



FALL 2009

VOLUME TWO, ISSUE ONE

A refereed, quarterly online
journal published by the School of
Business and Management at
Thomas Edison State College

INTERNATIONAL LEADERSHIP JOURNAL

IN THIS ISSUE

ARTICLES

Failed Moral Decision Making in High-Profile Leaders: A Social Cognitive Study of William Jefferson Clinton's Political Leadership

Viviette L. Allen and Karin Klenke

Task and Relationship Orientation of American MBA Students

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba, Frank Wolf, and James Kolacek

Different Leadership Styles for Different Organizational Levels: A Phenomenological Case Study

Bruce E. Winston, Karen Cerff, and John Jerome

INTERVIEW

Interview with Abdullah Al Mahmud

Jane H. Ives and Jennifer A. Swanson

PEDAGOGY

A Paradigm for Creating a Sustainable Learning and Service Community in an Online University: Theory and Practice

Jane Henderson, Jason R. Willoughby, and Janice Flegle

ESSAY FROM THE FIELD

An Interdisciplinary Major in Ethical Leadership Studies: Rationale, Challenges, and Template for Building an Adaptable Program

Howard T. Prince II, Geoffrey R. Tumlin, and Stacey L. Connaughton

RESEARCH NOTE

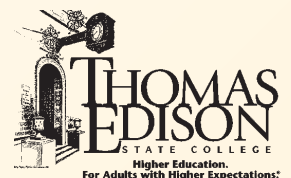
Leadership and the Internationalization Sigmoid

Frank-Florinel Cota

BOOK REVIEW

Transforming Your Leadership Culture

Jennifer A. Swanson



101 W. State St.
Trenton, N.J. 08608
www.tesc.edu/ilj

International Leadership Journal

Contents

Volume 2, Issue 1, Fall 2009

From the Editor <i>Joseph C. Santora</i>	2
ARTICLES	
Failed Moral Decision Making in High-Profile Leaders: A Social Cognitive Study of William Jefferson Clinton's Political Leadership <i>Viviette L. Allen and Karin Klenke</i>	5
Task and Relationship Orientation of American MBA Students <i>Bahaudin G. Mujtaba, Frank Wolf, and James Kolacek</i>	27
Different Leadership Styles for Different Organizational Levels: A Phenomenological Case Study <i>Bruce E. Winston, Karen Cerff, and John Jerome</i>	53
INTERVIEW	
Interview with Abdullah Al Mahmud <i>Jane H. Ives and Jennifer A. Swanson</i>	70
PEDAGOGY	
A Paradigm for Creating a Sustainable Learning and Service Community in an Online University: Theory and Practice <i>Jane Henderson, Jason R. Willoughby, and Janice Flegle</i>	75
ESSAY FROM THE FIELD	
An Interdisciplinary Major in Ethical Leadership Studies: Rationale, Challenges, and Template for Building an Adaptable Program <i>Howard T. Prince II, Geoffrey R. Tumlin, and Stacey L. Connaughton</i>	91
RESEARCH NOTE	
Leadership and the Internationalization Sigmoid <i>Frank-Florinel Cotae</i>	129
BOOK REVIEW	
Transforming Your Leadership Culture <i>Jennifer A. Swanson</i>	136

From the Editor

December 2009

Welcome to this fifth issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, an online, peer-reviewed journal available at no charge to researchers, educators, practicing leaders, consultants, and anyone else interested in exploring leadership and organizational issues. The journal emphasizes international perspectives and “bold new ways of understanding leadership and organizations” that derive from many different disciplines and knowledge domains and that include formal and informal organizations in diverse sectors.

This issue includes three articles, an essay from the field, a pedagogy piece, an interview, a research note, and a book review. International perspectives are well represented in the article on South African leadership from Winston, Cerff, and Jerome; in the exploration of different international cultural orientations in the article from Mujtaba, Wolf, and Kolacek; and in the interview by Swanson with Abdullah Al Mahmud of Bangladesh. Africa, Asia, and North America, then, are distinct focuses of this issue.

One notable theme that runs through this issue is leadership ethics, certainly an important theme at a time when many are questioning the ethical practices of major corporations and the ethical training business leaders receive in business schools. Henderson, Willoughby, and Flegle include a consideration of *ethical communities* in their piece; Allen and Klenke examine the moral leadership of US President William Jefferson Clinton in their article; and Prince, Tumlin, and Connaughton detail the creation of an undergraduate interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies in their field piece. There is some discussion of ethical leadership too in the Mujtaba et al. article, especially when the authors discuss different cultural orientations and the relationship between business education and recent moral failures in the corporate world. Even the book review by Swanson, with its discussion of a call for more collaborative, collective leadership, might be said to have strong ethical implications.

The article by Mujtaba et al. provides a broad-ranging examination of the *task* and *relationship* orientations of MBA students in the United States, concluding that these students demonstrate a significantly higher relationship orientation than task orientation. This is interesting, they suggest, in light of several recent arguments that American business schools foster only short-term oriented, task oriented, and profit focused graduates. It is also interesting, they claim, in light of the highly individualistic, as opposed to communal, orientation of U.S. culture.

The article by Winston et al. explores three leadership styles—paternalistic/clan, transactional, and transformational—implemented intentionally at three different organizational levels (front-line store, store management, head offices) in a

South African retail food chain. The results appear to offer support for situational leadership theory.

The article by Allen and Klenke provides a fascinating look at the failed moral decision making of President Clinton. Using content analysis of Clinton's own statements, the authors examine psychological, social, and organizational variables related to moral failure in leadership. They also suggest avenues for future research on the moral leadership of high profile leaders.

The pedagogy piece by Henderson et al. focuses on the importance of the development of *learning communities* in online education. They argue that an online learning community should include an academic community, a service community, an ethical community, and a sustainable community.

The field piece by Prince et al. "provides a rationale and an overview for the creation of an undergraduate interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies." It deftly explores the challenges and opportunities of conceiving and implementing such a major. Prince, who was the director of the leadership studies program at West Point and later Dean of the Jepson School of Leadership Studies, is now Director of the Center for Ethical Leadership at the LBJ School at the University of Texas at Austin. His experience and knowledge clearly shine through in this splendid exploration of ethical leadership education.

The research note by Cotae focuses on internationalization of businesses as a three-stage sigmoid and concludes that leadership may well be the key to sustaining organizations that pursue internationalization. Internationalization, leadership, and performance, he argues, are closely linked.

The interview by Swanson of Mahmud, who is the founder, Chairman, and Managing Director of the Mahin Group, headquartered in Dhaka, Bangladesh, provides an illuminating look at a business that "is helping to transform Bangladesh into a global player in today's world marketplace."

Finally, the book review by Ives and Swanson looks at *Transforming Your Leadership Culture*, a recent text authored by John McGuire and Gary Rhodes and published jointly by Jossey-Bass and the Center for Creative Leadership. The book, they argue, is a well written, readable, practical, and engaging look at the need to move to a more collaborative type of leadership today.

This issue, like the first four, required the assistance of many capable people. In particular, I would once again like to mention the dedication of Cindy Mooney, who carefully edited and formatted the final drafts of the entire issue, and Joe Guzzardo, without whose help we could not sustain our ongoing Web page. Happy holidays to them and to our contributing authors!

As we said in our previous issues, we hope you will let colleagues, friends, practicing leaders, and consultants know about us, and also encourage them to submit manuscripts or to share opinions with us about the journal. We also hope you will enjoy this issue. Finally, we wish you, as readers, a happy holiday season too.

Joseph C. Santora

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a large, stylized 'J' and 'S' followed by a horizontal line.

Editor

ARTICLES

Failed Moral Decision Making in High-Profile Leaders: A Social Cognitive Study of William Jefferson Clinton's Political Leadership

**Viviette L. Allen, Ph.D.
Fayetteville State University**

**Karin Klenke, Ph.D.
University of Maryland Eastern Shore**

High-profile or exceptional leaders garner recognition, wield extraordinary influence, and possess the potential to mobilize human work and resources toward epic achievement; yet for some, their failure can be as spectacular as their success. Ironically, the exhilarating and chaotic psychological and social dynamics of high-profile leadership create an ideal medium for not only success but also failure. This article explores psychological, social, and organizational variables related to moral failure of a high-profile political leader, former U.S. President Bill Clinton. Clinton's failed moral decision making was examined through a qualitative content analysis of self-exonerating and non self-exonerating statements made over a period of time starting 12 months prior to his impeachment trial until several years afterwards. The results of content analysis revealed that the majority of Clinton's statements served self-exonerating rather than non self-exonerating purposes. Implications for leadership theory and future research are discussed.

Key words: failed moral decision making, leadership failure, self-exoneration, William J. Clinton

Leaders—particularly powerful, exceptionally accomplished leaders—and their decisions have a pivotal and interactive impact on executive and managerial career paths, on the health of organizations and their constituents, and on the larger context of work and society. Sometimes the choices and conduct of leaders result in moral failure. These situations have complex causes that include internal and environmental influences; they generate wide-ranging effects that can include an erosion of confidence and trust in leaders and the institutions they represent (Bass, 1990; Finklestein, 2003; Northouse, 2004; Vardi & Weitz, 2003; Yukl, 2009).

This research explores psychological, social, and institutional factors that create, justify, diminish prohibitory safeguards, and sustain wrongful acts by those in high-profile positions in order to better identify common themes, traits, and patterns related to failed moral decision making. The primary units of analysis are: (1) self-exonerating statements, or those explanations offered to explain, justify, or excuse decisions and behaviors, and (2) non self-exonerating statements, or those that indicate acceptance of moral responsibility. The research is illustrated by the case of former U.S. President Bill Clinton before, during, and after his impeachment trial. The theoretical framework in which this work is embedded is Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), particularly as it relates to moral disengagement processes used to facilitate acts of inhumanity (Bandura, 1986, 1991, 1997, 1999, 2001; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996).

Leadership and Failure

Leader failure is infrequently addressed in leadership research, resulting in a body of literature that is strongly skewed toward effectiveness and best practices. Failure, when examined, is often portrayed as either a "bad seed" type aberration or as a growth-promoting learning or character-building experience. The result is a dearth of information on leaders who fail. As Bersoff (1999) observes, "in general, very little work has been done on the direct cognitive precursors to unethical action, especially among nondelinquent, noncriminal populations involved in spontaneous, unambiguously unethical behavior" (29). According to Bandura (1999), "much work remains to be done in analyzing the particular forms that moral disengagement practices take at industry-wide levels and the justificatory exonerations and social arrangements that facilitate their use" (205).

Despite the overriding tendency in leadership research to emphasize leader virtue, history and an expanding array of media accounts of leader misconduct suggest that leader failure is not so unusual and that it has potentially far-reaching and adverse effects. Kellerman (2004) states, "It almost seems by definition that bad people cannot be good leaders." And yet, she adds: "flawed

leaders are everywhere” (41). Vardi and Weitz (2003), note that, “misbehavior [in organizations] is both a pervasive and universal phenomenon....it cuts across individuals, jobs, hierarchical levels, occupations, organizations, and geographic borders” (23). People, even highly accomplished people who have performed good works, at times do fail.

William Jefferson Clinton: A Study in Contrasts

Former U.S. President Bill Clinton offers a profile of sharp contrasts. He climbed to a position of global power, yet committed and eventually admitted to decisions and actions that placed his office and reputation in jeopardy. How and under what circumstances does an intelligent, highly accomplished, and media-savvy leader such as Clinton formulate and justify decisions of such grave moral impropriety?

In political systems, dynamic and strategic leadership skills are required to develop, influence, and negotiate policy among various constituencies. Clinton demonstrated these skills. In addition, he brought human capital (intelligence, education, political and social astuteness, impression management, and self-promotion skills) and political and reputational capital to the Oval Office. By many measures of leadership effectiveness and success, Clinton was an effective popular leader who well understood the scrutiny and role of bargaining games in the political process. Yet his promiscuity and faulty decision making processes caused him to fall from grace until his acknowledgement of guilt following the Monica Lewinski affair pulled his presidency from the brink of disaster (Sonnenfeld & Ward, 2008).

Factors Associated with Leadership Failure

Among the many organizational factors associated with leadership failure are poorly planned successions or leader conflict with followers, constituents, mission, or culture (Cespedes & Galford, 2004). The Center for Creative Leadership Studies (Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995) has produced an impressive body of data on executive derailment or leaders who fail to live up to early

potential (and were unable to use those strengths to adapt to changing organizational-based or position-based demands). However, these studies have not focused specifically on those leaders who excel and then make grievous errors of judgment.

In this section, we focus on two specific factors: stress and cognitive errors leaders make that are associated with faulty decision making. Leaders in all contexts, but even more so political leaders on the world stage, are confronted with a wide variety of stressors. These range from annoying nuisances to international crises and assassination threats. Stress creates emotional arousal, frustration, and fatigue, and it may impair decision making. Instead of careful analysis and calculation or effective use of judgment and intuition, the stressed leader tends to fall back on counterproductive strategies and coping mechanisms that seem expedient or that satisfy emotional needs rather than the objective requirements of the situation (Bass, 1990; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Selye, 1978).

Doubt, uncertainty, change, and the unexpected are natural and normal features of leadership. In addition to the inherent role-based stress, some problems are of the individual leader's own making. Some political leaders manufacture crises to enhance personal power, to divert public attention, and gain public support for their arbitrary actions and decisions. For example, it has been suggested that George W. Bush manufactured Desert Storm to enhance his chances for reelection. During the Lewinski scandal, Clinton, of his own volition, chose behaviors and made public statements of denial that generated consternation and that will forever be linked to his tenure in office.

Powerful leaders are often isolated from the mundane workings of the organization and are under great stress and fatigue due to high demands for their attention and time. Moreover, they are often insulated from authentic criticisms and are only communicated to via carefully planned communications. They are enriched and plied with luxuries and lavish compensations that foster a strong self-orientation. Boyatzis and McKee (2005) introduced a concept known as "power stress" to outline the exacting and detrimental pressures on postmodern

executives that can result in insidious, wrong-minded decision making. Traditional coping mechanisms and social structures cannot sufficiently fend off contemporary leadership challenges. They point out that: “On any given day [leaders] are faced with unrealistic demands, manipulation, and judgment” (43). Stress related to power can place leaders “at the mercy of volatile emotions and reactivity” (6). This dynamic can result in burnout, cynicism, excuse-making, overreaching dominance, distraction, or risk-taking as well as illogical, self-defeating, or capricious actions or decisions aimed at recapturing a sense of excitement, worth, control, or power.

Perceptual, predictive, attributional, and judgment errors have been associated with cognitive processes or mental shortcuts known as heuristics that may translate into poor thinking habits. Dörner (1989/1997), argued that, “Failure does not strike like a bolt from the blue; it develops gradually according to its own logic” (10). Dörner explained that while the human potential to think and to think well is vast, research suggests that regular sources of cognitive error lie in the human tendency to: (a) engage in short-term problem solving, thus limiting foresight in complex circumstances, (b) over-rely on visual imaging when thinking, thus constricting the ability to think well about unseen or non-visual problems, (c) overuse post hoc or hindsight information rather than creative or hypothesis-testing related thinking in novel or emerging situations, or (d) experience attention and focusing deficits.

Social Cognitive Theory of Moral Agency

Social cognitive theory (SCT) as developed by Bandura (Bandura, 1986, 1991, 1997, 1999, 2001; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Wood & Bandura, 1989) or its more specific subcomponent, social cognitive theory of moral agency (Bandura, 1991), is a useful model to help to explain some of the complex dynamics that interplay to create distorted or troubled moral decision making and related leader conduct. Moral disengagement mechanisms work through cognitive and social machinations to short-circuit inhibitory processes such as reflection or punishment, thereby creating psychological distance between the decision maker

and consequent outcomes. The result is that bad or immoral behavior is rendered innocuous, justified, or even inevitable.

In order to avoid blame and to sustain a positive view of self and social acceptance when a breach of personal standards occurs, certain cognitive adjustments described by Bandura (1986, 1991, 1997, 1999, 2001) as “moral disengagement” and/ or “self-regulatory” mechanisms are frequently employed. These mechanisms serve to distance or excuse a person from culpability, to sustain equilibrium, and to avoid the punishing effects of self-admonishment, self-hatred, or blame that would result in an undermining of self-esteem and self-efficacy. Bandura suggested eight “self-exonerating” mechanisms: (a) moral justification, (b) euphemistic labeling, (c) advantageous comparison, (d) displacement of responsibility, (e) diffusion of responsibility, (f) disregard or distortion of consequences, (g) dehumanization, and (h) attribution of blame (1986, 376-386; 1991, 72-93; 1999, 194-203; Bandura et al., 1996, 374) used to make immoral behaviors personally and socially palatable, acceptable, or at least subject to reasonable explanation.

Method

This exploratory qualitative study employed a content analysis of statements made by a high-profile leader. Content analysis is a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts” (Krippendorff, 2004, 18) and uses structured techniques to analyze data. The fundamental idea that drives content analysis is reducing “many words of text into fewer content categories” (Weber, 1990, 12). Such data reduction can be done at the level of the word, sentence, theme, paragraph, or even the entire text.

Research Participant

This study involved a purposeful sample of a single research participant, former U.S President William Jefferson Clinton, who was selected because his case exemplifies the two central variables of interest in this study, exceptional

leadership achievement and a history of at least one highly publicized episode of failed moral decision making.

Materials and Corpus of Text

The primary units of analysis were direct quotations or verbatim statements that have the validating factor of limited inferential interpretation. The corpus of text from which quotations and relevant background materials were extracted consisted of media and legal documents published 12 months prior and in the aftermath of Clinton's 1999 Senate impeachment trial (see Appendix A).

Data Collection and Coding

Quotations extracted from the body of text (see Appendix) were selected based on their publication dates during the specified timeframes and for relevance or relationship to the critical incident of failure. To avoid redundancy and a skewing of frequencies, quotations that appeared in multiple sources were analyzed only once unless there were contextual factors that altered the statement's meaning or exonerating function.

In this research, existing theory and data from the literature were used to shape coding in order to identify patterns and themes associated with the moral failure of a high-profile leader. Coding for the categorization and interpretation of data, conducted by two coders, was completed by hand using Boyatzis (1998) thematic code development procedures and supplemented by HyperRESEARCH™ 2.6, a computer assisted qualitative data analysis software.

This study employed two coders, the primary author and a recruited unpaid volunteer who was trained in the coding procedure and debriefed after the process. The second coder, who holds a Ph.D. in psychology, was given training trials with the coding instruments but left unaware of the primary assumptions and questions of the study. Cohen's kappa (κ) was used to calculate intercoder agreement; the results fell within the acceptable range for reliability at $\kappa = .81$ (rounded from 8.08 with $p < .05$). Thus it may be concluded that system of coding was sufficiently reliable and that coder agreement exceeded that which could statistically be expected by chance, random error, or systematic bias. Discussion

between coders during training and post-coding contacts prompted revision of the wording in code explanations to promote improved clarity.

Results

A set of self-exonerating and non self-exonerating mechanisms were developed into codes for content analysis. Of the self-exonerating statements, the first eight codes were directly derived, with some verbatim material, from Bandura's writings on social learning theory and more specifically in the area of self-exonerating, moral disengagement mechanisms (1986, 376-385; 1991, 72-93; 1997; 1999, 194-208; Bandura et al., 1996, 374) and were modified to more closely match "the language of nonresponsibility" (Bandura, 1991, 79) relevant to organizational leaders.

The most frequent employed self-exonerating devices used by Clinton were code 8 (Attribution of Blame Content) and code 15 (Halo Content) and the least frequently occurring codes were code 3 (Advantageous or Palliative Comparison Content) and code 7 (Dehumanization Content). Code 5 (Diffusion of Responsibility Content) yielded the greatest disagreement between the coders. While codes 7 (Dehumanization Content), 10 (Overwhelming Impulse/ Lapse Content), 11 (Insufficient Knowledge Content), and 14 (Silence as Content) yielded the highest coder congruence.

Code Samples (Self-exonerating Statements with Illustrative Units of Analysis)

One of the most frequently used self-exonerating tactics used by Clinton was Attribution of Blame (code 8). This code was explained as follows:

Behavior is said to have been caused by the victim or persons and situations external to self; "blaming one's adversaries [antagonists, 1991, 92] or circumstances" (Bandura, 1999, 203). Bandura states, "When harmful practices are publicized...the blame is assigned to subordinates, who are portrayed as misguided or overzealous" (1999, 197). Actions or outcomes may be blamed on subordinates, subcontractors, constituents, stakeholders, peers, governing board, and/or portions of the organization not under the direct span of oversight or control of the leader.

Here is an illustrative unit of analysis illustrating Clinton's use of this self-exonerating strategy:

"Let me just say this," he said. "One of the reasons he [Kenneth Starr] got away with this is that people like you [members of the press] only ask me questions." He grew angrier as he continued: "You gave him a complete free ride. Any abuse they wanted to do. . . . They indicted all those little people from Arkansas, what did you care about them? They're not famous. Who cares if their life was trampled, if their children [were] humiliated?" Nobody in your line of work cared a rip about their story. Why? Because he [Starr] was helping their stories. And that's why people like you always help the far right, because you like to hurt people."

The second most self-exonerating strategy employed by Clinton was labeled Halo (code 15), which was interpreted as follows:

Behavior is made palliative through normalization, commendation, or explanation of self, own or group's good intentions, good acts (past, present, & future), strong or popular convictions, statements of concern, or affiliations with prosocial, politically advantageous, or downtrodden groups to ameliorate or nullify blame or guilt. Displays of charm or modesty may be employed to form a favorable, personable, virtuous, innocuous, or "regular guy" impression. This content can overlap with truth based non self-exonerating statements but is distinguished by its utility; the information albeit truthful is used to serve an exculpatory or blaming rather than transformative or corrective function.

The following quote offers an illustrative unit of analysis of this code:

"I've done my best to be your friend but I also let you down and let my family down and I let this country down. . . . But I'm trying to make it right. And I am determined never to let anything like this happen again. . . . I hope this will be a time of reconciliation and healing, and I hope that millions of families all over America are in a way growing stronger because of this." (as cited in Baker, 2000, 72)

In contrast to the use of Attribution of Blame and Halo strategies (the latter resembles impression management techniques that many political leaders engage in) are the two self-exonerating tactics least-frequently used by Clinton (Advantageous or Palliative Comparison and Dehumanization). Advantageous or Palliative Comparison refers to a tactic where there is:

A linguistic technique that relies on the presumption that perceptions of goodness are formulated based on social comparison and expectancies. To

minimize its demoralizing, pernicious, and stigmatizing effects, one's own behavior is contrasted with that of someone of wicked or infamous reputation or intent to make bad actions appear not so bad (or even good) in comparison. This effect is also found when actions are compared with projected possible alternative adverse outcomes.

This code is exemplified in the following statement by Clinton:

“And I believed that my own personal flaws, no matter how deep, were far less threatening to our democratic government than the power lust of my accusers.” (Clinton, 2004, 847)

Dehumanization content is explained as:

To avoid personal accountability and empathy that might create guilt or direct responsibility, others are referred to in stereotypical, impersonal, out-group, objectified, animal, or contemptuous terms or by pronouns, titles, or generic labels.

This code is illustrated in the following statement:

“He's lost his mind . . . he's a lunatic.” (as cited in Baker, 2000, 124)
(Clinton's comment about former advisor Dick Morris who made unflattering statements about Clinton to the press.)

The remaining self-exonerating tactics offer additional insights into Clinton's ways of handling the personal and political crisis he found himself in; they are based on both the highest degree and the lowest degree of intercoder agreement and revealed that in addition to the Dehumanization Content code which yielded high intercoder agreement, Overwhelming Impulse/Lapse Content (Code 10), Insufficient Knowledge Content (Code 11), and Silence as Content (Code 14) also yielded the highest degree of agreement while Diffusion of Responsibility (Code 5) yielded the lowest degree of agreement between the two coders.

The Overwhelming Impulse/Lapse code illustrates that Clinton did not always exercise control over his emotions (making decisions driven by impulsivity) and did not always make a careful analysis of the decision at hand. This code was defined as:

Behavior is explained as being due to an irresistible urge or some instinct or pull that was impossible to control or attributed to momentary, compelling, or extenuating circumstances.

It was illustrated by the following statement by Clinton:

“I also came to understand that when I was exhausted, angry, or feeling isolated and alone, I was more vulnerable to making selfish and self-destructive personal mistakes about which I would later be ashamed.” (Clinton, 2004, 811)

The Insufficient Knowledge code was based on:

Actions or consequences are attributed to the unknown. “In detrimental schemes, authorities act in ways that keep themselves intentionally uninformed” (Bandura, 1999, 197) so that a declaration of not knowing is at times an intended effect.

This strategy is exemplified in the following statement by Clinton:

“I still didn’t fully understand why I done something so wrong and stupid; that understanding would come slowly, in the months of working on our relationship that lay ahead.” (Clinton, 2004, 801)

Diffusion of Responsibility (Code 5) was the code which produced the lowest level of agreement between the coders. The explanation offered for this code was a self-exonerating tactic according to which:

Behavior is explained as common, shared, or in keeping with group and role based decisions and norms. “Where everyone is responsible no one is really responsible....no one single individual feels responsible for policies arrived at collectively” (Bandura, 1991, 85).

Labor is divided and tasks are splintered or delegated out so that no one person is responsible for the entire cycle of actions and outcomes.

This tactic is reflected in the following Clinton statement:

She [attorney defending Clinton during impeachment] said that we revered men like Jefferson, Kennedy, and King, all of whom were imperfect but “struggled to do humanity good.” (Clinton, 2004, 840)

The last code among those that yielded high intercoder agreement was Silence. This code was described as involving:

A refusal to respond to inquiry such as the assertion of constitutional rights against self incrimination is not viewed in this work as prima facie evidence of evasion or guilt but is considered a possible element of self exoneration or moral disengagement efforts.

