aspects of change. IT systems or applications do not develop, install, and maintain themselves. People are at the center of change, and the successful implementation of change requires leadership and management acumen. Great leaders and managers are able to overcome
resistance, unite employees, create a shared vision, and motivate employees or a team to implement change and accomplish tasks. Bejestani (2011) lists the following leadership characteristics:

- Consistency—to build confidence in the people who work for you
- Observation—to observe team members and their behaviors in a positive light
- Problem solving—to make right decisions and solve problems, especially in critical situations
- Training friendly—to believe in the necessity of training and provide resources for training
- Humor—to build happiness without non-logical stress
- Communication—to have face-to-face interactions
- Responsibility—to be responsible for completing objectives (p. 303)

In addition, Bluestone (2011) notes the difficulties associated with change and states that leaders should work to create a culture where mistakes are allowed and discussed in a positive light, using the mistakes and failures as learning opportunity. Employees should not be afraid to report mistakes and failures. The corporate culture should encourage a sense of forgiveness and restoration; employees should not obsess on making the right and perfect decision at the expense of actually implementing a decision and experiencing an error or setback. Bluestone (2011) ends by stating that “cultural change is evolution, not revolution”; this speaks to the continual process of organizational change and change management (p. 21).

Gee and Gee (2011) continue with the same line of thinking by stating the firms should work to “create a culture of change and innovation…which is one the best ways to build organizations that can respond to change in a positive and proactive manner” (p. 31). The actions and behaviors of managers account for up to 50% of how employees view a firm. Managers who encourage the following behaviors and attitudes are working to instill a culture of creativity, innovation, and change, which again provides a competitive advantage for their firm:

- Encourage new and creative idea sharing
- Promote diversity of thinking
- Support conflicting or opposing points of view
- Allow time for innovation and provide resources
- Allow people the freedom to make decisions with parameters
- Nurture risk taking as opposed to being risky (Gee & Gee, 2011, p. 31)
Similarly, firms that primarily operate from a top-down mentality are punitive, allow silos to exist, fail to communicate decisions, are overly controlling and fail to see the value of their employees, severely limit or hinder their ability to react quickly to market trends and implement creative and innovative change initiatives. Although the soft-side of change requires extensive management and interaction, the technical aspects remain and are vital to the process.

Hayes (2010) notes that IT projects are vital for all firms but the role of many IT professionals has changed. IT managers and even frontline staff are not simply able to maintain and interact with IT systems; they are being required more and more to collaborate and negotiate with other functional areas of the business. Hayes (2010) goes on to state that, “the change from provisioning physical IT assets and virtual IT assets is changing the relationship between IT and business units inside and organization” (p. 54). IT professionals are being pushed to not only upgrade existing skills and competencies but to learn, acquire, and utilize a whole new set of skills beyond specific IT skills (Hayes, 2010).

Firms must move beyond utilizing standard management and IT-related change management software and applications, such as SWOT analysis or Balanced Scorecards (Barroso, 2011). Firms that embrace and utilize project management techniques in addition to the standard techniques in developing and designing change management systems and protocols will become much more efficient and innovative in implementing changes that will serve to advance their firms. The time of being able to set back and rely upon prior successful change initiatives and practices has past. Firms must take advanced of their employees’ enthusiasm, creativity, and innovative spirit when diving into major change initiatives. The results will be astonishing; successful, innovative, and creative change projects will become the norm as opposed to the dreaded.

About the Author

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References


Global Structural Design and Results: PepsiCo Case

Moises Aguirre-Mar

As a global company, PepsiCo represents an interesting case study for the review of some theoretical elements of structural design: (1) international development level, from Galbraith (2000), (2) international structure, from Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, and Kerr (2002), and (3) healthiness level of its hierarchy. Also, in order to assess the organization’s level of flexibility, the article focuses on PepsiCo’s Mexico Food (PMF) business unit and its Consumer Strategic Insights (CSI) department. PepsiCo is a company that intends to continue its growth by strategically increasing its participation in the healthy food market; in this process, the company has faced many challenges and setbacks that add an interesting perspective for this review.

PepsiCo Global

According to PepsiCo’s SEC (Securities Exchange Commission) filings, it is a multinational food and beverage company, present in more than 200 countries and regions, organized in four business units: (1) PepsiCo Americas Foods (PAF), which includes Frito-Lay North America (FLNA), Quaker Foods North America (QFNA), and all of the Latin American food and snack businesses (LAF); (2) PepsiCo Americas Beverages (PAB), which includes all North American and Latin American beverage businesses; (3) PepsiCo Europe, which includes all beverage, food and snack businesses in Europe; and (4) PepsiCo Asia, Middle East and Africa (AMEA), which includes all beverage, food and snack businesses in AMEA (PepsiCo, 2012). According to Galbraith, there are five levels of international development: (1) seller; (2) local partner; (3) start-up of foreign operations (FO); (4) implementer FO; and (5) contributor/leader of FO (Galbraith, 2000, p. 36). PepsiCo is located in the level five, which has the following characteristics: (1) international product development; (2) international brand management; (3)
international partnering; (4) transfer and modification resource advantage from any country; (5) cross-unit integration; and (6) management of distributed headquarters (p. 46-47). Galbraith contends: “The organizational challenge to a multinational company has always been the integration of activities that take place in different countries” (p. 3).

PepsiCo, as with most organizations, has adopted a geographical division. Galbraith (2000) said that this structural strategy is implemented due to the following reasons: (1) the customary start-up activities of an expansion—sales, distribution, service, and local marketing—are best organized on a geographical basis; (2) to provide emphasis and focus; (3) to signal strategic positions and possible candidates for upper levels; and (4) allocate and conserve scarce resources (p. 71-72).

PepsiCo has almost 300 thousand employees around the world (PepsiCo, 2012b). According to its webpage, their guiding principles are: “We must always strive to: (1) care for our customers, consumers and the world we live in; (2) sell only products we can be proud of; (3) speak with truth and candor; (3) balance short term and long term; (4) win with diversity and inclusion; (5) respect others and succeed together” (PepsiCo, 2012a). The application of these principles includes all the stakeholders of the company, which is, by the way, a complex task to promote and evaluate. In the line of brand value, Pepsi is ranked in the 22nd place on the Interbrand list. This list evaluates the top global brands’ value; it is interesting that Coca-Cola, PepsiCo’s main competitor, has kept its position as the world’s most valuable brand for the past 12 years (Wharton, 2003, p. 3).

Indra Nooyi has been PepsiCo’s CEO since 2006 (PepsiCo, 2012c). Her main strategic goal is to transform the company “from a purveyor of sugar-laden bubbly beverages and salty snacks, into one that has healthier and more wholesome offerings” (Wharton, 2012, p. 1). However, in the implementation of this strategic process there are some financial setbacks that the company is facing nowadays. “Investors are impatient. Some accuse Nooyi of focusing too intensely on her strategy while overlooking PepsiCo’s North American soft drink business,” which is today’s highest source of revenues (p. 1). Some analysts stated that Nooyi should not abandon her plans; but, rather, she needs to develop a strategy that better balances the short term with the long term. According to Yoram (Jerry) Wind, Wharton’s director of the SEI Center for Advanced Studies in Management, “Companies can be socially responsible, provide more nutritional and healthier products and still be profitable, but it requires careful management of board and Wall Street expectations” (p. 4).

PepsiCo’s Executives’ Income and Hierarchy

**Heroic leadership style and the statements of the top executives.** Stauffer (1998) said that the heroic leadership style is like “CEO-as Patton genre of leadership.” He also mentioned that it is common for organizations to fall into what he called “the self-reinforcing heroic circle” which has the following elements: (1) the leader feels responsible for the group, directions,
structure, and management; (2) the leader takes the initiative, controls the agenda, makes the important decisions; (3) subordinates agree that the leader is responsible for the overall group; (4) subordinates focus on their own subunits; (5) subordinates contribute, but within limited boundaries, provide weak pushback against the leader’s ideas; (6) leaders sense lack of ownership. Then the circle returns to first element and so on. This is a cycle that has the power to self-reinforce the paradigm with its implied virtues and defects. In the 10K SEC filing report, the board of directors made the following statement: “PepsiCo’s Board of Directors… is responsible for overseeing the company’s risk assessment and mitigation, receives updates on key risks throughout the year” (PepsiCo, 2012b). This statement emphasizes the paradigm of heroic leaders and reinforces the hierarchy paradigm, regardless of if it is a healthy one or not (Ashkenas et al., 2002, p. 42). Ashkenas et al. (2002) said that, in vertical hierarchies, roles are clearly defined and more authority resides higher up in the organization than in lower levels…when rank has its privilege, it is a clear symbol of vertical boundaries (p. 10). They also contend that healthy hierarchies are those that meet the success requirements of organizations for the twenty-first century: speed, flexibility, innovation and integration (p. 42).

Healthy vs. unhealthy hierarchy. According to the proxy report, PepsiCo’s CEO earns the highest salary in the company and has access to the greatest compensation package (stock options), followed in amount and access by the immediate inferior organizational ranks and so on (PepsiCo, 2012a, p. 33–38). It seems that this very fact accentuates the hierarchical-heroic paradigm in the company. Traditional hierarchies reward based on positions and levels, and not in superior performance (Ashkenas et al., 2002, p. 50). Despite the fact that hierarchies are required, as Keidel (1995) stated: “No society, organization, or family can ever function without some measure of hierarchical control, role specialization, and sense of limit,” (p. 22), the real question is whether these hierarchies are healthy or unhealthy. Ashkenas et al. (2002) said “there are five warning signals of a dysfunctional hierarchy: (1) slow response time: when an organization takes too long to make decisions, respond to customer requests, or react to changes in market conditions; (2) rigidity toward change: when an organization insists “we have always done this way,” or spend more effort finding ways not to change than on changing; (3) underground activity: when creativity and innovation are driven underground; (4) internal frustration: employees and managers feel dissatisfied with the organization, the way it works and the way it treats them; (5) customer alienation: customers feel frustrated and angry because they feel they are not listened to” (p. 44). Wind pointed out some of the mistakes that have been made under Nooyi’s leadership: “They allowed the firm’s core brand to languish…PepsiCo elected not to advertise during the Super Bowl telecast, one of the most-watched TV events of the year; instead they spent 20 million dollars in a project named the Pepsi refresh project to support local communities; however, according to Advertising Age this project has not had a major influence on the brand’s bottom line. During China’s Olympic Games, Coca-Cola invested heavily in marketing; now they have 17 percent of the market. PepsiCo did not market aggressively in the same period; as a result, PepsiCo’s market share fell to 6 percent. Coca-Cola invested 10 million dollars in the American Idol TV show, after PepsiCo passed on the opportunity to sponsor it;
later on, they sponsored the X Factor, a competing TV show to American Idol, at the cost of 60 million dollars” (Wharton, 2012, p. 3). PepsiCo seems to have been reactive, or at least slow to move in their marketing strategies. The relationship between unhealthy hierarchy and the reward system based on positions are evident. Ashkenas et al. (2002) contend that, in order to create healthy hierarchies, the basis of the reward system must be changed from position to performance with two main objectives: (1) to recognize past performance; and (2) to stimulate competent (or different) performance in the future…people who make good contributions and add to their skills are rewarded (2002, p. 51).

When reviewing these statements in the internal documents of the company, and the observations made by other market analysts, the conclusion is that PepsiCo is a traditional semi-rigid (unhealthy) hierarchy trying to move ahead into a more healthy structure in order to become more competitive in the market. The task is possible, if Wall Street gives them enough time to accomplish it (Wharton, 2012, p. 4). PepsiCo’s third guiding principle is attaining balance with the long and short term, which may be the Achilles’ heel of Nooyi and other PepsiCo top executives (p. 4). The chances to be successful in their plans would increase if the reward system would change from being a reward system based on position to one based on performance.

**PepsiCo Foods Mexico and the CSI department**

**PepsiCo Foods Mexico (PFM).** In order to review PepsiCo’s organizational structure in their Mexico business unit, an interview with Jorge Rubio, national director of CSI (Consumer Strategic Insights) for PFM, was conducted. This unit has two main divisions: beverage and foods. Due to the fact that Rubio’s office is situated inside the foods division, this section of the article focuses on PFM and the CSI department.

According to the SEC 10K report, Latin American foods (LAF) represent $7.2 billion in revenues (PepsiCo, 2012b, p. 4); Rubio said that PFM contributes with $5 billion; representing 7 percent of PepsiCo’s total sales (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). There are three business units within PFM division: (1) Gamesa (cookies and crackers) with headquarters in Monterrey; (2) Sabritas (similar to Lay’s chips), with headquarters in Mexico City; and (3) Quaker (cereals and healthy food) with headquarters in Guadalajara. The three business units are in a merger process since March of 2012; at the end of this process, there will be one business unit with three different approaches according to the market category in which they are competing (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). PFM competes with a leading position in cookies and crackers (Gamesa) and in chips (Sabritas); and also has a small market share in candy categories (Sonrics). In all three categories, the main competitor is Bimbo, which is the largest baking products manufacturer in the world (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012).

