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Contents

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From the Editor

April 2010

This issue of the *International Leadership Journal* contains seven articles, two pedagogy pieces, a book review, and coda.

The articles provide an especially rich array of subjects. Ardovini et al. focus on the importance of including female leadership experiences in research. They make use of the Synergistic Leadership Theory in advancing their position that we need to move beyond an androcentric bias in leadership, management, and organizational research and practice. Kaifi focuses on East Indian women in management and how those women compare with white men in their management practices. Toms and Kovacs look at the relationships between learning styles and leadership styles, concluding that there are some significant relationships between the two. Drawing upon anthropology, cultural studies, management studies, and performative studies, Socas sets out a unique perspective that considers leadership and the *ethos* of performance. Rahim provides a thorough review of the literature on decision making and on the relationship between decision making, leadership, power, and politics. Walstrom outlines a framework for Leadership Support Systems in terms of information systems. Finally, our Associate Editor, William Howe, offers some perspectives on the future of leadership.

The two pedagogy pieces have an international focus. Alok describes the use of the movie *Chak De India*, which focuses on the women's hockey team in India, as a point of departure for teaching a leadership course. Klein makes use of Hofstede's dimensions of culture around the world to discuss cultural influences in French education.

Our book review by Berry treats the philanthropic leadership of Andrew Carnegie, a man who transformed his wealth from the steel industry into a dedication to education and world peace.

Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora

Editor

ARTICLES

Eastern Indian Women in Management: A Study of their Skills, Behaviors, and Traits

Belal A. Kaifi
Franklin University

Women make up around 50 percent of the workplace in most large firms, especially in developing economies. In the twenty-first century, Eastern Indian women are seen in management positions throughout many industries. This study focused on the technical, human, and conceptual skills of women from India when compared to white men who have a reputation of being in top management positions. The results of 200 respondents show that these two groups have different management skills. Indian women have an extremely high score on the technical skills and white men have a high score on the conceptual skills. Implications for researchers, managers, and human resource professionals are presented.

Key words: conceptual skills, emotional intelligence, human skills, India, management skills, technical skills,

The modern workplace is diverse, filled with men and women professionals from every culture. Considering that each worker is different in respect to morals, values, and expectations, managers should provide a better understanding of rules and policies along with diversity education for all their employees (Kaifi & Mujtaba, 2009, 13). “This necessity grows out of the relativity of values and the pluralization of society” (Cooper, 1998, 51). Modern managers and leaders must be effective by having relevant technical, human, and conceptual skills based upon their rank in the leadership hierarchy. Consequently, this study focuses on understanding the management skills (technical, human, and conceptual) of Eastern Indian women respondents.

Organizations often seek effective managers who are able to use strategy as a medium to efficiently accomplish all goals because “the choices made by top management are influential on organizational outcomes” (Voges et al., 2009). This could explain why “the primary mover of the organization is its strategy,

which details its purpose and direction. Recent research has shown that organizational strategy influences the effectiveness of diversity in the organization" (Knouse, 2009, 348). For example, an effective manager must be able to promote innovation and determination as a part of the organization's strategic plan. Knouse states that "a strategy of innovation requires rich perspectives and a diverse knowledge resource base for solving problems, such as new product development, product design, and customer service" (2009, 348).

Managers must be able to use the talents of employees to innovate continuously and reach new goals. One way this can be done is by having a diverse workforce in which employees are able to learn from one another by synergizing and strategizing. As a matter of fact, "Using the talents and skills of individuals from other departments or organizations often leads to opportunities for cost reduction that might not otherwise be considered" (Pudlowski, 2009, 39). By strategizing, a manager will welcome viewpoints and perspectives that do not correlate with those of the organization. "From a practical standpoint, firms interested in exploring new knowledge boundaries and changing their capabilities should hire personnel whose knowledge is different from that already residing in the firms" (Tzabbar, 2009, 891). This practice will help with recruiting efforts because "diversity in background, values, and ideas would be valued by an innovative company" and "would attract prospective employees who expect to see a variety of people in organization" (Knouse, 2009, 348). Effective managers are needed to successfully manage diverse groups with different opinions, experiences, and talents. "Management is especially important when there are significant complementarities and spillovers between the actions of different individuals or groups" (Postrel, 2009, 273).

Management is usually defined as the achievement of organizational goals with and through people using available resources in the most efficient manner possible. Generally, people use the four functions of management—planning, organizing, leading, and controlling (POLC)—to achieve their organizational objectives. *Planning* means defining an organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving these goals, and developing comprehensive plans

to integrate and coordinate activities. “Success at integrating the activities of the resources of the firm leads to higher operational capability” (Postrel, 2009, 273). *Organizing* includes determining what tasks must be done, who will do them, how the tasks will be grouped, who will report to whom, and where decisions will be made. *Leading* includes motivating and directing employees, and communicating and resolving conflicts. *Controlling* means monitoring performance, comparing results and goals, and making corrections and adjustments as needed in a timely manner.

Management Levels and Ranks

Management is often divided into three levels: first-level supervisors (managers), middle managers, and top managers. Each level in management has different responsibilities and duties. As a manager and leader, one must consider what might be the result of not being both efficient and effective in the department and/or organization. The success of a person and an organization is often determined through effective and efficient management. For example,

> The processes relevant for public [or private] sector managers can be categorized according to the nature of the tasks and task environments involved: (1) processes handling the internal environment, such as planning, organizing, controlling, and decision making; (2) processes in relation to the external environment, such as policy process, collaboration, marketing, lobbying, and advocating; and (3) processes related to determination and measurement of public consultation and benchmarking, and evaluation. (Wu & He, 2009, 26)

If a manager or leader has a sense of purpose and direction, this will become contagious among his/her peers, colleagues, and employees. Effective leaders tend to set high standards to meet and exceed the stated goals and objectives. Furthermore, effective leaders are honest and truthful; they look reality in the eye and face the facts, while strategically planning to move forward. The three basic skills that managers use are technical, human, and conceptual, and the proportion of time spent in these areas may change, of course, as managers move up in the hierarchy (Katz, 1955). For example, senior managers may not spend as much time in technical functions as those who are in first line

management. Top managers tend to spend more time using their conceptual skills. Top management has been found to be an important component in enacting an organization's vision and ultimately its performance (Smircich & Stubbart, 1985; Voges, Tworoger, & Bendixen, 2009).