Silence is captured in the following statement Clinton made before the Grand Jury:

“While I will provide the grand jury whatever other information I can, because of privacy considerations affecting my family, myself, and others, and in an effort to preserve the dignity of the office I hold, this is all I will say about the specifics of these particular matters.” (as cited in *Clinton’s Grand Jury Testimony*, 1998, para. 44)

Code Samples (Non Self-exonerating Statements with Illustrative Units of Analysis)

A statement of non self-exoneration is one that has content and contextual support that represents a truthful admission of the wrongfulness of an action, accepts responsibility without blame, and suggests a feasible and meaningful course of correction or abstinence. Some leaders, when explaining their own misbehavior, do not seek to exonerate self but rather to use such speech as a signal of a true intention to alter behavior in order to avoid, pre-empt, or rectify wrongdoing and to admit contrition and responsibility.

A non self-exonerating statement may not include any self-serving or untruthful content and thus must express the following characteristics:

1. *Truth and Responsibility Content*: Honest ownership, acknowledgement of culpability and effects (direct, indirect, intended, unintended), and insight content.
2. *Non-reward Based Content*: Not seeking any secondary gain or decrease.
3. *Acceptance of Consequences Content*: Accepting with sincere contrition and without any blame or self-pity the comprehensive

consequence of actions as they have a direct and indirect impact upon the leader, the organization, and their sphere of affiliates.

4. *Plan for Change Content*: Plan must be viable, tangible, and operational (example, “I have committed to weekly accountability meetings with a diligent mentor” as opposed to “I’ll change and never do it again”).

The results of this content analysis revealed very few non self-exonerating statement made by Clinton. Most of his statements of admission of wrongdoing were combined with exonerating content or were delivered in a context that tended to benefit Clinton such as admitting in order to avoid consequences such as further questioning, indictment, or impeachment. An interplay between admission of wrongdoing combined with palliative factors that tended to divert blame or responsibility was also found.

Example of a non self-exonerating statement:

“And I did what most people do when they do the wrong thing. I tried to do it when nobody was looking at it” (as cited in *Clinton’s Grand Jury Testimony*, 1998, para. 197).

A non self-exoneration combined with self-exoneration is exemplified in the following quote:

Now that the Senate has fulfilled its constitutional responsibility, bringing this process to a conclusion, I want to say again to the American people how profoundly sorry I am for what I said and did to trigger these events and the great burden they have imposed on the Congress and on the American people. I also am humbled and very grateful for the support and the prayers I have received from millions of Americans over this past year. Now I ask all Americans, and I hope all Americans—here in Washington and throughout our land will rededicate ourselves to the work of serving our Nation and building our future together. This can be and this must be a time of reconciliation and renewal for America (Clinton, 1999, 225).

Discussion

The realities of high-profile leadership are that certain actions may be permissible by law, politically advantageous, or personally gratifying yet ethically or morally unsound. How behaviors are explained or justified can reveal the complexity of

the psychological and organizational factors that contribute to decision making and can suggest potential prevention strategies. Through a content analysis based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986, 1991, 1997, 1999, 2001; Wood & Bandura, 1989) of statements related to moral reasoning, this study helped to identify factors associated with flawed moral reasoning and ethical behavior of exceptional leaders.

The findings of this research do not support a good leader versus bad leader dichotomy. The case represents the full array of human excellence in achievement and in accomplished leadership. William J. Clinton is distinguished by exceptional intellect and education. The strength of his skills of influence and definitive features of effective leadership are evidenced by his leadership victories, a legacy of fiercely loyal followers, successful policy initiatives, and genuine public service. In terms of morality and spirituality, Clinton has publicly claimed a strong and lifelong devotion to his faith and to the application of faith-based behavior within leadership roles. In the area of organizational ethics, President Clinton pledged in his campaigns and supported in office political and governmental reforms in the area of ethics. And yet there is the record of his behavior. Such is the conundrum presented by this case and those of other exceptional leaders, who possess splendid attributes intermixed with gravely questionable decision making and conduct.

Failure, as Clinton's case demonstrates, does not occur in isolation but represents a corporate and chaotic interplay of vulnerabilities (precursor or receptivity factors), stressors, dilemmas, social and organizational influence, reasoning and self persuasion, and consequences (immediate and delayed). Some post facto attempts to explain and to perhaps exonerate serve as "get out of jail free cards"; others redefine rules or perceived reality; still others are designed to construct or to rehabilitate legacy. Clinton attempted to exclude certain behaviors from debate and censorship by calling them private or personal. Key figures were often amenable to looking the other way, persuaded directly or indirectly to make concessions for the sake of political expedience or to satisfy a competing organizational goal.

The very institutions and standards set in place to inhibit wrongdoing can be transformed to justify or shield immoral actions. Clinton used family, clergy, and sympathetic social groups as instruments in his campaign of self-exoneration. He proudly alluded to spousal, familial, and constituent support as evidence of worth and innocence. His spouse gave an impassioned and public statement of support, laced with blame of others or exculpatory accounts for the critical event and the accusations that followed. Clinton publicly identified with traditionally disadvantaged groups and charities to project an image of trustworthiness and to suggest unfair persecution.

Highly-publicized moral failings have the potential for broader influence, turning what once was scandalizing into artifacts of daily culture. As Clinton observed, when remarking on the effects of his behavior:

But once what I had done was out there in all its stark ugliness, people's evaluations of it were inevitably a reflection of their own personal experiences, marked not only by their convictions but also by their own fears, disappointments, and heartbreak. (Clinton, 2004, 809)

Thus, incidents of failure assume a life of their own and inform the reasoning and behaviors of others both near and at a distance.

Political organizations and constituencies must treat a leader not as an icon or merely a generator of income and power but as a real person who has physical, emotional, and cognitive needs, limits, and inconsistencies. Policy should promote mental and physical health initiatives for leaders. One significant countermeasure against failure and the loneliness, stress, and emotional isolation of leadership is a supportive yet critical confidant, a person (or group) who has the license to give meaningful feedback and who has the courage to hold the leader accountable privately and, if necessary, publicly. Prevention also requires that followers and constituencies place the importance of the good functioning of the organization over the lure of personal rewards of job security or blind loyalty. Finally preventative measures must have teeth; watchdogs such as the media, academia, regulatory agencies, auditors, and governing boards must effectively execute their jobs of due vigilance, assessment, and correction.

Limitations and weaknesses are inherent in all research designs. This study was conducted on a purposeful but constricted sample, thus limiting generalizability of the findings across nation, culture, race, gender, age, leadership level, and role type. However, analytic generalization and not statistical generalization is the purpose of qualitative research. Future research on moral failures of high-profile leaders may be designed to compare leaders of differing levels and spans of power to determine if the likelihood and contributory factors to moral failure vary across groups and to compare failed leaders against non-failed leaders. Other intriguing avenues for future research on moral reasoning include studies on high-profile female leaders, comparisons of contextual factors such as business, political, or religious environments, and an examination of the roles of cultural expectancies for leaders and their conduct.

References

- Baker, P. (2000). *The Breach: Inside the impeachment and trial of William Jefferson Clinton*. New York: Scribner.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of moral thought and action. In W. M. Kurtines & J. L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Handbook of moral behavior and development* (Vol. 1, 45-102). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetuation of inhumanities. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 3(3), 193-209.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 1-26.

- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(2), 364-374.
- Bandura, A., & Locke, E. A. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 87-99.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, & managerial applications* (3d ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bersoff, D. M. (1999). Why good people sometimes do bad things: Motivated reasoning and unethical behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25(1), 28-39.
- Boyatzis, R. (1998). Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2005). *Resonant leadership: Renewing yourself and connecting with others through mindfulness, hope, and compassion*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Cespedes, F. V., & Galford, R. M. (2004). Succession and failure. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(6), 31-42.
- Clinton, W.J. (2004). *My life*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Clinton, W. J. (1999, February 12). Remarks on the conclusion of the senate impeachment trial and an exchange with reporters. *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* 35(6), 225.
- Clinton's grand jury testimony. (1998). Washingtonpost.com. Retrieved December 9, 2009 from <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-srv/politics/special/clinton/stories/docs092198.htm>

Dörner, D. (1997). *The logic of failure: Recognizing and avoiding error in complex situations* (R. Kimber & R. Kimber, Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Perseus Books. (Original work published in 1989).

Finklestein, S. (2003). *Why smart executives fail: And what you can learn from their mistakes*. New York: Portfolio/Penguin/Putnam.

Kellerman, B. (2004). Leadership: Warts and all. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1), 40-45.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). Reliability in content analysis: Some common misconceptions and recommendations. *Human Communication Research*, 30(3), 411-433.

Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

ResearchWare, Inc. (2005). HyperRESEARCH™ (Version 2.6) [Computer software and manual]. Retrieved March 16, 2005, from <http://www.researchware.com>

Selye, H. (1978). *The stress of life* (rev. ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sonnenfeld, J., & Ward, A. (2008). Firing back: How great leaders rebound after career disasters. *Organizational Dynamics*, 37(1), 1-20.

Van Velsor, E., & Leslie, J. B. (1995). Why executives derail: Perspectives across time and cultures. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 9(4), 62-72.

Vardi, Y., & Weitz, E. (2003). *Misbehavior in organizations: Theory, research, and management*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Weber, R. P. (1990). *Basic content analysis*. London: Sage.

Wood, R. R., & Bandura, A. (1989). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(3), 407-415.

Yukl, G. (2009). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Appendix

Corpus of Text for Coding and Background Information

- Anderson, T. (Writer), Bloom, A. (Director). (2004, June 20). Bill Clinton interview by Dan Rather [Television series episode]. In J. Fager (Executive Producer), *60 Minutes*. New York: Columbia Broadcasting Co.
- Baker, P. (2000). *The Breach: Inside the impeachment and trial of William Jefferson Clinton*. New York: Scribner.
- Clinton, W.J. (1996). *Between hope and history: Meeting America's challenges for the 21st century*. New York: Random House.
- Clinton, W.J. (2004). *My life*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Clinton, W. J. (1999, February 12). Remarks on the conclusion of the senate impeachment trial and an exchange with reporters. *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* 35(6), 225.
- Clinton's grand jury testimony. (1998). Washingtonpost.com. Retrieved December 9, 2009 from <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-srv/politics/special/clinton/stories/docs092198.htm>
- Clinton, W. J. (1998, January 26) Remarks on the after-school child care initiative. *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents*, 34(5), 128–129.
- Clinton, W. J. (1998, November 2). Interview with Tavis Smiley of Black Entertainment Television. *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents*, 34(45), 2232.
- Coulter, A. (1998). *High crimes and misdemeanors: The case against Bill Clinton*. Washington, DC: Regnery.

Gibbs, N., Duffy, M., Branegan, J., Carlson, M., McAllister, J.F.O., Weisskopf, M., Sachs, A. (1998, August 24). The cost of it all. *Time*, 152(8), 36-44.

Gibbs, N., Duffy, M., Carlson, M., McAllister, J.F.O., Tumulty, K., Weisskopf, M., Grace, J., Branegan, J. (1998, August 31). I misled people. *Time*, 152(9), 26-35.

Isikoff, M. (1997, August 11). A twist in Jones v. Clinton: Her lawyers subpoena another woman. *Newsweek*, 130(6), 30-31.

Isikoff, M., Thomas, E., Klaidman, D., & Hosenball, M. (1998, August 10). Lewinsky vs. Clinton. *Newsweek*, 132(6), 26-31.

Klaidman, D., Breslau, K., Isikoff, M., Rosenberg, D., & Hosenball, M. (1998, August 17). Monica on the stand. *Newsweek*, 132(6), 30-33.

Lavelle, M., Barnes, J.E., Walsh, K. T., Garrett, M., McDonald, M., Gerson, M.J. (1998, August 31). Dog days: with Starr in pursuit, the comeback kid tries to save his presidency. *US News & World Report*, 125(8), 16-22.

Locke, A., & Edwards, D. (2003). Bill and Monica: Memory, emotion and normativity in Clinton's grand jury testimony. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 42(2), 239-256.

Maraniss, D. (1998). *The Clinton enigma: A four-and-a-half minute speech reveals this president's entire life*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Morris, D., & McGann, E. (2004). *Because he could*. New York: HarperCollins.

Noonan, P. (1998, August 31). Why the speech will live in infamy. *Time*, 152 (9), 36.

Pillai, R., Stites-Doe, S., & Brodowsky, G. (2004). Presidential scandal and leadership: A natural laboratory test of the resiliency of president Clinton's transformational leadership during the impeachment crisis. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(6), 1109-1130.

Posner, R. A. (1999). *An affair of state: The investigation, impeachment, and trial of President Clinton*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Thomas, E., Cooper, M., Isikoff, M., Klaidman, D., Breslau, K., & Hosenball, M. Rosenberg, D., (1998, August 31). Extracting a confession. *Newsweek*, 132(9), 30-37.

Walsh, K. T., Barnes, J.E., Lavelle, M., Shipiro, J. P. (1998, August 17). Clinton's quandary. *US News & World Report*, 125(7), 18-19.

Walsh, K. T., Garrett, M., Lavelle, M., Barnes, J.E., Ackerman, E., McDonald, M. (1998, August 10). Moment of truth. *US News & World Report*, 125(6), 14-21.

White, J. E. (1998 October 5). Leave him alone! *Time*, 152(14), 35.

Viviette Allen, Ph.D. is currently an Assistant Professor of Psychology at Fayetteville State University. She has research interests in leadership, moral reasoning, applied ethics, stress, and psychopathology. She is a licensed psychotherapist who works with a diverse clinical population. Dr. Allen holds a Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership. Department of Psychology Fayetteville State University 1200 Murchison Road Fayetteville, NC 28301-4298 She can be reached at vallen@uncfsu.edu

Karin Klenke, Ph.D. is currently Professor of Organizational Leadership and Research Coordinator in the Organizational Leadership Ph.D. Program at the University of Maryland Eastern Shore (UMES). She has previously served as Director of Research and Professor of Leadership Studies on the faculty of Regent University and was a founding faculty member of the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond. She serves as senior principal of the Leadership Development Institute (LDI) International, a consulting firm providing public leadership and management seminars and customized leadership development programs. Dr. Klenke holds a Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. She has published in leadership, management, psychology, and methodology journals. Her book, *Women and Leadership: A Contextual Perspective* received a national book award. Her most recent book, *Qualitative Research in the Study of Leadership* published by Emerald was released last year. Dr. Klenke can be reached at kklenke@umes.edu

Task and Relationship Orientation of American MBA Students¹

**Bahaudin G. Mujtaba
Frank Wolf
James Kolacek
Nova Southeastern University**

Business leaders and educators should understand that leadership style differences are realities of life in today's global workplace, and such differences should be accepted and developed if professionals are to remain competitive across the globe. Business educators in the MBA programs tend to teach learners to be high on task and relationship orientations in the work environment. MBA educators and graduates have been criticized for being highly focused on tasks to maximize profits, and it is now assumed by some that this mindset may lead to ethical lapses in judgment. To explore task and relationship orientation differences of MBA students in the United States, this paper analyzed the responses of 346 learners in the South Florida region.

Using the t-test statistical analysis, the results of 136 males and 210 female respondents show that those respondents tend to have significantly different scores on the relationship and task orientations. These MBA students are more relationship oriented. This is important evidence, since some critics tend to blame business-educated managers for focusing on short-term profits at all costs, which may have lead to the ethical lapses in the corporate world. For practical application, examples of some common differences are presented, and suggestions for future studies are explored.

Key words: culture, ethical lapses, leadership, MBA, profits, relationship orientation, task orientation.

Introduction and Business School Graduates

In the competitive business world, knowledge about leadership differences is an important consideration. Understanding leaders' behavioral differences would seem to be of paramount importance in the modern, fast-paced, global working environment. Today's MBA students compete with people from across the globe with diverse cultural orientations. While American business students are taught to focus on getting the job done in a timely manner so they can be first in the market, they are also asked to focus on maintaining healthy relationships with relevant stakeholders if they are to be successful for the long-term. Some critics claim that business schools focus too much on the achievement of tasks at all

¹ Special thanks go to the following faculty members who helped in the data collection process for this study at universities in Florida: Dr. Paul Knapp, Dr. Donald Baker, and Dr. Mohammad Ahmed.

costs and that this indoctrination has led to unethical behaviors and scandals associated with Enron, Tyco, WorldCom, and other such firms (Mitroff, 2004; Ghoshal, 2005). According to Neubaum, Pagell, Drexler, McKee-Ryan, and Larson (2009), “many of the recent discussions of business schools have centered not on the good their graduates do, but on how the theoretical foundations of business school education may be linked to ethical lapses and scandals involving managers who have been subjected to business school training” (9). The critics argue that business school faculty members teach such concepts as transaction-based economics, economic liberalism, or agency theory to students, all of which tend to focus them on short-term profits even if this comes at the cost of damaging long-term opportunities and relationships with customers, suppliers, and/or vendors (Mitroff, 2004, 185). Ghoshal states that “business schools have actively freed their students from any sense of moral responsibility” because faculty members teach theories that are ideological in nature (2005, 76).

According to Bennis and O'Toole (2005), business schools are facing heavy criticism for failing to impart useful skills and knowledge, prepare leaders for doing what is right, instill norms of ethical behavior that would have prevented major corporate debacles, and even lead graduates to corporate jobs that can pay them good wages. The root cause of these problems in management education, they argue, is that most business schools seem to have adopted a self-defeating model for assessment of academic excellence. Instead of measuring the quality of each program in terms of the competence of students, most schools assess themselves based on the rigor of scientific research that is published by their faculty and graduates. This model might be appropriate in dentistry, medicine, or chemistry but perhaps not for business schools. Business schools should use a practitioner-oriented model. As Bennis and O'Toole note, however, the reality is that most business schools continue to hire and promote research-oriented professors who have never spent time in the workplace. Since these research-focused faculty are comfortable teaching methodology and scientific research, business schools will continue to groom graduates of the

same caliber. To become competitive and relevant for the modern workplace, Bennis and O'Toole emphasize that business schools need to rediscover the practice of business while effectively balancing the need for educating practitioners and creating knowledge through scientific research.

According to Jacobs, during this tough economy “fingers are increasingly being pointed at the academic institutions that educated those who got us into this mess” (2009, A13). Jacobs discusses three failures of sound business practices which he says are at the root of the economic crisis and claims that these have not been adequately addressed by business schools: misaligned incentive programs (incentive systems that rewarded short-term gain took precedence over those designed for long-term value creation), understanding the responsibility and obligation of corporate boards, and having an apparent and enforceable system of accountability. It is disappointing to see MBA graduates paying nearly \$100,000 for their degrees and never hearing lectures on the responsibilities of board members, proper incentive programs, and how to effectively exercise shareholders’ rights in modern firms. As Jacobs says,

General Electric was stripped of its coveted AAA-rating because of problems emanating from its financial services unit. Yet its board has only one director with experience in a financial institution. If it is the board's job to oversee a corporation, it seems logical that there would be a segment in the core curriculum of every business school devoted to board structure, composition and processes. But most programs don't cover the topic (2009, A13).

If faculty members are failing to teach the principles of corporate governance in the MBA curriculum, then business schools have failed their graduates. Jacobs says that “by not internalizing sound principles of governance and accountability, B-school graduates have matured into executives and investment bankers who have failed American workers and retirees who have witnessed their jobs and savings vanish” (2009, A13). Most MBA curriculums require an ethics or law course as part of the program, and this may not be sufficient to deter wrongdoing. Would a person like Ken Lay or Bernie Madoff have acted differently if he had done really well in his ethics and law courses in the MBA program?

Jacob recommends that today's workplace needs a generation of business leaders and graduates who are trained in board responsibilities, accountability for transparent investments, and the design of compensation systems that promote long-term value for the company and all of its stakeholders. Therefore, "America's business schools need to rethink what we are teaching—and not teaching—the next generation of leaders" (Jacobs, 2009, A13).

While business school curricula do teach scientific research, efficiency, accuracy, operations management, and economic theories, they also teach students about value creation by maintaining a healthy relationship with their suppliers, colleagues, unions, government entities, etc. for the long-term sustainability of their success. This dichotomy would suggest that studies are needed to see if business students are in fact driven to be more task-oriented or more relationship-oriented as a result of their acculturation in business curricula. The purpose of this study is to see if a focus on business students in the United States can reveal significant differences between male and female students' leadership orientations.

Culture and Communication

One purpose of higher education in business, especially when one is earning a Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree, is to strategically focus a student's thinking on the long-term success of the enterprise. As such, understanding the steps and effective communication of a long-term plan becomes extremely critical to the success of these graduates. The manner in which they communicate their expectations regarding tasks and the development of relationships with employees, clients, vendors, and the community can either make or break their careers. Good communication is an essential skill both in business and in life for building strong relationships. In international business it is important to realize that cultural differences can severely affect one's relationship with others and one's communication. According to anthropologist Edward Hall, there is a clear distinction in the way of communicating between the so-called high-context and low-context cultures. "The notion of cultural complexity refers to

the way messages are communicated within a society (Kotabe & Helsen, 2007, 127).” In high-context cultures such as Thailand, Japan, or India, there is a less verbally detailed communication and less written/formal information (Mujtaba, 2008). Instead, there is a more subliminal understanding of what is communicated. Often what is left unsaid is as important as what is said. Low context cultures, such as the United States or United Kingdom, put more emphasis on the written or spoken words. In such an environment, communication is very explicit and clear, and normally “what is meant is what is said” (Mujtaba, 2008). One may also reflect and wonder whether language itself is an influence on the task and relationship orientation of today’s business graduates. For example, global educators may learn that the German word for *work* can be *Dienst*, which means “duty,” or *schaffen*, which means “to accomplish something.” Language may also influence one’s tone of communication, and this can be studied by experts with business students in future research.

Inhabitants of an individualistic culture tend to be more interested in taking care of themselves and forming their own identity. In individualist societies, people are expected to achieve for themselves and to satisfy their objectives; overall, they are consistently conditioned to think for themselves, learn on a continuous basis, and work independently. As explained by Mujtaba (2007), collective cultures tend to be high on other interests, such as compliance, harmony, and interdependence, while individualistic cultures tend to be high on self-interest, assertiveness, acceptance of conflict, and independence. Furthermore, while collective cultures tend to be focused on duties and relationships, individualistic cultures place emphasis upon human rights and universal values.

Trumbull lists some of the main differences between individualistic and collectivistic cultures, and they are presented in Table 1 on the following page.

Table 1: Individualistic and Collectivistic Cultures (Trumbull, 2008)

Individualistic	Collectivistic
1. Fostering independence and individual achievement	1. Fostering interdependence and group success
2. Promoting democracy, empowerment, self-expression, individual thinking, and/or personal choice	2. Promoting adherence to norms, respect for authority/elders, group consensus
3. Associated with egalitarian relationships and flexibility in roles (e.g., upward mobility)	3. Associated with stable, hierarchical roles (dependent on gender, family background, age)
4. Understanding the physical world as knowable, apart from its meaning for human life	4. Understanding the physical world in the context of its meaning for human life
5. Associated with private property, individual ownership	5. Associated with shared property, group ownership

In collective cultures, the group is the primary unit of social organization, often because people live in extended families (Edmundson, 2007). This explains why students from such cultures gather in groups and prefer to work with others in their learning process. It is important for managers and cross-cultural educators to reflect on their relationships with people of different cultures and examine how differences in context can lead to cultural misunderstanding for overseas students and professionals who are studying or working in the United States. The purpose of this paper, however, is to analyze the similarities and dissimilarities in terms of a relationship orientation between male and female American MBA students who are generally individualist in nature. Future research could seek to examine this orientation across multiple cultural contexts.

For now, however, it is important for faculty members, MBA students and graduates, and managers to be aware of the importance of cultural contexts in various countries. It is clear that high-context and low-context communicating students and workers have learned their behaviors through socialization in their home country (Mujtaba, 2008). Understanding the effect of the differences in context provides a knowledge base and cultural intelligence that can help provide not only relevant classroom education but also effective business relationships through proper leadership and management practices.

Leadership Tendencies of MBAs

The concept of leadership is well understood among MBAs, business researchers, and corporate managers. One of the most widely used leadership theories around the world today is situational leadership, which was formulated initially by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard in the 1960s (personal communication with Hersey, February 2008). Leadership, according to Hersey, is the process of influencing an individual or a group of individuals while providing an environment where personal, professional, and/or organizational objectives can be successfully achieved. Leaders, as studies over several decades have demonstrated, tend to use various amounts of task or relationship behaviors (see e.g., Mujtaba, 2008). Task behavior is the extent to which leaders engage in top-down communication by explaining what the follower is to do, as well as when, where, and how each function is to be accomplished. Relationship behavior is the extent to which leaders engage in joint communication with followers while providing socio-emotional support.

As former Fortune 500 CEO James Kolacek suggests (personal communication, May 01, 2009), it would seem that relationships are more important in the beginning of one's career. He also notes that there may be a correlation between stress, relationships, tasks, and chronological age. As leaders become older, for example, they take on more responsibility—for direct-report employees, for tasks within the organization, for spouse and family members, and for leadership responsibilities in our community. Perhaps aging

and additional years of experience are related to more stress and/or tendencies toward forming stronger relationships. However, the reality of deadlines in a competitive workplace might dictate a stronger focus on a task orientation. Like Kolacek, most senior managers tend to emphasize that if you are smart you realize that you need others in order to succeed. As you advance in both your age and your career, there seem to be "forces" that dictate more and more for a focus upon the task rather than upon the relationship. Some believe and perceive that several of the financially most successful CEOs do not care how many bodies that they leave behind (i. e., Neutron Jack of General Electric).

As CEO of GE, Jack Welch "redefined" GE by taking a look at the myriad businesses within the GE portfolio. He issued a directive which stated if any of these businesses were not in either a #1 or #2 position regarding proprietary technology and market share, the business was to be spun off. This mandate was made without any consideration of the longevity of the company, the profitability contribution, the longevity of the employees, or the effects upon the local community economy. Since he disposed of a large portion of General Electric's previous businesses and all the employees and "life" within them, he was given the name "Neutron Jack" by employees.