The above-mentioned categories in Mexico have an estimated market value of 15 billion, and PFM has a market share of 5 billion or thirty-three percent of the market (J. Rubio, personal
communication, October 25, 2012). Rubio pointed out that the core of this strategic market battle is distribution. Eighty percent of sales are made through direct sales to changarros (family-owned small stores). Coca-Cola is the leader in distribution with a scope of 1.2 million of changarros, whereas Gamesa can only reach 700 thousand changarros (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). This means that every day, thousands of vehicles transport these companies’ products nationwide. There is a popular saying among the Mexican people: they say that even in the most remote villages of the sierra, you will find a changarro with Coca-Cola, Bimbo bread, Gamesa cookies, and Sabritas chips on sale. For this to happen, every company needs to have a highly efficient logistics system to deal with transportation, information technologies, storage, label and packaging requirements, to keep the products fresh and the like (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). Nadler and Tushman said: “No strategy, no matter how dazzling it looks on paper, can succeed unless it is consistent with the structural and cultural capabilities of the organization” (1997, p. 20). The success of these important competing companies shows that they are consistent in their strategies and capabilities, although their distribution methods may differ.

CSI. The interview took place in an office named the brain spa, where CSI members carried out customer qualitative studies. For guests and outsiders, there is not a clue that this office belongs to PFM; everything is designed and planned in such a way that it gives visitors the impression that this office belongs to an independent marketing research company. Nothing in the office is uniform; there are different kinds of chairs, pillows, futons and all in different colors and forms. There are no furniture tables in the place. The fact is that the brain spa is actually a Gesell chamber but it does not look like one; a giant picture of a fishbowl disguises the mirror’s surface. On one side of the room there is bookcase with creativity books and table games to promote creative thinking processes; next to the bookcase, there is a poster which explains the rules of the brain spa: (1) strictly business—consumer’s creativity and innovation; (2) keep it cool and keep it clean; (3) be a stranger, leave your ID at the door; (4) thank you for not smoking; (5) spread the word, talk to someone about it; (6) practice curiosity; (7) take risks, make mistakes; (8) be polite, don’t be loud. Jorge Rubio, a marketing veteran in the company with 25 years of experience in the field, proudly explained that their intention was that the brain spa be similar to Google’s corporate creativity center, a place where flexibility and discontinuity carry out to creative processes to find productive ideas (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012).

In the interview, Rubio pointed out that they decided to change the name and the strategic structure of the former marketing research department (MRD) in order to make it clear that the department was to be more proactive and flexible, not limited to merely being a distributor of the information obtained from the customers. The aim is that this area becomes a change agent for PFM’s commercial area, leading faster reactions to meet their consumers’ requirements, preferences and likes (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). The steps taken at CSI made it clear that their intention is to increase their value offer to PFM. Handy pointed out
that it is expected that executives not only do all that is required in their job’s description, but in some way that they improve on that, to make the difference, to show responsible and appropriate initiative, to increase the potentiality of the position and its contribution to the organizational strategic goals (Handy, 1989, p. 130).

The structural design of CSI has two main groups: (1) insights BU’s, insights team inside each business unit (Gamesa, Sabritas and Sonrics) that supports in research and brand strategy, and (2) the CSI support center, the insights team which designs and executes, with qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, in-house customer studies to support marketing and sales strategies. Regarding the integration of CSI’s team, Rubio stated: “To integrate the CSI department we followed these steps: (1) establish the vision; (2) define core strategies; (3) build a team; (4) assign positions and responsibilities (structure); (5) execution” (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). Although the elements are presented in a different order, they are similar to Galbraith’s star model which has these five elements: “(1) strategy, which is the company’s formula for winning; (2) structure, which determines the placement of power and authority in the organization; (3) processes, information and decisions across the organization in vertical and horizontal processes; (4) rewards, its purpose is to align the goals of the employees with the goals of the organization; (5) people, human resources policies of recruiting, selection, rotation, training, and development” (Galbraith, 2002, p. 9-14).

CSI’s organizational structure is flexible, with an approach on matrix-like processes. It is expected that every business unit and individual become: (1) fast, (2) flexible, (3) efficient, (4) focused on customers, (5) trustworthy, and (6) motivated (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). These characteristics can become a strategic advantage for this business to cope with the requirements of today’s organizations to be competitive. According to Galbraith, there are six organization’s shapers: (1) buyer power, (2) variety and solutions, (3) the Internet, (4) multiple dimensions, (5) change, and (6) speed (Galbraith, 2002, p. 4-6). If CSI department continues to demand and develop these characteristics on each BU and their individuals, they may maintain their market leadership position in the future.

Near the end of the interview, Rubio said that he encourages CSI’s employees to demand for the kind of training that will be useful for increasing their effectiveness in their jobs (J. Rubio, personal communication, October 25, 2012). This approach is aligned with Handy’s proposition for employees to become responsible for their own development as well as the improvement of their job positions (Handy, 1989, p. 130). In this paradigm of a flexible organization, in which it is expected that employees be more self-responsible, the task of managers is that they be more like a teacher, counselor and friend, as much as or more than being a commander, inspector, and judge (p. 132).

Nadler and Tushman pointed out four imperatives in organizational design, and explained them as follows: “(1) organizational design is an essential and ongoing part of each manager’s job; (2)
organizational design emanates from the overall visions for the organization; (3) as managers make design decisions, they must constantly balance the two aspects of organization—the effectiveness of the design in terms of performing the work required by the strategic objectives and the design’s impact on individuals, group relationships, and the political dynamics of the organization; (4) the ultimate goal of design is to use creatively the new structural materials and collateral technologies to achieve a fundamentally new architecture” (Nadler & Tushman, 1997, p. 14). During the interview, Rubio made it evident that, throughout his career as marketing specialist in the company, he has dealt with these imperatives several times. This theoretical reference seems to be aligned with the practical application inside PFM.

Conclusions

Change process implementation becomes more difficult in complex organizations, as is the case of PepsiCo. Unhealthy hierarchies are closely related to reward systems based on position instead of performance. Healthy hierarchies are fast, flexible, innovative and integrative. It is easier to integrate and develop these characteristics in small business units or departments. The attitude of the BU’s leader toward building a healthy hierarchy will determine the unit’s level of flexibility and effectiveness. Strategic and structural changes require from the leaders who promote it, that they consider short and long-term risks, as well as the efforts and consequences implicit in their decisions.

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References


Five Elements for Encouraging Leadership Among Mexican Undergraduate Students

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Leadership is formed by a diverse array of elements, and leaders need to be prepared to portray different skills according to the context, situation, and the constituent’s needs. So, how can we teach leadership and prepare the next generation of leaders? The article proposes five elements for encouraging leadership development among Mexican undergraduate students. Also, the article presents some leadership theories and leadership scholars’ ideas. In addition, Mexican history and Mexico’s current context is described, with the purpose of considering it as background information for teaching leadership to Mexican undergraduate students. The five specific elements the authors propose and seek to develop among undergraduate students are: self-awareness, life’s mission and vision, social awareness, critical thinking, and teamwork skills. Using the background information and the five elements of leadership proposed, the authors describe a newly developed leadership course which is currently being taught as a main stream course to all the undergraduate students of the Universidad de Monterrey.

Keywords: leadership, teaching leadership, undergraduate leadership course, Mexico, self-awareness, life’s mission, social awareness, critical thinking, teamwork, leading by example

While doing a consulting project for a government agency here in Mexico, we were told by the agency’s leader (the client) that they had a problem in the amount and quality of the results delivered by the agency’s staff. The agency’s leader is a young man who finished his
undergraduate studies about three years ago. The client, as well as the consultant, thought that maybe the problem was due to the leadership style used by the leader.

The agency’s leader wanted to be advised regarding how he should change his leadership style. When some interviews were performed, and surveys were submitted to the agency’s staff, it seemed that all the staff members believed that the leader’s leadership style was appropriate, and that the problem was due to a motivation issue. The situation was that many of the agency’s staff could not be fired from their position because of their affiliation to the union, and as a result, some of them did not feel motivated to give better results. So, in this specific scenario, the leader’s strategy should be oriented not towards changing his leadership style, but towards thinking about creative ways for motivating and rewarding any additional efforts made by the staff, in order for them to deliver what was expected.

The situation described above provides an example of the diverse scenarios that young leaders face within their jobs. This case is only one example of how leadership is not static and how it requires a varied array of elements according to the organization and the constituent’s needs (Blanchard, 2007). Also, it exemplifies the importance of encouraging the development of leadership skills among young people in order for them to portray the leadership skills they may need to become effective leaders within their professions. Thus, this article explains five elements for encouraging leadership among undergraduate students at Universidad de Monterrey who currently live in a complex context.

Leadership is a topic that most people hear and speak about, but can we really understand leadership and what it is about? Researchers and scholars have tried to decode and simplify this phenomenon for decades. Some of those researchers have framed leadership-taking as found in five different approaches. These five leadership approaches are: the trait theory, the behavior theory, the contingency theory, the transformational theory, and the servant-leadership theory (Crippen, 2005; Lussier & Achua, 2005; Yukl, 2006). The trait theory was the first approach to leadership studies; it emerged during the 1930s with the idea that leaders were born with some leadership traits such as high energy, good-looking appearance, interdependence, and personal confidence (Lussier & Achua, 2005). Then, during the 1950s, many researchers focused their attention to the specific leadership behaviors and styles that promoted high performance in organizational environments (Lussier & Achua, 2005; Yukl, 2006). Later, during the 1960s, the contingency theory emerged (Lussier & Achua, 2005; Yukl, 2006). This approach argues that the leader’s style should be adapted according to the followers’ characteristics and situation (Blanchard, 2007). Then, during the 1970s, the term “servant-leadership” was coined by Greenleaf in his first essay entitled The Servant as Leader (1970). For Greenleaf, servant-leadership begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve and then to lead. From this
approach, servant leaders consciously choose to lead through service to others, and to their organizations (Spears, 1998). Finally, during the early 1980s, the transformational leadership approach made its appearance in the leadership field, and it argued that leadership is a process that changes and transforms people. According to Northouse, transformational leaders are “attentive to the needs and motives of followers and try to help them to reach their fullest potential” (2001, p. 132). Bass argues that transformational leaders “move followers to go beyond their own self interest for the benefit of their group, organization or community” (2000, p. 21).

Nevertheless, for some researchers, leadership is not only about having certain traits, portraying specific behaviors, or about being in the right context according to their skills, among other elements; leadership can also be about having emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998, 2000, 2001; Goleman, Boyzatis, & McKee, 2003), being authentic (George, 2007), and promoting change (Kotter, 1996).

As a result, it can be clearly seen that leadership means many different things to different researchers. In addition, the context where leaders lead has become more complex, which has an impact on leadership and the skills leaders need to portray (Bennis & Nanus, 1997). Therefore, this article wants to share five elements which are important to develop among Mexico’s future leaders within these complex times.

**Understanding What Leaders Need to Do**

The following information provided by five scholars on the topic of leadership was considered in order to develop a leadership course that encourages leadership among undergraduate students in the complex context of today. These five authors were selected because they present a leadership perspective similar to the one the Universidad de Monterrey portrays, which the university also seeks to develop among its students.

For Bennis (1989a, 1989b; Bennis & Townsend, 1995; Bennis & Nanus, 1997), leadership seems to be the marshaling of skills possessed by a majority, but used by a minority. Nevertheless, leadership is something that can be learned by anyone, and taught to everyone. Leaders also do not have any interest in proving themselves, but they have one continuous interest in expressing themselves completely. Thus, for Bennis, leaders are people who express and communicate themselves in a complete manner. These leaders know very well what their capabilities and weaknesses are. Moreover, people follow these leaders because they have a clear idea about what they want and why they want it. All of these allow gaining the constituents’ attention and trust through the leader’s vision. Also, the leader’s vision awakens the passion and enthusiasm amongst the followers. Moreover, the leader’s passion makes the constituents take risks, in order
to reach the vision for having a better community. Likewise, the leader’s vision creates a culture where people often feel valued and important to the community.

For Goleman (1998, 2000, 2001, 2003), the most effective leaders have *emotional intelligence*. Goleman argues that emotionally intelligent leaders are highly self-aware; they know themselves. Also, they have control over their own emotions, even under any particular difficult situation. In addition, leaders in accordance to Goleman have empathy for others; also, they are highly-motivated people in doing something or achieving goals.

According to George (2007), leaders are authentic, so they do not try to imitate another leader. For him, every leader develops a unique leadership style consistent to his or her personality and character. Leaders are just applying their natural talents and abilities in doing something for the community where they live. George argues that leaders acknowledge their weaknesses as well, and try to diminish them by using the talents of others. Also, leaders know what goal they want to reach and how to accomplish it, because they understand their passion and purpose. The authentic leader always makes a difference in his/her community. In doing so, leaders build long-term relationships with their constituents. Moreover, leaders behave or act in accordance to solid values.

According to Conger (1989, 1992), leaders can be found in all sizes and forms, but all of them share almost the same characteristic, which is that leaders are connected with a personal passion or cause. Taking as a foundation their passion, leaders develop and communicate a vision of a better future. Leaders listen to people and act congruently; also, they create and develop meaningful moments with their followers. So, the constituents feel that their leaders are connected with their deepest aspirations. Besides, these kinds of leaders understand the culture where they are immersed, but have a sense of dissatisfaction with the status quo. So, they produce changes, empowering others to reach a dream. Moreover, leaders in accordance to Conger always manifest an entrepreneurial spirit.