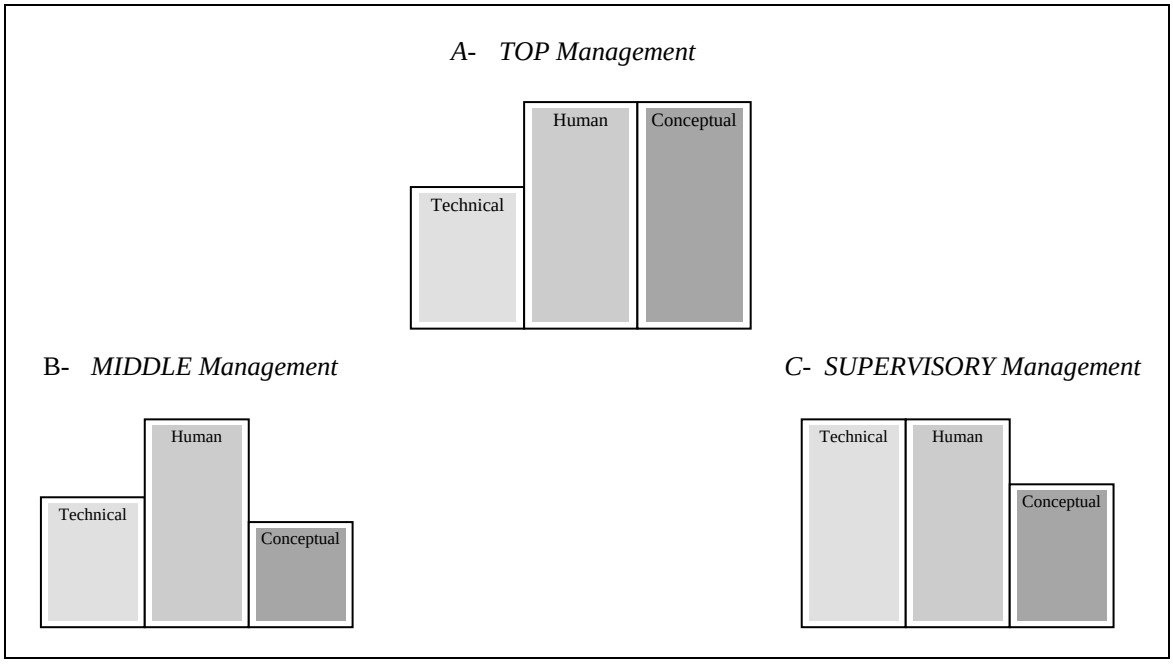

Figure 1. Management ranks and skills (Katz, 1955)

In "Skills of an Effective Administrator," Katz provides a visual presentation of the different skill requirements for different positions (see Figure 1 above). As emphasized by most management scholars, research has shown that education and experience help managers acquire relevant managerial skills that let them perform their jobs effectively, especially conceptual, human, and technical skills. Jones and George (2009) provide the following definitions for human, technical, and conceptual skills:

1. *Technical skills* are job-specific knowledge and techniques.
2. *Human skills* include the ability to understand, alter, lead, and control the behavior of people and groups.

3. *Conceptual skills* include the ability to analyze a situation and distinguish between cause and effect. Conceptual skills are often gained through formal education, reflection, and experience.

Modern managers of a cross-cultural workplace should be able to use relevant management skills if their organizations are to remain competitive. It should also be noted that promotion in the management hierarchy is often linked to a manager's ability to acquire the management skills and competencies that a particular company believes are important. The management skills needed are the same for women and men as research demonstrates that both genders are equally effective in leadership positions.

Glass Ceiling Phenomenon

The glass ceiling is a concept popularized in the 1980s to portray a barrier so subtle that it is transparent yet so solid that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy (Morrison & Glinow, 1995, 169). The glass-ceiling phenomenon has haunted women for many years and has become a focal point in many research studies (Babcock, 2008; Beckman & Menkhoff, 2008; Lantz, 2008; Cabrera, 2009). Throughout the years, many theories explaining why women have been marginalized have emerged. One explanation argues that "women's absence from executive positions is simply a function of not having been in managerial positions long enough for natural career progression to occur" (Northouse, 2004, 274). A different explanation suggests that,

> Men are more likely than women to negotiate for resources, training, and other factors that boost job satisfaction and success. It stands to reason that men who seek out career opportunities will advance more quickly in their organizations than equally qualified women who do not. (Babcock, 2008, 1)

In the workforce, women are often considered to be conservative and less competitive, qualities that can hinder an organization from reaching its goals and objectives. "Women are significantly more risk averse, tend to be less overconfident and behave less competitively oriented" (Beckman & Menkhoff,

2008, 379). Research shows that women in developed nations are also facing the same trials and obstacles in management. For example, Beckman and Menkhoff find that "women hold significantly lower positions than men in Germany, and Italy, a fact which goes hand in hand with significantly lower personal assets under management and shorter working hours" (2008, 370). The disparity between men and women in management is sometimes referred to as racism and sexism. "The rate of upward movement of women and minority managers provides clear evidence of nothing less than the abiding racism and sexism of the corporation" (Morrison & Glinow, 1995, 169). Some have even argued, as Northouse notes, that "women leaders are themselves the problem, whether because they are simply less suited to executive demands than men, unavailable because so few are sufficiently qualified, or lacking in self-confidence" (2004, 274). Women also face employers who do not want to take the risk of hiring a top manager who may have to take time off due to a maternity leave. For example,

> If a businessman is required to choose between a man and a woman possessing the same qualification levels, he would opt for the man, due to some misconceptions widespread among businessmen, such as the idea that women involve a cost when they take a maternity leave, that they create controversial relationships with their colleagues or they do not meet the necessary skills to be good executives. (Lopez-Fernandez et al., 2009, 42)

The new workforce has been described as a "political arena" full of different groups, behaviors, beliefs, and attitudes (Bolman & Deal, 2003). With globalization, women and minorities are continuously striving for managerial positions in which they can use their conceptual, technical, and human skills to complete tasks and build healthy relationships. "Management and executive positions, along with professional and technical jobs, are among the fastest growing occupations...However, these occupations include jobs not traditionally held by women and minorities, who comprise the new workforce" (Morrison & Glinow, 1995, 168). Minority women, such as Eastern Indians are also a significant part of the new workforce, but "research on certain minority women,

particularly Asians and American Indians, has essentially slipped through the cracks" (Morrison & Glinow, 1995, 170).

Cultural Traditions

Culture is a prominent factor in the differences people share. Such differences can be critical in effectively managing workplace diversity. Additionally, culture is important because shared values tend to regularize human behavior and make individuals more predictable (Mujtaba, 2007). Knowing how others perceive and value their environment provides a guide for managers to anticipate behavior and respond effectively. This point is becoming increasingly more important as globalization brings distant peoples into closer contact when they face cultural, economic, and legal challenges (Scarborough, 1998); and the growth in international trade has dramatically increased people's understanding of the similarities and differences between diverse cultures (Gardenswartz, Rowe, Digh, & Bennett, 2003; Ishii & Bruneau, 1994).

Some studies on cultural differences within the context of management have been conducted by Munene, Schwartz, and Smith (2000). These researchers conclude that the Asian and African cultures tend to emphasize hierarchy, paternalism, and mastery in contrast to egalitarianism, autonomy, and harmony. Moreover, Asian and African managers often stress reliance on formal rules and superiors in reaching decisions as compared with the cultural profile of people in the United States or most European countries.

In today's competitive world, understanding and responding to culturally driven behaviors are paramount to succeeding in cross-cultural management, particularly because "the people in an organization are crucial to its performance and the quality of work life within it" (Rainey, 2003, 219). For example, India has a rich culture where people tend to socialize as part of their cultural mores. However, Indian people also demonstrate more individualistic values as they attempt to secure long-term independence from undue foreign aid and political influences. Navigating between individualistic and collectivistic cultures and recognizing the shifts in diverse cultures can have a direct impact on how

international firms and their people actually perform. People of an individualistic culture tend to value the needs, concerns, and identity of oneself above the needs of the community. As Mujtaba, Luk, Murphy, and Saowakul (2009) argue, a collective culture's members tend to focus more on world peace, being helpful to others, and group interests, instead of an individual's personal needs.

Traditionally, India is a collective and high-context culture where women often stay home and take responsibility for rearing children while men work outside the house. As a result, professional interactions between men and women are often limited, especially in rural areas. "Given the cultural orientations of males in the Indian society where exchanges with the opposite sex are limited, it is likely that efforts at ingratiation will enhance a male superior's favorable demeanor towards female subordinates" (Himanshu, 2009, 66). With globalization and modernization, women are playing bigger roles in the workforce throughout the world. A case in point is how women in India are becoming more accepted in the workforce due to economic reforms. Interestingly enough,

> While social, legal, and economic reforms have helped women to join the workforce in India, the continuing influence of normative attitudes and values have prevented them from altering the perceptions of the society as well as their own regarding their sex-roles. (Buddhapriya, 2009, 34)

The changes in the global economy have introduced new gender roles that have made organizations more diverse and inclusive of managers with different managerial skills.