Jack Welch was "lucky" (financially) as defined by the performance of the "redefined" GE and its recovery from his surgical strategies. His #3 man, Robert Nardelli, was not offered the CEO position and eventually left GE to become the CEO of Home Depot. He immediately embarked upon his "mission" to transform Home Depot (essentially a hardware/building materials warehouse) into a mini-GE with an obsession for cost-cutting and cross-training store personnel. Previously Home Depot hired people who were skilled in a trade or who perhaps had a disability and were unable to work in their trade for physical reasons. A master plumber who became disabled could assist customers in the plumbing department with his/her vast knowledge of plumbing (personal interview with Nardelli, Home Depot Employees, May 15, 2007). Nardelli insisted that all personnel be cross-trained so that the master plumber would work in the garden center and the garden-center department employee who knew a great deal about

plants would work in plumbing. Nardelli and his ideas failed miserably, and he was rewarded for his failure with a golden parachute which landed him the CEO position at Chrysler, where he is also currently demonstrating his talent for failure.

Maybe there is a curse associated with the name *Depot*. Consider the case of Office Depot. When James Kolacek was a senior merchandise manager at corporate headquarters of Boise Cascade in Itasca, IL, he worked with a young man who had just taken over as Operations Manager of the Chicago Distribution Warehouse. This man was Bruce Nelson, who continued his Office Products career ascent and eventually became CEO of Office Depot. Nelson was focused on both task and people. He, and his company, Office Depot, were featured in *Fortune* magazine several times. Office Depot was featured as one of the top places to work, one of the best in providing opportunities for minorities, one of the best places for women seeking executive positions, and one of the most dedicated companies to values like honesty, integrity, and virtue. Openness and transparency were the order of the day and all employees, not just the CEO, were enjoying rewards by being stockholders (personal interview with long-term Office Depot employees, November 8, 2008).

Enter the "task" managers and "bean-counters" at Office Depot. Bruce Nelson pushed for the acquisition of several office products distributorships in Europe as part of his long-term visionary strategy. He had to assimilate and modify the distribution networks, the technology, and some of the building facilities. Thus he was investing in both the "bricks" (buildings and facilities) as well as the "clicks" (technology and systems) (personal communication with Bruce Nelson, May 6, 2005).

Corporate politics being what they are, Nelson was voted out by the board of directors, who demanded a faster return on investment from the European venture. Enter Steve Odland, former CEO of an Automotive Parts Retailer, who had garnered accolades for his parsimonious attention to budget cutting, personnel reduction, cost reduction, lack of attention to customer service, and inventory reduction programs. Odland immediately embarked upon staff

reduction, reduced store level inventories (empty shelves abound at Office Depot), contracted out customer service and delivery services, and put the emphasis upon profits, "making the numbers at whatever the cost" (personal interview, Office Depot employees, December 12, 2008).

Honesty, integrity, and transparency fell by the wayside as several governmental agencies auditing their purchases from Office Depot found numerous examples of Office Depot overcharging several state, local, and federal government agencies on their office supply purchases in violation of their government contract pricing (Ross, April 5, 2009).

Consumers always show their support with their dollars in a profit-oriented enterprise. Office Depot posted a \$1.48 billion loss for the year, which translates to \$5.42 per share. The stock was selling for \$1.68 per share in spring 2009 (Ross, April 14, 2009). Odland was forced to take a "reduction" in executive compensation of 27.2% from \$12.86 million last year to a \$9.36 million this year.

By the way, keeping in mind the European Division that the former CEO, Bruce Nelson, had invested in and which ultimately cost him his job, it is interesting to note that Charles Brown, President of the International Division of Office Depot, had his salary increased, based upon performance, from \$1.8 million in 2007 to \$2.33 million in 2008, an increase of 24.44% (Ross, April 14, 2009). It would appear that Nelson's visionary overseas plans are paying dividends for Office Depot, whose U.S. domestic performance is quite dismal.

The above scenarios regarding Jack Welch, Bruce Nelson, Steve Odland, and others are cases that business students read in order to build on their successes and avoid their mistakes. MBAs attend anywhere from one to two years of schooling to become competent in learning outcomes of the curriculum and eventually become a "master of business." Becoming a "master of business" requires thinking like an expert business person or an entrepreneur. Such thinking is woven into the various courses throughout the curriculum, not so much for the purpose of indoctrination, but rather for the purpose of educating, training, and conditioning students to think for themselves based on the facts of

each situation. So there are many characteristics and variables that relate to MBA students. The following are some of the factors associated with them:

1. *MBAs are different from undergraduate business students.*

By definition, MBA students are older and/or have work experience relevant to graduate studies, and therefore are:

- (a) More likely to be focused on career interest in business;
- (b) Aware that profit is an economic necessity;
- (c) Aware of seeking out business opportunities for their employers and themselves;
- (d) Fearful of professional obsolescence in the absence of no further skill development.

2. *MBAs are different from students in other fields such as engineering, psychology, and medicine*

MBA courses are designed to cover a broad range of subjects in business such as Finance (though not necessarily as a specialization); Economics (though not necessarily with the end of producing economists); General Management (without certification of ability to run a company); and Statistics (at the software level rather than inclusive of mathematical theory). An engineer, especially one with a professional engineering (PE) certification, can build a bridge or a highway. A medical doctor can practice medicine and cure illness. Those professions offer a “license to practice” at the end of the study. There are some exceptions, of course, in the world of business education: Some finance specializations, for example, may train the student for the field of accounting certification (CPA).

3. *Focus on long-term business strategies make MBAs effective managers.*

The MBA-degree is the entrance ticket for a career in business, to which each MBA has to bring personal attributes such as the following before becoming effective:

- (a) Compassion toward and interest in the well-being of employees and clients;
- (b) Personal drive to succeed and a vision of what success really means;
- (c) Cultural sensitivity and language skills in case of international work;
- (d) Perseverance: failing and trying again;
- (e) Not blending in with the lowest common denominator.

Some of the factors that make MBAs effective leaders can include personal traits – e.g., an outgoing personality, unusual contextual circumstances, and relevant management and leadership experience.

4. *The graduate business program helps MBAs become ready to face global challenges.*

There are many different circumstances and situations that today's managers and leaders are likely to face each day. Being prepared can certainly enhance a person's chances of making better decisions when it counts the most. MBAs can be better prepared for today's global challenges by:

- (a) Understanding history -- of one's own country, and then global history;
- (b) Understanding of business history, its leaders, and its technology;
- (c) Developing speaking and reading ability in several commercial languages;
- (d) Training in risk analysis;
- (e) Networking in trade associations and government;
- (f) Being a specialist in one's field;
- (g) Exposure to complex case studies.

5. *MBAs are trained (through their educational program to focus on profits and its maximization for the stakeholders.*

Predominantly, yes, they are trained to focus on profits, but not exclusively so! Textbooks are often focused on that aspect of the graduate degree.

However, it is generally not true that MBAs are trained or motivated by “stewardship” for the benefit of stakeholders. Human nature eventually takes over, and the organization becomes the means to the end of self-interest. This might be the case in both Eastern and Western nations, and communal cultural predisposition in the East may fade with globalization. The term “profit maximization” possibly can’t be used by itself without also making a risk assessment. In the absence of specific criteria for judgment of what “maximization” actually means, the term is vague.

6. *MBAs are trained to focus on tasks and relationships.*

The reality on the (corporate) ground for MBAs and other managers is to (1) get the job (task) done, (2) do it well and exceed expectations, (3) get paid, and (4) move on to the next task. Much of the work nowadays is “project work”; hence, most schools teach Project Management concepts and skills.

The subject of relationship management is not the principal focus in a general MBA program, but it can be a specialty. The ability to manage relationships well is more a personal trait of people who network and have an outgoing personality. Perhaps existing relationships need to be cultivated and sustained, but also new relationships need to be developed. Systems theory, open systems in particular, implies constant sensing and feeling and taking in of new information in order to survive in a fast changing environment. A course in social systems theory would be a good addition that may connect many dots in a general MBA program.

MBAs are taught to stay focused on getting the tasks done in a timely manner. However, they are also taught to be effective leaders and balance long-term goals with short-term sacrifices for sustainable success and competitiveness. Therefore, business students are taught to manage the maximization of shareholder value for the long-term.

Study Methodology and Hypotheses

Peter G. Northouse (2007) provides a useful instrument, known as a Style Questionnaire, which can be used to obtain a general profile of a person's leadership behaviors regarding task and relationship orientations. The Style Questionnaire can be completed by oneself as well as one's friends, peers, bosses, and/or employees for comparison purposes. The results can show one's use of various task and relationship behaviors. To determine one's personal leadership characteristics, the person circles one of the options that best describes how he or she sees himself or herself (or the person that is being evaluated) regarding each statement. For each statement, the person indicates the degree to which he or she (or the person being evaluated) engages in the stated behavior. A rating of 1 means "Never" and a rating of 5 means "Always" for the person demonstrating the specific behavior. To determine one's scores for the leadership styles questionnaire, one can add the responses for the odd numbered items to determine the score for task-orientation behaviors, and add the responses for the even numbered items to determine the score for relationship-orientation behaviors. The scoring interpretation for the Style Questionnaire by Northouse (2007, 87) is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 : Task and Relationship Score Interpretations

SCORES	DESCRIPTIONS
• 45-50	Very high range
• 40-44	High range
• 35-39	Moderately high range
• 30-34	Moderately low range
• 25-29	Low range
• 10-24	Very low range

High task behavior scores tend to mean that the leader engages in more top-down communication by explaining what the follower is to do, as well as when, where, and how each function is to be accomplished. High relationship behavior scores mean the leader engages in more joint communication with followers while providing socio-emotional support. Of course, the degree to which one engages in more task or relationship oriented behaviors should depend on the variables present in the situation. Some of the situational variables can include the difficulty of the task, the importance of the job, the time available to get it done, and the readiness of the follower to successfully complete the task without much input. According to Hersey, effective leaders stay in control by managing through a balance of both task and relationship oriented behaviors to make sure the objectives and goals are accomplished (personal communication, February 2008).

Research Hypotheses

The research question for this study was to determine MBA students orientation to task behaviors vis-à-vis orientation to relationship behaviors. The variables studied in this research were MBA students in general, new MBA students, senior MBA students, male MBA students, female MBA students, younger MBA students, older MBA students, experienced MBA students relatively inexperienced MBA students. The specific hypotheses for this study were as follows:

1. *Null Hypothesis1*: MBA students will have similar scores for relationship and task orientations.
2. *Null Hypothesis2*: Male and female MBA students will have similar scores on task and relationship orientations.
3. *Null Hypothesis3*: New MBAs and senior MBA students will have similar scores for task and relationship orientations.
4. *Null Hypothesis4*: Younger and older MBA students will have similar scores on relationship and task orientations.
5. *Null Hypothesis5*: MBA students who report having six or more years of management experience will have similar scores on relationship orientation as do those who have five or less years of management experience.

For the purpose of this study, a copy of the questionnaire was submitted to 515 MBA students in the South Florida region. The surveys were distributed as part of a class exercise on leadership or given to graduating MBA students in the capstone course before finishing their one-week conference for the program. The surveys were all confidential: no names were recorded and no credit was given to students for completing the instrument when it was part of the class exercise and discussions. The respondents were all English-speaking students enrolled in various graduate business courses at four different universities in the South Florida region. Within one month, 403 completed surveys were returned to the researchers. Of the returned surveys, 57 were incomplete or completed incorrectly (perhaps due to miscommunication since it was on a volunteer basis and the survey was offered only in the English language, even to the small percentage of international students). That left 346 surveys for analysis. From the total respondents, only 7 reported having no management experience. This implies that the population for this study seems to be working adults, almost all of whom have been in management positions at one time or another.

Task and Relationship Results

As set out on Table 3 (next page), the average scores of MBA students for task orientation fall in the moderately high range, and their relationship orientation average falls in the high range.

As Table 4 (next page) demonstrates using the t-test for differences in two means, at a 0.05 level of significance the first null hypothesis (“*MBA students will have similar scores for relationship and task orientations*”) failed to be accepted. The alpha value is less than .05 and the t value (-13.44) falls outside of the critical values (1.96 and -1.96). Therefore it can be concluded that the MBA students have significantly different task and relationship orientation scores; they are more highly focused on relationships.

Table 3: Orientation Scores of MBA Respondents

MBA Student Respondents	No.	Task Orientation Average Score	Relationship Orientation Average Score
MBAs	346	38.65318	43.66185
<i>New MBAs</i>	122	38.68033	44.36885
<i>Senior MBAs</i>	142	38.80282	43.22535
Male MBAs	136	38.26471	43.28676
Female MBAs	210	38.90476	43.90476
<i>Young MBAs (< 26)</i>	69	38.7971	43.57971
<i>Older MBAs (> 36)</i>	51	39.58824	44.15686
Less Mgmt Experience	101	38.47525	43.44554
Six or more years of Mgmt Experience	154	39.22727	43.83766

Table 4: MBAs Task / Relationship Orientations

<i>Task Orientation</i>	
Sample Size	346
Sample Mean	38.65
Sample Standard Deviation	5.43
<i>Relationship Orientation</i>	
Sample Size	346
Sample Mean	43.66
Sample Standard Deviation	4.3
<i>Two-Tailed Test</i>	
t-Test Statistic	-13.44
Lower Critical Value	-1.963
Upper Critical Value	1.963
p-Value	1E-36

While the MBA students are highly focused on their relationships, no statistically significant differences were found for the variables of gender, tenure in the MBA program, age of the MBA students, and years of management experience for remaining hypotheses. As a result, every one of them failed to be rejected:

- *Null Hypothesis2: Male and female MBA students will have similar scores on task and relationship orientations.* Since there were no statistically significant differences found, this hypothesis is not rejected. It should be noted that the female MBAs did have a slightly higher score on both the task and relationship orientations as compared to their male counterparts.
- *Null Hypothesis3: New MBAs and Senior MBA students will have similar scores for task and relationship orientations.* Since there were no statistically significant differences found, this hypothesis failed to be rejected. New MBAs did have a slightly higher score on the stress overload perception, which is understandable as they might be taking a greater course load.
- *Null Hypothesis4: Younger and older MBA students will have similar scores on relationship and task orientations.* Since there were no statistically significant differences found, this hypothesis failed to be rejected. However, it is interesting to observe that older MBAs had higher scores on task and relationship orientations. Furthermore, as noted below, older MBAs also have a significantly higher score on stress overload perception.
- *Null Hypothesis5: MBA students who report having six or more years of management experience will have similar scores on relationship orientation as those who have five or less years of management experience.* Since there were no statistically significant differences found, this hypothesis failed to be rejected. It should be noted, however, that MBAs with more management experience did demonstrate a slightly higher score on both task and relationship orientations.

Despite the acceptance of those null hypotheses, it should be noted that the data, examined across the variables, do potentially reveal a trend: that is, senior MBAs, older MBAs, and more experienced MBAs do demonstrate a higher task orientation than their newer, younger, and less experienced counterparts. In

brief, it would appear that older/senior/more experienced MBAs may have assumed a slightly higher task orientation over time, whether through increased education, increased experience, increased living, or all of those factors in concert. Since time in an MBA program, age, and experience are probably correlated, it may be safe to conclude that MBAs move toward a slightly higher task orientation as they age. Such a conclusion may merit further study.

Implications and Recommendations

This research has demonstrated that American MBA students in South Florida are focused more on their relationships and therefore are less likely to sacrifice long-term success for short-term profits. These conclusions support the 2009 study by Neubaum, Pagell, Drexler, McKee-Ryan, and Larson, since their research revealed that:

Senior business majors were more likely to believe (a) considering environmental and social indicators as a part of a firm's performance is the right thing to do, and (b) they will take a firm's environmental and social performance into account when seeking employment. Thus, those students with 3 or 4 more years of business school education were more likely to agree that businesses' performance should include more than just economic dimensions. They also reported being more likely to consider businesses' social and environmental performance when considering their employment options (Neubaum et al, 2009, 19).

This research arrives at a conclusion that is the opposite of what critics like Ghoshal (2005) and Mitroff (2004) argue; that is, that business schools are to blame for many current problems because they offer a short-term profit orientation, which can lead to ethical lapses. It should also be noted that many of the senior corporate officers like the late Ken Lay of Enron or Bernie Madoff, who have been associated with unethical behaviors for different reasons, are not necessarily business graduates but rather come from other fields. Therefore, it is not necessarily a business education, or an understanding of the agency theory, or economic concepts that lead a person to ethical lapses, but rather pressure, greed, and other such variables that tempt one to cheat, bribe, and deceive

people. Neubaum et al. (2009) explain that “It is easy, and convenient, to witness the incidents at Enron, Tyco, and WorldCom and conclude business school education is broken and amoral. While we support the notion that one ethical scandal in business is one too many, we also believe that before reforms are launched, empirical evidence of the nature and seriousness of the problems must first be gathered” (Neubaum, et al., 2009, 17-18). The present study has provided evidence that American MBA students are more highly focused on their relationships—at a statistically significant level—than they are on tasks.

Due to social conditioning and the general nature of human beings, some managers and educators often assume that MBAs are likely to be more task-oriented as they are trained to focus on profits. The implication is that such an orientation may cause them to focus too much on the completion of tasks and not on the development of relationships. For example, they may be too assertive in pressuring their employees and peers toward working faster to enhance productivity and profits. This research has shown that MBA students from the United States in South Florida are actually less task-oriented and more focused on their relationships. While they are moderately high on their task orientation, MBAs reported a significantly higher score on the relationship orientation aspect of leadership. It is possible, of course, that these results might only be true for business students and not necessarily others in the educational arena or in the general population of a low-context culture. Studies that compare business school students with other populations on task and relationship orientations might be useful.

Assuming that these results are true for working business students in the United States, the implications are that the MBA students are learning one highly important and basic business concept generally introduced in the MBA program: focusing on long term wealth maximization rather than short-term profits. Conversely, a strong focus on task, and less on development of relationships, may result in short-term productivity and short-term profits. In the long-term, more focus on task and less on development of relationship by managers will not generate wealth for the stockholders. To generate wealth for the stockholder,

managers need to focus on development of healthy and trusting relationships between management and employees, suppliers and the firm, and customers and the firm. The focus on the development of relationships will help the firm in (1) motivating employees, (2) increasing productivity, (3) improving quality, (4) developing a corporate culture to implement the corporate strategy, (5) developing a value chain management strategy to manage cost, and (6) satisfying the needs and wants of customers. The result of this study suggests that MBAs are more focused on development of relationships while completing tasks in a timely manner. This can also mean that most MBAs are prepared to assume the challenges of the workplace and help generate wealth for the stockholders.

One implication of this research is that even though a low-context group's orientation toward individualistic cultures (such as here in the United States) might be very high, this study has concluded that it can be highly focused on relationships while completing tasks with a moderately high focus. Similarly, while the respondents from the United States are expected to score higher on the task orientation than on the relationship orientation, this research has demonstrated the exact opposite with the business student population. Furthermore, perhaps due to the emphasis on teamwork training and the need for working interdependently to remain competitive, the respondents from the United States scored moderately high on the task orientation and very high on the relationship orientation.

Another implication of this research is that a microculture in a national culture may morph based on the changes in the environment the group is operating in. The influence on the micro-culture may be from both internal and external environments of the area of operation. The business environment is changing rapidly due to changes in economy and technology. For example, the average life-cycle span of a product or service has declined from a longevity of 7-9 years a decade ago to a longevity of 1-3 years currently. To produce a product or deliver a service, the firm has to work with several companies in different industries, and sometimes even with the competition. Sony is an example of a

company that competed with Apple and also worked with Apple in developing Apple's iPod. In an environment like this, development of a relationship is necessary to be successful in the marketplace. The result of this study suggests that working MBA students from the United States are actually less task-oriented and more focused on their relationships. This may be the result of the micro-culture operating within their workplace that is influenced by the culture of the entire work environment. Thus, an implication of this study may be that in a more task-focused national culture, a micro-culture may exist with a more intense focus upon the development of relationships which could very well have been a causal effect of the MBA courses students experienced in their business curricula.

Work experience is always important for quality outcomes and professionalism, and this is especially true in management. It should be noted that management experience also seems to be a factor in higher scores of MBAs as most of them reported having one or more years of experience in management or supervisory levels. Since managers are required to stay focused on the timely completion of all tasks in their department, they tend to maintain a healthy relationship with their employees, peers, superiors, vendors, customers, and others who regularly influence their work in the value-chain. Perhaps, due to this requirement for a balance of both relationship and task completion with various stakeholders in the value chain, those who have been in management tend to score higher on both orientations. While there were no statistically significant differences in this study between those with six or more years of management experience and those with little or no management experience, more data is needed to see if management experience is actually a dominant factor in the task or relationship orientation of respondents in low-context or individualistic cultures.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are several limitations to this study and the convenient sample of MBA students is one of them. Since these students were living, studying, and working in a Western country, it was assumed that they all behave in an individualistic manner. Future researchers can perhaps test for an individualistic or collectivistic orientation of respondents as one of their variables for the study, since there are sub-cultures within the United States. For example, many individuals with an African American, Asian, or Latin background may have been socialized around large families and might demonstrate characteristics that are typically associated with a collective or high-context culture. Another limitation is the fact that this study was conducted with a student population where some of the respondents were younger and had little management experience, while others were older and were employed in management positions for more than six years. Future studies can compare students with similar demographic backgrounds and years of work experience. Despite the fact that the surveys were voluntary and confidential, another limitation is the fact that some students might have felt obligated to respond according to the “textbook” answers, since for a majority of them this was part of the course assignment during discussions of management and leadership styles. As such, some of the responses might be geared toward “pleasing” the teacher for a higher score on the participation evaluation rather than representing their true intentions. Perhaps future studies can remove this pressure from respondents by having a third party facilitate the distribution and collection of data from the target groups.

Finally, it should be mentioned that it is very possible that these results might only be true of business students in low-context cultures and not necessarily of others in the educational arena or in the general population. Therefore, future researchers can test these hypotheses with students in non-business fields, as well as with employees in the general populations of low-context as well as high-context cultures. Also, future researchers can test for geographic differences: for example, East vs. West, rural vs. urban.

Conclusion

This paper discussed some of the common differences regarding individualistic and collectivistic cultures, where an individualistic environment is often linked to low-context cultures and a collectivistic one is linked to high-context cultures. After reflecting on the behaviors of individualistic MBA students in the United States, one is better able to get an understanding of graduate students and their cultures. American students tend to work based on their individualistic views. Contrary to the popular belief, however, the results of this study show that American MBA students are focused on tasks and even more highly focused on their relationships. Furthermore, as shown in the responses, MBA business students are not necessarily more task-oriented. Overall, despite a group's individualistic orientation in a low-context culture (such as people from the United States), this research implies that it can be highly focused on relationships while also completing tasks in a timely manner. Educators and managers alike can be assured that biases, influences, and general perceptions associated with individualistic behaviors do not necessarily diminish the relationship orientation scores of graduate business respondents. Managers and the general public can also feel better knowing that MBA students holding critical management positions are not likely to undermine important relationships in order to get a specific task done. They are likely to get the job done while also maintaining a balanced focus on their relationships with key employees, customers, and vendors.

References

- Bennis, W. G., & O'Toole, J. (2005). How business schools lost their way. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(5), 96-105.
- Edmundson, A. (2007). *Globalized e-learning cultural challenges*. Hershey, PA: Group Publishing.
- Ghoshal, S. (2005). Bad management theories are destroying good management practices. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(1), 75-91.

Jacobs, M. (2009). How business schools have failed business. *The Wall Street Journal*, A13, Friday, April 24, 2009.

Kotabe, M., & Helsen, K. (2007)(4th Ed.). *Global marketing management*. United States.

Mitroff, I. I (2004). An open letter to the deans and faculties of American business schools. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 54(2), 185-189.

Mujtaba, B. G. (2008). *Coaching and performance management: Developing and inspiring leaders*. Davie, FL: ILEAD Academy Publications.

_____ (2008). Task and relationship orientation of Thai and American business students' based on cultural contexts. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 1(1), 38-57.

_____ (2007). *Cross cultural management and negotiation practices*. Florida: ILEAD Academy Publications.

Neubaum, D. O., Pagell, M., Drexler, J. A., Jr., McKee-Ryan, F. M., & Larson, E. (2009). Business education and its relationship to student personal moral philosophies and attitudes toward profits: An empirical response to critics. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 8(1), 9-24.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Ross, A. (April 5, 2009). Office Depot restructures prices for public contract. *The Palm Beach Post*, as retrieved on April 28, 2009 from:
http://www.palmbeachpost.com/search/content/business/epaper/2009/04/05/alf_odpcontra.

Ross, A. (April 15, 2009). Office Depot CEO's pay fell 27 percent in 2008. *The Palm Beach Post*, 6b.

Trumbull, E. (2008). *Bridging cultures in our schools: New approaches that work*. WestEd Knowledge. Retrieved February 23, 2008, from:
http://www.wested.org/online_pubs/bridging/part3.shtml.