Finally, De Pree (1987, 1992, 2000) conveys that leaders define the reality, serve, and enable others. In doing so, leaders are expressing their personal set of principles and beliefs. Those principles form the leader’s vision. Besides, leaders according to De Pree create a net of relationships with their constituents, giving space to the diversity of gifts and talents. All of this gives as a result that these leaders gain the trust of their followers. Moreover, these leaders make a meaningful difference in their communities because they produce changes.

As it was explained above, according to these authors, leadership and being an effective leader requires knowing who the leader is, what he or she wants, having emotional intelligence,
Aspects to Consider for Encouraging Leadership in Mexico

The first step in becoming a leader is to understand the context (Bennis, 1989a, 1989b). So, leaders need to be interested in knowing the context where they live; much of this knowledge may come from the history of the context. For encouraging leadership in Mexico, some aspects need to be considered: the first important aspect of the Mexican context to consider is its history. Mexico’s history provides an example of the lack of leaders who have sought to have a positive impact within the nation. When the Spanish conquest of Mexico happened, the indigenous people were submitted to the Spanish rule, and during that time, they lived in poverty and hardship. Later, with the Independence of Mexico, leaders ruled, seeking their own benefit and did not really improve the situation for the people. As a result, many Mexican people experienced injustice on a daily basis and accepted it as part of their lives. This brings us to the second aspect regarding the Mexican context. For the Mexican people, it is difficult to speak up, challenge unjust systems, and fight for their rights due to their history of being conquered. The nation’s history, which is full of unwise Spanish and Mexican leaders who have not served the people but sought their own benefit, has provoked the people’s passive attitude towards unfair actions.

A third important aspect regarding the Mexican context is that currently, Mexico is facing a complex array of needs among its citizens. Some of the nation’s problems have been evident through the news and are presented by the UNICEF (n.d.) as well, which are: cultural, economic and social disparities; extreme poverty; lack of quality in its education; and violence due to the drug dealers, among others. Each of these problems has a negative impact on its citizenry and urgently calls for a solution, or at least an improvement. Mexico’s current needs make critical the development of leaders who may lead in a positive way and, by this, help transform the country by bringing solutions to its current problems. Finally, the fourth aspect regarding the Mexican context is that Mexico and Latin America are witnessing the emergence of the biggest young generation of modern history. The UNICEF, with the aid of the Latin American Studies Center of Population, predicts that, in the next few years, most of the population of Latin America and Mexico will be younger than 25 years old. Hence, in the near future, young people will determine the directions and decisions that will set the course of Mexico. They will likely impact the future of Mexico possibly more than any other previous generation. For these reasons, it is vital for Mexico to develop a generation of leaders among the youth who are able to provide solutions to society’s needs. Therefore, we consider that the future of Mexico resides in

knowing his or her constituents’ needs, having critical thinking, as well as wanting to make a meaningful difference within their communities.
seeking to develop leadership among the youth by developing five elements of leadership amongst them.

**Five Elements for Encouraging Leadership to Undergraduate Mexican Students**

Considering the suggestions provided by the five leadership scholars that were previously mentioned, as well as our current context needs, the Universidad de Monterrey developed a new leadership course that every undergraduate student in our university will need to take as part of their undergraduate mainstream courses. The idea is to help encourage among every undergraduate student in our university the acquisition of the leadership background and the skills they need to become leaders of positive influence in our society. Thus, for teaching any leadership course, an important element to consider is leadership by example. For such reason, having the right teacher and facilitator within a course is of utmost importance.

According to Burns (1978), leadership is focused in the leader’s engagement with others, which creates a special connection that raises the motivation and level of morality of the leader and the follower. Leaders should be attentive to the constituents’ needs and try to help them reach their full potential. Leaders need to lead by example. Also, according to Kouzes and Posner (1995), leaders need to model the way, and need to give a personal example by showing a dedicated execution.

Nevertheless, there are five elements that we consider of outmost importance for encouraging leadership among our Mexican undergraduate students. As it was mentioned before, according to Bennis (1989a, 1989b, 1995, 1997), leadership is something that can be learned and taught. So, we can encourage leadership that seeks to have a positive impact in our nation amongst our youth by the development of the following five characteristics: (1) **Self-awareness**—positive leaders are people who express themselves in a complete manner because they know their capabilities and weaknesses (Bennis, 1985; George, 2007; Goleman, 1998). Self-awareness is the first step for developing effective leadership (George, 2007). (2) **Life’s mission and vision**—effective leaders have a clear perspective about what they want, why they want it, and how they will achieve it. Also, they are effective change agents (Conger, 1989, 1992). These kinds of leaders have a cause, and also they develop a vision for a better future (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). (3) **Social Awareness**—leaders who seek to have a positive impact need to acknowledge the needs and problems their community has, and want to make a difference by helping to solve them (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1998). If leadership is not oriented towards bringing a positive impact, by seeking to contribute to society, it will only bring personal gain. Thus, a crucial part for developing social awareness among leaders is encouraging positive character traits, such as empathy and compassion (Goleman, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2003; Bencivenga, 2003). (4) **Critical
thinking—the next generation of leaders will need to be able to view our reality with a critical eye, in order to analyze it and raise difficult questions which challenge the status quo (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001). Here, we refer to leaders who can diagnose our current status quo, and find solutions to the nation’s problems by using critical thinking skills. (5) Teamwork skills—they need to understand the power that exists among teamwork (Kouzes & Posner, 2005) and how they can increase their abilities by working as a team, and having, by this, advantages for making a difference within their context.

Putting it All Together

The Universidad de Monterrey is currently including the five elements mentioned above within its new leadership course. At the beginning of the course, the students are given a general overview about what leadership is and its theories. Then, we seek to encourage students to develop a sense of self awareness, guiding them by working on topics such as discovering their strengths and weaknesses, and focusing on developing their strengths. Then, they learn about emotional intelligence and its elements, the temperaments, passion and the importance of finding what they are passionate about, and the different leadership styles that they could portray. The idea is for them to not only learn the concepts, but to be able to apply them to their personal lives. We seek to help students become self-aware regarding each of the topics covered on the course. Through the topics mentioned above, the first of the five elements—self-awareness—is covered within the course.

Then the course’s objective is to guide them to develop group leadership skills. In this segment, the idea is to guide them to acknowledge some important elements a leader needs to consider for being a leader within a group. Seeking to develop this, we first teach them about the importance of teamwork. Also, some group dynamics are applied to help foster this. In addition, there are team projects, and team presentations within the course that also support the practice of teamwork and leadership skills. Then we use as a foundation Kouzes and Posner’s The Leadership Challenge book, and encourage in our students to learn how to develop a group mission or vision statement. Also, we teach them about the importance of promoting trust, collaboration and providing support to their group. In addition, they are taught about the importance of leading by example, establishing group goals, and motivating their team by celebrating group success. Within the team leadership segment, another two of the five elements are covered. These two elements are teamwork, as well as developing a personal and group mission or vision statement.

Then, the element of social awareness is applied on the social leadership and sustainability segment. Here, students are encouraged to research about what sustainable leadership is and
provide examples of current leaders that act in accordance to it. Also, they are encouraged to provide examples on how they can practice a sustainable leadership themselves. In addition, they are asked to research the needs their context has and propose a group project where they can use their personal and leadership skills, current knowledge, and area of study to improve their context. Also, they can choose to develop a project where they teach children or teens a skill or knowledge that will enable them to grow in a personal way; by this, they will have an impact on the future generation of leaders.

Finally, the critical thinking element is fostered during the whole coursework by group discussions, case study activities, group and personal assignments; also, course group participation is sought in every class by personal and group reflections, group discussion on the topics, group dynamics, fun team activities, and group participation.

The leadership course has already been applied and will continue to be applied within the university. The feedback given by some students and the observations made by the leadership professors are evidence that the course has had positive results and that the objectives have been met. For receiving the students’ feedback, an anonymous open question survey was answered in some leadership course classrooms. All of the students surveyed affirmed to have learned about leadership and that the course’s objectives and their expectations were fully met. Additionally, some conveyed that they had learned much more than what they expected to learn and that the course had helped them to become more self-aware and develop group leadership skills. In addition, all of the surveyed students mentioned that the final project helped them to develop social awareness and to apply the leadership skills they had previously learned within the course. Nevertheless, it cannot be said that every student that takes the course will become a positive leader; but it can be conveyed that every student has been taught the elements he or she needs to become a leader and have a positive influence within their community. Also, the group projects were chosen by each team and have been a means to give something back to the community or to the children or teens who received the benefit of the project implementation made by the students.

Conclusion

Leadership is a complex phenomenon because it is composed of many different elements, which provides somewhat of a challenge to teach it to others. Nevertheless, leadership can be taught (Bennis, 1989a, 1989b, 1995, 1997). So, to be able to teach leadership, it is important to have a clear grasp of what leadership is according to the different theories and scholars, know our context’s situation and needs, consider the student’s age and background, and finally,
acknowledge the main elements that are sought to be taught, in order to include those within the course’s framework and goals.

The current article examined how the Universidad de Monterrey seeks to encourage among all its undergraduate students five leadership elements, which are: self-awareness, life’s mission or vision, social awareness, critical thinking, and teamwork skills. These five elements are sought to be developed within the university’s students, according to Mexico’s context and needs. Also, the article conveys that having a varied array of teaching methods, group activities and dynamics, fostering group discussion, and critical thinking skills are important for being able to encourage leadership development. In addition, team group research, presentations, and project implementation are recommended to be included as well when seeking to teach leadership among undergraduate students.

The current article urges us, as well, to consider the importance the facilitator or leadership professor has for developing and teaching leadership. Much of the positive results and goal achievement a course can have are related to being a personal example of how a leader should be. Also, the professor is the one who makes the final decisions regarding the course activities, dynamics, group projects, and how the learning and teaching environment will take place. We can have a very well-crafted program or course syllabus, but none of this will matter unless the professors who teach the subject are passionate about leadership, model what leadership is, are creative in seeking and applying different strategies to teach leadership, and foster an environment of trust and collaboration, applying the same concepts they seek to teach among their students. For such reasons, leading by example is a very important aspect to consider as well.

Even if leadership is composed by many different elements, it can be taught. As a result, we ought to seek to develop leadership among Mexico’s youth and other nation’s youth, because positive leadership development can be the foundation for a better tomorrow.

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References


A Strategic Conversation with Dr. Pat Robertson

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Strategic conversations can mine valuable information from strategic leaders from which others can draw encouragement, knowledge, and best practices. This essay discusses one such interview with Christian Broadcasting Network founder, Dr. Pat Robertson, who successfully put strategy into practice. Other organizations that he founded include Regent University, Operation Blessing International, and WorldReach. Current strategic leadership literature was reviewed in order to develop a line of questions that would pull out key contributors to his success. The interview revealed several themes that leaders can put into practice in order to improve their own skills. Included were creation and deployment of a vision, personal leadership traits, leveraging technology, encouraging innovation, and more. This strategic conversation also provided advice not normally found in leadership literature including the importance of humility, faith, and harmony.

Thousands of books, videos, and short courses designed to help those desiring to become successful strategic leaders have appeared within the last three decades. They make promises of more effective leadership, business building, team motivation, and increased profit margins. This sounds great: who wouldn’t want to be a successful and prosperous leader? However, a deeper look into who wrote these books or developed these strategies and theories many times reveals their credentials are academic versus practical experience and actual accomplishments. Some even suggest the examples that many “leadership” gurus point to as evidence to support their theories are nothing more than a coincidence, luck, or random fluctuation (Raynor & Ahmed, 2013). This essay examines the practice of strategic leadership through an interview with one of the most successful leaders of the 21st century, Dr. Pat Robertson, who continues to draw near to reaching his seemingly impossible vision of “...reaching the entire world for Christ via radio and
television” (Roberston & Buckingham, 1972, p. x). Through this essay, it is hoped that today’s strategic leaders or leaders of the future can draw encouragement, knowledge, and best practices from his incredible accomplishments.

The method of an interview was chosen in order to facilitate a strategic conversation with Dr. Robertson. Strategic conversations allow one to investigate the hows, whats, and whys of the paths successful individuals and organizations have followed and permits foresight into the future (Ratcliffe, 2002). After meeting Dr. Robertson several years ago, it was clear he was a strategic thinker who has a vast array of knowledge from which other leaders could learn. A strategic thinker has been described as one who focuses “…on taking different approaches to delivering customer value; on choosing different sets of activities that cannot be easily imitated, thereby providing a basis for an enduring competitive edge” (DeKluyver & Pearce, 2009, p. 6). Another definition is someone who possesses the “…cognitive processes required for the collection, interpretation, generation, and evaluation of information and ideas that shape an organization’s sustainable competitive advantage” (Hughes & Beatty, 2005, p. 44). Although all these definitions fit Dr. Robertson, strategic thinking guru Irene Sander’s description probably fits him best. She noted the strategic thinker uses “…an intuitive, visual, creative process that results in a synthesis of emerging themes, issues, patterns, connections, and opportunities” resulting in “insight about the present and foresight about the future” (Sanders, 1998, p. 162). Dr. Robertson’s insight and foresight along with his restless mind and dogged persistence played key roles in his stunning accomplishments (Harrell, 2010, p. x).