Study Methodology

The Style Inventory survey instrument provided by Northouse (2010, 64-65) was distributed to a total of 200 Eastern Indian women and 200 white men using Facebook as a social-networking instrument to get good participation. A total of 200 surveys were completed successfully by participants who live throughout the United States or India. So a total of 200 responses, which represents a 50 percent response rate, were used for analysis. Of course, it should be mentioned that a small population sample should be seen as a pilot study since it is based on a convenience sampling method which cannot be generalized to an entire

population. Thus, readers are cautioned to interpret statements below as referring to the specific respondents sampled and not necessarily the entire cultural patterns of the participants.

The skills inventory is designed to measure three broad types of management skills: technical, human, and conceptual. One can score the questionnaire by adding the scores for each category. First, sum the responses on items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, and 16. This is one's technical skills score. Second, sum the responses on items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17. This is one's human skills score. Third, sum the responses on items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18. This is one's conceptual skills score.

Many instruments have been used by different researchers to assess an individual's skills for management and leadership (Katz 1955; Rahman & Yang, 2009; Garman et al., 2006; Buttner et al., 1999; Egbu, 1999; Mumford et al., 2000). Instruments are designed to yield information about an individual's skills that can be used for training and development purposes. For example, Rahman and Yang (2009) explain:

> One of the earliest surveys conducted to ascertain the skills required by senior logistics executives was performed by Murphy and Poist. In this survey they used three sets of skills: business skills, logistics skills and management skills. Business ethics was found to be the top-rated business skill, and personal integrity was found to be very important among management skills, whereas transport and traffic management was found to be the top-ranked logistics skill. (141)

Regardless of the instrument, researchers understand the importance of managerial skills when planning, leading, organizing, and controlling. The research question for this study is: *Do Eastern Indian women and white men have similar or different management skills?* For this survey, the higher the overall sum of the scores, the more likely that the participant is better at that skill. The research hypotheses for this study are as follows:

- *Hypothesis 1*: White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for technical skills.

- *Hypothesis 2*: White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for human
  skills.
- *Hypothesis 3:* White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for conceptual skills.

The average age range for the participants in this study is within a range of 26 to 30. These respondents are of course familiar with cyberspace technology and feel comfortable filling out online questionnaires. It is very possible that these respondents are employed in positions that require them to be online on a daily basis.

Results

The results demonstrate that the white men in this sample have low scores on technical and human skills, though they have higher conceptual skills. Eastern Indian women responding to this study seem to have high scores on technical and human skills that allow them to work effectively with others at all levels. (See Table 1 below.) The first hypothesis, "White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for technical skills" cannot be supported as Eastern Indian women have a significantly higher score ($t=-75.12$; $p<0.001$) for both technical and human skills. Therefore, the first hypothesis is rejected.

Table 1: Technical Scores (St. Deviation)

	Number	Technical
Indian Women	100	29.40 (0.779)*
White Men	100	17.41 (1.39)*
TOTAL	200	23.41 (1.08)
		*t=-75.12; p<0.001

As Table 2 (next page) demonstrates, the second hypothesis, "White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for human skills," cannot be supported as Eastern Indian women have a significantly higher score on human skills. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

Table 2: Human Scores (St. Deviation)

	Number	Human
Indian Women	100	29.08 (1.08)*
White Men	100	24.22 (0.917)*
TOTAL	200	26.65 (0.998)
		*t=-34.32; p<0.001

The third hypothesis, "White men and Eastern Indian women will have similar scores for conceptual skills," cannot be supported as white men have a higher score. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

Table 3: Conceptual Scores (St. Deviation)

	Number	Conceptual
Indian Women	100	12.96 (1.45)*
White Men	100	14.05 (1.13)*
TOTAL	200	13.51 (1.29)
		*t=5.93; p<0.001

This study has demonstrated that White men have higher conceptual scores and Eastern Indian women have higher technological and human scores.

Pragmatic Managerial Implications

It is no surprise that Eastern Indian women have high technological scores because India is a country that has embraced technology and implemented technology in the classrooms. Young Indians are exposed to technology, internet research, and social networking websites that prepare them for the cyberspace workplace. Interestingly enough,

> The fact that Indian students are using SNWs [social networking websites] to understand the business environment, improve job prospects, and participate in formal discussion forums is indicative of their preparedness and zeal to contribute to their future place of work in India or abroad. (Agarwal & Mital, 2009, 109)

This may explain why Indian women scored higher on technological skills when compared to white men. Many countries such as the United States outsource services to India because of their technological skills and the ability of over 300 million college educated professionals who communicate fluently in English. As a matter of fact, “the successful technology manager is often distinguished not by command of any single set of knowledge or skills, but by an ability to master changing demands—to learn, in other words” (Austin, Nolan, & O’Donnell, 2009, 338).

Eastern Indian women have higher human skills, which are needed in organizations throughout the world. Interestingly, Eastern Indian women who come from a high-context culture may have acquired human skills that surpass those of their peers and make them better manager to lead organizations. One example of a human skill is having high emotional intelligence. Relationship management is an emotional intelligence competency that determines how well an individual can manage relationships within an organization (Robbins & Coulter, 2005, 355). As a matter of fact, “researchers have found that emotional intelligence competencies are predictors of superior job performance” (Blank, 2008, 79).

This study illuminated how Eastern Indian women have higher scores on human skills, which relate to higher levels of emotional intelligence and also to better job performance. As a matter of fact, “the US Air Force found that recruiters who had high scores in the emotional intelligence competencies of assertiveness, empathy, happiness, and emotional self-awareness were three times as successful as the recruiters who did not score well in those competencies” (Blank, 2008). In the twenty-first century, Eastern Indian women can actually be the most promising applicants when recruiting for management positions because of their high-context cultural backgrounds, high-technological capabilities, and high emotional intelligence.

These results are important for multinational managers, administrators of USAID (the United States of America’s International Development) agency, NGOs (non-governmental agencies), and other contractors recruiting

professionals for jobs and assignments in and around India. The modern workplace for a multinational firm can be very diverse as the workforce today is filled with people who may have different management skills. Kaifi (2009a) explains how using multiple frames to evaluate an organization will help a manager understand complex issues within an organization and will result in continuous improvements (94). The glass-ceiling phenomenon in organizations needs to be eradicated as women such as Meg Whitman of eBay have proven to be successful managers. "Despite high-profile success stories of female CEOs such as Meg Whitman of eBay, only a handful of Fortune 500 firms in 2008 have a woman in the top spot. Consequently, concern remains about the progress women are making" (Wyld, 2008, 83). Eastern Indian women bring diverse views and perspectives with an orientation toward supervisory management positions because of their high human and technical scores. According to Mahat (1998), when Eastern Indian families migrate to the United States, they bring with them their traditional culture and customs, and this can be beneficial for American organizations that are seeking managers with high human skills. These Eastern Indian female respondents in this sample have demonstrated that they have high human skills, which equate to good emotional skills that naturally make them better suited for top management positions. These female managers can model good emotional intelligence and leadership skills to help more males gain these skills.