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba is Department Chair for Management as well as an Associate Professor of Management, Human Resources and International Management. In the years 2003-2005, he was the Director of Institutional Relations, Planning, and Accreditation for Nova Southeastern University at the H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship in Fort Lauderdale, Florida. As a director, he was responsible for the planning of accreditation reviews for all Huizenga School's academic programs in all locations throughout United States of America and abroad. Bahaudin's areas of research include ethics, management, and cross-cultural management practices. He can be reached at mujtaba@nova.edu

Frank Wolf is on the faculty of The H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship where he teaches Management and Operations courses in the weekend MBA program. In addition, Dr. Wolf is both an arbitrator and mediator for FINRA, the Financial Market Regulatory Authority, working for the settlement of controversies between parties in the financial markets in the US and the UK. Prior experiences include the founding of two IT businesses, a career in corporate life ranging from engineering to corporate management, appointments to White House Fellowship Program, pro bono United Nations service as an ECOSOC-accredited NGO, and chairmanship of the Inlands, Wetlands and Watercourses Agency in Greenwich, Connecticut. He can be reached at wolff@nova.edu

James Kolacek is on the faculty of The H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship where he teaches Management, Marketing and Organizational Behavior courses. Dr. Kolacek is a certified behavioral psychologist specializing in utilizing various behavioral instruments to ascertain behavioral profiling typologies. He is also a Florida Supreme Court certified court mediator. Prior to his academic career, he has held various senior management positions with firms such as Boise Cascade and Rubbermaid. He has patented, developed and marketed many popular consumer products including the ubiquitous yellow "Wet-Floor" sign, the chairmat under your desk, and the personal paper shredder. His research interests are in the area of behavioral marketing, the dichotomy of human personality traits, and consultation in the area of utilizing behavioral profiling instruments in an organizational environment to break down communication barriers and promote understanding and harmony. He can be reached at jkolacek@nova.edu

Different Leadership Styles for Different Organizational Levels: A Phenomenological Case Study

**Bruce E. Winston, Ph.D.
Karen Cerff, ABD
John Jerome
Regent University
School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship**

This phenomenological case study explores the deliberate and intentional use of three leadership styles at three different organizational levels in a South African retail food chain. The organization set out to use the paternalistic/clan leadership style at the store level, which fits well with the frontline employees' interests and desires. At the midlevel store manager to the area manager level, the organization implemented a transactional leadership style in order to enhance the financial outcomes for the organization. Then, at the senior level the CEO implemented a transformational leadership style with his direct reports in order to establish a transformational organizational culture at the head offices. The researchers interviewed a total of 58 workers across the three levels and found evidence of each of the three styles. Because of the conceptual differences in the three leadership styles, the researchers looked for problems where the styles come together—an organizational "wind shear" of sorts. No significant problems were found, and the researchers surmise that this occurs because of the organization's practice of promoting from within, thus allowing people to 'carry along' the relationships built at the prior levels. Practical implications: The study implies that it may be in the best interest of other organizations to consider using multiple leadership styles to achieve different types of outcomes at different organizational levels.

Key words: clan/paternalistic, leadership style, transactional, transformational

The purpose of this article is to report the findings of a phenomenological case study of Kauai Juice in Johannesburg and Cape Town, South Africa. Kauai Juice has intentionally instituted three distinct leadership styles at three levels in the organization and, although the literature on leadership style does not indicate that different styles at different organizational levels is a norm or would work at all, the data collected from interviews of 42 front-line employees from 12 of the 30 Kauai stores along with 12 store managers, 4 regional managers, 4 general managers, and the CEO indicate that Kauai is successful with this strategy. This article adds to the literature by explaining what Kauai Juice has done and by

suggesting that other organizations may want to consider an intentional use of different leadership styles at different organizational levels.

During a March 2004 meeting with the primary researcher, the Kauai Juice general managers and the CEO indicated a desire to institute three leadership styles: (a) clan/paternalistic, (b) transactional, and (c) transformational at the (a) store level, (b) district level, and (c) headquarters level respectively. One year later, in March 2005, the research team conducted interviews at six stores in Johannesburg and six stores in Cape Town, South Africa. In addition, the research team interviewed store managers, district managers, general managers, and the CEO to determine if evidence supported the intentional use of the three leadership styles.

Although financial performance is not part of this case study and, as such, financial numbers are not reported, it should be noted that just prior to the introduction of the three leadership styles the company set an aggressive performance goal of increasing gross margin by 30 percent. While there are many elements that contribute to financial performance, it should be noted that during the leadership style implementation no new stores were started and no major changes occurred in the South African economy that would explain a large improvement. In addition to Kauai Juice's marketing efforts and public relations work that certainly contributed to the improvement, the CEO indicated confidence that the improvement in the store-level, district-level, and headquarters level was a significant contributor to the overall improvement, which he ascribed to the multiple leadership styles.

Yin (1994) proffers that the case study method is an acceptable system of inquiry that "investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (13). Additionally, the case study inquiry "benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis" (13). In this current case study, the phenomena certainly cannot be observed separately from the context, and it is the context that facilitates the phenomena. While the specific selection of leadership styles in Kauai Juice may be limited by

the social-cultural factors of urban South Africa, specifically in Johannesburg and Cape Town, the concept of multiple styles selected for specific environments may be appropriate for other organizations in other settings.

A review of the literature did not reveal any prior studies that support or encourage the use of different leadership styles at different levels, but this notion is compatible with Miller's (1987, 1996) concept of configuration approach. Configuration approach proposes that all organizations can be explained through the use of four macro variables: (a) strategy, (b) structure, (c) environment, and (d) leadership. Although there are infinite possible combinations of the details from these four macro variables, Miller contends that only a few combinations would be successful. This is similar to, but less open than, contingency theory. Miles and Snow (1978), in their presentation of the four archetypes (prospector, analyzer, defender, and reactor), which are based on the configuration approach, present the idea that organizations may have more than one archetype in the organization based on the focus of the department. For example, Miles and Snow indicate that while research and development departments may be prospectors, the accounting department may be defenders. For this article, a detailed discussion of Miles and Snow's archetypes is not necessary. (However, the reader is encouraged to review their work in the existing literature for a deeper understanding of the concepts.) It is sufficient for this article to note that a matrix of configurations is proposed within Miles and Snow's work, but Miles and Snow, Miller, and the literature in general advocate the intentional use of different leadership styles in the organization. Thus, the Kauai Juice case is worth exploring.

Method and Procedures

Following the March 2004 meeting with the CEO and general managers, Kauai Juice implemented the different leadership styles at different organizational levels and began training store managers and district managers on the paternalistic and transactional styles. The CEO indicated that he was already using the transformational leadership style at the headquarters and did not need specific

training. The primary researcher agreed to return and conduct a research study to determine the outcomes of the leadership style implementation efforts.

In March 2005, the researchers secured approval from Kauai Juice headquarters to visit six Kauai Juice stores in Johannesburg and Cape Town during the month and conduct interviews with store-level employees, store managers, and district managers. Kauai Juice has 39 retail locations in malls, airports, and physical fitness facilities. The company produces and sells high-quality juice drinks, smoothies, salads, sandwiches, etc. The company has over 325 employees in South Africa.

The 12 stores were specifically selected to provide a cross-section of all store locations (malls, airports, fitness centers) and a cross section of store size (from 6 to 40 employees). The primary researcher and one secondary researcher (one was from Johannesburg and one was from Cape Town) conducted each interview together and recorded their field notes separately. This allowed for confirmation between the two researchers' notes and an opportunity for one researcher to record something that the other researcher might miss.

Kauai Juice headquarters' personnel contacted each of the stores and advised the store manager that the research project was authorized. In the two situations where the store manager did not get the call prior to the research team's arrival, the researchers asked the store manager to contact the headquarters and confirm the legitimacy of the study. Store-level employees were pulled from duty situations for the 10-minute average interview. Each store-level employee was given ten Rand (at the then present exchange rate this was equal to \$1.67) for his/her time, which was about what the employee earned per hour of work. Store managers were interviewed and given twenty Rand as a token of appreciation for participating.

Each interview began with an introduction and a short description of the research, and each employee was asked if he/she wanted to participate. No employees were required to participate in the study. The two researchers each asked questions. If a problem in communication occurred (the primary researcher is from the United States while the secondary researchers were from South

Africa and were familiar with local culture and language idioms), the secondary researcher would rephrase the question or ask follow-up probing questions to clarify what the employee meant in the interview.

The primary researcher transcribed the two sets of field notes into a single word-processing file for easier evaluation and to combine comments. The next sections present what the literature implied should be found and what was found.

Paternalistic/Clan Leadership Style and Findings from the Case Study

Few studies exist in the recent organizational literature on the use of the clan culture and leadership style with the noted exception of Chan's (1997) case study of DHL. Chan includes the following among the characteristics of a clan organization: (a) the importance of the individual clan member, (b) importance of internal stability, (c) internal cohesiveness and a sense of we/they, (d) differentiation of the clan from the external environment, (e) minimum dilution of the clan culture, (f) importance of clan identity, (g) greater acceptance of deviance by clan members than deviance of non-clan members, and (h) a set of clan elders who establish the law and mete out justice (95). According to the University of Manitoba anthropological studies website, the clan member derives his/her rights from the father or mother figure in the clan (<http://www.umanitoba.ca/faculties/arts/anthropology/tutor/descent/unilineal/clans.html>).

Since the clan culture uses a father or mother figure as the authority, it is logical to look for a paternalistic (or maternalistic) leadership style in the clan organizational culture. While some Kauai store managers were female, the majority were male. Paternalistic leadership is a form of leadership in which the leader is an authority figure and determines what is best for the employees, much as a parent would be positioned in a nuclear family. Paternalistic leadership can be supportive and benevolent, as noted by Lee (2001), or domineering, as noted by Chou (2002). Although Liang, Ling, and Hsieh (2007) posit that paternalistic leadership is limited to China, the

paternalistic/maternalistic form of leadership is found in various people groups of South Africa.

In March 2003, Kauai Juice decided to introduce a supportive and benevolent form of paternalism, with one of the goals being to become an employer-of-choice in the markets that Kauai Juice served. According to Lee, this form of paternalism would be characterized by respect, consideration, and the provision of information from the store manager to the employees.

Interviews with the CEO and the general managers in March 2004 led to the discovery that in addition to becoming the employer-of-choice, Kauai Juice sought to create a work environment in which employees felt valued and safe. The CEO commented that for many of Kauai Juice employees their job with Kauai may be their first job, even for employees who are over the age of twenty-five. Based on the work of Chan (1997) and Lee (2001), and the goals set by the CEO, we sought to find evidence of the following through the interviews with store employees:

1. Recognition of the store manager as an authority;
2. Recognition of the store culture as that of a family;
3. Determination of the store manager as someone who cares about the employee;
4. Willingness to go to the store manager with both work and personal problems;
5. Determination that the local store is different from, as well as better than, other Kauai stores;
6. Determination that Kauai Juice, as an employer, is better than other similar-industry employers;
7. Recognition of the workplace as a safe place to be.

Of the 42 front-line workers interviewed, 42 (100%) indicated that they see the store managers as the authority figures in the company but also recognize the district managers and general managers when they visit the store. Of interest, even when front-line employees worked for more than one store manager (due to

shift and day assignments) they seemed to resonate with the position of the store manager as much as they did the person of the store manager. Thirty-eight of the front-line employees (90%) responded with terms and phrases which indicated that they felt the store was like a family, with the store manager acting in a parental authority role and other employees as siblings or family members. The researchers asked if the front-line employees felt that they could go to the store manager with problems, either work or personal in nature, and 39 (93%) indicated that they had done so in the past and would continue to bring problems to the store manager. Only one employee indicated that interactions with the store manager were not productive. Forty (95%) of the front-line employees indicated that the store manager was willing to listen to ideas from the store employees. This piece of information confirms that certain elements of clan culture—e.g., regarding the manager as a clan leader and as the authority figure within the clan—exist distinctly.

Forty (95%) of the front-line employees indicated that they would not want to work for a company other than Kauai even if the pay was slightly higher. It is important to note that further probing by the researchers indicated that 20 (48%) of the employees would leave and work for a different employer in the same industry if the pay was significantly higher (more than double the current pay). The low-income status of most laborers in South Africa would certainly be a factor in this. Of the Johannesburg store employees, none of the front-line employees indicated that they would be interested in working for a different Kauai store and considered their current store as the best store in the system. In contrast, 15 of the 22 front-line employees (68%) would be willing to work at a different Kauai Juice store if transportation was arranged (It is worth noting that most laborers live in the townships outside of the city proper and use transport systems consisting of buses and vans to get from home to work each day. Some stores were near public transport sites and some were not near a transport pick-up site, thus making commuting to work difficult). Probing questions by the researchers revealed that in Johannesburg front-line employees were trained in the store in which they were hired, but in Cape Town most employees were

trained in one central location. While the Johannesburg employees' interaction with other stores was limited, most were familiar with at least one other store. In addition, in both Johannesburg and Cape Town many of the Kauai Juice employees who lived in the same township would travel to work together, and on some of the trips employees would share experiences in their respective stores, thus transmitting general knowledge about other stores.

The general sense that the employees would not leave Kauai for employment in the same industry but with a different company, along with the employees' opinion that the current store was the best store in the system, supports the notion of a clan culture in that there is stronger allegiance and loyalty within the clan than there is outside the clan. The difference in training between the Johannesburg and Cape Town stores implies that if training occurs in the store where the employee will work there will be a greater sense of loyalty and identity with the assigned store.

Forty-one of the 42 employees (98%) interviewed indicated that the workplace is a safe place to be. Probing questions by the researchers revealed that this sense of safety included feelings of comfort, security, and physical and mental safety.

The interviewers asked the 12 store managers if they intentionally sought to create a family atmosphere and if they sought to make themselves available to employees to discuss work and personal problems. The store managers all commented that there was an intentional effort within the Kauai store system to build a sense of family and for Kauai to become the employer of choice in the regions where they have stores. The store managers all stated that they shared store performance information with employees and performance information about other Kauai stores as a means of giving employees performance targets towards which to work. Store managers could provide financial bonuses to employees for exceeding store-performance targets. The bonuses were about 10 percent of the wages paid to a store-level employee.

From the CEO, the researchers learned that care and concern for employees extended to the employees' families and funerals. High death rates exist in South

Africa because of AIDS, and it is the custom that the family has a large celebration as part of the funeral and is responsible for feeding the greater family and network of friends. Kauai Juice managers and executives began a program of visiting the family and bringing food for the family to use in the celebration and funeral process. In addition, the researchers learned that Kauai Juice provided transportation support to front-line employees who were asked to work late shifts. Late shifts required employees to miss the normal bus/taxi transportation options, and Kauai Juice managers and executives chose to provide a non-customarily provided service—transport—as a means of helping employees and keeping them from having to walk long distances in unsafe areas.

The information collected in the interviews with front-line employees and store managers supports the idea that Kauai intentionally used the paternalistic/clan leadership style the stores. Employees stated that they were loyal to the company and, of note, 41 of the 42 employees (98%) indicated that they had friends working at Kauai Juice or would recommend that their friends apply for work there. Store managers indicated that the stores were performing at levels higher than a year before and that the leadership style and culture introduced during the past year was a significant reason for the higher performance. Managers referred to marketing changes as another significant contribution to the firm's performance.

Transactional Leadership Style and Findings from the Case Study

Transactional leadership differs from paternalistic clan leadership in that transactional leadership focuses more on pay-for-performance than on relationship. The transactional leader does not presume that the employee will do anything except for a transaction in which the payment for service is large enough to motivate the employee to perform. In transactional leadership the employee does nothing out of a sense of loyalty or altruism toward the organization or the leader but only acts as a means of gaining payment. Bass (1985, 2000) defined transactional leadership by saying that leaders “cater to the

self-interest of the constituents” (Bass, 1985, 22) and that the transaction may be positive (reward) or negative (punishment) based on the desirability of the employee’s behavior as defined by the leader. Notably, Bass posited that in a full-range leadership theory a leader would use a multitude of leadership styles, including but not limited to transactional and transformational (Bass did not address paternalistic/clan styles). In this present study, Kauai Juice chose not to use a full-range leadership approach at all levels; instead, it chose to focus on specific leadership styles at specific levels of the firm.

Since transactional leadership focuses on payment for service, transactional employees should report a clear understanding of work needed and payment given. Similarly, since transactional leadership does not rely on relationship as a means of gaining compliance and performance, transactional leaders and employees should both clearly indicate that relationship, though good in its own right, is not necessary in their work environment. In fact, little evidence should exist that leaders and employees seek and maintain positive relationships beyond the exchange process. Also, since employees in transactional-based work environment seek to serve their own self-interest, as Bass (2000) implied, employees should be attracted to other employers who offer to pay more for the same work, thus showing minimal or no loyalty to the present employer. Since the Kauai Juice store managers work with front-line employees in a paternalistic/clan style but have to work with the district manager in a transactional style, it seems logical that there should be some dissatisfaction in the store managers in that working upward is only based on goal-attainment but working downward is relationship-based. As a metaphor, the researchers proposed that leaders/employees at the intersection of different leadership styles should experience a "wind shear" or "leadership shear" in which leaders/employees find "turbulence" and cognitive dissonance. To this end the researchers asked store managers:

- Is your relationship with the district manager based on achieving the store performance measures, or is based more on a personal relationship?
- Do you do what you do in the store to gain the pay, or do you do what you do more out of a sense of duty and commitment to the organization?
- Can you go to the district manager and ask for help with both work and personal problems?
- Would you leave Kauai to take a position with a different firm in the industry if you were paid more?

The researchers expected to find that the district managers were more interested in performance than the store managers and less interested in relationship than the store managers, since the district managers are one step removed from the store managers-front line employees relationship. The researchers also expected to find that the district managers would be more willing to take a job with a different employer in the industry if the different employer offered more pay for the same work. In addition, the researchers expected to find that the district managers would be opposed to a relational style of leadership since it might detract from short-term performance. To this end the researchers asked district managers:

- Is your relationship with the store manager based on achieving the store's goals or on a relationship with the store manager?
- Is a relationship with the store manager important to you?
- Would you take a job with a different employer in the industry if you were offered more pay for the same work?
- Do you believe that the general manager to whom you report is more interested in you or in your attainment of the various stores' performance goals?

In general, the results collected by the researchers from the twelve store managers and four district managers confirmed the expected results and made it clear that Kauai Juice had indeed established a transactional leadership style for the district managers and the store managers. Nevertheless, there was more evidence of relationship than anticipated.

All the store managers indicated that there was a clear expectation by the district managers for store performance and that it was the responsibility of the store manager to attain the results. While the store managers indicated that they received bonuses for attaining the store's goals, they also understood the need to buffer communication and workloads among the front-line employees. This seems to be in accordance with the paternalistic/clan style in that internal members of the clan are buffered from outside forces. None of the store managers indicated that he/she would leave Kauai to work for another employer in the same industry if the pay was higher and the workload the same. This is in accordance with a paternalistic/clan leadership style in that the clan leader is more loyal to the extended clan than to outside non-family clans. In addition, all the store managers indicated that they did what they did in the store more for allegiance to Kauai than for the salary, although salary seemed to play a larger role in the intrinsic/extrinsic benefit mix than the researchers heard from the front-line employees. Of interest, nine out of the twelve store managers indicated that they sensed a clear relationship component with the district managers, that the relationship was important to them, and that they believed the relationship component was also important to the district manager.

The four district managers responded to the questions in much the same way as the store managers did. The district managers acknowledged that the financial performance (goal attainment) was paramount for the store managers, but like the store managers they responded that relationship was important. Like the store managers, the district managers indicated that they were not interested in taking a job with a different employer in the same industry for an increase of pay for doing the same work. Like the store managers too, salary was more important than what the researchers heard from the front-line employees. The district

managers indicated that they were confident that the general manager to whom they reported was very interested in the stores attaining the set financial performance goals.

The researchers asked probing questions about the unexpected importance of relationship and determined that the district managers were promoted from the ranks of the store managers and that the store managers were promoted from the ranks of assistant managers; thus, the district managers were store managers at one time who had relationship-leadership connections with front-line employees and the now-current store managers. Thus, when the district managers visited the stores that they oversaw, in at least one store and sometimes in more than one store the district managers had leader-employee and peer relationships with both front-line employees and store managers. Likewise, the store managers knew the district manager when the district manager worked at the store level, and the past relationship carried into the present work-relationship.

The responses to the questions by the store managers and the district managers confirm that a transactional style exists but not in a pure form due to the prior relationships between the district managers, store managers, and front-line employees that occurred while the district managers worked at the store level. It may be that a purer form of transactional leadership might be evident if district managers were only hired from outside the organization, since it is clear from the evidence collected that the district managers bring the relationships along with them as they move upward from store manager to district manager.

Transformational Leadership Style and Findings from the Case Study

Bass (1985, 2000) defined transformational as a style in which the leader seeks to improve the condition of the follower so that the follower will work to achieve the goals of the organization. The transformational leader, according to Bass, uses four forms of behavior: (a) inspirational motivation, (b) individualized consideration, (c) idealized influence, and (d) intellectual stimulation.

The primary researcher asked the four general managers about their leader-employee relationship with the CEO. To check for the presence of transformational leadership the primary researcher asked each of the four general managers the following questions:

- When you interact with the CEO, do you believe that he refers to the greater good of the organization and future goals as a means of providing the reasons why you should work on behalf of the organization?
- When you interact with the CEO, do you believe that he treats you as an individual and provides you what you need rather than treating all the general managers in the same manner?
- When you interact with the CEO, do you believe that he uses ideals and virtues as the basis for asking you to think or behave in given ways?
- When you interact with the CEO, do you believe that he seeks to give you mentally/intellectually challenging tasks?

The responses from the four general managers varied considerably, which implied that the CEO did in fact provide individual consideration to each general manager. In addition, the broader work experiences among the general managers compared to the district managers and/or store managers seemed to add to the variation among the responses. Although there was variation, the responses in general showed that the CEO used the transformational leadership style in working with the general managers. The four general managers indicated that there was evidence of inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and, to a lesser extent, idealized influence and intellectual stimulation. The weaker evidence for idealized influence and intellectual stimulation is not surprising, since the researchers' experiences in South Africa indicate that these two areas are not well used in the general cultural approach to leadership.

Summary of Findings and Discussion

The interviews conducted by the researchers indicate that Kauai Juice has successfully used the three leadership styles of paternalistic/clan, transactional, and transformational in the three respective levels of (a) store manager—front line employee; (b) general manager—district manager—store manager, and (c) CEO—general managers. Of note, the organizational leadership "wind shear" that the researchers expected to see was only mildly evident and seemed to be mitigated by the practice of promoting from assistant manager to store manager to district manager from within the organization. The fact that the practice of training the Cape Town employees in one store seemed to lessen the intensity of the employees clan-like store loyalty compared to the Johannesburg practice of training the employees in the hiring store is also of note.

Not only does the evidence show that Kauai was successful in introducing and maintaining the three distinct leadership styles, but it seems that Kauai was financially successful in bringing the three styles to bear in specific contexts. During the first year of using the styles, for example, the overall company financial performance improved by 30 percent, thereby exceeding the industry average. The CEO and general managers acknowledge the contribution of many aspects of the company, including marketing and financial management, to financial performance, but also note the higher performance at the store and district levels, which they attribute to the use of the specific leadership styles.

This configuration approach to using different leadership styles for different organizational-level strategies may be something that other firms want to consider. Future research may involve the macro-laboratory studies of introducing different leadership styles that match up with organizational-level specific strategies and measuring the results after a requisite period of time. Confounding factors of a study like this, including environmental factors, general economic issues, and training programs to select and equip leaders with the needed leadership style, should also be considered.

Reference

- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (2000). The future of leadership in learning organizations. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(3), 18-40.
- Chan, A. (1997). Corporate culture of a clan organization: A case study of DHL International. *Management Decision*, 35(2) 94-99.
- Chou, W. (2002). The transformation of industrial authority and paternalistic capitalism in the global economy: Case studies of Taiwan's textiles industries. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(3), 550-568.
- Lee, H. (2001). Paternalistic human resources practices: Their emergence and characteristics. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 35(4) 841-869.
- Liang, S., Ling, H., & Hsieh, S. (2007) The mediating effects of leader-member exchange quality to influence the relationships between paternalistic leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 10(2) 127-137.
- Miles, R., & Snow, C. (1978). *Organizational strategy, structure, and process*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Miller, D. (1987). The genesis of configuration. *The Academy of Management Review*, 12(4) 686-701.
- Miller, D. (1996). Configurations revisited. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(7), 505-512.
- Yin, R. K. (1994) *Case study research: Design and methods*. (2d ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bruce E. Winston (Ph.D., Virginia Commonwealth University) serves as both Dean and Associate Professor of Leadership at Regent University's School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship in Virginia Beach, Virginia. He can be reached at bwinston@regent.edu

Karen Cerff (Ph.D., Regent University) combines consulting and teaching in the fields of organizational leadership, coaching, and education. She resides in Cape Town, South Africa, where she is dedicated to encouraging and developing people towards their potential in every walk of life. She can be reached at Karen@transformationalleadership.co.za

John W. K. Jerome serves as National Sales Manager at Aspire Engineering as well as operates his own business in Mining Minerals. He has a strong passion for effective leadership in organizational structures. John resides in Johannesburg, South Africa, and can be reached at kemballatcost@yahoo.com; jerome.aspire@gmail.com

INTERVIEW

Abdullah Al Mahmud by Jane H. Ives, Northeastern University, and Jennifer A. Swanson, Stonehill College

Bangladesh has emerged as a frontier market due primarily to its low-cost labor, large population, investor-friendly regulatory environment, and strategic location adjacent to China and India. Its economy is expected to expand by approximately 5.5 percent in FY2009/10, down just slightly from the previous year, and is expected to increase for the following year. Even though the country has been plagued by corruption in the past, the government and some local businesses have taken steps to tackle this problem. The Mahin Group is one of these businesses, having emerged as one of Bangladesh's major success stories by focusing on ethical leadership practices to become a strong, reliable, and trustworthy partner for companies around the world.

Global entrepreneur and successful business leader Abdullah Al Mahmud is the founder, Chairman, and Managing Director of the Mahin Group, headquartered in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Mr. Mahmud started the company in the 1990s, and under efficient and transformational leadership it has evolved into a vertically integrated leader in the export of apparels and textiles. Mahin Apparels, the first endeavor of the Mahin Group, produces all types of clothing products and has developed in-house facilities such as washing, packaging, and printing. This sophisticated apparel manufacturing division is hoping to expand its current production of 4 million pieces per year to 10.5 million pieces in the near future. Another division of the Mahin Group is Hamid Fabrics Ltd., which includes a weaving unit as well as a dyeing and finishing unit. The weaving unit began in 1996, and production includes cotton twill, canvas, poplin, and other fabrics made with high quality yarns sourced from renowned spinners in Bangladesh, India, Thailand, and Indonesia. Another weaving unit, Hamid Weaving Mills Ltd., was set up in 2008 to support Hamid Fabrics Ltd. Total weaving capacity stands at an impressive 24 million yards per year. The dyeing and finishing unit was established in 2003 and is considered to be the most sophisticated and fully automated, state of the art, continuous dyeing range in Bangladesh. The dyeing-finishing capacity is currently at 30 million yards per year.