Despise not the day of small beginnings—Zechariah 4:10

His own media beginnings began in 1959. Dr. Robertson remembers, “I was manager of a little broken down TV station. I ran camera, I worked on the transmitters, I did the bookkeeping, I just did everything myself because I did not have much staff. In the early days, that’s the way it was” (Robertson, personal communication). The station generated a total of $8,000 the first year and $20,000 the second year. Despite a law degree and numerous lucrative opportunities, Dr. Robertson felt this was where he was supposed to be. He had prayed, listened, and followed the direction of the Lord to the television station in Portsmouth, Virginia. From these small beginnings, he created an empire that would bring millions to the Lord.

Professor Dave Harrell summarized Dr. Robertson’s accomplishments that started so small as follows:

He was a pioneer in the development of the cable television industry, a relentless innovator in religious programming, the founder of a significant humanitarian organization, a major player in the worldwide Pentecostal/charismatic revival in the developing world, the founder and molder of a respected and well-endowed university, and the founder and patron of one of the most successful conservative legal advocacy organizations in this country. (2010, p. x)
He who has ears to hear, let him hear—Matthew 11:15

What path did Dr. Robertson take from such small beginnings to a multi-million dollar ministry operating around the world? It could be said that he possesses “deep smarts,” defined as “business-critical expertise, built up through years of experience, which helps them make wise, swift decisions about both strategy and tactics” (Leonard, Barton, & Barton, 2013). Like Dr. Robertson, people who possess these deep smarts are skilled at strategy and decision making which leads them to success after success. These are not skills that can be learned in school but are best “pulled” out of others, either through close observation of the way they operate or through questioning (2013, p. 128).

In order to develop a line of questions that would pull out some of these deep smarts, a review of current strategic leadership literature was conducted. There are some main themes which emerged from the review on what characteristics most successful strategic leaders possess. Some of these characteristics (Northouse, 2012, p.12) are included below along with the questions developed or found (Ratcliffe, 2002, p. 25) from which to mine insight:

- Foresight and establishing direction—Where do you see your organization in 50 years? What is the most important piece of advice you have for upcoming leaders?
- Ability to create and deploy a vision—How did you create a vision for your organization and deploy it?
- Motivating and inspiring—How do you encourage your people to be creative and innovative?
- Strategic Thinking—What is your worst nightmare regarding your organization or the environment impacting it? What is the best possible thing that could happen for your organization?
- Aligning people and technology—How have you leveraged technology to achieve your mission?

Where there is no vision, the people perish—Proverbs 29:18

The interview with Dr. Robertson took place at the CBN Headquarters building. The questions developed served as a baseline to stimulate the strategic conversation. Dr. Robertson proved to be highly intelligent, engaging, quick-witted, focused, and direct.

Where do you see your organization in 50 years?

Dr. Robertson reminded me that he had three large organizations: Regent University, CBN, and Operation Blessing International. Regarding Regent University, he noted he had set a pretty high goal. “I want us to be the preeminent source of Christian thought and practice throughout the world. I want to set as my goal either Oxford or the Sorbonne in the Middle Ages, in which they were the dominate centers of Christian thought” (Robertson, personal communication). He said there were not any current-day universities that he wanted to emulate because he felt many of
today’s universities were declining. Dr. Robertson reiterated that he wanted to set high goals for the university. “Are we going to make it? Only the Lord knows, but that’s where we are heading,” he reflected (personal communication).

Dr. Robertson’s visionary approach was clearly evident in his goals for the Christian Broadcasting Network. He recalled, “In 1995, I was praying and the Lord made it clear there was going to be a spiritual renewal around the world and we should move to take advantage of it” (Robertson, personal communication). And that he did! After changing the name of CBN International to WorldReach, he held a weeklong “RevivalFest,” which was attended by such well known Christian speakers as Oral Roberts, T. L. Osborn, Benny Hinn, James Robison, Robert Schuller, and Bill Bright (Harrell, 2010, p. 220). RevivalFest was reported to be an “internal spiritual event, exhilarating to the staff and core supporters” (Harrell, 2010, p. 220). It was in this charged atmosphere that he challenged his organization to bring 500 million people to faith in Jesus Christ. During the interview Dr. Robertson reported, “We have already exceeded that goal, which is extraordinary to begin with. We are producing programs in 58 different languages and operating in one way or another in about 200 different countries—we want to have a major impact on the world and I think in a sense we are doing it. It is now a question of deepening what we are all about, making better programs, and reaching larger segments of the population” (Robertson, personal communication).

Dr. Robertson’s vision for Operation Blessing is just as extraordinary. He reported, “We want to alleviate suffering where ever there is suffering. That takes in a lot of people—so we feed the hungry, we clothe the naked, we house the homeless, we minister to medical needs of people, and we help people suffering from disasters. I have set a preliminary goal of spending $1 billion a year of services—I think that in 50 years it will go much bigger than that” (Robertson, personal communication). Today Operation Blessing is recognized as one of the top humanitarian organizations in the world. It received a 5-star rating from Ministry Watch and was listed as #2 out of over 400 charities (Operation Blessing International Financial Information, 2013). Operation Blessing was one of the first humanitarian organizations to provide assistance to victims of Hurricane Katrina, the 2005 tsunami, and the recent Hurricane Sandy. It currently operates on a daily basis in 23 countries (Operation Blessing International, 2013). Since 1978, Operation Blessing has touched over 202 million people and spent over $3.3 billion.

In looking into the future, Dr. Robertson uses a global, visionary approach. There are few leaders in history who have been able to accomplish the achievements he has. One method it appears Dr. Robertson has used is the concept of stretch goals as a strategy. This theory suggests that successful strategies are built upon not only what is but what could be (DeKluyver & Pearce, 2009, p. 17). Studies have shown that stretch strategies encourage innovation and knowledge creation, increase problem solving, and motivate organizational members (Choo, 2011). This has certainly been the case as Dr. Robertson has set goals and then empowered his organization to systemically achieve them.
How did you create a vision for your organization and deploy it?

The ability of an organization to prosper relies heavily on its leader’s ability to embody and communicate their vision to all members (Phillips, 1992, p. 162). As attested to by where he sees each of his organizations in fifty years, Dr. Robertson clearly articulates his vision and interweaves it continually through his speeches, television programs, and daily activities. He does not take credit for the vision, noting, “In a sense, I like to think I had some overarching vision which was mine but it really came out of prayer. I asked the Lord what he wanted to do and took it step by step” (Robertson, personal communication).

Effective visions call upon the past, relate to the present, and provide a path to the future (Phillips, 1992, p. 169). Much like President Lincoln during the Civil War, Dr. Robertson uses this principle to reaffirm, reassert, and remind his organizations about the principles they were founded upon (p. 169). As he experienced growth, his vision also grew. Dr. Robertson noted, “Your vision, in a sense, comes out of work. I don’t like people being parachuted into an organization from on high… I would rather have somebody who has been hands-on from the early days” (Robertson, personal communication). He used Regent University as another example of small beginnings, “…we had 7 professors and 77 students in our first class in a rented office building—now we have 7,000 or more students—it’s grown right much” (personal communication).

Dr. Robertson has lived long enough to see many of his seemingly impossible visions through to fruition. In meeting his vision of bringing 500 million souls to Christ through his organization, he proved his ability to effectively deploy and achieve a vision. This was a vision that everyone in the organization could understand, whether they were working a phone bank, behind or in front of a camera, making sets, or cleaning the floors in the evening. They all knew they were working to bring the gospel to the nations and they still do. Professor David Harrell noted that Dr Robertson’s vision “is a legacy that is likely to influence Christianity around the world and American politics for many years” (Harrell, 2010, p. ix).

What do you do to encourage your people to be creative and innovative?

Recognition of employees is a key motivator in driving performance and innovation (Graham, 2008). Within his varied organizations, Dr. Robertson consistently promoted and used three virtues in recognizing his people. He noted, “A long, long time ago I realized as far as the ministry part, we were trendsetters—we went where nobody else had gone before and that was one of the things we took pride in. We were not copying anybody, at least in our peer group. We were innovators and I wanted to encourage that so I started something called the President’s Award for Excellence” (Robertson, personal communication). Each year at Christmas time, he gives out awards of $1000 cash and a certificate to those who distinguished themselves and upheld three virtues: integrity, innovation, and excellence. “We insist on integrity; we insist that whatever we tell anyone is honest and we work with integrity. We want innovators in everything.
We want people on the cutting edge trying to breakthrough barriers that didn’t exist before. Our award each year recognizes people who have displayed those three virtues.” Experts report that, unless recognition is tied to something meaningful behind it, it will not serve to motivate team members (Ventric, 2009, p. 15). By tying his award to the three virtues, Dr. Robertson has provided recognition that everyone can relate to. Regarding innovation, on the flip side, Dr. Robertson warned, “There is nothing more deadly than micro-managing people. We don’t micro-manage people; we let them have freedom” (Robertson, personal communication).

**What is your worst nightmare regarding your organization or the environment impacting it?**

Interview gurus note that this type of question will normally draw out the interviewees’ priorities, expose how their ideas of the world fall into place, and allow values to surface (Ratcliffe, 2002, p. 26). There was no hesitation as Dr. Robertson answered: “We can survive any outside shot but it is the internal that is important. I think the worst nightmare, the worst problem, is when people begin to fight among themselves. I am very strong on harmony. You must have harmony to make things happen—with disharmony nothing is possible. So if you work in harmony together, nothing is impossible. But if you work in disharmony, nothing is possible. The worst nightmare would be we lose that sense of cohesion, the sense of love for each other as we work together” (Robertson, personal communication).

**What is the best possible thing that could happen for your organization?**

Dr. Robertson’s response to this question did not deal with current operations but looked again to the future. He responded, “I think the best thing would be a breakthrough initiative—some new creative thing. I think we are in the process of doing that but I think a breakthrough of an intellectual format that brings about new initiatives would be the best thing and, again, we want to hear from God. We recognize the ownership of this organization belongs to Him not us” (Robertson, personal communication).

**How have you leveraged technology to achieve your mission?**

Dr. Robertson’s technological innovations to produce quality, culturally sensitive Christian broadcasting around the world has proven to be one of the most effective tools of promoting Christianity in the developing world (Harrell, 2010, p. ix). Dr. Robertson reported, “We believe in using technology to the fullest. Over the last three or four years, we have opened big production studios in Jakarta in Indonesia, Delhi in India, Manila in the Phillipines, Kiev in the Ukraine, and a facility in Thailand. We have been moving in these last several years to a great deal of indigenous programming, which is very effective. We broadcast in about 58 different language” (Robertson, personal communication).

Dr. Robertson has made it a point to stay on top of current technology and maintained state of the art sets and control rooms. His WorldReach model has allowed the regional centers around
the world to adapt culturally to the country or area they are trying to reach (Harrell, 2010, p. 227). For example, in some countries such as China, the Christian message has to be muted, while other regional centers can freely work with churches and proclaim the gospel (p. 227). Dr. Robertson’s innovative and strategic use of technology was the key to reaching his goal of bringing 500 million to Christ.

What is the most important piece of advice you have for upcoming leaders?

Once again, Dr. Robertson’s answer summed up what others have written books about: “My philosophy above all else, besides listening to the Lord, is to hire the very best people possible and give them a strategic vision of where you want to go and give maximum freedom to employees to carry out the vision” (Robertson, personal communication). A key characteristic of a Servant Leader is humility (Northouse, 2012, p. 224). Although he embodies more than one leadership style, it was not surprising Dr. Robertson singled out this trait. “For leadership the most important virtue is humility, to have a Servant’s heart, to listen to what people are saying, and to be empathetic to employees. I think that pride and arrogance are killers” (personal communication). At the same time, Dr. Robertson noted “While we have a collegial atmosphere, if people can’t perform the task satisfactorily, it is no crime in firing them” (personal communication). Dr. Robertson used the metaphor of a bus regarding this philosophy, “You have to get some people on the bus and some other ones off the bus” (personal communication). He noted good leaders had to be prepared to do that and, in most cases, it is kinder to terminate people who are not performing adequately than to let them continue as deadweight, dragging down the organization as well as themselves.

Dr. Robertson used Jesus as an example of what a successful leader should do. He explained Jesus “got twelve people around him and then spent three years training them. That is the key—a highly motivated staff that has the training to fulfill the tasks at hand” (personal communication).

Conclusion

As suggested by the literature, strategic conversations can facilitate drawing key information out of people that may be missed otherwise. In this strategic conversation with Dr. Robertson, several key themes emerged that can guide leaders as they put strategy into practice. It has been said that visionary leaders operate on the spiritual and emotional resources of the organization and assemble a view of the future that is easily understood, attractive, and energizing (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, & Lampel, 1998, p. 137). Dr. Robertson clearly articulated not just one, but several visions, for his various organizations that captured people’s hearts, minds, and spirits. Deploying his vision at every opportunity and celebrating innovations allowed for reinforcement and encouragement to do more. Continually investing and leveraging the latest technology allowed the organization to reach millions who would have been unreachable otherwise. Developing models for each organization’s core processes, such as the regional broadcasting centers, resulted in quicker growth. Allowing and encouraging flexibility within those models to
adapt to cultural or political situations ensured success. Hiring the best people and ensuring they were properly trained and motivated was also key in achieving his accomplishments.