A manager or leader can increase his or her emotional intelligence through self-awareness, managing emotions by having self-control, motivating others, showing empathy, and handling relationships. *Self-awareness* means observing oneself, learning and gaining relevant values and behaviors. *Managing emotions* means handling feelings correctly so that they are appropriate for the situation and people involved. *Motivating* oneself requires channeling emotions in the service of a goal and exercising emotional self control. *Empathy* requires showing sensitivity to other's feelings, concerns, and perspectives; it also means appreciating the differences in how people feel about things. Finally, *handling relationships* effectively means managing emotions in others, as well as gaining

social competence and social skills on a continuous basis. Emotional intelligence is basically a type of social intelligence that requires an ability to monitor one's own feelings as well other's emotions, while using factual information and other situational variables to guide one's thinking and decisions. These characteristics associated with emotional intelligence are the essence of effective leadership and management. "Being able to deliver a warm style of leadership and paying attention to all staff members are key elements of gaining the trust and respect of employees" (Kaifi, 2009a, 92).

Effective managers and leaders influence others to take action. Most effective leaders and managers have a high degree of skills that are known now as emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence skills can assist in various leadership functions, but the successful leader will require more than just emotional intelligence to be successful. While being aware of one's emotions and the emotions of others certainly influences managerial performance, it is also necessary for effective leaders to use, understand, and manage emotions to achieve leadership success. Leaders and managers should be in touch with their emotions and use their emotions to be effective. It is paramount that effective leaders and managers have the ability to understand emotions and the ability to recognize relationships between emotions, the different meanings emotions convey, and how emotions change from one state to another. Managing emotions allows leaders and managers to handle the demands of organizational life and the multi-faceted opportunities it presents. Effective leaders and managers demonstrate the ability to focus on the appropriate coping strategies versus the emotion itself, while staying focused on creating and enhancing long-term interpersonal relationships.

Limitations

There are certain limitations to this study. Most importantly, there was a limited number of responses from each group. This survey could be used in conjunction with other more comprehensive instruments to enhance and confirm the results. Future studies can duplicate the research with a greater number of Eastern

Indian participants who are compared to other ethnicities. The fact that this study was conducted with a convenient sample population living in urban areas and with expatriate Eastern Indians living outside of India is a further limitation. Future studies might expand the research population to include more respondents from various locations and provinces within India. Perhaps different population groups and people working in various industries could be studied separately to see if culture is truly a factor in the management skills of women (and men) professionals. Finally, future researchers should consider translating the survey instrument into Hindi, Punjabi, and other local Indian languages so as to facilitate the test subjects' preferred and dominant reading skills.

Conclusion

This study focused on the technical, human, and conceptual skills of a selected number of professional men and women respondents from India and the United States. The results show that Eastern Indian women in this sample scored significantly higher on the human and technical skills when compared with white men. The role of managers continuously changes based upon the demands of the workforce. In the twenty-first century, it is becoming more apparent that managers need to have specific skills that were neglected in the past. Therefore, more women professionals from India should be recruited, promoted, and retained in management positions.

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Including Female Leadership Experiences and Behaviors: A Qualitative Validation of Synergistic Leadership Theory

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The face of public education has changed significantly, and thus major change is needed in our university leadership programs to keep up with the changing face of education. In turn, leadership theories used in administrator preparation programs have come under fire for being out of touch with current educational models. An examination of leadership theories taught in university education administration programs reveals an alarming androcentric bias and has been described as "practicing privileged perspectives" that do not reflect the current trend in education today (Gosetti & Rusch, 1995: 19). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory, a theory which is inclusive of both male and female leadership behaviors. These behaviors depict an interaction of four factors: leadership behaviors, organizational structure, external forces, and attitudes, beliefs, and values (Irby, Brown, Duffy, & Trautman, 2000). In order to validate such an inclusive theory, the authors analyzed qualitative data obtained from the Organizational and Leadership Effectiveness Inventory and follow-up telephone interviews of education administrators. Open-ended responses and comments were analyzed by gender and level of management. The data revealed that although there was disagreement between males and females on exactly how the four factors relate and interact, there was unanimous acknowledgement that all four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory are interactive. Additionally, the data determined that female leaders at different levels of management also agreed that the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory were interactive, and the more positive interacting factors that were observed, the more harmonious the leadership and organizational relationship.

Key words: gender and leadership, leadership theory, qualitative study, synergistic leadership theory, theory validation

Over the years, the face of public education has changed significantly, and thus major change is needed in our university leadership programs to keep up with the skills necessary to lead students and faculties into the twenty-first century. In the last decade, leadership theories used in administrator preparation programs

have come under fire for being out of touch with current educational models, androcentric, and "practicing privileged perspectives" (Gosetti & Rusch, 1995: 19). For example, Gosetti and Rusch (1995) uncovered a male bias of privilege in the program structure and textbooks used in university administrator preparation programs. Female authorship of texts addressing leadership, principalship, superintendency, professorate, and educational administration was found to be significantly less than male authorship. When women were included in this academic discourse, it was via book chapters rather then entire books (Gosetti & Rusch, 1995).

With this stated, the purpose of this study was to validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory, a theory inclusive of female leadership experiences and leadership behaviors generally considered to be feminine such as participation, collaboration, empowerment, and strong interpersonal skills. The validation of this theory has national significance in that educational leadership programs have the potential to be changed and to include a broader-based theory of leadership in the preparation of leaders and to include both men and women. Educational institutions will benefit from the findings of this research because the results of this study provide a gender balance in the body of leadership theory and literature currently being taught in university educational leadership programs.

Additionally, women in education may find validation for their own leadership behaviors, job-related experiences, and feelings of isolation. Specifically, this research could cause a shift in the methods of hiring and promoting practices in education, thus ameliorating job inequity and sex discrimination for women. The findings of this study may force administrative practice to parallel the leadership and management theory base which is predominant in administration courses today. Finally, the research findings from the validation of this theory could add a balance to the existing androcentric leadership theory base.

Strongly related to women's job experiences, feminist organizational theory supports a democratic and collectivist view of encouraging workers to express their needs, values, and ideas in a context that is supportive and nurturing

(Morgen, 1994). Similarly, new management techniques show that intuition, sensitivity, and relationship-building, generally recognized as feminine traits, will be the leadership style of the future (Wheatley, 1994). This means that current patriarchal power relations, which have been defined as "opposite and superior to femininity," will no longer be regarded as the best ways to manage (Rigg & Sparrow, 1994, 16).

Demographics in terms of women serving in traditional male leadership positions remain for the most part unchanged even though feminine-aligned and inclusive practices such as collaborative arrangements, site-based decision making, teacher empowerment, and community building are in place in many schools (Brunner, 1998). These practices do not parallel the leadership and management theory base predominant in administration courses today.

The main problem to be researched in this study was the validation of the Synergistic Leadership Theory (Irby, Brown, Duffy, & Trautman, 2000). This was accomplished by determining the perceptions of this theory among: (1) male and female leaders, and (2) female leaders at different management levels. Since most studies on feminine leadership characteristics had sampled women only, there was a need to include perceptions of both men and women leaders (Brown, et al., 1999; Irby, et al., 1999). Additionally, differences in perception among women at various levels of management needed to be assessed to determine if leadership behaviors and concerns changed as women moved to higher positions. However, before this can be done a reevaluation of existing theories must occur.