The well-known Hamid brand has customers from all over the world including European and American apparel giants Gap, Levi's, Esprit, and Marks & Spencer. Although the core activity is to manufacture and export textile fabrics, the Mahin Group also has a reputable insurance division and is currently investing in the hotel and tourism sector in Bangladesh. This dynamic and fast-growing company is helping to transform Bangladesh into a global player in today's world marketplace. The following is a transcript from an interview with Mr. Mahmud in October of 2009 in Bangladesh.

JI/JS: How did you decide on what business to enter? Describe and discuss your products and the kind of business you are in.

AAM: My brothers were involved in the Ready Made Garment (RMG) business since the early 1980s. I developed a keen interest in the business while I was studying in the USA. I remember spending my summer vacations at my brother's factory, eagerly wanting to learn the trade. After I finished studying, I immediately returned back to Bangladesh and set up a garment factory with my brother. There has been no looking back since.

Mahin Group was formed in 1996, with an existing garment factory, a newly-established insurance company, and a textile mill. Over the years, the Group expanded its textile and garment divisions. At the moment, manufacturing textiles remains our core activity. We produce fabric, with local and imported yarn. We have the most advanced and sophisticated dyeing and finishing facilities in the country, with machines from renowned German companies like Kusters and Bruckner. Recently, a new weaving unit has been established with state-of-the-art looms from Toyota in Japan. We believe this will enhance our production capabilities and enable us to better serve our valuable customers.

JI/JS: What are the defining strengths of your business?

AAM: Quality, commitment, collaboration, innovation, and ethical practices.

JI/JS: How do you differentiate your business from others in the same field?

AAM: We are extremely passionate about what we do and have an uncompromising attitude when it comes to maintaining quality. Our dyeing and finishing mill is one of the finest in the country, machinery- and aesthetics-wise. Our new weaving unit is considered a model mill by Toyota in the region. Our strength would be the Hamid brand, as buyers often associate that with quality.

J/JS: In what areas do you perceive yourself to have a strong future position and where are your weaknesses? What are your greatest challenges in the next 3-5 years and what is your long-term strategy for growing your company?

AAM: [The area of] textiles is our main strength for the future. We are yet to have our own yarn-spinning facilities; the business units would definitely benefit from that. There is difficulty in getting and retaining highly skilled labor in the textile sector, as opposed to the garment sector, where labor is readily available.

We intend to grow our customer base over the next few years. We would like to develop our employees to slowly move away from the traditional ways of thinking; we want to expand their horizons and make them think on a more professional and global level. The group will invest in training facilities to develop managerial skills in-house. Competing with China and India is another big challenge for us in terms of price, and we are constantly thinking of ways to beat the competition.

The struggle in the short run is offset by the massive gains in the long run. We have grown our company keeping the big picture in mind. There is a need to grow in the textile division, so that we can slowly develop a garment from start to finish, in-house. This also means lower prices for customers in the long run, as a result of economies of scale.

As for diversification, we are always seeking new ventures. The insurance company was set up in the 90s, mainly to support the garment industry (marine, fire, etc). We are now in the process of setting up a renowned international hotel in Dhaka, in order for foreigners, who mainly come to visit Bangladesh for business in the RMG sector, to have a nice and luxurious place to stay in.

J/JS: In regard to your employees, to what extent do you use locals as managers?

AAM: All of the managers in the corporate office are locals. In the textile mills, however, some of the main managers are foreign. We currently employ two gentlemen from Hong Kong and two from India. The production manager in our mill is from Hong Kong and has been there from the start. His expertise and knowledge about the dyeing process seems to be somehow superior to that of the locals.

J/JS: Describe the decision-making process at your firm.

AAM: All the major decisions are made at the top, by me and the heads of different departments. On the production floor, however, the managers have full

discretion to make decisions and run the process smoothly. Decisions are made mostly on a consultative basis.

JI/JS: Describe a business situation in which you were not effective.

AAM: The Hotel project has been hanging for quite some time. We are facing difficulty finding the appropriate piece of land to build it on. There are several factors contributing to this problem, including political factors. This has not yet been resolved.

JI/JS: How has the global recession affected the garment industry and your company?

AAM: The garment industry has been affected by the recession, but not as much as one would expect it to. It is affecting our company to a certain extent. The buyers have reduced their order quantities, and they ask for low prices, which affects our profit margins. Things are looking much better lately and we are very optimistic about the coming year. We have already started to prepare for it by communicating back and forth with our buyers and even buying yarn in advance. After the global recession, when our turnover increases, we plan on further expanding the textile division by setting up a spinning mill. Our goal is to meet the requirements and needs of our buyers and deliver effectively. We intend to develop our employees along the way. Further investments in R&D are a possibility. We also aim to maintain and enhance our relationships with suppliers and other stakeholders.

JI/JS: How is your company involved in community work?

AAM: Charitable projects are not really linked to the company; they are funded and carried out personally. This is how it normally works in Bangladesh. Only a handful of companies support charities; rather it's the people (chairmen, managing directors, etc.) who are actively involved in them.

JI/JS: What traits or characteristics are important for a business leader to possess? Which of these traits do you possess?

AAM: An open mind, positivity, flexibility, honesty, and courage. I always keep an open mind about everything. I have a very positive outlook, and try to pass this on to the employees of Mahin Group. Honesty is a key trait in my company.

I would say that I am also a very aggressive risk taker; but this attitude has been built up with time. Businessmen in Bangladesh are known to be conservative risk takers. So, there were times when people around me advised me to slow down or think deeper about an upcoming project. I always take the long-term view of things. Certain projects were risky to undertake, and we have had to struggle quite a lot; but at the end, it all paid off.

JJ/JS: What can prospective entrepreneurs learn from your experience and leadership style?

AAM: Don't be scared to take risks! Set your goals and achieve them according to your vision or view of the big picture. There are pros and cons to everything; you just need to be dynamic with your moves.

PEDAGOGY

A Paradigm for Creating a Sustainable Learning and Service Community in an Online University: Theory and Practice

**Jane Henderson, Ed.D.
Jason R. Willoughby M.B.A., M.A.C.
Janice Flegle, MBA, RN
Kaplan University**

The number of educational institutions offering courses or entire programs online has grown exponentially over the past several years and has displayed a high degree of academic success. However, higher education should prompt people to think critically about their lives and futures and to examine their assumptions about the world. In order to fully accomplish these goals, students need to interact with professors and other students inside and outside the classroom. Put another way, students need the opportunity to interact with classmates and instructors in *learning communities* to test assumptions, try out new ideas, and ask difficult questions.

This paper examines the paradigm and social science theory used in an online graduate school of management to create a learning community. Encompassed within this learning community is an academic community, a service community, an ethical community, and a sustainable community. The paper also discusses the implementation of this paradigm at other educational institutions.

The popularity of online education has grown rapidly over the past several years. There are a number of reasons for this popularity. Online education is flexible and lifestyle-friendly. Currently, one reason that many students choose online classes is the high price of fuel. Students experience significant savings when they are able to complete their classes from home rather than driving to school for them. Most educational institutions now offer classes or entire programs online.

The majority of educational institutions have experienced academic success with their online classes and programs. However, higher education is more than learning facts or skills. It involves challenging assumptions and developing higher-order critical thinking. Much of this type of learning takes place outside the formal classroom. It occurs where students can interact with professors and other

students to test assumptions and try out new ideas. The creation of such a learning community is challenging when using online delivery methodology.

This paper examines the paradigm and social science theory used in an online graduate school of management to create a learning community, which encompassed an academic community, a service community, an ethical community, and a sustainable community. Student-driven, the paradigm is based on a service-oriented exchange that is sustainable after the students graduate. This paper also discusses the theory of learning communities and how the chosen paradigm has been implemented.

Theory of Learning Communities

A learning community is a group of people who share common values and beliefs and are actively engaged in learning together and from each other. Such communities have become the template for a cohort-based, interdisciplinary approach to higher education. This is based on an advanced pedagogical design (Goodyear, DeLaat, & Lilly, 2006).

Community psychologists have found that there are four key factors that define a sense of community: (1) membership, (2) influence, (3) fulfillment of individual needs, and (4) shared events and emotional connections. The participants of a learning community must feel some sense of loyalty to the group (membership) that drives their desire to keep working and helping others. The things that the participants do must affect what happens in the community, which requires an active and not just a reactive performance (influence). Additionally, a learning community must provide the opportunity for the participants to meet particular needs (fulfillment) by expressing personal opinions, asking for help or specific information, and sharing stories of events, issues, and emotional experiences (emotional connections) (Goodyear, et al., 2006).

Colleges and universities have come to realize that creating smaller learning communities is a successful strategy for engaging students. Learning communities can provide students with a sense of identity and with connection to the faculty, other students, the institution, and knowledge (Januski & Wolvin,

2007). The roles and responsibilities of the community members revolve around being caring connectors. The goal of the community is to enhance feelings of belonging by building personal connections between diverse groups of students (Walker & Schubert, 1999).

Most students and their parents want to participate in a school that reflects the values that are meaningful in their lives. Schools become cultural artifacts that people desire to shape in their own image. Therefore, when building a school culture, the leaders should pay close attention to the subtle or symbolic aspects of school life as well as its informal side. Faculty, parents, and students should look for answers to a number of questions such as: What is important? What are our beliefs? How do I fit into the scheme of things? and Why do things function the way they do? Often processes are perpetuated simply because of tradition. However, this is not a valid reason to continue something. If the tradition does not support what is meaningful to the stakeholders, then it should be changed into something in which they have faith and comfortably participate (Macneil, Maclin, & Mednick, 2006).

Programs built around an invitational philosophy of education recognize caring as a core ingredient in learning (Purkey & Novak, 1996). This caring is reflected in the materials students receive, the dialogue in which they participate, and the connections they make. Students need and appreciate information from fellow students about the reality of university life. Students within the learning community assume this role by responsively addressing many of the common concerns, myths, and mistakes to avoid, as well as by establishing a sense of belonging. The research findings highlight the importance of three essential elements for successful integration into a university or program: academic aptitudes, social skills, and psychological competencies (Walker & Schubert, 1999).

There are certain cautions that must be addressed when creating a learning community. Bower and Dettinger (1998) caution that people join learning communities for a number of reasons. It may be because of the unique identity, the mission and goals of the community, or the opportunities that the community

presents to the members. That is why it is important to establish a boundary that defines who is and is not a member of the community. This can be perceived as elitist, of course, though that is not the goal of learning communities. The mission, as well as the challenge, is to create communities with a strong identity that are defined by the goals and missions and not by whom they exclude from their membership. Successful learning communities are integrated, comprehensive programs in which transformative learning takes place through a community process as students develop professional, civic, and ethical responsibility (Bower & Dettinger, 1998).

Unique Challenges with Online Delivery Methodology

In online programs students have limited, if any, face-to-face interaction with their professors or classmates. Therefore, they must learn to operate in a virtual environment. One of the challenges for online students is a sense of isolation. The opportunity to participate in a learning community is one way that students feel more connected to their professors and fellow classmates. Since the people in the virtual learning community share interests, goals, and mission, they have a sense of belonging to the group. The authors believe that the creation of discrete groups in the virtual learning community mirrors the growing use of social networking tools such as Facebook with which many students are already comfortable.

The advances in technology have made connecting to others in the virtual world easier. Many businesses now use virtual teams to accomplish projects, with the people on the team often residing in different parts of the world. It is important that members of the online learning community are comfortable with the technology. Using the technology should be a part of the orientation to the learning community.

“The keys to the creation of a learning community and successful facilitation online are simple: honesty, responsiveness, relevance, respect, openness, and empowerment” (Palloff & Pratt, 2008, 22). By using these keys, the challenges of creating online learning communities can be overcome.

An Online Learning Community Paradigm

The traditional paradigm for the creation and implementation of educational standards is for university administrators or faculty to develop them and publish them to the students. However, when students are able to self-monitor their behavior, it reflects a paradigm shift from reinforcement by others to self-reinforcement of appropriate behavior. Appropriate behavior that is further reinforced by peers has a greater probability of becoming the behavior that is practiced by the group.

The student-initiated paradigm was used to create The Ambassadors and Leaders of Kaplan University's online Graduate School of Management. This paradigm is unique because it is student driven and encompasses several communities within the learning community.

An Academic Community

Once each month the Ambassadors and Leaders participate in a teleconference. The first half of the meeting hosts a distinguished guest speaker, while the second half is reserved for new business and updates. In order to complement the curriculum objectives in the Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Master of Science in Management (MSM) programs, speakers are chosen from various areas of business expertise and represent successful executives and leaders. Examples include the CEO of two successful companies who addressed issues of integrity and the qualities he expects direct reports to bring to the team. Another speaker, one with a long career as a Human Resources executive, emphasized the importance of Human Resources input into the strategic plan of any organization. An international executive coach explained the critical importance of lifelong learning for business leaders, and another speaker discussed the challenges involved in leading a global team. These are a few examples of how the model for Ambassadors and Leaders aligns with academic outcomes.

A Service Community

The spirit of service is the driving force for individuals who promote a world of peace and happiness. Service-oriented individuals are those who create both a path and a foundation for leadership and social change. In the context of this paper, they also contribute to the development of a service community within an academic institution.

When students make the decision to join a learning community to obtain a higher education degree, most look for a school that has a reputation for a student-centered focus. Whether it is a teacher giving extra time or an academic advisor making sure the student's degree plan is the exact fit for his or her future plans, qualities such as these are attractive to the adult learner. When learning environments create such a relationship with their students, many students are inspired to give back to the institution in the spirit of service that is the focus of this paper.

To understand a service community, one must understand the philosophical aspects of service. First, service is defined as an act of helpful activity (www.dictionary.com, n.d.). This definition supports the viewpoint used to develop the Kaplan Ambassadors and Leaders program. The theory that is the foundation for developing this service-oriented group is Heider's Social Balance Theory. According to Heider (1967), the Social Balance Theory is a class of theories within social network theory that attempts to describe how an individual desires to reduce affective cognitive dissonance influence in a group of network structures.

By a balanced state is meant a situation in which the relations among the entities fit together harmoniously; there is no stress towards change. A basic assumption is that sentiment relations and unit relations tend toward a balanced state.... Sentiments and unit relations are mutually dependent. It also means that if a balanced state does not exist, then forces toward this state will arise. If a change is not possible, the state of imbalance will produce tension. (Heider, 1967, 201)

Additionally, Heider posits that individuals expect to be exposed to balanced social situations (Heider, 1967). A key component of this theory involves the reduction of cognitive dissonance or dislikes among another individuals' habits in order to gain balance in a social setting.

Heider's Balance Theory was widely accepted in the social psychology arena in the 1960s and is still viable today. Examples of the theory can be expressed in a formula drawn from both Heider and Jordan (Heider, 1967; Jordan, 1953).

p feels neighborly to o	$(p L o)$ is a positive relation
o reminds p of an acquaintance	$(o U x)$ is a positive relation
p is fond of the acquaintance	$(p L x)$ is a positive relation

Where p = the reference person; o = the other person; x = acquaintance (in this context; x in other context of the formula = a thing.) L = positive attitude; U = unit formation. (Heider, 1967, 203)

The formula is represented graphically in Figure 1.

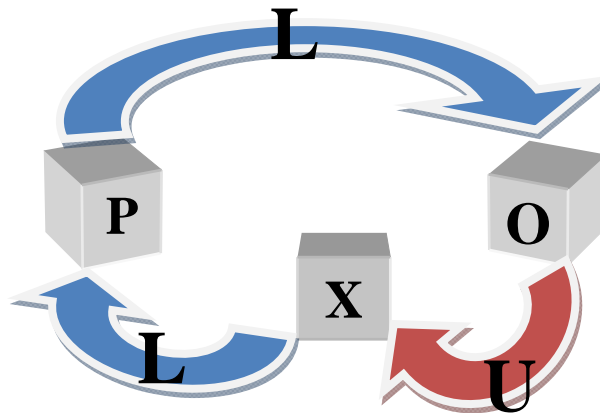


Figure 1

Conclusion: The triad has three positive relations and is therefore balanced (Heider, 1967, 207). It is this state which community building efforts such as the Ambassadors and Leaders program at Kaplan University seek to create.

The desire of individuals to attain a balanced state in interpersonal relationships supports the viability of the theory. A state of imbalance creates a kind of cognitive dissonance and emotional discomfort, causing individuals to make changes within the relationship in order to reduce tension and create a more balanced state.

Kaplan University is focused on student satisfaction and success. The faculty and administration have systems in place to swiftly resolve various issues that might impede student progress. There is a deep appreciation for adult learners' demanding schedules, in which they are typically working full-time while rearing a family. Providing this supportive environment helps to create the more balanced relationship sought by the student and described by Heider's Balance Theory. This type of relationship is called fair exchange, wherein *exchange* is defined as giving up something for something else, something equivalent (www.dictionary.com, n.d.). Social exchange theory, as initiated by George Homans, has as its central concept persons (referred to as "actors" in the theory) exchanging resources (either material goods or symbols of approval or prestige) via a social exchange relationship (Homans, 1958, 606). The formula is noted in Figure 2.

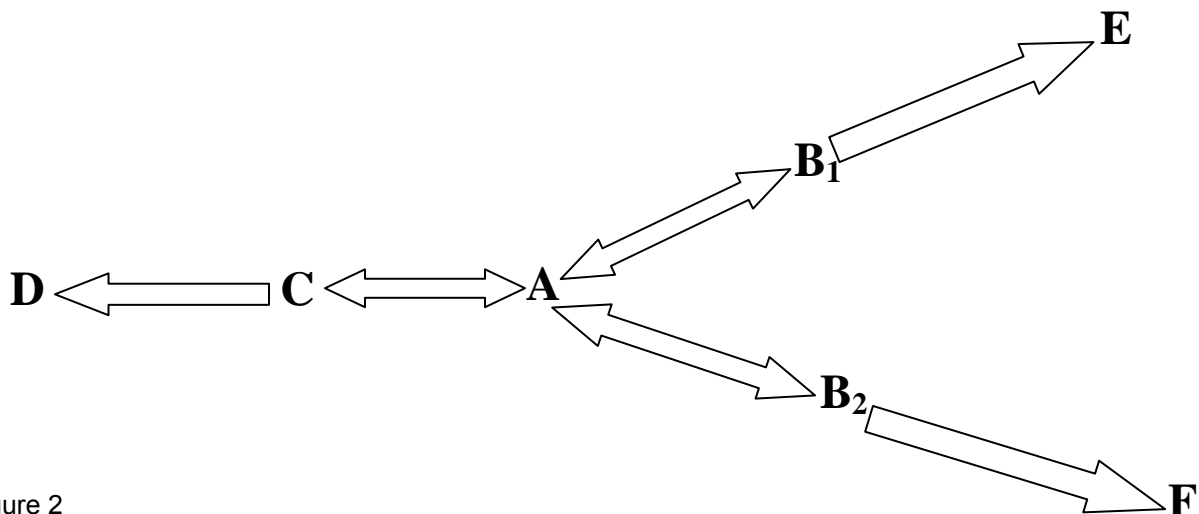


Figure 2

In Figure 2 (previous page), the letters represent actors and the arrows depict the movement of resources. The arrowheads point to the sourcing actors. B1 and B2 represent alternative exchange relations (Cook, 1977).

The key word in this definition is *equivalent*, as fair exchange is the exchange of something for something else of equal value. When one goes above and beyond what is expected, the exchange is exchange in abundance. Take a look at an example of exchange in abundance set in a restaurant: While the customer expects basic service from a waiter, the waiter brings a sample dish of the special entrees for the night at no charge. Such unexpected service would be considered exchange in abundance. Thus, exchange in abundance occurs when one expects equivalent exchange but receives superior service, increasing the value of the experience. When one receives exchange in abundance, one experiences a balanced state in their relationship and is then inspired to give back an exchange in abundance. This is the theory on which the Kaplan Ambassadors and Leaders Program was developed. The social balance between Kaplan University and the student is equivalent. The intention in creating the Ambassadors and Leaders program was to develop and expand a group of highly motivated students who would then join alumni to give service in abundance to the university.

The Kaplan Ambassadors and Leaders have the desire to focus on service to the school and to the student body as individuals (peer mentoring, for example, is one to one) and as members of a whole. The Kaplan Ambassadors and Leaders have created an environment of belonging that fosters an attitude of mutual exchange.

The Ambassadors and Leaders have completed several service projects to the Kaplan University student body, such as creating a quarterly newsletter available to every Kaplan University student that highlights student achievement and offers valuable information, including tips for new online students. The members of the organization have also aided in marketing research for Kaplan University as a focus group on marketing issues. Monthly online networking meetings are held at which distinguished executives make presentations and

hold question and answer sessions. Other service includes peer mentoring, which supports first-term students.

Service is reflected in the Ambassadors and Leaders organizational mission, which is designed to provide service to Kaplan University and the entire student body. The group desires to create a service community and build the social balance between Kaplan University and students around the world that will result in an enjoyable and successful online learning experience.

An Ethical Community

In recent years there has been increased emphasis on the need for colleges and universities to include ethics as a part of their business curriculum. In April 2003, AACSB member institutions, by nearly unanimous vote, approved new standards giving ethics education a more prominent place (Sleeper et al, 2006). The creation of an Ethics Education Task Force by AACSB in 2004 culminated in a white paper that calls on business schools to "renew and revitalize their commitment to teaching ethical responsibility at both the individual and corporate level" (Sleeper, et al., 2006).

The mandate to include ethics as a part of business schools' curricula is clear; however, the call for business schools to implement their own honor codes has been less clearly defined. Establishment of an honor code is an essential prerequisite for the creation of a climate of academic integrity and for decreasing student involvement in cheating and plagiarism.

Shortly after the Ambassadors and Leaders program was developed, the students discussed the need for the Graduate School of Management to have an Honor Code. They felt that an honor code developed by a group of their fellow students would have a strong impact on the students in the program.

Because this is an online program, the Honor Code would have to be created virtually. The Ambassadors and Leaders initially shared drafts through e-mail. When a final draft was completed, a teleconference was held to discuss the code and gain consensus. The Honor Code was adopted during that meeting and sent to the Dean for final approval. Working as a virtual team is consistent with the

learning model followed by Kaplan University and also represents the growing importance in the global marketplace of skills in working virtually with teams.

Subsequent to approval by the Dean, the Honor Code was embedded into every MBA and MSM course. It should be noted that this Honor Code is unique to the Graduate School of Management. All of Kaplan University is to abide by "Academic Freedoms and Student Responsibilities" published elsewhere in student materials. The Honor Code was designed to speak not only to academic integrity but also to the manner in which graduates of Kaplan University's Graduate School of Management comport themselves throughout their lives and careers. This expands the Honor Code to a lifelong expectation of ethical behavior. The Honor Code that was developed by the students in the Ambassadors and Leaders program states:

As a Kaplan University Graduate School of Management student, I will uphold the utmost ethical standards in my personal life, academic performance, and business community. I promise to maintain high ethical standards and values within our academic community by not plagiarizing or cheating on homework and by promoting ethical decision making among the student body.

I will make ethical decisions within my personal life which promote honesty and compassion among my family and friends and which lead to a healthy and responsible life.

As a Kaplan University Graduate School of Management student, I will promote ethical considerations in every academic and business decision and, after graduation, I will conduct myself with dignity and integrity.

Honor Code Effectiveness. The fact that the Honor Code was developed by students has a profound impact on students, graduate school professors, and university administrators. Students feel a strong sense of responsibility to abide by the Honor Code because they know that it was written by their peers and consequently reflects the attitudes and expectations of their fellow students.

Many students, alumni, and faculty have expressed their feeling that the Honor Code is effective and applicable to their professional and personal lives. The following statement, written by a Graduate School of Management student in her first class, is representative of the sentiments expressed.

First, let me say that the code is one of the best documents I have had access to in all of my schooling. It gives you something to think about that applies to your everyday living. There is nothing that I would challenge about the document. The honor code means everything to me and is what I am basing my conduct on now and in the future. It means that my school cares about my integrity in business, no matter what business it is, and my personal life. Bravo! (correspondence with student)

A Sustainable Community

A primary goal for Ambassadors and Leaders is to create a strong bond among students: not only among current students but also one that survives over time. To that end, an alumni arm was created. Upon graduation, the Ambassador is moved into this unit and continues to participate in service to the Graduate School of Management at whatever level is appropriate given other demands on his or her time. Continuing service may include mentoring a current student in a similar field, contributing to the quarterly newsletter, or speaking with prospective students. Unlike traditional on-ground alumni associations, no solicitations for donations are ever conducted. In the spirit of the original Ambassadors group, the alumni unit exists to grow networks, increase leadership skills, and serve.

Implementation of the Paradigm

In the spring of 2007, a successful Kaplan University Graduate School of Management student and a faculty member wrote a proposal to the Dean requesting permission to create the Ambassadors and Leaders Program. The proposal was set out as follows:

Mission Statement

The Kaplan University Graduate School of Management's Ambassadors and Leaders Program helps students in the MBA and MSM program(s) experience leadership and personal growth through mentoring and represent the Graduate School to the public at large. The Program promotes excellence in graduate education and contributes to the development of leadership skills relevant to 21st century global business demands.

Structure

The Ambassadors and Leaders Program will have an executive board consisting of President, Vice President, and Secretary. These roles will be held by students elected from the membership in the Program and will serve

a term no longer than one year or until graduation, at which time a new election will be held.

There will be a Faculty Sponsor for the Program selected by the Dean of the Graduate School of Management. This is a permanent position.

Roles

The Ambassadors and Leaders will:

1. Serve as mentors to selected students (students will have to apply for a mentor in a structured application process conducted by the Faculty Sponsor);
2. Represent the Graduate School in interviews, conferences, and selected marketing opportunities in the public domain, to be determined by the Dean;
3. Represent the Graduate School internally, such as on the home page area seen by all students enrolled, in text, audio, or video format;
4. Serve as examples to others via success stories;
5. Participate in discussion forums for prospective MBA//MSM students via conference calls and/or live chat (to be coordinated with the Admissions Advisors and/or the Strategic Alliances Organization [Marketing]);
6. Communicate with prospective students via email for follow up (to be coordinated with Admissions Advisors);
7. As appropriate, work on marketing events and idea generation (to be coordinated with Kaplan's internal marketing division and the Dean);
8. Create an Honor Code for the Graduate School of Management;
9. Release a quarterly Newsletter;
10. Created an Alumni arm of Ambassadors through which Ambassador graduates may continue to serve;
11. Create and maintain a Facebook page for Kaplan University Student Ambassadors & Leaders.