Other themes that emerged from the conversation were concepts that most leadership books and resources normally do not mention: the significance of harmony within an organization and recognition of the damage that disharmony can do, the importance humility plays in leaders and the dangers of pride and arrogance. Throughout the conversation, Dr. Robertson revealed another competency that has not been highly touted in the literature—that of listening to and leaning on God.

About the Author

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References


Value Creation Options and Their Leadership Implications

John A. Lanier

Value creation is integral to organizational enterprise value. Many options are available to leaders, including innovation. The variety of innovative opportunities may elude neophytes. Moreover, innovative principles overlap and complement numerous other value creating concepts. However, these principles stop shy of being synonymous. Innovation is spawned by creativity. Creativity, unfortunately, does not translate into profitability absent the innovative rigor. While innovation may seem obvious and laudable in hindsight, it is not necessarily welcomed upon its advent. Indeed, innovation’s threat to the status quo begs exceptionally intrepid teams of diverse talent. Moreover, the innovative initiatives beg sponsorship by leaders whose vision appreciates innovators’ indispensability to corporate vitality. This essay endeavors to clarify definitions, connectedness, and guiding principles for incorporating innovation into the firm’s operational personality.

Keywords: Creativity, innovation, teams, organizational design, leadership.

Introduction

Hovering in perpetuity is an unlikely strategic scenario. Either entropy overcomes the firm, or growth is embraced as imperative. “Organic growth . . . is less risky than acquired growth and more highly valued by investors” (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 5). The challenge is how to achieve such organic growth. Innovation is among the options. However, the machinations of innovation entail both art and science, and in vacillating proportions. Three out of four corporate innovation initiatives relate to existing products (Barczak, Griffin, & Kahn, 2009). This may lead to a market blind spot resulting in product antiquation. Deductively, one out of four innovative pursuits entails new competitive space. Indeed, three out of five of that paltry quantity take on existing—perhaps entrenched—competitors. The ultimate math is that a puny tenth of “new”
Value Creation Options and Their Leadership Implications

Not only has “innovation rescued humanity from privation” (Hamel, 2012, p. 42) throughout history, but innovation also possesses the promise of future prosperity. Managing creativity and innovation is a critical leadership competency (Dyer, Gregersen, & Christiensen, 2011). Amid the myriad of challenges awaiting innovators is the convoluted environment in which it operates, i.e., the ecosystem. This includes the organizational culture that often reacts to innovative change the way antibodies attack viruses (Christiensen & Raynor, 2003). Accordingly, this essay addresses kindred value-creation terms en route to dissecting topics germane to successful innovation.

Entrepreneurism

Entrepreneurism is compatible with innovation. However, these terms are not synonyms. “An entrepreneur is one who creates a new business in the face of risk and uncertainty for the purpose of achieving profit and growth opportunities, and assembles the necessary resources to capitalize on those opportunities” (Zimmerer & Scarborough, 2005, p. 3). Traits of entrepreneurs include (i) desire for responsibility, (ii) preference for moderate risk, (iii) confidence in the ability to succeed, (iv) desire for immediate feedback, (v) high level of energy, (vi) vision for the future, (vii) skill in organization, (viii) value of achievement over money, (ix) high degree of commitment, (x) tolerance of ambiguity, (xi) flexibility, and (xii) tenacity (McClelland, 1961, p. 3-4).

Startup

“A startup is a new business venture in its earliest stage of development” (Shad, 2004, p. 11). “A startup’s job is to (i) rigorously measure where it is right now, forming the hard truths that assessment reveals, and then (ii) devise experiments to learn how to move the real numbers closer to the ideal reflected in the business plan” (Ries, 2011a, p. 114). A startup may or may not involve a new concept. One extreme view of a startup is developing a speculative product for which no discernible market is known. This aligns with the concept of venturing. At the other end of the spectrum is a proven product in a new market. The sole criterion for a startup is building from a revenue base of zero in a new market segment.

Invention

“An inventor creates a technical capability that can be used to create products or features that solve a customer problem or market need” (Griggin et al., 2012, p. 24). “An invention is a new
idea that is often turned into a tangible outcome, such as a product or a system” (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 21). The U.S. Patent and Trademark Office considers the extension of intellectual property rights to novel and non-obvious uses (Patents, n.d.). “In [point of] fact, there is no correlation between the number of corporate patents earned and financial success” (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 21). Four distinct steps are germane to the process of invention: (i) the perception of an unsatisfactory pattern, (ii) the setting of the stage, (iii) the primary act of insight, and (iv) critical revision and development (Usher, 1955, p. 527-528). New skills are presumed necessary to the process (p. 528). Invention, whether worthy of patent protection or not, may or may not be necessary to innovation.

Creativity

Creativity entails connecting things that no one else has fathomed (Bennis & Biederman, 1997, p. 66). “Creativity is the playing with and [the] ‘reordering’ of objects or concepts in such a way that no foregone result is achieved” (Oster, 2011, p. 18). Creativity and invention enjoy a symbiotic relationship. Both regard something new. Neither escapes the realm of novelty unless they provide usage utility for a customer. “Creativity . . . consists largely of rearranging what we know in order to find out what we do not know” (Michalko, 2006, p. 100). Creativity may evolve through a combination of deductive (“logic and analysis, typically based on past evidence”), inductive (“based on directly observable facts”), or abductive (“imagining what could be possible”) reasoning (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 106). Creativity may lead to innovation, i.e., an innovation ingredient. However, creativity is not an end unto itself (Anthony, 2012, p. 17).

Most of intelligence (at least that which is measured by conventional tests) is inherited; most of creativity is learned (Dyer et al., 2011). “General intelligence . . . is a genetic endowment—[25-40 percent], but creativity is not. Nurture trumps nature as far as creativity goes” (p. 22). “One of the paradoxes of creativity is that in order to think originally, we must first familiarize ourselves with the ideas of others” (p. 85). Sometimes the difference between creativity and innovation is timing. Creativity encompasses elegant design comprised of the utterly unexpected, amazingly competent, aesthetically exquisite, and conspicuously conscientious (Hamel, 2012, p. 56-57).

Creativity may benefit by aspirational alignment, i.e., the problem one ponders while applying creative contemplation. Simon Sinek’s Golden Circle provides utility in this regard. Sinek leans upon the visual of a bulls-eye of three concentric circles whose center is “Why?,” i.e., the purpose of the endeavor. The middle ring represents “How?,” i.e., the process of execution. The outer ring is “What?,” i.e., the resulting output or product. Sinek explains that the inner two rings (Why? and How?) draw upon the brain’s limbic area for non-verbal, feeling, and intuitive capabilities. The outer ring taps the neocortex for its rational, analytical, and linguistic attributes (Sinek, 2009).
Creativity is an expression of individualism. Collectivism kills creativity (Dyer et al., 2011, p. 168-170). There are five discovery skills benefiting creativity: (i) associating the “not obvious”; (ii) questioning, e.g., asking “Why?” until satiating an understanding of basic principles; (iii) observing an ecosystem to master its complexity and nuances; (iv) networking to tap into the knowledge of others; and (v) experimenting to optimize design (p. 168-170). In complement, there are three methods of experimentation: (i) experiences, (ii) dissection to understand how things work, and (iii) prototypes (p. 137-138). “Creativity is 80 percent context and 20 percent technique” (Cook, 1998). Companies open to supplier, customer, and academic input within an industry vertical fare better with new ideas than is the case across industry verticals (Inauen & Schenker-Wicki, 2011).

Innovation

Innovation is “something different that has impact” (Anthony, 2012, p. 16), i.e., creativity with impact. “Innovation is the intentional development of a specific product, service, idea, environment, or process for the generation of value” (Oster, 2011, p. 3). The arbiters of such impact are customers. Customers may be sufficiently curious to make an initial purchase. However, the life blood of sustainability is repeat purchases.

The creativity of the right hemisphere of the brain must translate into behavior to achieve innovation (Dyer et al., 2011). Customer-focused responses need to address customers’ (i) articulated, overt, and rational needs; and (ii) unarticulated, latent, and emotional needs (Lafley & Charan, 2008). Successful innovators focus on four key principles that elude most people: (i) unchallenged orthodoxies, (ii) underappreciated trends, (iii) unleveraged competencies and assets, and (iv) unarticulated needs (Hamel, 2012, p. 64-72). Successful innovators are receptive to customer influence—not customer directives (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 60).

Innovators are attuned to product function, or the job the customer is hiring the product to do (Christensen & Raynor, 2003, p. 73). This may be an antidote to high failure rates for ideas-first and needs-first innovation. Indeed, an outcomes-based innovation approach anchors the job as the primary unit of analysis (Ulwick, 2005, 2009a, 2009b). Quick failures may be more important than quick successes (Jonash, 2005, p. 201-202). One of the reasons is reallocating the developmental budget.

Innovation is a potential remedy to “wicked problems” and “x-problems.” Wicked problems are complex and reject simple solutions (Rittel & Webber, 1973, p. 155-169). X-problems (i) are comprised of mysterious issues never before resolved, (ii) reflect the crossroads of convergence and divergence whose decisions have profound consequences, and (iii) endow problem-solvers with windfall rewards (Richardson, 2010, p. 24). X-problems differ from wicked problems by:
the presences of competition, and competitors that are getting better and more diverse; the need to satisfy more demanding customers and provide superior customer experiences; the need to integrate products of diverse types and origins into comprehensive, coherent systems for customers; and clarity about the problem emerges slowly, as with wicked problems, but iterative approaches to solving them are necessary, in contrast to the one-shot deal of wicked problems. (p. 24)

Innovative techniques include (i) immersion, or observing how the ecosystem currently functions; (ii) convergence and divergence, or pontificating how the ecosystem could evolve; and (iii) adaption, or how the ecosystem is actually adjusting (p. 24).

Peter Drucker outlined seven generic and potentially overlapping sources of innovation. Four sources lie within the organizational context: (i) unexpected successes and failures that reveal opportunities, (ii) the incongruity between actual and potential reality, (iii) needs of the business model machinations, and (iv) changes in the competitive environment. Three sources are outside the organizational context: (i) demographics, (ii) culture, and (iii) information (1985).

Innovation may be engendered in response to either hard or soft trends (Burrus & Mann, 2011). Hard trends are represented by phenomena such as aging demographics. Soft trends include examples like professions relative to demographics. Stated differently, hard trends are a virtual lock whereas soft trends are not. “Knowing how to identify hard trends gives us the ability to see the future. Knowing how to identify soft trends gives us the ability to shape the future” (p. 19). The ability to understand trends affects the perception of the future as a guiding innovative principle.

Daniel Burris and John David Mann offer an outline of a seven-point ideology beneficial to innovative endeavors:

1. start with certainty (use hard trends to see what’s coming);
2. anticipate (base your strategies on what you know about the future);
3. transform (use technology-driven change to your advantage);
4. take your biggest problem and skip it (it’s not the real problem anyway);
5. go opposite (look where no one else is looking to see what no one else is seeing and do what no one else is doing);
6. redefine and reinvent (identify and leverage your uniqueness in new and powerful ways); and
7. direct your future (or someone else will direct it for you). (2011, p. xx-xxi)

Product Innovation
“Product” is broadly defined to encompass services. Therefore, product innovation regards something recognized by customers as unique to any alternative in the market. More important than the value provided by a product may be how the product provides the value (Richardson, 2010). The advent of wireless routers, drug eluting stents, and hydraulic fracturing all depict product innovation. Granted, the line may become blurry between product innovation and incremental innovation. Incremental “product innovation takes established [products] in established markets to the next level. The focus can be on performance increase . . . , cost reduction . . . , usability improvement . . . , or any other . . . enhancement” (Moore, 2004, p. 86-92). For example, fixed-wing manned flight is commonplace; however, the reusable space shuttle took the medium of flight to the next dimension.

“In product innovations, technology risk is primary while the market risk is secondary. That is, in the early stages of product development, technology risk is very high, but it flattens in later stages when the market risk begins to soar” (Mascarenhas, 2009, p. 12). “Many organizations still have difficulty with sustained product innovation, or managing a number of product innovations over time” (Dougherty & Hardy, 1996, p. 1120). Somewhat analogous to Charles Handy’s Sigmoid Curve (1995, p. 50-56) depicting the rise and fall of a business life cycle (if no rejuvenation effort is attempted to reestablish positive slope), James M. Utterback’s Dynamics of Innovation (1996, p. 90-97) curve conveys a natural cycle of product innovation yielding to process innovation to remain competitive as the product matures. At this point in product life, process innovation is necessary to improve quality while lowering cost. “With the marketplace forming its expectations for a product in terms of features, form, and capabilities, the bases on which product innovation can take place become much fewer, and the focus of research and development narrows to incremental innovations on existing features” (p. 81).