Call for a Challenge to Existing Theory

Over two decades have passed since Shakeshaft and Nowell (1984) challenged existing theory in leadership and management. Strongly asserting that conceptualization of theory was formulated through "a male lens" and was "subsequently applied to both males and females," Shakeshaft & Nowell (1984) stated:

> When female behavior ran counter to the theory, it was the female, rather than the theory, who was found to be inadequate. Thus, from a conceptual point of view, female behavior was ignored, not because females weren't studied, but because their experience, by definition, had to parallel male behavior; if it didn't, the females were labeled deficient and the theory was left unchallenged. A similar result occurs even if the problem is formulated in a gender-inclusive manner, but the methods used to test the questions emerge from an androcentric perspective. (198)

Hartsock (1987) continued the discussion by calling for a theory of power for women, a theory which begins from the experience and point of view of the dominated and states that "such theories would give attention to women's capacities, abilities, and strengths…" (Hartsock, 1987, 158). Brown and Irby (1994) echoed this challenge and stated that true reform in leadership preparation programs would not occur unless current theory was reevaluated and revaluated (Brown & Irby, 1994). Linda Lambert and colleagues (1995) called for an addition to the existing leadership theory base by introducing a theory of constructivist leadership which presupposes that all members of the community learn to lead and construct their own meaning of leadership according to the community needs. Lambert (1998) called for a need to build leadership capacity in schools and to change the definition of leadership from exclusive or privileged to inclusive of the entire learning community.

Rationale for Reevaluation of Leadership Theory

Postmodernism provides the rationale for reevaluating current leadership theory. While modernism includes all things behavioral, scientific, logical, empirical, and male-dominated, post-modernism stresses the deconstruction of modernism (English, 1999). Postmodernism challenges the following views:

- The hegemony of modernism to center and marginalize, creating positions of privilege, dominance and exclusion, silencing alternative views and voices.
- The ideas of "progress" inherent in the presentation of the development of a "field." (English, 1999).

Modernism fails to take into consideration new ideas transformed from old and presents a case for the construction of discontinuities as a series of shifting centers or paradigms each with a new constellation of revolving facts (English, 1999). From a postmodern perspective, the shifts come to resemble "continuities" and there is no paradigm shift (English, 1999). In other words, post-modernism does not advocate a binary "either/or" criteria for the existence of new theories over old theories but merely a co-existence or continuity of theories that are mutually co-dependent and thus suspended one in the other (Evans, 1991). This, then, is the reasoning behind constant theory analysis: not to replace the old, but to merely continue the dialogue.

Theoretical Framework

Although feminine leadership characteristics have appeared in the literature, until recently there has been no leadership theory to accommodate them. Loden (1985) described an emerging feminine leadership model which represented the feminine qualities of "cooperative operating style, a team organizational structure, quality input as a basic objective, intuitive/rational problem solving style, …lower control, empathy, collaboration, and high performance standards" (Loden, 1985, 63). In an interview with Ron Brandt (1992), Sergiovanni stated the old school model of a hierarchical bureaucracy needed to be changed to an idea-based community (Brandt, 1992). His admission that "while women were underrepresented in principalships, they were over- represented in successful principalships" gives support to a need for a feminine style of leadership (Brandt, 1992, 47). Although no leadership theories that support a feminine style of leadership currently exist, there have been several management and organizational theories and models that approach a feminine-inclusive leadership theory—for example, Quantum Management and Transformational.

Constructs or Models That Approach a Feminine-inclusive Leadership Theory

Recently, several constructs or models have emerged that approach a feminine-inclusive leadership theory. Lambert's (1995) constructivist leadership theory

recognized the feminine characteristics of empowerment, inclusion, and development of the "master teacher". Grogan (1998) developed an "ethic of care" which contained the feminine traits of collaboration, effective interpersonal skills, and relationship building. Finally, Brunner (1995) confirmed that women leaders practiced collaboration, inclusion, and consensus-building, elements of the "power to" or female definition of power.

The Synergistic Leadership Theory

From these models and constructs, a feminine-inclusive leadership theory was developed out of a three-phase study examining existing leadership theory and feminine leadership characteristics (Trautman et al., 1999; Brown et al., 1999; Irby et al., 1999). This theory was known as the Synergistic Leadership Theory and was developed by female researchers, utilized a female sample, and included the feminine perspective (Irby et al., 2000). The following are assumptions from this new theory:

- Successful leadership is the interaction among leadership behavior, organizational structure, external forces, and attitudes, beliefs, and values.
- Women bring a particular set of leadership behaviors to leadership positions.
- No theory/model exists in current literature that is all inclusive of feminine leadership behaviors or women's perspectives.
- Feminine leadership style encompasses characteristics of the transformational leader.
- The more feminine leadership behaviors one exhibits, the more aligned he/she will be with a postmodern organizational type.

Four aspects particular to the theory are: (a) female leaders were included in its development, (b) female leaders may be impacted by external forces, organizational structures, and beliefs, attitudes and values in ways male leaders are not, and visa versa. (c) female leadership behaviors may interact with the factors in ways unlike the leadership behaviors of males, and (d) leaders at

various positions or levels, (i.e., teacher leaders to superintendents) may be impacted by the factors of the model in different ways (Irby et al., 1999).

After reviewing the current literature on feminine leadership characteristics as well as management and organizational theories that approach a feminine leadership theory, it is evident that the Synergistic Leadership Theory fulfills the need for a balance in existing leadership theory base. In order to generalize the findings to all leaders, male and female, and strengthen the assumptions presented in the theory, this study's purpose was to validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory.

Certain epistemological assumptions have been made by the researchers of this study. In analyzing leadership behavior as a component of the theory in this study, we are examining a social condition, not a biological fact. In other words, female leaders may have been socialized to behave in certain ways, but this does not make those behaviors a biological fact for all women (Bem, 1993), nor would it be thus for men. Another epistemological assumption of this study is that we employ a feminist methodology which is aimed at validating a leadership theory for both males and females. A feminist study does not promote a binary opposition between males and females but is inclusive of both perspectives (Harding, 1991).

Research Questions

The two specific qualitative research questions addressed by this study were: (1) In what ways do male and female leaders perceive the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory to be interactive? and (2) How do female leaders at different levels of management perceive the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory?

Research Question 1

In response to the first question, data from the OLEI and the telephone interviews indicated that male and female administrators found interactions between and among the four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory. Five interactions emerged from the coding process of the raw data from the 12 interviews and the

22 open-ended responses written on the OLEI. These interactions displayed the relevance of the Synergistic Leadership Theory for both males and females. While not explanatory of all possible interactions among the four factors, the following interactions of factors indicated a relevance for both male and female administrators: interactions between external forces and leadership behaviors; interactions between attitudes, beliefs, and values and organizational structure; interactions between attitudes, beliefs, and values and leadership behaviors; interactions between organizational structure and leadership behaviors; and interaction of all four factors.

Interactions Between External Forces and Leadership Behaviors. Males and females differed in their perceptions related to how external forces interacted with leadership behaviors. Both males and females indicated that the factor of external forces did interact with the factor of their leadership behaviors. This was illustrated in how the participants viewed managing external forces such as political or special interest groups as well as the expectations of their supervisor and how these forces related to leadership behaviors.

The males focused on fulfilling campus needs and concerns only. They tended to see themselves as a loner or maverick in a sort of "us against them" view as seen in the following responses from male principals:

> I try not to get too involved in special interest groups and just offer the best education possible to all of our students . . .External forces are more important to the superintendent than it would be for me as a building principal because that's not important for me. . . this other political stuff, let the superintendents deal with that. I have no interest in that at all.

On the other hand, the females responded with strong feeling that part of being a leader included dealing with the external forces in order to facilitate needed change. These comments were made by two female principals.

> External, cultural, social, and economic forces are the greatest barriers to making meaningful change toward better educational systems.… External forces certainly play a part because you don't have a lot of control over them and they must be managed….. The community culture is so diverse today, we must take it into consideration or our plans are for nothing.

The Synergistic Leadership Theory model includes the idea of successful leaders managing and balancing external forces with organizational structure, leadership behaviors, and attitudes, beliefs, and values. In contrast to males, female leaders saw external forces as a part of their jobs and not as a separate entity. The females in this study seemed to want to take on more responsibility in their positions, especially if something stood in the way of necessary changes. In a review of feminist theory, the exclusively unique situation of females was depicted socially, politically, economically, and culturally and sought to change the existing imbalance in power through collective action (Tong, 1989). According to the Synergistic Leadership Theory, social, political, or economic special interest groups are part of external forces.