Processes

In order to become a member of the Ambassadors and Leaders Program, a student must:

1. have advanced to candidacy, taking four courses successfully (or have permission of the Faculty Sponsor);
2. have and maintain a 3.5 average or higher;
3. complete an application that will include an essay about what the student hopes to contribute, and that will demonstrate good communication skills, leadership abilities, good time management.

Criteria for judging the Essays will include, but not be limited to:

- excellent writing skills
- prior experience as a mentor favored, though not required
- experience in other service-related roles
- public speaking skills and comfort level with media desirable.

Applications will be reviewed by the Faculty Sponsor and the sitting President of Ambassadors & Leaders. The Faculty Sponsor will have the final authority. Applications will be accepted at any time after the student meets the eligibility requirements, or with permission of the Faculty Sponsor.

New members will be oriented by the Faculty Sponsor and the President (or a designee) in a conference call.

Alumni Ambassadors and Leaders

Graduates of the MBA and MSM programs will be eligible to apply as members of this arm of the Ambassadors and Leaders Program. The structure will be the same as previously described. Active Ambassadors who graduate may automatically remain active in Ambassadors as long as they desire. They will not be required to reapply but only to state their interest. Other graduates will apply as previously discussed and must meet the same standards. Their charter is to remain in communication with other graduates of the program, maintain an alumni newsletter, and capture success stories from graduates that can be used both for marketing purposes and for inspiration for active students.

Miscellaneous

Referral program: Any Ambassador and Leader member who refers an individual who enrolls with Kaplan and enters GB 500 will be rewarded with a free bookstore item of his/her choice, not to exceed \$25.00.

The President of the Ambassadors and Leaders Program will be sponsored by the Graduate School of Management to attend at least one graduation per year. Additional Ambassadors will be sponsored as the budget supports. Ideally, the President would report on the Program's status and activities to the whole staff of the Graduate School of Management during a retreat meeting and to the Advisory Board.

Replication

The Ambassadors and Leaders Program began in the Kaplan University Graduate School of Management. Because of the success of the program, it has been replicated throughout Kaplan University in both graduate and undergraduate programs. The paradigm is reproducible and has been shown to be effective throughout the university.

Conclusion

This paper examines the student-driven paradigm used in an online graduate school of management to create a learning community that encompassed an academic community, a service community, an ethical community, and a sustainable community. It is the authors' belief that this paradigm is repeatable in other online programs. The paradigm is based on accepted theory and has been successfully implemented in one online graduate program.

One purpose of education is to create more productive citizens who give back to their communities in numerous ways. As students become involved in service to the university, their educational experience is enriched and an attitude of service is carried into the larger communities.

References

- Bower, A.M., & Dettinger, K.M. (1998). What is a learning community: Toward a comprehensive model. *About Campus*, 3(5), 15-21.
- Cook, K.S. (1977). Exchange and power in networks of interorganizational relations. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 18 (Winter, 1977), 62-82.
- Dictionary.com Unabridged (Ed. 1.1). Retrieved October 10, 2008, from Dictionary.com website: <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/service>
- Goodyear, P., De Laat, M., & Lally, V. (2006). Using pattern languages to mediate theory- praxis conversations in designs for networked learning. *Research in Learning Technology*, 14(3), 211-223.
- Heider, F. (1967) *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. (5th ed.) NY: John Wiley.
- Homans, G.C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 63 (6), 597-606.
- Janusik, L.A., & Wolvin, A.D. (2007). *The communication research team as learning community*. *Education*, 128(2), 169-188.
- Jordan, N. (1953) Behavioral forces that are a function of attitudes and of cognitive organization. *Human Relations*, 6: 273-287.
- MacNeil, A., Maclin, V., & Mednick, F. (2006, February 21). Building a learning community: The culture and climate of schools. Retrieved from the Connexions web site: <http://cnx.org/content/m13441/latest/>
- Paloff, R. M., & Pratt, K. (2007). *Building online learning communities: Effective strategies for the virtual classroom*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Purkey, W.W., & Novak, J.M. (1996) *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning*. (3d ed). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Sleeper, B. J., Schneider, K. C., Weber, P. S., & Weber, J. E. (2006). Scale and study of student attitudes toward business education's role in addressing social issues. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 68(4), 381-391.

Walker, L., & Schubert, J. (1999). Bridging the gap: Students' role in recruitment and retention. *Guidance and Counseling*, 15(1), 13-15.

Jane Henderson, Ed.D. is currently affiliated with Kaplan University. She has taught and served in administrative roles in higher education for more than 15 years. Prior to this career, she delivered training and development services in the corporate world and was the human resources manager for a nonprofit hospital. She lives in the San Francisco Bay Area. She can be reached at JHenderson@kaplan.edu

Jason Willoughby, M.B.A., M.A.C., has served in student retention and organization development in higher education. He not only was the co-founder and initial President for the Ambassadors and Leaders program but also is currently co-advisor for a new chapter of Future Business Leaders of America at Eastern Oklahoma State College, where he is their professional tutor. He has over 15 years of business management experience and is working on his Ph.D. in Finance. He currently resides in Southeastern Oklahoma. He can be reached at: jason_r_w@hotmail.com

Jan Flegle, M.B.A., R.N., is an adjunct faculty member with Kaplan University, Thomas Edison State College, Northcentral University, Ashford University, and Andrew Jackson University, where she teaches business and information technology courses. Prior to online teaching, she worked as a manager for a healthcare information technology vendor. She lives in the metropolitan Atlanta, Georgia area. She can be reached at jflegle@windstream.net

ESSAY FROM THE FIELD

An Interdisciplinary Major in Ethical Leadership Studies: Rationale, Challenges, and Template for Building an Adaptable Program

**Howard T. Prince II and Geoffrey R. Tumlin
University of Texas at Austin
Stacey L. Connaughton
Purdue University**

As the first decade of the twenty-first century draws to a close, ethical leaders and citizens are in high demand. Institutions of higher education can have a central role in developing the next generations of ethical leaders and citizens if they choose to do so. Toward that end, this article provides a rationale and an overview for the creation of an undergraduate interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies. The authors explore challenges, identify structural opportunities, and present an adaptable template and flexible model for an interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies.

Key Words: contextualizing leadership, leadership development

In a recent article, Robert Sternberg (2008) presents a compelling case for the importance of interdisciplinary study on college campuses. Sternberg argues that today's societal challenges require complex thinking and approaches to problem solving that transcend disciplinary boundaries and mindsets (Sternberg, 2008). For instance, in discussing emergent challenges of the twenty-first century, Sternberg notes the imperative of having individuals with diverse expertise and ways of thinking to approach complex problems such as global warming, health care reform, or a global economic crisis. Sternberg also argues that the development of ethical leaders is a creative challenge that is just as important to the well-being of society and just as difficult as other complex problems, all of which are best approached from a multidisciplinary perspective. This concern is at least as old as the ancient Greeks, who struggled with leadership questions during their early experiments with democracy and arrived at different answers from their leadership philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle. This article is one attempt to offer a response to Sternberg's challenge to find better ways of

developing ethical leaders through an interdisciplinary approach to undergraduate leadership education.¹

Without question, leadership education constitutes a growing focus and concern for colleges and universities in America and throughout the world. Increasing attention has been focused on ethical leadership, especially since the beginning of the new millennium as a wave of corporate scandals and individual ethical failures accompanied the bursting of the dotcom bubble, although the lead author has been writing about the imperative of developing ethical leaders for almost three decades (Prince, 1981). The near-failure of the global financial system in 2008, accompanied by a fresh assortment of ethical failures and fraud, has only increased the calls for better, more systematic approaches to ethical leadership development.

There are many challenges to overcome before college campuses can systematically develop ethical leaders (provided they even choose to attempt such an initiative, which is not always a given). Two of the best leadership development programs in higher education, the United States Military Academy at West Point² and the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond³ have structural idiosyncrasies that make replicating their success difficult. In addition to having a well developed academic major in leadership and supporting interdisciplinary courses in many academic departments, at West Point the entire campus is focused on developing leaders for the United States Army, and students live a sequestered life on campus in a very rich leadership learning laboratory for four years. In short, West Point is a fairly closed campus (meaning that the students spend the vast majority of their time on the campus during their four academic years) with an institutional mission of systematic leadership development.

The Jepson School of Leadership Studies is also unique because it is entirely self-governing and self-regulating, allowing its faculty and administrators full control over its two-year interdisciplinary major in leadership studies. This structural feature—virtually complete autonomy—is difficult to achieve without a large amount of initial capital and a campus willing to allow the capital to be used

to build an autonomous unit. This is not to suggest that donors to ethical leadership programs are scarce, notwithstanding the present economic slump. Indeed, the increasing attention paid to ethical failures probably points to a future of promising funding precisely for organizations that aim to more deliberately develop ethical leaders. But funding is only the first step in replicating the self-governing model of the Jepson School. Step two entails, as a minimum, gaining larger institutional acquiescence, if not full support, for the creation of an autonomous school, department, college, or unit of ethical leadership studies—a process that was not without considerable controversy even during the founding of the Jepson School itself (the first author was the founding dean of the Jepson School).

For the reasons described above, two of the world's premier programs in systematic leadership development—West Point and the Jepson School—have structural features that make their replication challenging, if not impossible, for other campuses. Organizations that are considering implementing a program of systematic ethical leadership development in the future will likely have to begin from their current situation, using existing institutional resources and course offerings to construct an evolving program of leader development. The creation of such emergent programs, built from existing university resources across academic units and course offerings, is the focus of this article.

Indeed, a significant challenge in creating an interdisciplinary academic program for leadership development at any institution of higher education is to find ways to bring together the disparate faculty, departments, and units under an appropriate coordinating mechanism to maximize the opportunity for ethical leadership development among interested students. Required courses in leadership and ethics vary among universities. For example, some professional programs such as engineering, journalism, advertising, and business offer, and even may require, a course or courses in the ethics of a given profession. We argue in this article that leadership and ethics must be integrated within leadership education programs of any kind, and we propose a template for such an integrated interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies (ELS) that

could be adapted to the existing resources (i.e., courses and faculty) found on many university campuses.

Many universities have a fair number of courses that have something to do with leadership or ethics, but few offer courses focusing directly on the connections between leadership and ethics. Many philosophy departments eschew the study and teaching of applied ethics, which is where leadership and ethics intersect. Although there are certainly benefits to students being exposed to leadership experiences and theories at any point in time, leadership development educators and researchers have increasingly been calling for more systematic and intentional approaches to student leadership development (Prince 2001; Connaughton, Lawrence, & Ruben, 2003; Nirenberg, 2003) focusing on business education. We contend in this article that a more systematic, intentional approach to developing students for ethical leadership can yield impressive gains for students at any university and the larger communities they will enter following graduation. An interdisciplinary major in ethical leadership studies offers one such possibility.

The Need for Ethical Leadership

Society requires and depends upon ethical leadership in all of our institutions and communities for optimum functioning. As Sternberg (2008) states, institutions of higher education must focus on “developing positive, effective, ethical leaders who have at heart the best interests of all their stakeholders, rather than primarily their own interests or those of groups to which they feel they owe allegiance as a result of family, tribal, political party, economic, or religious ties.” This call is further magnified when one considers the host of unethical and scandalous practices that have plagued the private and public sectors in recent years. Corporate scandals, unethical business practices, and questionable activities of some elected officials signal the need to develop ethical leaders who can create ethically sound institutions and organizations that enable others to act in ethical ways.

Beyond those holding formal leadership positions, the need for ethically-minded citizens is also apparent. Formal leaders do set the tone for the practice of ethics among their organizational members (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2009). Indeed, results from a study of 245 MBA students working within teams for a two-year period reveal an interaction between the team leader's perceived integrity and the ethical intentions of team members (White & Lean, 2008). Yet as Painter-Morland (2008) argues, promoting ethical practices within organizational contexts is not just the responsibility of formal leaders, but also the responsibility of all individuals within an organizational system. Moreover, the rise in incidents of workplace incivility among organizational members at all levels (Lutgen-Sandvik & Sypher, 2009) calls for a reexamination of how we treat one another at work. An ethical mindset for doing so is needed.

Despite the need for ethical leadership, as a society we frequently experience confusion about the meaning of ethical leadership as well as disappointment in the quality of our leaders. Ethics itself has been conceptualized in various ways over time from character-based definitions to those that are rules-based to those that are results-driven (see Vance & Trani, 2008, for a discussion of these varied conceptualizations). Variation also exists among conceptualizations of ethical leadership. Some adopt a view that has been characterized as individualistic (see Painter-Morland, 2008, for a discussion of this characterization). Research on ethical leadership in this segment of the literature has been depicted as focusing on individuals in positions of authority, contextual factors affecting ethical leadership, moral management, and individual leader characteristics (for example, locus of control, Machiavellianism).

Other scholars (for example, Maak & Pless, 2006) adopt what has been termed a relational model of ethical leadership. In this body of work, ethical leaders are conceived of as being adept at navigating complex social systems, balancing power relations, and building and fostering relationships, and in so doing are relationally responsive. A broader view of leadership known as systemic leadership (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007) takes those ideas to the system level and "reflects an awareness that many of the functions that have

traditionally been associated almost exclusively with formal leadership are now shared by all members of an organizational system” (Painter-Morland, 2008). Ethical leadership is needed across the board.

Some such as Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) define ethical leadership as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Brown, Trevino, and Harrison, 120). In this article, we define ethical leadership as an ethically sound, reciprocal influence process based on consensual interdependence among the members of a social unit that helps the members of the unit achieve a shared purpose by ethical means. Ethical leadership involves persuasion and explanation as well as the ability to identify, affirm, and renew the values of the unit the leader represents.

Given the host of complex challenges facing the world today, the future of our society may depend—at least partly—on citizens who understand that leadership means serving others, and that their very citizenship also carries the obligation to lead when circumstances require. Our society also requires ethical followers who are prepared to choose wisely which leaders to support in the pursuit of noble purposes and how to participate effectively and ethically in supporting the efforts of ethical leaders. Part of that responsibility involves preparing citizens to be ethical followers who will hold leaders accountable and will not tolerate unsound or unethical leadership. As one group of scholars argues, “...colleges and universities have a fundamental responsibility to guide the development of the next generation of capable and ethical leaders” (Connaughton, Lawrence & Ruben, 2003, 46).

Many colleges and universities claim that they educate tomorrow’s leaders. But this claim merits more careful examination. Institutions of higher education often do not develop systematic course offerings in leadership in the way that they offer series of courses in other fields such as business, history, or nursing. To the contrary, if students learn about leadership, it is often by participating in extracurricular activities or in loosely coupled clusters of courses that may lead to

recognition through a certificate. And such learning about leadership that does take place is usually, if not almost always, incidental rather than intentional.

Opportunities to learn about leadership through experience are seldom linked to a body of knowledge that can inform experience or be combined with assessment, feedback, and reflection. In addition, most institutions of higher education offer courses in ethics, but only a small number of students take those courses unless they are required for graduation, and requirements for a core ethics course for all students is not widespread in higher education. And although the numbers are increasing, most universities still do not have courses that focus on the intersections of ethics and leadership. The question then arises: How well are institutions of higher education doing in actually developing the next generations of ethical leaders and citizens?

Undoubtedly, some progress has been made. During the last two decades there has been an increase in both the number and quality of leadership education programs, primarily at the undergraduate level, although more recently there has been a modest increase in leadership programs at the graduate level. As a result of these efforts, the study and development of leadership has become more plausible, more accepted, and even a significant and valued component of education in some institutions of higher learning. At present, however, few colleges or universities offer coherent programs in ethical leadership on the scale to be described later in this article. Given the great need for ethical leaders and citizens discussed above, this is a significant omission and one which should be addressed.

The unique interdisciplinary major in ethical leadership described in this article would be a signature asset for most, if not all, colleges and universities. Graduates would be well prepared to assume leadership positions in government, for-profit businesses, nongovernmental and international organizations, and education, as well as civic groups of all kinds. In the sections that follow, we present our case for such a major. Our argument is grounded in a particular philosophy about leadership education which we will outline in the next section.

Leadership Education

As we move forward in the twenty-first century, leaders are increasingly needed to take on formal and informal leadership roles at each level in our society. Yet the failure rate of formal leaders in many different kinds of organizations is alarmingly high. Clearly, holding a college degree and/or having leadership experience does not automatically lead to leadership competence. A more intentional effort to develop leaders, such as that which an interdisciplinary major in ethical leadership studies would constitute, can help, perhaps even enormously.

Current collegiate preparation for leadership is all too often inadequate because it is based on technical expertise and not on knowledge of ethically sound leadership. The best preparation for ethical leadership includes not just technical knowledge of a discipline or profession, but also knowledge of the leadership process and the complexities of human behavior at the individual, societal, and global levels (Burns, 1978). Such understandings must be coupled with moral sensitivity and a sound ethical framework developed by study, experience, feedback, reflection, and time. In fact, underscoring the importance of reflection, some researchers conceive of ethics as a critical reflective practice through which leaders come to understand the effects of their behaviors and are thus able to change their ways (Binns, 2008). Leadership development programs that feature intensive feedback have also been found to be more effective (Guthrie & King, 2003).

Ethical leadership education should be understood as a special form of the development of human knowledge, talents, and capacities. We agree with John Gardner (1990, 158) that we “cannot design a production line that turns out leaders.” There are no simple formulae to bring forth the character and leadership ability of a given group of learners; however, we believe that a carefully planned and balanced educational program can foster the capacity for reflective, ethically informed leadership and followership in many more potential leaders than is likely to happen if their preparation for leadership is not

intentional. The most effective learning for leadership combines theory and practice with feedback and reflection.

This has been found to be the case in both academic settings (Connaughton, Lawrence & Ruben, 2003) and corporate educational ones (see Van Velsor & Ascalon, 2006). A critical weakness of many leadership courses and programs has been the failure to develop pedagogies that link theory to application. Students must be presented with and engage learning situations in the classroom and elsewhere to strengthen the connection between ideas and actions.

Through interdisciplinary course experiences linked to appropriately structured experiential learning opportunities in and outside the classroom, students can develop a base of knowledge that advances the traditional goals of higher education and provides tools for the exercise of ethical leadership in a range of settings. Such an intellectual foundation will better prepare graduates to assess the leadership challenges in their environment, and work with others to identify and pursue a common purpose. Over four decades ago, in a 1965 essay titled "The Antileadership Vaccine," John Gardner warned that "the academic world appears to be approaching the point at which everyone wants to educate the technical expert who advises the leader, or the intellectual who stands off and criticizes the leader, but no one wants to educate the leader himself" (Gardner, 1965/1993; quotation from Gardner, 1993, 199).

Forty years later, Gardner's warning about the "antileadership vaccine" is still a relevant concern given a sustained focus on specialization within higher education programs, combined with a steady pressure on students to develop marketable skills while in college. Higher education is frequently sought for its instrumental value and has become more focused on intellectual and professional specialization. Undoubtedly, many students feel some pressure to specialize for pragmatic, economic reasons. Ethical leadership, however, is not a job, a profession, or a career—it is a role, an ethically sound social influence process, and a responsibility to serve. It is therefore important through programs such as an interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies to find ways to

inspire young people to accept the responsibility of leadership and to do so in harmony with the value of service to others in a democratic society.

Given that ethical leadership is increasingly understood to involve persuasion and explanation as well as the ability to identify, affirm, and renew the values of the group the leader represents, managerial expertise, technical skills, cultural literacy, and other relevant knowledge and skills are not sufficient for leaders whose lives will be dedicated to serving others. A program of study focused on ethical leadership will combine knowledge from many disciplines of inquiry with practical experiences to produce better prepared leaders for the future—men and women of courage, integrity, compassion, and imagination who are capable of much more than generating analysis or providing advice.

Potential Challenges

Proposing a new major of any kind generates considerable discussion and often even serious conflict within a university—a major in Ethical Leadership Studies is no exception. This section highlights some of the potential challenges of establishing a major in Ethical Leadership Studies, along with discussing potential solutions to these challenges.

By adding the word *ethical* to leadership, there is a real risk that ethics can overwhelm the leadership focus of the major. In most universities, there is a much greater likelihood that there will be already an established department or program pertaining to ethics (perhaps in philosophy departments) than a leadership department or program.

And yet, ethics remains an important part of the Ethical Leadership Studies (ELS) major described in this article, with ethics represented in all of the core courses, in addition to being the primary focus of the sophomore core course, Ethics in Leadership. Another potential challenge is that not all faculty members are comfortable teaching ethics, and even within ethics departments some faculty are wary of teaching applied ethics—the primary focus of ethics in the ELS major. It may be necessary to provide some training for faculty who have a

desire to teach within the ELS major but are somewhat hesitant about instructing in applied ethics.

In spite of the difficulties that may be associated with the word *ethical* in the name of the major, it is essential to maintain a focus on ethics in the leadership major—ethics is a crucial part of enlightened, thoughtful leadership. There are at least four ways that ethics and leadership come together to constitute ethical leadership and each must be explored by faculty and students:

- The choice of purpose—What is the moral quality of the goals to be pursued? What are the problems and ethical issues facing an organization or the society that demand leadership?
- The choice of means—What is the moral quality of the ways in which the goals are to be attained?
- The nature of the leader-follower relationships—How do leaders and followers view and treat others?
- The role and responsibility of the leader for influencing the moral decisions and conduct of others—How does the leader create a moral environment and develop the moral capacity of others to make ethically sound decisions and take ethical actions as moral agents in their own right?

The major in ethical leadership studies must certainly be rigorous and challenging enough to pass academic muster, while maintaining enough of a pragmatic focus and a sufficiently strong developmental component so that in addition to learning about ethical leaders, students graduating with the ELS major will have developed more fully into ethical leaders. This will require a balance between academic rigor, relevant educational experiences, and the opportunity for feedback and guidance on individual leadership performance.

Finally, the lack of a clear disciplinary home for ethical leadership studies in most colleges and universities (that is, there is no established academic discipline of leadership study in the way that there are disciplines for areas of inquiry such as economics or history) will present challenges concerning where to locate the major, where the faculty will come from, and how advising and other

administrative tasks will be handled. One such solution would be to form a cross-campus faculty committee comprised of instructors who are interested in ethical leadership. Another option is to locate the major within a department, college, or school that is willing to host it, perhaps initiating a fundraising campaign to establish the major. Yet another option is to locate the major as part of a university provost or vice-president's portfolio. Regardless of the actual home for the major, perhaps the most crucial challenge to overcome lies in identifying, funding, and supporting the primary faculty members who will constitute the core faculty of the Ethical Leadership major. Such intellectual and executive leadership will be required to create and sustain any interdisciplinary major or similar program in Ethical Leadership Studies, along with the willingness of administrators such as deans to commit faculty time and other resources to the effort.

Ethical Leadership Development: Key Components

Despite the challenges described above, there are many ways to establish a successful ethical leadership development program at a college or university for interested students. The fundamental way such programs differ is in the nature of the goals they are set up to achieve. Educating about leadership and ethics is relatively straightforward. This is simply a matter of using the curriculum to offer courses that impart knowledge and shape what students know and how the learners think about the subject matter. Knowledge alone, however, does not necessarily make someone either more ethical or a better leader. If the goal is to educate people to be ethical leaders, then a combination of learning experiences is needed that bring knowledge, mindset, and action together.

While there is no easy template for developing leaders, the broad outlines of leadership development are at least roughly understood by leadership scholars and institutions that have successfully undertaken the systematic development of leaders (Prince, 2001). Developing students to be leaders requires a combination of inspiration, knowledge, experience, observation of and interaction with leaders, assessment, feedback, reflection, and moral sensitivity.

The critical elements of ethical leader development include:

- Knowledge of leadership and ethics that provides a conceptual framework for understanding the practice of ethical leadership when one is engaged in leading or following others;
- Opportunities to practice leadership roles in situations that require collective action where the learner has some responsibility for outcomes that matter to others;
- Opportunities to study, observe and interact with leaders, especially leaders who have demonstrated moral courage;
- Formal and informal assessment of the efforts of those learning to lead ethically;
- Feedback of the results to the learner along with reflections by the learner on the experience;
- Strengthening a personal ethic that embodies foundational, core values such as integrity, service to others, and loyalty;
- Inspiring students to think of themselves as leaders and to be willing to accept leadership roles and responsibility (most leadership programs are designed for and attract students who already define themselves as leaders).

An Interdisciplinary Major in Ethical Leadership Studies

An interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies (ELS) will help graduates develop the capacity to do the following:

- Apply the modes of inquiry and knowledge bases of many disciplines to the study and practice of leadership;
- Exercise discernment, moral judgment, imagination, and courage in the practice of leadership;
- Serve effectively in formal and informal leadership roles in a range of settings;
- Help others exercise leadership and hold other leaders accountable;

- Develop cooperation and teamwork while inspiring commitment and trust;
- Combine knowledge with judgment and imagination in collaboration with others to creatively and ethically solve problems;
- Envision the future and inspire others to join in bringing about necessary change;
- Think critically about leadership knowledge and practice;
- Continue their development as leaders by self-directed learning.

Conceptual Premises of the Major

The Ethical Leadership Studies major rests on the following four premises: (1) Although ethical leadership is a complex form of human behavior, leadership knowledge, moral sensitivity, and ethically sound reasoning and decision making can be learned; (2) Technical proficiency and management skills that are routinely taught in universities do not provide adequate preparation for ethical leadership; (3) Leadership requires the recognition and the ethical resolution of conflicts between individual goals and the values and goals of society; and (4) Good leadership is grounded in ethics.