Another interesting phenomenon exists with respect to product and process innovation. Until norms are established for complex, multifaceted products, aggregation is apropos. Stated another way, the product innovator is more competitive with a bundled offering. Afterward as standards become normative, components tend to be more profitable (Richardson, 2010). However, if the entrant only adds incremental functionality to an existing product, the newcomer will likely lose to the incumbents (Christensen & Raynor, 2003).

Process Innovation

The term “process innovation” may suffer some ambiguity. First, innovation is actually a process. Second, part of innovation is improved execution, i.e., de facto process innovation (Lafley & Charan, 2008). Third, process innovation may actually be the product—or a seemingly inseparable aspect of the product, e.g., Lean manufacturing consulting. Fourth, process innovation may improve the competitiveness of an existing product. This latter point aligns with the “specific phase” of Utterback’s Dynamics of Innovation curve (1996, p. 90-97).
Generally speaking, however, process innovation entails a more efficient delivery mechanism within the supply chain (Moore, 2004, p. 86-92). Moreover, it draws upon numerous techniques to accomplish the objective, including process reengineering, Lean manufacturing, and Six Sigma (Johne, 1999, p. 6-11). Inaugural production mechanisms may be inefficient and wasteful. “Too much variation leads to waste and inefficiency; too little variation can lead to stagnation, atrophy, and dissolution” (Miller, 1998, p. 447-451). The teachable point is that process innovation efficiencies may make a successful product more price-competitive.

Process innovation can free up resources for product innovation (Lafley & Charan, 2008). Process innovation is compatible with emergent innovation. “Emergent innovation does not impose new and foreign innovation techniques on company employees, but instead seeks out, recognizes and helps promote useful innovation methodologies already at work in the organization” (Oster, 2009, p. 40).

**Sustaining Innovation**

Sustaining innovation is also known as incremental innovation, and “simply improves what is” (Mascarenhas, 2009, p. 20). Incremental innovation predominates firm activity, and comprises upwards of 90 percent of their developmental endeavors (Day, 2007, p. 110). Typically half a firm’s sales are rooted in products within five years of their introduction (Portfolio Management, n.d.). Another way to look at sustaining innovation is steady rejuvenation.

Sustaining innovation extends product lines with features that produce complementary utility to existing products. For example, cruise control is a popular car feature, but it did not alter the basic function of automobiles: transportation. Product refreshing and continuous process improvements are aligned with the sustaining endeavor (Chandrasekar & Mehmood, 2010). An inherent criticism of sustaining, incremental innovation is that there is “acceptable effectiveness but excessive focus on small, safe projects. Many consumer packaged goods companies fit into this category, with their bias for relatively safe and less expensive line extensions to existing brands” (Kandybin, 2009, p. 58).

**Disruptive Innovation**

Disruptive innovation is perhaps the most intriguing of all types of innovation. Disruptors’ “markets appear as if from nowhere, creating massive new sources of wealth . . . [from] . . . technological discontinuities” (Moore, 2004, p. 86-92). Disruptive innovation provides a “wow” factor.

Disruptive [innovations] bring to market a very different value proposition . . . . Generally, disruptive [innovations] underperform established products in the mainstream markets. But they have other features that . . . new fringe (and generally new) customers
value. Products based on disruptive technologies are typically cheaper, simpler, smaller, and, frequently, more convenient to use. (Christensen, 1997, p. xv)

Clayton M. Christensen has written extensively about innovation. He posits five laws, or principles, of disruptive innovation.

i. Resource dependencies influence options, i.e., customers effectively control the patterns of resource allocation in well-run companies.

ii. Small markets don’t solve the growth needs of large companies.

iii. The ultimate uses or applications of disruptive technology are unknowable in advance. Failure is an intrinsic step toward success.

iv. Organizations have capabilities that exist independent of the capabilities of people who work within them. Organizational capabilities reside within their processes and values—and the very processes and values that constitute their core capabilities within the current business model also define their disabilities when confronted with disruption.

v. [Innovation] supply may not equal market demand. The attributes that make disruptive technologies unattractive in established markets often are the very ones that constitute the greatest value in emerging markets. (p. 99)

One of the reasons for these phenomena is that disruptive products are introduced absent any degree of magnitude about actual target markets. For disruptive products to gain market acceptance and enjoy first mover advantage, they need to appeal to the innovator and early adopter portions of the Diffusion of Innovations bell curve (Rogers, 2003, p. 279-285) to reach the tipping point of traction toward mass appeal (Sinek, 2009). The tipping point embraces the power of Metcalf’s Law: “the value of a network as a whole is proportional to the square of the number of its participants” (Ries, 2011a, p. 39).

The stage gate product development process that serves sustaining, incremental innovation so well is a disservice to disruptive innovation. Two reasons prevail: (i) product conceptualization and supporting technology is assumed, and (ii) managerial support is preordained (Griggin et al., 2012, p. 18). In contrast, disruptive innovation entails a “fuzzy front end” that is devoid of navigation benchmarks of any reliable description (p. 18-19).

One technique along the disruptive introductory path is launching minimally viable products [MVPs] (Ries, 2011a). MVPs are tantamount to the good enough threshold (Christensen & Raynor, 2003). MVPs usher disruptive innovators through a labyrinth of options subject to two caveats: (i) “any effort that is not absolutely necessary for learning what customers want should be eliminated”; and (ii) “customers don’t care how much time something takes to build; they care only that it serves their needs” (Ries, 2011b, p. 56-63). Since there is nothing against which to benchmark a disruptive product, the initial customers will tolerate imperfection, provided the
product addresses a worthy purpose. Iterative releases of the product address the necessary tweaks en route to deeper customer satisfaction.

The Role of the Teams

The Japanese proverb, “None of us is as smart as all of us” (Japanese proverb quotes, n.d.), frames the virtue of teams. Diversity of perspective is a worthy inclusion criterion. Moreover, T-shaped attributes are valuable, i.e., being both broadly oriented in numerous relevant subjects, as well as deeply immersed in some (Kelly & Littman, 2000). This T-shaped attribute should rest between the extremes of the spectrum bounded by (i) shallow generalists who know less and less about more and more, such that they eventually know nothing about anything useful to the project, and (ii) myopic specialists who know more and more about less and less, whose net result is knowing everything about nothing pertinent to the objective.

Preparation is a big part of becoming an effective innovation team member. Four simple techniques help teammates stimulate their creative synapses: (i) experiencing new settings for contextual variation; (ii) studying pioneering individuals; (iii) absorbing diverse, eclectic reading material; and (iv) engaging luminaries and thought leaders (Anthony, 2012, p. 132-133). Three means are cited to accentuate teammates’ innovative perspectives: (i) live outside the country for a period of time, (ii) work in different areas of the company or different companies, and (iii) learn new skills (Dyer et al., 2011). Professionals with expatriate experience are 35 percent more likely to be innovative (Dyer et al., 2011).

Team acculturation for innovative endeavors does not necessarily differ from that of other types of teams. The basic phases of team development are forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning (Tuckman & Jenson, 1977, p. 419-427). Team formation may be catalyzed by the leader, i.e., the teams might not self-select. Storming entails the evolutionary and potentially contentious course of developing group dynamics. Norming is the adoption of an esprit de corps that works for the team relative to the mission. The norming competencies in play are: (i) conflict resolution, (ii) problem solving, (iii) communication concision and clarity, (iv) decision making, (v) goal-setting, (vi) planning, (vii) task execution, and (viii) performance management (Gilley, Morris, Waite, Coates, & Veliquette, 2010, p. 7-28). Performing aligns with Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi’s depiction of “flow,” or group chi (Csikszentmihaly, 2003).

Teams must translate creativity into innovation that reconciles with the customer experience. One methodology for empathizing with customers is “agnostic marketing” (Christensen, 1997) or objectively observing customers in their ecosystems. There are four time-tested approaches for gathering such stimuli: (i) questioning, (ii) networking, (iii) observing, and (iv) experimenting (Anthony, 2012, p. 33-34).
Like any other team, innovative cohorts must build relationships upon a foundation of trust. The presence of trust pays relational dividends just as the absence of trust exacts a tax (Covey, 2008). Pioneering teams appear to be particularly attuned to teammate competence, reliability, transparency, and empathy (Williams, 2001).

Organizational Design

“People want to be part of growth, not endless cost cutting” (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 24). The need to innovate is all too often realized in an organization’s obituary instead of its strategy. “Companies cannot build a culture of innovation without cultivating people who do” (p. 24). Creating an innovative culture demands that leaders nurture the elements of (i) courageousness, (ii) connectedness, (iii) collaboration, (iv) curiosity, and (v) openness (p. 243). Innovative organizational design is a conundrum. “Innovation has never been institutionalized. Systems have never been able to reproduce the synthesis created by the genius entrepreneur . . . and they likely never will” (Mintzberg, 1994, p. 110). As with general leadership styles, organizational designs belie one size fitting all situations (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 151).

The stakes are high. Only five percent of companies beat average growth relative to their industry for an extended period of time (Christensen & Raynor, 2003, p. 21). Virtually no companies are successful after having a growth initiative failure (p. 7). Some of this is explained via a psychological anchoring effect. We fear loss more than cost, and both more than the enjoyment of winning (Kahneman, 2011). Middle management is typically the reason ideas do not percolate up from the ranks for consideration. One of the primary root causes is risk aversion (Christensen & Raynor, 2003, p. 10, 11, 13, 217, 220, 270).

Organizational capabilities are determined by three Ps: (i) people, (ii) process, and (iii) philosophy (Dyer et al., 2011). When the needs of innovation success eclipse the limitations of the three Ps, the organization has three options: (i) acquisition, (ii) process reengineering, (iii) isolated incubation within the firm (Christensen, 1997, p. 172). All three options have organizational architecture implications. Leaders are challenged to overcome the organizational “valley of death,” i.e., the gap between the required and existing organizational architecture (Griggin et al., 2012, p. 21; Markham, 2002). Organizational architecture is comprised of three core elements: (i) span of control, (ii) information access, and (iii) performance management (Brickley, Smith, & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 5). Consequently, leaders must finagle the organizational architecture levers to customize a suitable design for their particular firms. Good organizational design promotes discovery of exploitable opportunities, manifests in marketable solutions for those epiphanies, and presses maniacally for first mover advantage (Griggin et al., 2012, p. 27; Leifer, McDermott, O’Connor, Peters, Rice, & Veryzer, 2000; O’Connor, Leifer, Paulson, & Peters, 2008).
Innovation execution benefits by the roles of champions, project managers, and implementers (Griggin et al., 2012, p. 24-25). These are complementary functions that are not necessarily performed by the same professionals. Champions sponsor initiatives and remove obstacles. They may not have technical expertise, e.g., an electrical engineering degree, but they understand the intended objective of the innovative endeavor. Project managers coordinate actions across seemingly disparate parties who may lack perspectives for their reliance on each other’s contribution to the bigger picture. Most especially, project managers steward the critical path of tasks that must occur in a certain order to underwrite the intended results, e.g., raw materials arriving at the incubation lab. Implementers take the product to market. These are supply chain experts who manage marketing, sales, production, and delivery functions.

Leadership Challenges

“It is not the strongest of the species that survives, nor the most intelligent that survives. It is the one that is the most adaptable to change” (Charles Darwin quotes, n.d.). “To prosper, companies need to do four things well: (i) develop leaders of the future, (ii) improve productivity, (iii) execute strategy, and (iv) create innovation. Innovation is the glue that binds everything together. Without sustaining the practice of innovation, no company can excel—or survive” (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 28). “Leaders of innovation are made, not born. . . . The four key building blocks of this process are (i) performance evaluation, (ii) early identification, (iii) developmental experiences, and (iv) rewards and recognition” (p. 272). Companies that are “considered to have innovation as one of their core competencies utilize mentoring to facilitate and cultivate innovation” (Amat, 2008).

“The single most important factor in a company’s level of innovation competence is building an innovative culture that has total leadership commitment” (Maughan, 2012, p. iii). Change management is particularly problematic because organizations may be hostile to innovative change that threatens status quo. Deliberate and emergent strategies are among the innovative leader’s options. Deliberate strategies rely on effective execution and work best if these conditions are met: (i) all important and relevant details are known, and responsible parties clearly understand their roles; (ii) the strategy makes sense to the employees accountable for execution; and (iii) collective intentions of the organization must tune out all outside signals. By contrast, emergent strategy uses a day-to-day phenomenon, i.e., tactical responses to problems and opportunities prevail because the future appears murky (Christensen & Raynor, 2003, p. 214-216).

Peter Drucker (1985) offers some innovative leadership dos and don’ts. The dos include: (i) opportunity analysis, (ii) customer reaction validation, (iii) solutions aligned with needs, (iv) piloting preceding scaling, and (v) aspirations and actions toward market leadership. Drucker’s don’ts include (i) cleverness instead of clarity, (ii) diluted execution focus, (iii) innovation for the
future (instead of the present). The latter point may appear a bit odd in a Moore’s Law world. Drucker’s meaning is not outrunning your customers’ ability to grasp the utility of the innovation.