External forces also were perceived to interact with leadership behaviors when males and females discussed the expectations of their supervisor. Several females described supervisors' expectations that they fulfill two or more titles and job descriptions, especially in smaller districts and schools. Female respondents appeared to be very content balancing and meeting the needs of all of them. This ability to balance or juggle several tasks at once was described by a female superintendent, an assistant superintendent and a principal:

> I am the superintendent and principal all in one for a small district, and I absolutely love it . . . I serve on the leadership team for the system as a cluster leader. There are 14 schools in our cluster, so I have a dual role: principal plus mentor to other principals…. My official title is assistant superintendent; however, I wear many hats including president of the chamber of commerce, district site based committee chairwoman, and I also head several curriculum development committees in the district.

Such quotes pointed out the ability female leaders have to balance several tasks at once and still do a quality job, many times mentoring others to do the same. In their development of the Synergistic Leadership Theory, Irby, Brown, Duffy, and Trautman (2000) found that females were task-oriented, which helped them to focus and constantly prioritize the demands in their jobs. LeCompte (1996) reported that female leaders who use a feminine leadership style can tolerate ambiguity or the ability to juggle many things at one time, and they also employ a

collaborative decision making style. Durgin (1998) described female leaders who felt they constantly had to set priorities and make choices because of the many roles in their jobs and personal lives. From the interview and OLEI responses, female leaders were describing their jobs as "a full plate" but were not necessarily complaining about it. In fact, they seemed to enjoy having a demanding yet satisfying career. Part of this behavior is most likely a natural ability coming from balancing career and personal life; however, another reason could be that due to the barriers females face in gaining entry into a leadership position, they feel they must work twice as hard as a man (Tong, 1989). Externals in the Synergistic Leadership Theory include expectations of the supervisor, and supervisors in this study obviously had an expectation that these females perform the dual roles of the job. Males, however, did not describe their positions in this way or talk about doing several tasks at once in their jobs.

These findings validate the assumption of the Synergistic Leadership Theory that there is interaction between the two factors of external forces and leadership behaviors. As seen in the male and female views of how external forces interact with leadership behaviors, the interaction of these two factors may cause harmony or tension in the leadership position.

Interactions Between Attitudes, Beliefs, Values and Organizational Structure. Both males and females indicated that the factor of attitudes, beliefs, and values impacted and interacted with the organizational structure factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. Several female respondents mentioned theory-based solutions for school restructuring, such as Sizer's (1997) Coalition of Essential Schools and Goodlad's (1984) Model of School Renewal, and compared them to the Synergistic Leadership Theory.

> At our school, implementing Coalition of Essential Schools has been very helpful in building community and a vision for learners . . . My school chose to use Goodlad's model of school renewal. It worked wonderfully here and is very similar to the philosophical section of the Synergistic Leadership Theory…

Both of these models of school reform were very student-centered and were concerned with changing paradigms for students and teachers with a school-

wide vision that determined success. Females in Helgesen's (1990) study who were concerned with making organizational changes through a vision created a "motivational ambiance." McGrew-Zoubi (1993) found that administrators who used the women's leadership style work toward the transformation of their colleague's self-interest into the organization's goals.

Although male respondents did not specifically mention using theory-based school restructuring programs, they did agree that attitudes, beliefs, and values interacted with the organizational factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. This view expressed by males and females in the study validates the assumption that there are various interaction capabilities in the Synergistic Leadership Theory.

Interaction Between Attitudes, Beliefs, Values and Leadership Behaviors. Although males and females agreed on the interaction of the attitudes and beliefs factor with the leadership factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory, there was disagreement between male and female respondents on exactly how they interacted. Some of the females in the interviews expressed a fear of being seen as aggressive when using certain leadership behaviors such as team building and collaboration. They expressed the sentiment that when a male leader used the same behaviors, he was not seen as aggressive.

> I think unfortunately you have to be careful as a woman though in being seen as too aggressive in some of these behaviors. For instance, I think that a man might be seen as being a team leader and if a woman is not careful in the behavior she uses as a leader, she may be seen as aggressive or having a lack of ability.

Male participants did not voice this particular concern, and in fact, described a workplace where everyone had an equal opportunity and could be themselves:

> I think that the superintendent has fostered enough caring that anyone coming into administration in the district feels that they are going to be heard and they are going to be a valued member.

There was a definite difference in how males and females viewed attitudes and beliefs interacting with leadership behaviors. The Synergistic Leadership Theory

could help to build acceptance of feminine leadership practices since it allows for feminine perspective of leadership such as collaborator, communicator, relational, nurturer, stabilizer, and intuitive. Rigg and Sparrow's (1994) work illustrated that females were chastised if they did not adopt a masculine leadership style. Bell (1995) supported this finding in her research on "de-feminization" where some female superintendents would distance themselves from other females and their problems, denying any discrimination in the workplace. Additionally, Skrla and Benestante (1998) found that the male culture of educational administration seemed to promote the belief that anything related to women's groups or feminism was the "kiss of death" (58). In Brunner's (1998) interviews with female superintendents, one of the women pointed out that female leaders couldn't be too directive or they would be called bitches. Obviously, this fear of exhibiting innately feminine leadership behaviors still exists and remains a barrier to females in all levels of management. Finally, these fears expressed by the female participants could certainly affect their leadership behaviors.

The Synergistic Leadership Theory proposes that for a leader to feel successful, leadership behaviors would be aligned with the district philosophy. If the females in this study were fearful of being seen as too aggressive, they might modify their leadership behaviors. Interactions of this type according to the Synergistic Leadership Theory illustrate that modifications of one factor or the other may result in harmony or tension among the four factors.

Interactions Between Organizational Structure and Leadership Behaviors. Responses from the OLEI and the telephone interviews indicated that male and female principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents shared the perception that the factors of organizational structure and leadership behaviors were interactive. Participants were supportive of continuing education and team building, and felt that these leadership behaviors carried over into their organizations as well. However, males and females saw the interaction of these same two factors in a different light when it came to central office organization interacting with their own leadership behaviors.

A female superintendent and female assistant superintendent described continuing education and a career plan as essential to advancing in the organization:

> I have always known that I wanted to be a superintendent and planned accordingly. I have completed course work for a doctorate and I have 12 years experience at central office plus 20 years teaching…. Extra education gives you a "leg up" in moving up the organization.

As leaders and creators of the organizational structure, this superintendent and assistant superintendent defined acceptable leadership behaviors for their organization such as continuing education by becoming role models. A description of female leaders who continued their education was found throughout the literature. Shakeshaft (1986) described female administrators as master teachers or educational leaders whereas men more often view the job from a managerial-industrial perspective. Grogan (1996) suggested that females who aspire to the superintendency have a career plan and a doctorate, and Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) described a typical female principal as having 15 years of teaching experience and being enrolled in a doctorate program. The Synergistic Leadership Theory indicated such a relationship with the organizational structure factor and the leadership behavior factor. This was illustrated in the organizational structure factor as rewarding professional development.

Another way in which the organizational structure factor affected the leadership behavior factor was in how males and females viewed the leadership behavior of team building. On examination of the interview and inventory data, it was evident that team building was very important to males and females. The following was explained by a male principal:

> Team building is the number one goal of our district and our campus. We build teams with teachers, students, staff, parents, and community.