Academic Overview

The following template is provided as a guide. Actual credit requirements will vary by institution. In the sections below, department abbreviations, course numbers, and names represent courses that either currently exist or have existed in the last three years at the University of Texas at Austin.⁴ The decision was made to leave this information in this article so that the interdisciplinary nature of the major could be readily identified and ideas for potential departmental connections can be identified. Abbreviations for all departmental names can be found in Appendix B. The first number in the course listing equals the number of credit hours (e.g., ADV 315 is a three credit-hour course); most courses listed in this template are three credit hours.

As presented below, the proposal for a major in Ethical Leadership Studies consists of six core courses, a four-course sequence in the major, and a required minor of four courses. Free electives and general education requirements constitute the remainder of an undergraduate's baccalaureate credits. A robust academic advising component is recommended to assist students in making the best use of their free electives as well as any general education requirements that might be either discretionary or otherwise require elaboration for the student.

It is certainly possible to add more required courses to the ELS major based on the unique array of curricular variables on a given campus. At institutions where academic units have the ability to prescribe the general education requirements, there may be increased flexibility in the design of the major.

The three structural pieces of the major—the core, the sequence, and the minor—are conceptually designed to provide ELS students with a common educational framework for considering ethical leadership (the core), a relevant contextual area to focus on (the sequence), and a series of courses in a single academic area of interest (the minor) to round out the major. In light of the interdisciplinary nature of the major, this last pillar, the minor, is not a trivial add-on. The minor will ensure that students gain at least modest depth in a single area of academic inquiry.

In practice, the sequence is most likely to have significant variation as it is implemented at different institutions. Course availability and student demand will be two powerful forces that will make flexibility in the major's sequence a necessity. But it is in an institution's best interest to protect the structural integrity of the major's core courses. When possible, the academic unit sponsoring the major should try to teach all of these courses or highlight one course from campus that will fulfill the core requirement. This will ensure some uniformity of the core. Where this is not feasible, perhaps due to large student enrollments or a resource-based inability of the host unit to offer the course, alternatives from across campus can fulfill the core requirements. In this article, such alternatives have been identified in the core course descriptions below, although given optimal conditions only one course, administered by the ELS host unit or a

course singularly selected from across campus, would satisfy ELS core requirements.

Category	Credits Required
General education requirements: Note: General education required hours will vary by institution. Where general education hours exceed 42 credits, free electives can be reduced; where core requirements are less than 42 credits, free electives can be increased.	42
Required core courses in the major	18
Required sequence in the major	12
Required minor	12
Free electives	36
TOTAL	120

Prefix and Number	Required Courses	Credits
ELS 301	Fundamentals of Ethical Leadership	3
ELS 311	Ethics in Leadership	3
ELS 319	Leading Groups	3
ELS 321	Leadership in Organizations	3
ELS 331	Leadership Application and Reflection (guided internship)	3
ELS 341	Advanced Seminar in Ethical Leadership	3

The core courses can be parsimoniously described as follows:

ELS 301: Basics of ethical leadership

ELS 311: Ethics & moral issues in leadership

ELS 319: Small group leadership (small group defined here as 3 to 12 members)

ELS 321: Big group leadership (big group defined here as an organization with two or more small groups)

ELS 331: Leadership Internship

ELS 341: Capstone course

A more elaborated description of the core courses follows.

Description of Ethical Leadership Studies (ELS) Core Courses

ELS 301: Fundamentals of Ethical Leadership

Fundamentals of Ethical Leadership provides a broad introduction to central issues in ethical leadership and leadership studies. Theories of leadership, ethical decision making, and the exercise of influence are covered, among other essential topics in ethical leadership. Readings will come from the social and behavioral sciences as well as the humanities. BDP 306 (Fundamentals of Ethical Leadership) may be taken to satisfy this requirement. Note: Both ELS 301 and ELS 341 are modeled on existing courses; therefore the titles of ELS 301 / BDP 306 and ELS 341 / PA 325 are identical.

ELS 311: Ethics in Leadership

This course explores the nexus between leadership and ethics with an emphasis on classical theories of ethics and their application in leadership situations as well as psychological and sociological variables that affect how people actually behave in moral choice situations. Leaders need moral sensitivity and imagination, so students will study how ethical considerations arise in leadership such as in the choice of goals, the ends-means relationship, and leader-follower relationships. The course also explores how leaders create environments that affect the moral choices and actions of others for better or for worse. Courses such as ADV 378 (Leadership and Ethics), PHL 301 (Introduction to Philosophy), PHL 302 (World Philosophy), PHL 304 (Contemporary Moral Problems), or PHL 318 (Introduction to Ethics) may be taken to satisfy this requirement.

ELS 319: Leading Groups (can be either a lower or an upper division course)

This course draws upon the social psychology of groups to inform leaders about when and how to form and lead groups. The course also covers how groups develop; how group structural dimensions such as roles, norms, and status

influence the exercise of ethical leadership; and ways that leaders can effectively bring new members into groups and promote healthy levels of cohesion that support the group's goals. The course will also explore group problem solving, group decision making, sources of inter-group conflict, and effective conflict resolution techniques. Note: Courses such as CMS 310K (Team-Based Communication), EDP 369K (Student Organizational Leadership), or PSY 350 (Motivation) may be taken to satisfy this requirement.

ELS 321: Leadership in Organizations

This course explores how the exercise of leadership is impacted by complexity, structure, environmental fit, purpose, mission and values in different contexts and domains of human endeavor. The course covers ways that leaders use direct and indirect influence within various formal organizations to analyze and shape organizational culture, decide the best organizational design and structure to produce the intended results, influence external agents with influence on the organization, and establish a healthy ethical internal climate. Note: Courses such as CMS 313M (Organizational Communication—note, a lower division course), MAN 336 (Organizational Behavior), or SOC 352M (Community Leadership) may be taken to satisfy this requirement.

ELS 331: Leadership Application and Reflection (guided internship)

In conjunction with a faculty advisor and a field placement supervisor, the student chooses a guided internship and develops a leader plan to include assessment and reflection before, during, and after the internship. The students must have a leadership role and be more than an observer or staff member producing individual work. Ideally students would be responsible for an outcome of importance to the host unit that could not be attained by individual effort. Students meet weekly with a faculty member to discuss leadership situations and how the student has or could use knowledge from academic courses to serve more effectively as a leader. Students keep weekly journals and write an integration paper at the end of the experience. This course may not be taken

prior to the spring semester of junior year. See Appendix C for more on the guided internship.

ELS 341: Advanced Seminar in Ethical Leadership

This is the capstone course in the ethical leadership major and is designed to encourage the student to draw connections between the theory and practice of ethical leadership in a range of settings. Students will analyze a number of case studies and write their own theory of leadership at the end of the course. PA 325 (Advanced Seminar in Ethical Leadership) may be taken to satisfy this requirement.

Description of Ethical Leadership Studies (ELS) Sequences within the Major

The ELS sequences are designed to provide the contextual element of the student's ethical leadership development. Some leadership scholars (e.g., Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2009 adapted from Hollander, 1978) conceptualize leadership as a process that consists, in its simplest representation, of three components: the leader, the followers, and the situation. It is this last component—the situation—that the sequence requirement in the ELS major addresses. The sequence requirement ensures that ELS students will be able to study in some detail a context of leadership they find most salient to their future leadership possibilities.

Students are required to choose one of the following sequences in the ELS major.

Sequence Requirements: 4 courses – 12 credits. The ELS major requires that a student select one of 10 sequences within the ELS major, or propose a unique sequence consistent with the educational objectives of the proposed ELS major and subject to approval of the ELS core faculty and / or ELS advisors.

The sequences available within the ELS major are:

1. Business Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility
2. Educational Leadership
3. Law, Policy, Politics, and Government
4. Multiculturalism, Social Justice, and Gender Issues
5. Nonprofit Leadership and Management
6. Leadership in the Healthcare Professions
7. Ethical Leadership in the Arts
8. Ethics and Leadership through History, Literature, and Philosophy
9. Digital Arts and Communication
10. Leadership in Engineering, Science and Technology

The 10 ELS sequences, along with possible courses which can constitute the sequences are discussed below.

Business Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility. The business leadership and corporate social responsibility sequence is intended for students interested in exploring the ethical considerations of leading corporations and businesses. Students choose from the following list of courses to satisfy the 12 credit hour requirement for the Business Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility sequence. Five possible courses are listed below; additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Business leadership and corporate social responsibility</i>	Credits
ADV 366	Advanced Issues in Multicultural Advertising	3
ADV 378*	Leadership and Ethics	3
I B 372	Corporate Social Responsibility International Business	3
MAN 336	Organizational Behavior	3
MAN 337	Leadership Issues	3

*Courses may not fulfill both an ELS core course requirement and an ELS major sequence requirement. Thus, ADV 378 can be taken to satisfy a sequence requirement if not previously counted as a core course in the major.

Educational Leadership. This sequence is for students who are interested in ethical leadership issues and topics relevant to the educational profession. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Educational leadership</i>	Credits
E 364T	English Language & Its Social Context	3
EDP 310	Individual Learning Skills	3
EDP 369K	Minority Student Leadership Issues	3
SED 379	Seminar in Special Education	3
SOC 321L	Sociology of Education	3

Law, Policy, Politics, and Government. The Law, Policy, Politics, and Government sequence is for students who are interested in questions of how governments and their elected representatives exercise leadership and deal with questions of ethics in policy, politics, and administration. This sequence is well-suited for students who may be interested in the legal profession and/or attending law school following their undergraduate studies. Five possible courses are listed below. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Law, policy, politics, and government</i>	Credits
AMS 370	Leadership in America	3
GOV 357M	Constitutional Politics, Law, & Citizenship	3
GOV 370L	Leader / Follower in American Politics	3
PHL 318K	Introduction to Political Philosophy	3
PHL 347	Philosophy of Law	3

Multiculturalism, Social Justice, and Gender Studies. This sequence is well suited for students interested in issues of race, gender, and ethnicity and how

these issues are relevant in an increasingly diverse society. This sequence is ideal for students who are interested in exploring issues central to creating a just society. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Multiculturalism, social justice, and gender studies</i>	Credits
ADV 387	Advanced Issues in Multicultural Marketing	3
AFR 320	American Dilemmas	3
ANT 324L	Race & Social Change	3
WGS 301	Introductory Topics in Women's & Gender Studies	3
WGS 340	Cross-cultural Topics in Women's & Gender Studies	3

Nonprofit Leadership and Management. This sequence is specifically for students interested in the ethical considerations of leadership in nonprofit organizations. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Nonprofit leadership and management</i>	Credits
ADV 378	Integrated Communication for Nonprofit Organizations	3
E 316K	Literature of Charity and Philanthropy	3
MKT 372	Community Development & Social Enterprise	3
S W 310	Introduction to Social Work & Social Welfare	3
S W 344	Social Work Practice in Organizations & Communities	3

Leadership in the Health Care Professions. This sequence is for students who are interested in the ethical issues in health care and the medical profession or in leadership in the health care professions and organizations. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Leadership in the health care professions</i>	Credits
HED 352K	Psychosocial Issues in Women's Health	3

N 311	Ethics of Healthcare	3
PHL 325M	Medicine, Ethics, & Society	3
SOC 308	Life and Death Decisions	3
SOC 330C	Death & Dying: Sociological Perspectives	3

Ethical Leadership in the Arts. This sequence is for students who are considering a career in the arts, such as music, dance, museums, or other field working with highly creative individuals. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Ethical leadership and the arts</i>	Credits
ARH 361	Representation/Performativity in Latino Art	3
F A 320	Exploring the Fine Arts	3
F A 360	Funding Arts and Sustaining Culture	3
HIS 350L	Art, Power, and Public Ethics	3
SOC 308	Blues, Race, and Social Change	3

Ethical Leadership Through History, Literature, and Philosophy. This sequence is intended for students who are interested in exploring ethical leadership through the lenses of history, literature, or philosophy. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Ethical leadership in history, literature, and philosophy</i>	Credits
E 360	Literature and Social Justice	3
GOV 360N	Causes of War	3
HIS 344L	The American Revolution & Founding of the United States	3
PHL 318*	Introduction to Ethics	3
PHL 325	Ethical Theories	3

*PHL 318 can be taken to satisfy a sequence requirement if not previously counted as a core course.

Digital Arts and Communication. This sequence is for students interested in studying the convergence and emergence of communication technologies. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Digital arts and communication</i>	Credits
J 340C	Leadership, Management, and the Media	3
J 349T	Ethics in Journalism	3
RTF 331J	Technology, Communication, & Policy	3
RTF 331M	New Communication Technologies	3
RTF 365	Media and Social Change	3

Leadership in Engineering, Science, and Technology. This sequence is for students who are interested in a career leading others in science and technology such as in research and development laboratories or engineering firms. Additional courses that could satisfy the sequence requirement are listed in Appendix A.

Prefix and Number	Courses to satisfy the sequence requirement for: <i>Leadership in engineering, science, and technology</i>	Credits
BDP 301	Professional Responsibility in Engineering	3
BME 301	World Health and Biotechnology	3
CHE 311	Engineering Sustainable Technologies	3
C S 329E	Elements of Ethics, Computers, Internet	3
GEO 302P	Sustaining a Planet	3

Unique Specialization. A student may propose a unique specialization if one of the other 10 does not allow the student to achieve her or his academic goals. Students choosing this option must propose a coherent program of study that is consistent with the ELS educational objectives. ELS advisors and a standing committee of the ELS core faculty will be established to evaluate such proposals and consider student proposals.

The Required Minor

Given that an Ethical Leadership Studies major is interdisciplinary in nature, 12 hours in a single academic discipline or field of study is required for a minor. Such a minor requirement will allow ELS students to acquire knowledge in a single discipline.

Coordination will be required with other departments on campus since the department administering the minor (such as government or biology) will most likely not be the department or unit administering the ELS major. Additionally, students might need to use some of their free electives if they select a minor that requires more than 12 credit hours of study.

ELS Major Example Plan of Study

The sequence shown here is an illustrative plan of study for an entering freshman who decides to major in Ethical Leadership Studies. The major can also be configured to allow for sophomores and qualified transfer students to enter the major.

Freshman Year

- Ethical leadership orientation prior to academic year
- Enroll in ELS 301
- Initial leadership assessments (pretest) in introductory course ELS 301
- Students advised on available interdisciplinary courses in ethical leadership
- Optional: Summer service-learning experience or work/study experience (when structured properly, can receive 3 hours course credit)

Sophomore Year

- Take ELS 311 and ELS 319 (ELS 319 can also be taken in junior year)
- Select ELS sequence and minor; begin sequence and minor coursework
- Optional: Summer service-learning experience or work/study experience (when structured properly, can receive 3 hours course credit)

Junior Year

- Take ELS 321
- ELS 331 (leadership application and reflection) can begin in spring of junior year
- Continue course work for major/minor requirements
- Optional: Semester abroad or summer international leadership seminar abroad (can count as course credit when properly designed)

Senior Year

- Take ELS 341 which includes leadership assessments (post-test)
- Complete all requirements for major, sequence, and minor
- Take ELS exit survey
- Career placement
- ELS graduation ceremony

As previously discussed, the major in Ethical Leadership Studies is adaptable depending on relevant institutional variables such as size and focus of the university, availability of core teaching faculty, actual and projected student enrollment, and amount of funding. Sequences within the major can also be modified based on course availability and student demand. It is likely that sequence offerings at many universities would be modified slightly after the major has enrolled students for a few years and student preferences become clearer, and after the teaching faculty members have acquired experience in the new major.

An interdisciplinary major in ethical leadership studies is a systematic, rigorous, four-year ethical leadership curriculum that will develop creative, adaptive leaders of character.

Conclusion

John Gardner, writing in *On Leadership* (1990, 158), stated the potential of an intentional approach to systematically developing young leaders in the following passage:

Talent is one thing; its triumphant expression is quite another. Some talents express themselves freely and with little need for encouragement. Leopold Mozart did not have to struggle to uncover buried gifts in little Wolfgang. But generally speaking, the maturing of any complex talent requires a happy combination of motivation, character, and opportunity. *Most human talent remains undeveloped* (italics in original).

Without a systematic approach to developing leaders, some will discover their potential for leadership on their own through accidental opportunities. But far too many will never come close to discovering their potential for leadership. The interdisciplinary major in ethical leadership is a mechanism for ethical leadership development that will unlock the individual talents and strengths of students for the advancement of society.

Appendix A: Additional Courses Satisfying Sequence Requirements, Listed by Sequence⁵

Business Leadership and Corporate Social Responsibility

ADV 371J: Advertising & Society
ADV 378: Consumer Discrimination in Marketplace
ADV 378: Contemporary Issues in Multicultural Advertising
AFR 374D: History of Black Entrepreneurship in US
CMS 352: Organizational Leadership
CMS 361M: Communication & Organizational Change
ECO 321: Public Economics
I B 372: Global Issues in Corporate Social Responsibility
LEB 323: Business Law
PHL 325C: Environmental Ethics
PHL 325L: Business, Ethics & Public Policy
SOC 353: Industrial Sociology
UGS 303: Organizational Corruption and Organizational Control

Educational Leadership

CSD 308K: Perspectives on Deafness
ECO 321: Public Economics
ECO 330T: Political Economy of Education
HDF 339: Working with Children / Families
HDF 340: Ethical / Philosophical / Professional Development Issues
HED 329K: Child, Adolescent, Adult Health
INF 304W: Introduction to Information Studies
KIN 314: Children's Movement
LAS 355: Political Economy of Education
LIN 321L: American English
SED 376: Foundations and Issues in Special Education
SED 379: Seminar in Special Education
SOC 308: Education and Society
UGS 302: Education and Democracy

Law, Policy, Politics, and Government

BDP 301: Poverty and Inequality in America
BDP 301: Ethics / Politics of Everyday Life
CMS 342K: Political Communication
CMS 367: Media Effects and Politics
GOV 312: Politics of Marginalized Groups in the US
GOV 312: Politics of US and Mexico
GOV 312: Poverty and Politics
GOV 312L: Citizen's Presidency
GOV 357M: Structure of Individual Liberties
GOV 330K: The American President

HIS 306: Race and the Constitution
INF 327E: Surveillance and Society
J 349: Politics and the Press
P A 310: Public Policy Seminar (depending on topic)
P A 325: American Race Policy
PHL 347: Philosophy of Law
RTF 365: Media and Communication Law
S W 323: Social Welfare Programs, Policies, and Issues
UGS 303: Morality and Human Nature

Multiculturalism, Social Justice, and Gender Issues

AAS 301: Intro to Asian American Studies
AAS 310: Mixed Race Identity in American Culture
ADV 366: Advertising and Black Representation
ADV 378: Contemporary Issues in Multicultural Advertising
AFR 301: African American Culture
AFR 374: History of Black Entrepreneurship in the US
AFR 374D: Black Church in the African American Political Experience
AFR 374D: US in the Civil Rights Era
AMS 321: The US in the Civil Rights Era
AMS 370: Slavery across Genres
AMS 370: Women Radicals and Reformers
ANT 324: Race and Social Change
ANT 324: Black Public Cultures
ANT 345: Urban Cultures
BDP 319: Difficult Dialogues: Islam in America
BDP 319: Difficult Dialogues: Race & Policy
CMS 365: Communication, Controversy, and Citizenship
CMS 367: Communication and Civic Participation
COM 316: Communication and Ethnic Groups
COM 316M: Communication and Ethnic Groups
E 324: Recovering Slavery
E 344: Gender, Class, and Ethnicity in American Literature and Film
EDP 362: Chicano Educational Struggles
EDP 362: Mexican Americans in the Schooling Process
EDP 362: Psychology of Race and Race Relations
EDP 369: Minority Student Leadership Issues
GOV 312: Politics of Marginalized Groups in the US
GOV 312L: Politics of Marginalized Groups in the US
GOV 312L: Race, Media, and Politics
GOV 335M: Classical Quest for Justice
GOV 365: Ethnic Conflict and Democracy
GOV 370: Latino Politics
GOV 370K: Latino Politics
HIS 306: Race and the Constitution

HIS 314: History of Mexican Americans in the US
HIS 317: Mexican American Women, 1910-Present
HIS 317: Race in the Age of American Revolution
HIS 350: Race and Beauty in American Culture
HIS 350: Race and Citizenship in US History
HIS 357: African American History to 1860
J 340: Mass Media and Minorities
J 340C: Mass Media and Minorities
J 349: Covering the US Latino Community
J 349: Journalism, Society, and the Citizen Journalist
MAS 318: Mexican American Culture
P A 310: Public Policy Seminar (depending on topic)
P A 325: American Race Policy
RTF 365: Media and Social Change
RTF 365: Race, Class, and Media
RTF 365: Immigrant Media
SOC 308: Ethnicity and Gender: La Chicana
SOC 309: Chicanos in American Society
SOC 321: Race, Sport, and Identity
SOC 336: Race, Class, and Health
SOC 344: Racial and Ethnic Relations
S W 323K: Social Welfare Programs, Policies, & Issues
S W 325: Foundations of Social Justice
S W 360: Leadership in the Community
UGS 345: Gender-Based Discrimination
WGS 345: Women and the News

Nonprofit Leadership and Management

ADV 378: Integrated Communication for Nonprofit Organizations
CMS 313: Organizational Communication
E 316K: Literature of Charity and Philanthropy
ECO 321: Public Economics
MKT 372: Community Development & Social Enterprise
P R 319: Principles of Public Relations
P R 348: Public Relations Techniques
P R 352: Strategies in Public Relations
P R 367: Integrated Communications Management
S W 334: Social Work Practice in Organizations & Communities

Leadership in the Healthcare Professions

BDP 301: Health in Multicultural Populations
BDP 301: Hot Topics in Medicine/Pharmacy
BDP 301: Separating Fact/Fiction in Mental Health
BME 301: World Health and Biotechnology

CMS 367: Health Communication & the Media
CMS 367: International Health Campaigns
CMS 367: Interpersonal Health Communication
ECO 330T: Health Economics
N 377: Leadership and Management of Nursing Care
SOC 336: Race, Class, and Health
S W 360K: Social Work in Health Care

Ethical Leadership in the Arts

DES 310: Introduction to Design
DES 321: Images in Communication
DES 342: Design and Persuasion
MUS 339M: Intro to the Music Business and Entrepreneurship
T D 357T: African American Theatre History, Precolonial-1950
T D 357T: African American Theatre History, 1950-Present
T D 357T: Theatre, Dance, and Society
VAS 261C: Elements of Art Presentation
VAS 370C: Visual Art Careers

Ethical Leadership through History, Literature, and Philosophy

AFR 374: History of Black Entrepreneurship in the US
AMS 321: The US in the Civil Rights Era
AMS 370: Slavery across Genres
ANT 324: Race and Social Change
E 320M: Literature and Other Arts
HIS 306: Race and the Constitution
HIS 314: History of Mexican Americans in the US
HIS 317: Mexican American Women, 1910-Present
HIS 317: Race in the Age of American Revolution
HIS 329P: History of the Atomic Bomb
HIS 350: Race and Beauty in American Culture
HIS 350: Race and Citizenship in US History
HIS 350L: History of Black Entrepreneurship in US
HIS 350L: Hitler, Holocaust, and Memory, 1933 to present
HIS 357: African American History to 1860
HIS 376F: The US & the Second World War
HIS 376G: Hitler / Nazism / WWII
PHL 304: Contemporary Moral Problems
PHL 347: Philosophy of Law
SOC 321J: Religion, Violence and Non-violence
SOC 336C: American Dilemmas
SOC 352: Gandhi

Digital Arts and Communication

ADV 378: Contemporary Issues in Multicultural Advertising

COM 316: Communication and Ethnic Groups

C S 329E: Elements of Ethics, Computers, Internet

DES 321: Images in Communication

E 344: Gender, Class, and Ethnicity in American Literature and Film

GOV 312L: Race, Media, and Politics

J 310: Critical Issues in Journalism (depending on topic)

J 340: Mass Media and Minorities

J 360: Media Law & Ethics

RTF 331P: Privacy, Surveillance, & Trust

RTF 345: History of Black American Cinema

RTF 359: Latino Images in Film

RTF 365: Media and Communication Law

RTF 365: Immigrant Media

RTF 365: Race, Class, and Media

Leadership in Engineering, Science and Technology

BDP 301: Professional Responsibility in Engineering

BME 301: World Health and Biotechnology

CHE 311: Engineering Sustainable Technologies

CHE 333T: Engineering Communication

C S 329E: Elements of Ethics, Computers, Internet

G E 318C: Service Learning for Engineers

GEO 302P: Sustaining a Planet

UGS 302: Engineered World: Professional / Ethics

Appendix B: Departmental Abbreviations

AAS: Asian American Studies
ADV: Advertising
AED: Art Education
AFR: African & African American Studies
AMS: American Studies
ANT: Anthropology
ARH: Art History
B A: Business Administration
BCH: Biochemistry
BDP: Bridging Disciplines Program
BIO: Biology
BME: Biomedical Engineering
CHE: Chemistry
CMS: Communication Studies
C S: Computer Sciences
DES: Design
E: English
EDP: Educational Psychology
F A: Fine Arts
FIG: First-Year Interest Group
G E: General Engineering
GEO: Geology
GOV: Government
HED: Health Education
HIS: History
I B: International Business
INF: Information Studies
J: Journalism
LEB: Legal Environment of Business
MAN: Management
MKT: Marketing
N: Nursing
P A: Public Affairs
P R: Public Relations
PHL: Philosophy
PSY: Psychology
RTF: Radio Television Film
SED: Special Education
SOC: Sociology
S W: Social Work
T D: Theatre and Dance
UGS: Undergraduate Studies
VAS: Visual Art Studies
WGS: Women's and Gender Studies

Note: Course numbers, such as ADV 315, convey the following information. The first number, 3, indicates that the course is worth three credit hours. The second and third numbers, 15, indicate that the course is lower division. Lower division courses are indicated by the second and third numbers 01–19; upper division courses by 20–79.

Appendix C: Guided Internships

To complete the educational process, students in the Ethical Leadership Studies major will engage a guided internship through which they will:

1. Exercise discernment, moral judgment, imagination, and courage in the practice of leadership;
2. Serve effectively in formal and informal leadership roles in a range of settings;
3. Help others exercise leadership and hold other leaders accountable;
4. Develop cooperation and teamwork while inspiring commitment and trust.