Disruptive innovation may hold the most accretive—or beneficially compounded—promise, yet may be the toughest leadership challenge. First, disruptive budgets are not easily approved. A shrewd option is framing the initiative to counter an imminent threat to the company. Once funding occurs, leaders may then pivot to reframe the initiative as an opportunity (Christensen & Raynor, 2003, p. 112-113). While leaders must be tolerant of mistakes, they must simultaneously emphasize growth over profits—but temper that necessity with impatience for profits (p. 236). Leaders, their organizations, and their incubation teams should never lose sight of the “Why?” of innovative necessity.

Conclusion

Success is a double-edged sword. While it produces results, it also fosters complacency (Tushman & O’Reilly, 2002, p. 14). Complacency blinds the organization to the evolutionary nature of the ecosystem. Sir Isaac Newton’s first law of motion imparts that objects in motion tend to remain so unless resisting forces act upon the object (Newton & Hawking, 2002, p. 14). Innovation is tantamount to an ecosystem’s resisting force that necessarily alters a firm’s course toward a more viable trajectory. The argument of this essay includes dispelling common innovation myths, such as (i) the intellectual limitation to products instead of the inclusion of services and processes, (ii) the exclusive realm of an elitist cadre of progenitors as opposed to an inclusive panoply of players, and (iii) the restriction to deeply-pocketed behemoths instead of a free-for-all of the willing (Lafley & Charan, 2008, p. 24-26). Andy Grove perhaps said it best, “Only the paranoid survive” (Grove, 1996). The organization’s best defense against entropy, atrophy, apathy, and complacency is innovation. Much like the soreness that comes with hypodermic inoculation, change induced by innovation may also come with pain. However, like immunization, the greater good of innovation is healthy existence and growth. In summary, innovators are more likely to write the history whose objects of derision in those chronicled accounts are the ones who eschewed innovative fidelity and rigor.

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Leadership Coping Skills: Servant Leader Workplace Spiritual Intelligence

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This paper presents the results of a pretest of 77 human resource and city manager respondents in the area of servant leader workplace spiritual intelligence (SLWSI). SLWSI is a subset of research on spiritual intelligence which consists of five components: a capacity for transcendence; the ability to enter higher states of consciousness; the facility to interject the sacred into everyday events; the capability to utilize applied sanctification principles to solve problems; and the ability to engage in ethical and virtuous behavior such as forgiveness, love, transparency, and humility. The results indicate that respondents who scored higher on servant leadership, an important workplace spiritual intelligence attribute, reported lower levels of job stress and higher levels of workforce engagement (more satisfied with peers and job challenge, higher organizational commitment and loyalty, greater motivation to improve performance, and higher overall performance level). SLWSI has great relevancy and promise for managers and executives.

Introduction

Executives, managers and supervisors at all sectors and levels are facing complex challenges on multiple fronts and are under increasing pressure to produce the same or expanded services and programs with lower levels of personnel and budgetary support. One of the key elements to effective long-term leadership is the cultivation of stress resiliency and the associated coping and adaption mechanisms/strategies. Effective managers reduce their own stress and attempt to
reduce the stress placed on other employees.

The current recession and ongoing budget and staffing pressures significantly elevate employee stress levels. A Pew Foundation survey (2010) found that 55% of all the adults in the labor force have suffered some form of job-related adverse action over the last 30 months (layoff, pay cut, reduction in hours, etc.). A recent Conference Board poll demonstrated that job employee job satisfaction has decreased from 61% in 1987 to 45% in 2009 (Gibbons, 2010). An American Psychological Association poll (2008) indicated that financial issues (81%) and job stress (67%) are the two top significant stress sources. The poll also indicated that prayer and attending religious services were the most effective stress reduction strategies (American Psychological Association, 2008).

This article summarizes preliminary research on a promising approach for helping HR executives shoulder the mental and physical burdens, that of servant leader workplace spiritual intelligence (SLWSI). One of the key elements in improving leadership is to promote a value system that concurrently cultivates mission achievement and the well-being of employees and clients. Servant leadership was first popularized in contemporary leadership and management circles by Robert Greenleaf (1977) with ongoing research by his mentee Larry Spears (1995).

This article presents the results of a survey of 77 human resource and city manager professionals assessing the influence of (SLWSI) from a Christian religious worldview perspective on self-reported stress and key organizational commitment variables. This research effort utilizes a Christian perspective on SLWSI, but the research model can be adopted for other religious perspectives as well. SLWSI is a subarea of research on spiritual intelligence (Gardner, 1993; Emmons, 2000). To date, there is no empirical research on the application of SLWSI within workplace settings.

SLWSI is the integration of Christian spiritual and religious values, principles and practices to leadership practice. It is a major factor in promoting individual life balance (work, family and personal time). SLWSI consists of: 1) an overall life orientation that is in harmony with the will of God, 2) a love-based, altruistic work motivational system, 3) God-honoring, golden-rule work behaviors, and 4) the application of moral/ethical “performance” standards to assess motives, behavior and outcomes. SLWSI is hypothesized to positively influence a range of desirable employee attitudes and behaviors including positive stress coping and adaptation strategies, among others. As noted above, the 2008 APA stress poll indicated that prayer and religious service attendance were the most effective stress management activities.

**Literature Base**

Research in the area of spiritual intelligence is in its formative stages and receiving considerable attention in the psychology literature. The seminal work in the field is from the 2000 special
issue in the *International Journal for the Psychology of Religion* that presented a variety of theoretical and conceptual views on the validity of spiritual intelligence. Empirical research is largely limited to a variety of educational and psychotherapeutic applications (Sawyer, 2005; Delaney, 2002). There is a great need to extend spiritual intelligence research to the workplace. There is a growing popular press literature with some 24-plus books written on the subject, with only three addressing the workplace perspective (Primeaux & Pava, 2003). Research on workplace spiritual intelligence is interdisciplinary by definition, incorporating psychology, medicine, business, leadership, organizational behavior, and human resource management, largely from prescriptive and secondary research sources (MacHovec, 2002).

The underlying research premise (hypothesis) is that higher levels of SLWSI are associated with a range of positive attitudinal (higher levels of job satisfaction, commitment), and lower levels of life and job stress promoting beneficial consequences for the leader, his subordinates, and the organization as a whole.

**Servant Leader Attributes**

Servant leadership is value-based approach with a variety of conceptual definitions and frameworks. Key elements of servant leadership include an emphasis on character traits such as forgiveness, humility, faith, teachability (willingness to receive feedback), integrity, empowerment, support and patience, among others (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999). Another key element is the promotion of accountability through setting clear and challenging performance goals and standards, high levels of motivation, and fair and firm discipline balanced by support and encouragement. Seven key attributes of servant leaders are altruistic behavior, empowerment, humility, genuine love, customer service orientation, cultivating trust, and an inspired vision (Patterson & Stone, 2003). Organizations are becoming less hierarchical, and employers that encourage situational leadership behaviors are in a better position to adapt to changing work conditions (Barzelay & Armajani, 1997). When employees and managers accept responsibility and are committed to the greater good, they are more likely to demonstrate leadership behavior as the situation dictates (focusing on the needs of subordinates, coworkers and clients; active listening; empowering employees; providing support, encouragement and recognition; promoting an open-door policy; accessibility and humility, and forgiveness, among others) (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Hodson, 2002).

This section of the literature summary presents illustrative projected linkages between SLWSI and key workplace behaviors (Knotts, 2000; Sowders, 2001; Browne, 2002). They are: 1) servant followership and organizational citizenship, 2) goal-directed achievement behavior that focuses energy, enhances persistence and reduces the influence of distractions, and 3) stress reduction/coping strategies and behaviors (Ryan, 2002; Shaddock, Hill, & van Limbeek, 1998; Snyder, Sigmon & Feldman, 2002).
SLWSI should be associated with higher levels of servant followership/organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). There are three global citizenship behavioral dimensions, interpersonal helping, sportsmanship (high motivation irrespective of the work conditions), and civic virtue (active participation in the life of the organization) (Ryan, 2002). Example behaviors include taking time to help a coworker, even if it is inconvenient, and exerting extra effort to accomplish the job irrespective of the personal costs. These workplace behaviors are closely related to altruistic religious/spiritual values such as the primacy of duty, denial of the self, and golden rule conduct. Servant leadership has been linked to higher levels of organizational citizenship behaviors (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010), commitment (Schneider & George, 2011), employee trust (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Senjaya & Pekerti, 2010), higher job satisfaction (Schneider & George, 2011), improved job performance (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009), and lower levels of turnover intention (Schneider & George, 2011; Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2011).

Strong levels of SLWSI may enhance the employee’s work focus by reducing the frequency and intensity of distractions (Knotts, 2000). These are the values that we associate with the Protestant work ethic and include high levels of work effort and a commitment to excellence (work as if you are working for God), hedonistic pleasure avoidance, independence (adhere to core values irrespective of the external conditions), and asceticism (Blau & Ryan, 1997). As such, these behaviors should exert a measurable impact on workplace outcomes.

SLWSI is associated with a variety of stress reducing strategies and behaviors applicable to a diversity of life circumstances and settings that reduce the likelihood of burnout on the job (Shaddock, Hill, & van Limbeek, 1998; Fisher, Francis, & Johnson, 2002). The ability to manage occupational stress is a key attribute to reducing the prevalence of dysfunctional workplace attitudes and behaviors (Knotts, 2000). In addition, more effective stress coping strategies can increase work productivity by reducing the incidence of mental and physical illness (Francis & Kaldor, 2002).

Methods

The data for this article was gathered from two web survey instruments. The first is a questionnaire directed at city managers selected from the International City Management Association Directory. Selected respondents received a mail letter inviting them to complete the on-line survey instrument. The second web survey consisted of personnel employees from a commercially purchased email list. This group of city managers and HR professionals work in highly demanding and stressful work environments similar to federal executives. Potential respondents were sent an email with an embedded encrypted link. Forty-four city managers completed the initial survey along with 30 personnel officials. Given the low response rates (approximately 11% for the city managers and .5% for the personnel officials), the pretest sample is a defacto convenience sample. It is likely that the respondents who completed the
survey were more religious and spiritually oriented than those who did not complete the instrument. The low response rates are not uncommon for commercial email blasts and web surveys with no follow-up.

Sample Attributes

The demographic and organizational variables measured include gender, race, education level, and age. Organizational variables assessed are job experience, organizational level, and number of employees supervised. The city manager sample is predominately male (91%), in the 51 to 65 age category (72%), white (91%), and possess a master’s degree (84%). In terms of organizational moderators, the mean number of years of total job experience is 30 years, 91% are at the executive level, and they supervise a median number of 350 employees. The sample of personnelists manifests a different demographic profile. There are more women (67%) with a slightly younger age profile (50% are 50 or younger) and a lower education level (63% with a BA or less). Like the city manager sample, most are white (93%). In terms of organizational moderators, the job experience level is similar to the city managers (mean of 29 years) but with a more diverse organizational level profile (only 40% at the executive level) and fewer employees to supervise (median of 5.5).

Measuring Servant Leader Workplace Spiritual Intelligence

The measurement instrument for assessing SLWSI was a 60-item additive survey scale assessing servant leadership attributes for city managers, and 45 questions for the personnel officials, given fewer formal leadership duties. A combined sample scale was constructed consisting of 42 overlapping items. The underlying premise is that respondents with a higher level of SLWSI are more likely to: 1) possess explicit or intuitive knowledge of servant leadership elements, 2) to actively believe in the morality, ethicality and effectiveness of SLWSI in producing positive workplace attitudinal, behavioral and performance outcomes, and 3) practice and apply SLWSI behaviors with more consistency, integrity, and effectiveness. In essence, those with higher levels of SLWSI manifest a harmony and balance of knowledge, belief and practice.

In an ideal research setting, self-reports would be supplemented with independent “360 degree” peer, subordinate, client observational/experiential assessments, direct behavioral observations, and relevant objective data. As with any survey instrument, there are limitations. Response bias is likely to be present with surveys of this type given the sensitivity of the questions, the inherent psychological need to maintain a positive self-image, and the associated external image management issues. This possible rating inflation does not reduce the ability of the measurement process to assess relative strengths and weaknesses if there is a satisfactory range in item responses.
The respondents used a four-point scale to indicate how frequently they engaged in the listed behavior from “always,” “most of the time,” “sometimes,” or “rarely never.” The 42-item combined additive scale manifested a high degree of reliability at .84 (alpha value). The Servant Leadership scale exhibited a satisfactory degree of variance with a range from 101 to 163 with a mean total score of 129, a median of 129, and a modal value of 124. A frequency analysis demonstrated a normal distribution within the designated range. The mean item score was 2.15 on a 4-point scale, indicating that the most common response for frequency assessment for the behavior or the attitude was at the “sometimes” level, which is consistent with a lower level of response bias. However, the scores on the items which demonstrated a high degree of social desirability bias did exhibit greater frequency levels. For example, 73% of the respondents indicated that they always take joy in the success of co-workers. In contrast, the scores on the objective practice items such as journaling were much lower. Only one respondent (1.4%) indicated they always employ journaling with 70 percent indicating that they never engage in journaling. This high degree of variance indicates that respondents are making a good faith attempt to provide accurate responses. Below are the results organized by nine servant leader dimensions:

**Accountability.** Accountability is measured by four items and respondents reported high degrees of personal accountability at the always or most of the time level. Ninety-eight percent stated that those that they interacted with were worthy of trust, 95% recognized that not providing constructive performance feedback impedes growth and development, 88% percent assumed responsibility first for their personal contribution to a performance problem, and 69% exercised “tough love” accountability with employees.