This comment indicated how the factors of organization and leadership behaviors interact on one level and further interact with external forces and attitudes and beliefs. One female assistant superintendent explained her district philosophy and saw her own position as that of a team leader rather than superintendent.

> I think of myself as a team leader for my organization rather than assistant superintendent. One of our philosophical beliefs is that decisions are made as a team and of course everything is site-based. As leaders, we collaborate a lot, we communicate and we make decisions usually based on the team.

Again, as leader of her organization, this female is modeling the leadership behaviors expected for all leaders in the organization including team building. Team building is reflected in the organizational structure factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory by using the expertise of members, having consensually derived goals, and using a collaborative leadership style. The literature also supported team building as a feminine leadership characteristic in the form of a collaborative, inclusive, and participative style (Brunner, 1995; Helgesen, 1990; Loden, 1985; Shakeshaft, 1986). Other females interviewed in this study stated similar preferences for decision making by team and stated that they felt team decisions were more beneficial to all stakeholders and that they felt more comfortable in a team setting. Rosener (1990) said that the affiliation to participative management comes "naturally" and that females seem to be socialized to operate in this manner, while males are not. Rosener (1990) named this innately feminine characteristic "interactive leadership." Durgin (1998) traced a pattern of behavior in female executives that included the ability to work on teams and to build consensus. It would seem that female leaders find working in teams a very natural leadership behavior partly because they are socialized to work this way (Bem, 1993) and also because they are willing to give up a little individual identity for the good of the team.

An "out of touch" central administration was an area of disagreement in how organizational structure can interact and affect leadership behaviors. Several female principals related negative experiences with an "out of touch" central administration and their own campuses. Male principals, on the other hand, reported a positive relationship with their district office. The following female elementary principal felt frustrated with the lack of communication and understanding exhibited by their central office.

> In my current district, I do not see the collaborative effort at the higher level of administration….. It has limited communication and is a little more

> segregated from the rest of the school administration….. There is obviously a communication breakdown, the expectations are not clear.

This principal's frustration was with the lack of collaboration and inclusion with central administration and the individual campuses. Smith and Smits (1994) pointed out that successful female leaders used inclusive behavior and collaboration. McGrew-Zoubi (1993) found that female administrators like to link personal goals with organizational goals. Part of the frustration that females felt with an impersonal central office might be due to their need to include others and be included. Additionally, females were also found to be highly effective communicators (Chaffins et al., 1996; Grogan, 1996; Kahn, 1984;) and might not be so tolerant of a communication breakdown at central office.

Another respondent, a female secondary principal voiced a similar frustration with the central office:

> Central office is more autocratic. Definitely a bureaucracy. I don't think it takes into account many times what's best for the child.

This quote indicated a problem for female leaders with an impersonal bureaucracy that was not always student-centered. The literature suggested that female leaders were more successful where the bureaucracy was minimal and the hierarchy had been flattened (Morgen, 1994). Valentine (1995) endorsed a non-hierarchical approach to workplace relationships for female leaders and suggested that females preferred and were more productive where power was more evenly distributed. Additionally, feminist workplaces described in Morgen's (1994) feminine organizational theory criticized bureaucracy and hierarchy and created a bureaucratic alternative where work was organized to maximize autonomy, skill, development, and satisfaction of the individual staff. The Synergistic Leadership Theory allows for using the expertise of members instead of rank, placing a high value on members, and dispersing power; however, it also allows for maintaining a tall hierarchy. The difference in male and female response as to how a central office affects their leadership behavior indicates that the Synergistic Leadership Theory allows for completely different views in the interaction of the four factors.

From the above participant responses on how the leadership behavior factor interacts with the organizational structure factor, the Synergistic Leadership can be validated as an interactive theory.

Interaction of all Four Factors. Male and female response to the necessity of all four factors working and interacting together for organizational and leadership effectiveness was unanimous. The response from males and females alike was that when all four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory were working together in a complementary fashion, allowed them to see the big picture, prevented isolation, and created a transformational vision.

The following came from a female elementary principal regarding the ability to see the big picture through the interaction of all four factors of the theory:

> You've got to have all four characteristics to see the big picture. I believe all of these factors are necessary for a success story.

And this from a male secondary principal:

> This model is a valid way of looking at organizations and leaders, and the more that you can include all four of the characteristics, the more successful you would be.

The Synergistic Leadership Theory describes the interaction among leadership behavior, organizational structure, external forces, and attitudes, beliefs, and values (Irby et al., 2000). The need to see the big picture and the interaction of all four characteristics of the Synergistic Leadership Theory was recognized by all of the males and females in the qualitative sample.

In addition to seeing the big picture, male and female respondents also felt that interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory prevented isolation of a leader or campus which would inhibit leadership or organizational success. The following described a male secondary principal's outlook on the theory:

> All the factors in the theory influence the type of leader you are and how effective you are going to be remembering that nothing operates in a vacuum and everything is influenced by something else.

The literature supported this belief since the feminine leadership style represents everything inclusionary, participative, and collaborative and seeks to include

rather than isolate (Helgesen, 1990; Shakeshaft, 1986; Rosener, 1990; Brunner, 1997). Those leaders who operate with only one characteristic of the Synergistic Leadership Theory will not be able to relate to their community or their central organization; therefore, by using all four characteristics, one reduces the isolation.

A final theme in the necessity of having all four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory interacting was the finding that most of the leaders interviewed supported the importance of vision. A female superintendent had this to say about how the four characteristics of the theory interacted:

> Your vision is pretty much going to dictate how you operate your organization and how you lead…the way you manage change and external forces again comes back to your attitudes and beliefs which support your vision.

This summed up how the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory constantly interact. From these data, it can be assumed that leadership behaviors will constantly interact with external forces and organizational structure, and thus the factors of the theory were viewed by the participants as interactive.

In answering the first research question concerning male and female responses to the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory, the qualitative data reveal that although there is disagreement between males and females on exactly how the four factors relate and interact, there is unanimous acknowledgement that all four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory are interactive. However, since males and females agreed the four factors were interactive, this validates the Synergistic Leadership Theory as an interactive theory.

Research Question 2

The second research question was: How do female leaders at different levels of management perceive the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory? Differences emerged in the responses from females at different levels of management related to the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. All levels found that the four factors interacted;

however, among the different levels, the females saw different patterns of interaction.

Responses from females in four different management levels, superintendent, assistant superintendent, secondary principal, and elementary principal, to the OLEI and to the telephone interviews indicated four different themes related to how the females viewed various interactions of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. The four themes are: (1) student and campus centered; (2) collaboration with teachers, students, parents, and community leaders; (3) Alignment of district and campus goals; (4) collaboration with campus, district, community, political and special interest groups. These four themes indicated the different viewpoints of each level of management and also related to the following interactions of the four factors from the theory: (1) Interaction between external forces and attitudes, beliefs, and values; (2) Interaction between external forces, leadership behaviors, and attitudes, beliefs, and values; (3) Interaction between external forces, organizational structure, and attitudes, beliefs, and values; (4) Interaction of all four factors. The different viewpoints of all four levels of management as well as the way the females in each level viewed interactions of the factors can also be compared in Table 1 (next page).