In order to satisfy the requirements of the ELS guided internship, students must participate in an internship where they have: (1) leadership responsibility for (2) an organizational outcome that matters which (3) cannot be achieved through individual effort. Recognizing that this is a high bar, students will need help in finding and securing such a meaningful internship experience.

The Jepson School of Leadership Studies facilitates the leadership internship experience very well and illuminates some of the administrative elements that are required to conduct a meaningful internship. In addition to assistance in locating the internship in the first place, students also need supervision and guidance during the internship itself. Regularly scheduled meetings with faculty members, conducted weekly or bi-weekly in small group sessions, are one option for facilitating student reflection learning during the guided internship.

Endnotes

¹Throughout this article, the terms *interdisciplinary* and *multidisciplinary* are used interchangeably. Very few scholars have succeeded in creating an interdisciplinary synthesis in the study of leadership, a notable exception being James MacGregor Burns in his landmark book, *Leadership*, published in 1978, which is based on a synthesis of ideas from history, political science, sociology, philosophy, and perhaps other areas.

²More information about West Point's Department of Behavioral Science and Leadership's major in leadership can be found at: <http://www.dean.usma.edu/departments/bsl/Leadership.html>.

³More information about The Jepson School of Leadership Studies' leadership major can be found at: <http://jepson.richmond.edu/academics/courses/majorminor.html>.

⁴The first two authors of this article have been involved in a proposal to establish an interdisciplinary major in Ethical Leadership Studies at the University of Texas at Austin. The proposal represents collaboration between the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs and the Office of Undergraduate Studies, both at the University of Texas at Austin. The first two authors of this article were the chief architects of the proposed interdisciplinary major at the University of Texas.

⁵Some of the sequences proposed for the ELS major benefited from earlier attempts to cluster interdisciplinary courses by the Bridging Disciplines Program in the Office of Undergraduate Studies at the University of Texas at Austin.

References

- Binns, J. (2008). The ethics of relational leading: Gender matters. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 15(6), 600-620.
- Brown, M.E., Trevino, L.K., & Harrison (2005). Ethical leadership: A Social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 97(2), 117-134.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper.
- Connaughton, S. L., Lawrence, F. L., & Ruben, B. D. (2003). Leadership development as a systematic and multidisciplinary enterprise. *Journal of Education for Business*, 79(1), 46-51.
- Gardner, J.W. (1990). *On Leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Gardner, J.W. (1993). The antileadership vaccine. In W.E. Rosenbach & R.L. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary Issues in Leadership* (3rd ed., 193-200). Boulder, CO: Westview Press. (Original work published in 1965)

- Guthrie, V., & King, S. (2003). Feedback intensive programs. In C. McCauley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development*, 2 ed. (25 - 57). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hughes, R., Ginnett, R., & Curphy, G.. (2009). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Hollander, E. (1978). *Leadership dynamics: A practical guide to effective relationships*. New York: Free Press.
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P., & Sypher, B. D. (2009). *Destructive organizational communication: Processes, consequences, and constructive ways of organizing*. New York: Routledge.
- Maak, T., & Pless, N. (2006). *Responsible leadership*. London: Routledge.
- Mulki, J. P., Jaramillo, J. F., & Locander, W. B. (2009). Critical role of leadership on ethical climate and salesperson behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 86(2), 125–141.
- Nirenberg, J. (2003). Toward leadership education that matters. *Journal of Education for Business*, 79(1), 6–10.
- Painter-Morland, M. (2008). Systemic leadership and the emergence of ethical responsiveness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(2), 509–524.
- Prince, H.T. (1981). Organizational leadership and the ethical climate. In Associates, Department of Behavioral Sciences and Leadership (Eds.), *Leadership in Organizations*. Washington, DC: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office.
- Prince, H.T. (2001) Teaching leadership: A journey into the unknown. *Concepts and Connections: A Newsletter for Leadership Educators*, 9(3), 1,3,13.
- Sternberg, R. (2008). Interdisciplinary problem-based learning: An alternative to traditional majors and minors. *Liberal Education*, 94(1). Accessed at: http://www.aacu.org/liberaleducation/le-wi08/le-wi08_inter_prob.cfm

Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., & McKelvey, B. (2007). Complexity leadership theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(4), 298-318.

Vance, N. R., & Trani, B. V. (2008). The ethical grounding to 21st century public leadership. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior*, 11(3), 372-380.

Van Velsor, E., & Ascalon, E. (2008). The role and impact of leadership development in supporting ethical action in organizations. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(2), 187-195.

White, D. W., & Lean, E. (2008). The impact of perceived leader integrity on subordinates in a work team environment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(4), 765-778.

Howard T. Prince II, Ph.D., holds the Loyd Hackler Chair in Ethical Leadership and is the Director of the Center for Ethical Leadership in the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs at the University of Texas at Austin. He can be reached at hprince@mail.utexas.edu

Geoffrey R. Tumlin, Ph.D. is the Assistant Director of the Center for Ethical Leadership in the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs at the University of Texas at Austin. He can be reached at gtumlin@mail.utexas.edu

Stacey L. Connaughton, Ph.D. is Associate Professor in the Department of Communication at Purdue University. She can be reached at sconnaug@purdue.edu

RESEARCH NOTE

Leadership and the Internationalization Sigmoid

Frank-Florinel Cotae
International School of Management, New York

The continuous pursuit of growth and diversification has pressured companies to pursue internationalization for their operations. Understanding the rationales and limitations of such efforts has been the subject of much research for several decades. While researchers have yet to arrive at conclusive directives, many regard internationalization efforts as taking the form of a 3-stage sigmoid. Leadership, most agree, is the primary factor capable of modifying the 3-stage internationalization sigmoid, since it is responsible for allocating further resources or postponing further expansion. Most also agree that there is a clear differentiation between management and leadership. This paper presents internationalization and leadership as related concepts that intersect so as to provide a framework for solutions and for further research directions.

Internationalization

Internationalization is defined as the "process by which firms increase their awareness of the influence of international activities on their future, and establish and conduct transactions with other firms from other countries" (Beamish, Morisson, Inkpen, & Rosenzweig, 2003). Most of the documented rationales for multinational enterprises (MNE) choosing to internationalize their operations fall into three categories: reduce risk, increase profitability, and allow for learning from the core capabilities offered by global partners (Glaum & Oesterle, 2007). These in turn are expected to provide value for future business activities.

Although most related literature seems to promote internationalization as the appropriate direction underlying an MNE's superior performance attainment (Contractor, 2007; Riahi-Belkaoui, 1998; Sullivan, 1994; and Tallman & Li, 1996), there are voices that doubt any linear relationship between a firm's degree of globalization and its level of performance (Hennart, 2001, 2007; Johanson & Vahlne, 1990). Other voices merely question the process, devoid of leadership interaction, as the absolute guarantee for increased performance (Glaum & Osterle, 2007; Lopez-Duarte & Garcia-Canal, 2007).

A multi-stage and s-curve hypothesis is advanced here as the model for the multinational degree of expansion (DOI) and performance (P) relationship (Lu & Beamish, 2004). There are three distinct stages of internationalization in the life of a firm, best exemplified by the General Sigmoid (Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Lu and Beamish, 2004; Thomas & Eden, 2004) model set out in Figure 1: Stage I (early internationalization); Stage II (later internationalization); and Stage III (excessive internationalization). At the first stage a multinational is expected to incur costs as it sets up “shop” in a foreign place (Thomas & Eden, 2004), yet these costs are expected to be recovered during the second stage as the firm’s performance reaches superior results. The third stage has been a matter of debate as multinationals eventually reach a point where increasing the degree of internationalization efforts becomes counterproductive (Beamish et al, 2003) and the firm gradually reaches a level of operational resource saturation. The saturation point is where the core operational capabilities of a firm are no longer adequate for servicing a large number of global vendors, subsidiaries, retail channels, and associates.

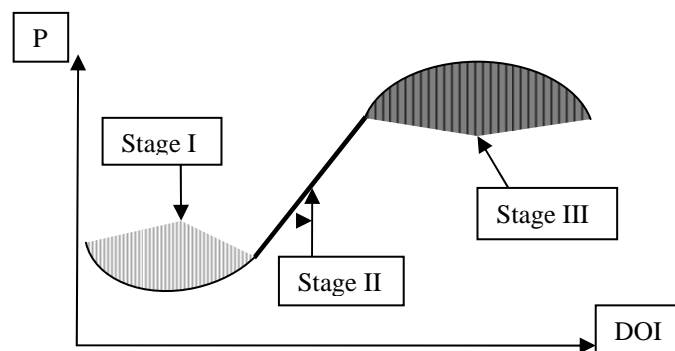


Figure 1. The General Sigmoid 3-Stage Model

Furthermore, during the third stage the cost of maintaining a global operation and/or growing internationally renders the internationalization strategy inefficient and usually requires efforts outside a firm’s realm of operational logistics/realities. As a result, productivity and profits are expected to decline.

Current research has not yet produced a model or factor by virtue of which this stage on internationalization can be predicted or its effects ameliorated, postponed, or diminished. It is therefore necessary for an MNE to continuously attempt to assess and forecast its costs before pursuing higher degrees of internationalization.

Leadership

First, what is leadership? The concept often gets defined as being related to existing/present management at an organization's different functional and operational levels. "Leadership is the behavior of an individual in directing through communication and interpersonal influence the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). That definition suggests that there is a clear link between management and leadership, though as Kouzes and Posner and others emphasize, the two roles are quite distinct. As most agree, management is task and process oriented, whereas leadership deals with getting people to do what needs to be done.

Managers carry out responsibilities, exercise authority, and worry about how to get things done, whereas leaders are concerned with understanding organizational needs, core capabilities, peoples' beliefs and gaining their commitment (Zaleznick, 1990).

Managers are task-oriented, while leaders are involved with the evolution of task performance. Leadership comes into play as an organization faces the ever evolving need to deal with changes in the business, social, cultural, and political landscapes. It takes leadership to guide a business endeavor under these circumstances. "Leadership is coping with change, whereas management is coping with complexity (Kotter, 1990)." The capable leader is "one who can lead others through difficult situations where significant changes are taking place" (Guariello, 1996; Davenport et al., 1998; Kotter, 1990).

Leadership and the Sigmoid

Bringing internationalization and leadership—as concepts but also as practices—together is becoming an imperative for an MNE's sustained performance.

Clearly, internationalization, leadership, and performance are closely linked. An MNE's leaders must play an integral role in making the appropriate decisions about the appropriate degree of internationalization and the operational resources needed for such internationalization.

All signs seem to point to leadership as the active ingredient, so to speak, capable of preventing the diminishing results expected to occur during the third stage represented in the sigmoid. How? A model set of activities would be for leaders to conduct rigorous assessments with regard to the resources needed for pursuing additional globalization efforts. Once the results are known, additional resources should be allocated if necessary and if available. If the additional costs are not feasible, the process can be stopped, even if this means reaching an operational plateau of results. Figure 2, displayed below, depicts the role that leadership must play if the sigmoid third-stage consequences are to be ameliorated, changed, countered, or not allowed to materialize.

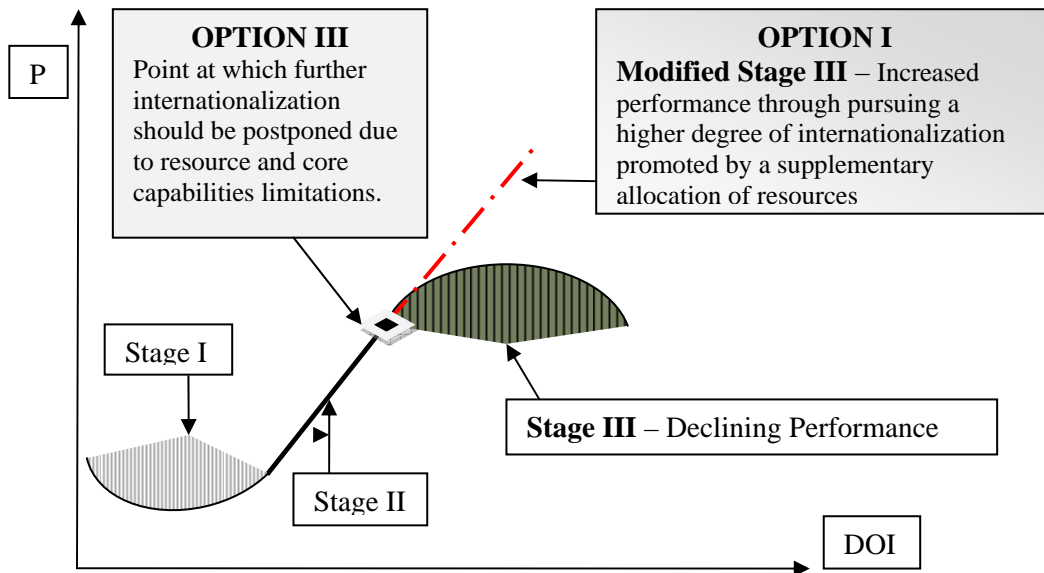


Figure 2. Leadership modified sigmoid

Again, all signs point to leadership decisions as the key to an organization's performance; with that in mind, any pursuit of internationalization should derive from leadership's clear assessments of organizational resources, limitations, and operational saturation levels. In Figure 2, an organization's leadership has two

options that it can pursue: match a higher degree of internationalization with complimentary resources, resulting in a continuous second stage; or postpone any new global expansion in view of resource limitations, therefore eliminating all consequences that could emerge by pursuing excessive internationalization.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Further Research

This paper aims not only at critically reviewing contemporary research on the internationalization process but also at pointing out the active role to be played by an MNE's leadership during this process. Leadership is advanced as something quite different from management; that is, as both a reactive and proactive solution for dealing with the effects of a changing economic, business, and global environment. Harvesting successful results from an international expansion of operations is therefore a result of leadership activities. In brief, a multinational's leadership is the single most important factor capable of changing the 3-stage sigmoid.

The intersection of leadership and internationalization suggests that organizations must make efforts to predict and prevent the effects of excessive internationalization upon an MNE's performance level. Solutions need to give careful consideration to available resources and how those resources should be allocated. Two actions may result from such consideration: postpone further globalization or pursue it by allocating the required supplementary resources.

The limitation of the model is that it does not take into consideration the effect of unpredictable external factors affecting international performance—factors outside a leader's realm of knowledge, such as economic downturn in a geographic or economic area with global impact, political and social unrest, natural disasters, and possibly terrorism.

Further research is expected to clearly articulate a set of guidelines for assessing organizational possibilities vis-à-vis the requirements of maintaining a continuously positive performance through internationalization. Postponing and possibly preventing the last stage from occurring should be the centerpiece of further research.

References

- Beamish, P. W., Morrison, A. J., Inkpen, A. C., & Rosenzweig, P. M. (2003). The internationalization process. In Beamish et al., *International management: Text and cases* (pp. 3-16). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Contractor, F. (2007). Is international business good for companies?: The evolutionary or multi-stage theory on internationalization vs. the transaction cost perspective. *Management International Review*, 47(3), 453-475.
- Davenport, T. H., DeLong, D.W., & Beers, M. C. (1998). Successful knowledge management projects. *Sloan Management Review*, 39(2), 43-57.
- Glaum, M., & Oesterle, M.-J. (2007). 40 Years of research on internationalization and firm performance: More questions than answers? *Management International Review*, 47(3), 307-317.
- Guarriello, M. L. (1996). The management of leadership. *Hospital Material Management Quarterly*, 17(3), 17-21.
- Hennart, J-F. (2007). The theoretical rationale for a multinationality-performance relationship. *Management International Review*, 47(3), 423-452.
- Hennart, J-F. (2001). Theories of the multinational enterprise. In A. Rugman & T. Brewer, eds. *The Oxford Handbook of International Business* (127-145). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Johanson, J., & Vahlne, J.-E. (1977). The internationalization process of the firm: A model of knowledge development and increasing foreign commitments. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8(1), 23-32.
- Johanson, J., & Vahlne, J.-E. (1990). The mechanism of internationalization. *International Marketing Review*, 7(4), 1-24.
- Kotter, J.P. (1990). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(3), 103-111.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 5-9.

Lopez-Duarte, C, & Garcia-Canal, E.. (2007). Stock market reaction to foreign direct investments: Interaction between entry mode and FDI attributes. *Management International Review*, 47(3), 393-422.

Lu, J.W., & Beamish, P. W. (2004). International diversification and firm performance: The s-curve hypothesis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(4), 598-609.

Riahi-Belkaoui, A. (1998). The effects of the degree of internationalization on firm performance. *International Business Review*, 7(3), 315-321.

Sullivan, D. (1994). Measuring the degree of internationalization of a firm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2), 325-342.

Tallman, S., & Li, J. (1996). Effects of international diversity and product diversity on the performance of multinational firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1), 179-196.

Thomas, D.E., & Eden, L. (2004). What is the shape of multinationality-performance relationship? *Multinational Business Review*, 12(1), 89-110.

Zaleznik, A. (1990). The leadership gap. *The Executive*, 4(1), 7-22.

Frank-Florinel Cotae is a managing partner at F&M Enterprises. He has over 20 years experience as an entrepreneur, management consultant and corporate trainer for a variety of private and public endeavors. He is a D.B.A. candidate at the International School of Management, has earned an MBA degree from Cal State and a BA in Finance from California State University. His research interests surround the internationalization, operations management, organizational learning, resource optimization and leadership studies. His research has been published in journals such as: *Journal of American Academy of Business*, Cambridge; *International Journal of Business Studies*; *Journal of Management and Organization* and has forthcoming articles in the *Management Science* and *Journal of Management Studies* publications. Frank F. Cotae can be reached at Fcotae@gmail.com

BOOK REVIEW

***Transforming Your Leadership Culture*, by John B. McGuire and Gary B. Rhodes. (2009).**

Published by: Joint publication of The Jossey-Bass Business & Management Series (a Wiley Imprint) and The Center for Creative Leadership

Cost: \$42, Pages: 336

Reviewed by Jennifer A. Swanson, Ph.D., Director of International Business Program, Associate Professor of International Business and Management, Stonehill College, Easton, MA

Once again, The Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) has turned out a breakthrough book that captures its spirit and driving force in the field of leadership. As a well known and highly regarded nonprofit that focuses exclusively on leadership research and education, CCL's numerous publications, research endeavors, and leadership initiatives have provided insightful information and practical application of leadership development across the globe. *Transforming Your Leadership Culture* upholds this tradition and CCL's reputation for high quality and meaningful publications.

The book incorporates the two authors' vast experiences working with corporate, public, and nonprofit organizations. John B. McGuire, a CCL senior faculty member specializing in organizational change through leadership, has held several key management positions and owned a consulting practice in his area of expertise. Gary B. Rhodes, an adjunct and retired senior fellow at CCL, specializes in leadership and supervision and is active in this area through extensive consulting, training, and publishing.

According to the authors, many times culture is not considered when a change effort is undertaken in an organization, and this is a primary reason why so many change initiatives fail. The main premise of this book centers on using

leadership to bring about meaningful and successful change in an organization and thus make it more effective in competing in the global arena.

This well-written and easy-to-read book is timely given the uncertainty and challenges organizational leaders face in today's volatile world. Leaders must be able to recognize the need for change, and organizations find themselves needing to adapt to a new world reality. This new reality calls for a novel approach. The authors contend that a new approach to developing leadership that is consistent with an "interdependent-collaborative" organizational culture is the answer. This type of organization has the ability to transform itself when needed and therefore is suited for today's changing world. The book promises to help leaders in an organization achieve the collaborative mindset necessary to transform their organization. In this regard, the authors are "redefining the field of leader development beyond individuals to embrace the development of collectives that together set direction, get alignment, and commit to implement change results." Furthermore, the transformation includes "creative new leadership beliefs and mindsets and the new orders of leadership practice they generate that are capable of permanently advancing and altering the ways leadership is experienced and accomplished."

Some of the main organization goals and recurring themes in this book include:

- Leadership is a collective activity, with authority and control shared by all in the organization;
- Changing the leadership culture starts with senior leaders and ultimately changes the organizational culture;
- Changing the leadership mindset is more important than an organization's systems and structures;
- Leadership can be used as the force behind adaptable and sustainable organizational change;
- An important goal is the creation of an interdependent, collaborative, and transformative organization.

The book is geared primarily to organizational leaders who recognize the need for change in their organization. Although it is mainly intended for practitioners, it is grounded in solid research and draws from major academic works. There is a definite need in the marketplace for a work that can guide readers to make a real difference in their organizations. This book is practical enough to be put to good use immediately. In addition, the information provided does not seem culture bound and should be useful for organizational leaders across the globe.

The book includes eleven chapters and is divided into two parts, one on “You, Your Team, and Transformation” and the other on “Leadership Culture and Organizational Transformation.” With chapter titles such as “Engagement and Leader Logics” and “Bigger Minds: Developing from the Inside Out,” the reader is drawn in and feels compelled to read more. Each chapter begins with a clever quote. Chapters include company examples and feature boxes called “Voice of Change”: these provide nuggets of information that expand on chapter concepts and ideas. The company examples are particularly useful and are used throughout the book, with many of the same companies discussed consistently from chapter to chapter, lending continuity and helping readers envision how the concepts in the book could be applied to their organizations. Companies discussed include Abrasive Technology Inc., Lenoir Memorial Hospital, IBM, and General Electric. The inclusion of a wide range of organizations and organization types should appeal to a wide audience.

Of particular value is the emphasis on discovery and on the individual and group action-learning development techniques used throughout the book to actively engage the reader. These include hands-on exercises, individual and organizational assessments, journal exercises, series of questions for reflection and dialogue, and a variety of other engaging activities and tools. This is what makes the book particularly useful over and above the step-by-step guide for achieving organizational goals previously noted.

In addition to the eleven chapters, the book includes three short appendices. The first appendix is an overview of developmental theory and leadership research. At only two pages of text and one table in length, it certainly is very

brief. This could have been expanded, since a comprehensive review of leadership research today is needed. It should be noted, however, that additional information associated with this area can be found in Appendix B, which is entitled “Roots of the Headroom Concept and Related Methods and Tools.” This appendix outlines different tools and methods and their sources that supported the authors’ concept of “Headroom.” Appendix C, called “Helpful Sources of Studies on Intelligence and Brain Research,” provides the reader with a select list of readings that were deemed helpful in analyzing human perception and decision making. A short glossary of terms along with references and an index rounds out the contents of this book.

The concepts and process that the book lays out represent a fresh and comprehensive approach to developing the kind of leadership culture needed for successful organizational change. According to the authors, there are three main points that make this book unique and different from others published in this area. First, as outlined here senior level leaders perform the development and change work first. One of the memorable lines addressing senior leaders in Chapter 1 is “Culture change is a show-up, stand-up, participative, put-yourself-on-the-line personal process.” In order for an organization to transform itself into a leadership culture and successfully implement change initiatives, the senior leadership team must first develop skills in this area and lead by example. This requires senior leaders to directly engage within themselves, a process referred to as “Inside-Out” development by the authors. Senior leaders should analyze their attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions about change and go on to develop their internal selves. The book provides tools and information to guide this process. Only after senior leaders have undertaken this process will they be ready for their role as change guides for others in the organization.

Second, “a critical mass of leadership culture becomes the change and takes change to the middle.” The middle of the organization is where core operations are carried out on a daily basis. Senior leaders must demonstrate the change they expect of others and emphasize the collective and shared nature of the process. When the team of senior leaders shows a willingness to counter

traditional assumptions through its actions and decisions, it creates an environment of collaborative learning.

Third, “everyone gets bigger minds” when they increase awareness of their beliefs, become more conscious of the implications of their decisions, and possess a willingness to learn. In turn, this expanding, learning-capable leadership mindset enables individuals to tackle more complex challenges in the organization. Tied to this idea is what the authors term “Headroom.” Headroom is the creation of space and time needed for the development of the leadership culture. “Expanding headroom assists everyone to acquire the bigger minds needed.” The authors provide information on how to expand headroom and get a bigger mind.

After the information outlined above is presented and discussed in the first nine chapters, while the last two chapters provide an effective wrap-up through concrete examples and applications. Chapter 10 of the book profiles six organizational case studies to illustrate the authors’ proposed transformation process and to show why some of these organizations were successful while others were not. The six companies reviewed include Technology Inc., Memorial Hospital, Credlow, NuSystems, Professional Services Inc., and Global Electronics. This chapter underscores and illustrates the importance of leadership readiness.

The last chapter in the book, Chapter 11, teaches how to map the feasibility of culture change through scale and graph exercises (mapping tools) for individual senior leaders, the entire senior team, and the overall leadership culture for the organization. This is a crucial step for gathering data to gauge how feasible it would be to change to a leadership culture at all levels. In addition, the same six companies profiled in Chapter 10 are mapped out so one can see how the successful companies look versus those that were unsuccessful in transforming their culture. This helps the reader understand these tools better. Finally, Chapter 11 ends with a summation of the main points of the book.

The essence of the book is summed up well by the authors: “Achieving a vibrant leadership culture capable of executing your strategy while developing

your leadership talent is the hat trick, the sweet spot, the big enchilada. This creates the capability for self-perpetuating leadership collectives to continuously re-create the organization into endless new structural creations capable of satisfying the demands of emergent complex challenges.”

This book is a very solid and inspiring must-read for senior leaders worldwide who want to create a unique and rewarding leadership culture to bring about meaningful change in their organizations. To be sure, readers will find valuable information to move their organizations forward.

Jennifer A. Swanson, PhD, is the Director of the International Business Program and an Associate Professor of Business (International Business and Management) at Stonehill College in Easton, Massachusetts. Her main research area is in cross-cultural management. Dr. Swanson has teaching experience both domestically and in Southeast Asia. She has been involved in a Fulbright-Hays Group Projects Abroad travel grant to China, in co-directing a U.S. Department of Education Grant focusing on Canada, Ireland, and Portugal, and in developing team-taught learning communities with colleagues that involves taking students to Europe. Please direct any questions to Dr. Swanson via email at jswanson@stonehill.edu