**Forgiveness.** Forgiveness (4 items) is the essential spiritual intelligence attribute. The respondents demonstrated high levels of forgiveness for all items (always or most of the time) in affirming employees for good faith mistakes (98%), communicating to others that learning requires mistakes (95%), forgiving others for workplace mistakes (95%), and forgiving themselves (70%).

**Humility.** Humility (12 items) is a foundational servant leader virtue. Humility includes such elements as promoting transparency of self and employees, recognizing personal limitations and weaknesses, and promoting the needs of the mission and other employees over self: The results indicated a high level of self-reported humility (always or most of the time) for 11 of the 12 items, including sharing the credit for success with others (100%), being satisfied with not being the center of attention at meetings (91%), finding humor in their performance mistakes (87%), avoiding personal comparisons of performance and ability (81%), recognizing that hiding weakness produces dysfunctional outcomes (80%), character development is more important than performance (78%), seeking actual or perceived hypocrisy in actions or behaviors (76%), using work problems and weaknesses for teaching moments (72%), giving up personal rights
(62%), identifying behaviors rooted in pride (64%), and confessing work related offenses to God or a higher power (54%). The only item with less than desirable frequency counts is related to linking performance achievements with self-worth. Sixty-six percent sometimes, most of the time or always link self-worth and achievement. Linking self-worth with achievement creates emotional instability given the multiplicity of factors beyond an executive’s control that contribute to policy and management outcomes and recognizing that self-worth is based upon character and identity more than performance.

**Faith.** Faith (1 item) is the character attribute of trusting God’s providential intervention to bring good from workplace trials. Over ¾ indicated God or a higher power guides or protects through increasing hope and stress resiliency.

**Teachability.** Teachability (6 items) is the openness to all forms of valid performance and character feedback, regardless of the source (younger employees, subordinates, etc.). It reflects an ongoing commitment and understanding that growth is a lifelong learning and growth process under the direction of the Holy Spirit. The results in this section were mixed. A majority of the respondents fail to react defensively when others are praised in their presence (97%, always or most of the time), reject equating negative feedback with self-worth (74% always or most of the time), and actively seek feedback (69% always or most of the time). However, only 54% use 360 degree feedback to improve performance, 39 percent have an accountability partner/mentor, and only 12% use the journaling method, which is a powerful tool for self-reflection. This section also reflects the significant difference in response patterns between objective tools, policies, and practices and the self-reported character and behavioral items. The inner-space psychological and character traits are more subject to potential social desirability and response bias.

**Integrity.** Integrity (7 items) is another important dimension and entails a consistency between word and deed adherence to standards of belief and conduct, honoring commitments, and self-awareness of motives. The responses to six of the seven items manifest high degrees of self-reported integrity in terms of recognizing that absence of character will corrupt effective performance (97% always or most of the time), recognizing the dangers of hypocrisy (96% always or most of the time), consistency between policy and practice (95% always or most of the time), denying praise to others produces anger (84% always or most of the time), recognize every virtue can become a vice with pride (82% always or most of the time), and that the most enduring motivation for success is love (77% always or most of the time). Interestingly, 78% report at a level of sometimes or greater that character flaws are sabotaging their success. This is another indicator that the social desirability effect bias is not adversely influencing all items.

**Empowerment.** Empowerment is measured by four items. The self-reported level of empowerment is high in regards to taking joy in the success of co-workers (99% always or most of the time), a greater focus on organizational mission accomplishment and goal achievement than self performance (87% always or most of the time), more concerned with accomplishing
mission purpose and goal achievement than their own performance (79% always or most of the time), and more concerned with helping others improve performance than themselves (65% always or most of the time).

**Support.** Support (3 items) is the ability to provide employees with genuine emotional, spiritual, and physical work environment encouragement through a variety of work situations. The respondents indicated a high level of encouragement and support at the always or most of the time levels. One hundred percent treat employees with dignity and respect, 96% take time to listen when busy and 94% percent recognized always or most of the time that their words have great power.

**Patience.** Patience (1 item) is the ability to delay gratification and persevere through trials and tribulations. Respondents indicated a high degree of patience in trials with 86% indicating that they believe that their trials produce long-term good.

These results demonstrate a high degree of self-reported SLWSI for the respondent sample.

**Measurement of Key Outcomes**

There were two sets of dependent variables. The first were 17 items that assessed the various physical, mental and spiritual consequences of prolonged stress and the associated dysfunctional coping mechanisms, based on the work of Fawcett (2003) (Table 1). Respondents indicated how much the symptoms affected them over the last 60-day period, using a 4-point scale of always, most of the time, sometimes, and rarely/never. These questions demonstrated the desired level of variance with a range of 19 to 51 with a mean of 29.3 and a median and mode of 29. The scale was highly reliable with an alpha of .88. The frequency analysis indicated a normal distribution. The average item score of 1.7 on the 4-point scale is slightly below the 2.0 “sometimes” score. This group of respondents report fairly high stress scores (See Table 1) for the following items (most of the time or always): 1) fatigue (24.4%), 2) desire to be alone (24.1%), 3) anxiety, (20.3%), 4) impatience, (16.3%), and 5) sleep disorders (16.2%).

**Table 1: Stress Scale Item Scores**

**Symptom Influenced in the Last 60 Days (n=74)**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Most of the Time</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely/Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fatigue</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>17 (23.0)</td>
<td>50 (67.6)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in Concentrating</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>52 (70.3)</td>
<td>16 (21.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stomach Disorders</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
<td>17 (23.0)</td>
<td>52 (70.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleep Disorders</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
<td>10 (13.5)</td>
<td>32 (43.2)</td>
<td>30 (40.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eating Disorders</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
<td>9 (12.2)</td>
<td>60 (81.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Headaches</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
<td>22 (29.7)</td>
<td>46 (62.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle Fatigue</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
<td>39 (52.7)</td>
<td>30 (40.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Patience</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>51 (68.9)</td>
<td>15 (20.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
<td>12 (16.2)</td>
<td>37 (50.0)</td>
<td>22 (29.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
<td>20 (27.0)</td>
<td>49 (66.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
<td>40 (54.1)</td>
<td>31 (41.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>33 (44.6)</td>
<td>35 (47.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impatience</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
<td>9 (12.2)</td>
<td>48 (64.9)</td>
<td>14 (18.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to be Alone</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
<td>16 (21.6)</td>
<td>43 (58.1)</td>
<td>13 (17.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily Annoyed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
<td>37 (50.0)</td>
<td>32 (43.2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reduced Work Effectiveness
1 (1.4) 5 (6.8) 49 (66.2) 19 (25.7)
Reduced Spiritual Peace
0 7 (9.5) 32 (43.2) 35 (47.3)

The second set of outcome measures were 14 job related attitude questions. Respondents used a 10-point scale from 10 = high to 1 = low. The alpha for the 14 items is .92. The scores ranged from 35 to 138 with a mean of 110 and a mode and median of 114 (an item mean score of 7.9). This group of respondents demonstrated an overall high level of favorable job-related attitudes (See Table 2).

### Table 2: Organizational Attitude Scale Items (10-point scale from 1 (low) to 10 (high)) (n=74)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Supervisor</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Peers</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Compensation</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Job Challenge</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Job Interest</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Trust</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypotheses

The main hypothesis is that those respondents with higher levels of servant leadership spiritual intelligence manifest more effective stress coping and adaptation strategies, which will produce lower levels of physical, emotional, and spiritual stress symptoms. The second hypothesis is that higher levels of servant leadership spiritual intelligence will produce more favorable job-related attitudes. These hypotheses are explored in the next section.

Results

The hypotheses were tested using Bivariate correlation analysis (one-tailed test). The SLWSI Scale was significantly correlated with the Organizational Attitude Scale and the associated favorable job related attitudes (r = .428, Sig = .002). Individual regressions indicated the SLWSI scale was significantly correlated in a positive manner with 10 of the 14 items. The Stress Scale Regression confirmed that higher levels of servant leader spiritual intelligence was associated with lower levels of stress (r = -.25, Sig = .05) and a significant predictor for 3 of the 17 individual variables. To fully explore the relationships, separate multiple regression analyses were completed for each dependent variable item for the Stress and Organizational Attitude Scales. The Servant Leader SI Scale was a significant predictor for 4 of the 17 variables: anxiety, desire to be alone, easily annoyed, and reduced work effectiveness. The easily annoyed and
anxiety equations manifested F levels at the .05 significance level. Hence, servant leader spiritual intelligence is a major factor in reducing dysfunctional stress.

The same process was employed for the Organizational Attitude Scale. The Spiritual Intelligence SI scale was significant predictor for 6 of the 14 items: satisfaction with peers, satisfaction with job challenge, organizational commitment, organizational loyalty, motivation to improve performance, and overall performance level. The satisfaction with peers, satisfaction with job challenge, organizational commitment, and motivation to improve performance equations reached the .05 F level significance.

Discussion and Conclusion

This preliminary analysis confirmed the positive association between servant leader spiritual intelligence (SLWSI) and lower levels of stress and more favorable organizational attitudes. Elevated levels of SLWSI were associated with higher levels of motivation to improve performance and higher performance levels. Hence, the results suggest that knowledge and practice of SLWSI is associated with more effective coping and adaption strategies to the many internal and external sources of strain associated with the modern workplace. This endows managers with a higher level of SLWSI with greater resiliency and ability to resist the temptations to adopt dysfunctional coping mechanisms, and achieve higher levels of performance.

Hence, for this sample of city managers and personnelists, adherence to servant leadership principles and the associated character attributes of accountability, forgiveness, humility, faith, teachability, integrity, empowerment, support, and patience endow stress resistance and the ability to channel time and energy productively with more laser-like focus and intensity. With higher levels of SLWSI, there is a greater degree of resiliency, increased resistance to temptation, and more effective decision-making. With lower levels SLWSI, more time and energy must be invested in coping with dysfunctional stress, thereby impeding internal and externally directed positive thoughts and behaviors.

The research findings here should generalize to executives and managers in other settings as well, given the generalizable and universal application of spiritual and religion beliefs. For managers and leaders who are spiritually/religiously inclined, the integration of SLWSI has the prospect of decreasing personal and subordinate stress. This will increase the over harmony and trust in the workplace. Many of the elements of SLWSI contain general “Golden Rule” ethical and moral elements that are applicable to all faith and spiritual traditions. Hence, most of these practices can be adopted by those with little or no spiritual or religious belief.

The small sample size precluded definitive conclusions and will require larger and more diverse samples of managers and employees. Given the sensitivity of the subject matter, careful attention
must be directed towards three areas: 1) ensuring that research subjects are protected and protocols for informed consent are followed explicitly, especially respondent confidentiality/anonymity (O’Sullivan, Rassel & Berner, 2003); 2) that variable measures are designed to reduce nonresponse and social desirability bias (Bainbridge, 1989); and 3) multiple methods and sources of information (subordinates, peers, etc.) are used (Isaac & Michael, 1981). Careful attention to survey instrument development and interview protocols are necessary to minimize hypothesis guessing and image management (Ryan, 2002).

Given that workplace spiritual intelligence is a dynamic and changing force over time, longitudinal studies that track panels or cohorts of employees would add greatly to the knowledge base (Ingersoll-Dayton, Krause, & Morgan, 2002). How do factors such as organizational experience, promotions and other career development episodes moderate the influence of SLWSI (Fisher, Frances, & Johnson, 2002; Miller & Hardin, 2002)? Another fertile area for research relates to whether there are moderator influences by type of religion, both between (Christian versus Buddhist, for example) and within religions (testing for denominational influences) (Cohen, 2002; Cohen, Siegel, & Rozin, 2003).

Future studies should link SLWSI to outcomes variables at the individual, work group, departmental, and organizational levels. From a “bottom-line,” return on investment (ROI) perspective, does SLWSI improve productivity, reduce turnover, and enhance job satisfaction (Chmielewski & Phillips, 2002)? If so, should organizations implement formal policies to cultivate SLWSI (Fowler, 1993)? How can organizations support spiritual/religious practices while avoiding violating first amendment and religious establishment clauses and Title VII religious discrimination law through imposing religious beliefs and thus creating a hostile work climate (Digh, 1998; Cash, Gray, & Rood, 2000; Huang & Kleiner, 2001; Atkinson, 2000; Starcher, 2003)? Irrespective of the formal integration of religious practice in the workplace, employee workplace behavior and outcomes will be influenced by their formal spiritual and religious beliefs.

About the Author

Gary E. Roberts is an Associate Professor and MPA program director at the Robertson School of Government at Regent University. Dr. Roberts has 20 years of experience in higher education in graduate government and business degree programs. His primary teaching areas are nonprofit administration, human resource management, and public administration. Current research interests include workplace spiritual intelligence and the integration of faith into the workplace, servant leader human resource policy and practice, the impact of the religious friendly workplace, and organizational policies to promote employee work–life balance. He has authored more than 44 journal articles, one book, and many book chapters on various human resource and
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References


Leadership Coping Skills: Servant Leader Workplace Spiritual Intelligence

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