Student and Campus Centered. Females who held elementary principalships responded in the telephone interviews and on the OLEI that student and campus-centered concerns were their priorities. The following illustrates the outlooks of two female elementary school principals:

> Do what's best for children first and foremost and we also need to do what's best for our teachers in order to do that. . . I think it's student achievement, student's having success, teachers having a safe environment to teach in, I think that's more important for me. Sometimes I feel a conflict between central office and individual campuses…

Table 1:Perceptions of Female Leaders at Four Levels of Management on Interactions of the Four Factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory

Factors Interacting	Elementary Principal	Secondary Principal	Assistant Superintendent	Superintendent
External Forces Attitudes, Beliefs, Values	Student and Campus Centered			
External Forces Leadership Behaviors Attitudes, Beliefs, Values		Collaboration with Teachers, Students, Parents, and Community Leaders		
External Forces Organizational Structure Attitudes, Beliefs, Values			Alignment of District and Campus Goals	
Interaction of All Four Factors				Collaboration with Campus, District, Community, Political and Special interest Groups

Perhaps due to the tremendous workload required of being a principal or because of the strong instructional focus female leaders usually have, female elementary principals do not have the time to focus on the "big picture" of central office and external forces. This type of behavior relates to Halpin and Winer's (1957) "consideration" and "initiating structure" because they are connected to the respondents' "caring" and "getting the job done." These female elementary principals were more concerned with the interaction of two of the factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory: their attitudes, beliefs, and values of being student and campus centered versus the external forces of an uncaring central office. These female principals demonstrated a more task-oriented leadership style. In the literature on organizational theory, micro organizational behavior,

which focuses on the behaviors of individuals, small groups and their leaders, best described this type of outlook (Robbins, 1990). Additionally, Hurty (1995) noted that female leaders were emotionally committed to the education of children and energetic in engaging teachers and parents in decision making. These emotionally nurturing qualities, which many successful female principals exhibited, caused their focus to stay mainly on student achievement, especially at the elementary level. The female elementary principals were focused on the interaction and tension caused between external forces and attitudes, beliefs, and values caused by the conflict they saw between central office and individual campuses.

Collaboration with teachers, students, parents, and community leaders. Secondary principals expressed concerns with having a buy-in from teachers, students, parents, and community leaders using a site-based philosophy. The following female secondary principals indicated their concerns:

> Everything works well when we have students, teachers, parents, community leaders all working together…. In my current district, I do not see the collaborative effort at the higher level of administration with limited communication…. The expectations are not clear.

These comments indicated a harmonious interaction between external forces, leadership behaviors, and attitudes, beliefs, and values when all stakeholders are interacting. However, tension was caused for this group of secondary principals by the interaction of external forces and attitudes, beliefs, and values when they indicated a concern with an out of touch central office. The literature revealed that females use effective interpersonal skills which are represented in female leaders as a group (Loden, 1985), and these skills were used to include all stakeholders (Smith & Smits, 1994). The secondary principals included more of the Synergistic Leadership Theory factors than the elementary principals by focusing on the external factors of parents and community leaders. These secondary principals also felt that this same inclusionary behavior that they exhibited was not seen at the higher organizational level. These respondents used the same task-oriented leadership style from the Synergistic Leadership

Theory as the elementary principals and were very much like Likert's (1961) production-centered and employee-centered leader. Although the literature did indicate that female leaders were collaborative and inclusive (Helgesen, 1990), the secondary principals had not reached their full capacity for collaborative ability if they could not see the importance of bridging the gap between central administration and the campuses. This limited view of the Synergistic Leadership Theory would also represent a micro view for leadership behavior indicating more concern for individuals and small groups than the big picture (Robbins, 1990). The secondary principals were focused on the interaction of three of the factors, although with a limited view, from the Synergistic Leadership Theory: external forces, leadership behaviors, and attitudes, beliefs, and values.

Alignment of district and campus goals. Interview and OLEI data on female assistant superintendents revealed a strong conviction that campus and district visions should be compatible and aligned with each other. The assistant superintendent of a large city school district expressed the following conditions for successful schools:

> Our district is aligned and compatible with the campuses and community…. The external forces become more important in my position. My feeling is that the district and campus vision need to be on the same page.

The literature confirmed this stance with Avila's (1993) studies where female managers were perceived as making information available, facilitating, remaining flexible, networking, inviting others to speak out, and valuing creativity. Additionally, a connection was also seen with Bowers and Seashore's (1966) Four Factor Theory of leadership which is concerned with support, goal emphasis, work facilitation, and interaction facilitation. This concern with compatibility with district, campuses, and community was best illustrated on the model of the Synergistic Leadership Theory where a direct link is seen between organizational structure and leadership behaviors. The organizational structure represented the district goals and the leadership behaviors determine campus goals. Additionally, this assistant superintendent's priorities focused on campus and community being compatible with the district, and the Synergistic Leadership

Theory model also illustrates a link between external forces, leadership behaviors, and organizational structure. The interaction of these three factors indicated a comfortable relationship between campus and district organizations for this assistant superintendent and also validated the assumption of the Synergistic Leadership Theory that positive interactions of factors can allow for a harmonious relationship between leaders and organizations.

Collaboration with campus, district, community, political, and special interest groups. At the superintendent level of management, the respondents expressed a need for a connection of all concerned stakeholders. The female superintendent was very intent on the need to be in touch with what was going on in the community and described the need to have an inclusive vision:

> You've got to have your finger on the pulse of that community and special interest groups for it all to work. My feeling is that the district and campus vision need to be on the same page. I think this (theory) is a valid way of looking at leader and organizational effectiveness…. It just makes sense to look at all four factors.

What we do know from these interview data is that the position of superintendent, at least for females, does complement and describe all four characteristics of the Synergistic Leadership Theory as a way of seeing the big picture in educational leadership.

Using a vision to raise followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of goals and ways of reaching them is the basis of transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990) which is also incorporated into the Synergistic Leadership Theory. This superintendent portrayed a very special person who could connect public sentiment and feeling to district and campus goals and also develop a vision that would connect them all. This, then, is the complete picture of the Synergistic Leadership Theory where all four characteristics are interacting and, in this case, compatible with each other. Whether or not they remain compatible is impossible to predict.

The most obvious difference between the four levels of management was the dividing line between campus principals and central office administration. This was also the dividing line between interactions of factors causing tension and

those factors causing harmony. The superintendent and assistant superintendent were more concerned with keeping a close watch on the big picture of community/external forces while the campus principals were more focused on individual campus concerns and saw a very top/down organizational structure that was not as concerned about the individual child.

This type of behavior described a progression of learning administrative skills and the ability to see the big picture as a female leader while retaining the feminine ability to collaborate and use interpersonal skills to attain a goal through the use of a vision. The different way that the females viewed interactions of the factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory also indicated that the more factors they saw interacting, the more comfortable and harmonious their particular leadership position became.

In answering the second research question, females at four different levels of management viewed the interactions of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory differently in a progressive way. This could be due to the buffering or isolation of certain leadership positions in some organizations that cause the leader to have a micro view of the organization or to be unaware of the demands and requirements of a higher position (Robbins, 1990). The female respondents demonstrated a “big picture” knowledge and the ability to view more interaction of factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory as they progressed from elementary principal to superintendent. The more interacting factors that the participants viewed, the more harmonious their leadership and organizational effectiveness seemed to be. It is possible that females are more socialized to work towards a harmonious outcome (Bem, 1993; Harding, 1991). These findings validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory’s premise that the interaction of the factors can cause harmony or tension for the educational leader.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to validate a feminine-inclusive leadership theory, the Synergistic Leadership Theory, by analyzing the perceptions of male and female educational administrators across the United States through qualitative

research. Respondents commented on an open-ended question of the OLEI. Additionally, telephone interviews were conducted with administrators to determine their perceptions of how the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory interacted and whether they perceived the theory as valid. Respondents often related real life experiences to illustrate how the four factors of the model interacted. The study included 243 subjects (65 superintendents, 67 assistant superintendents, 52 secondary principals, and 57 elementary principals) randomly selected from a computer database compiled by the Market Data Retrieval Company (2000). A demographic breakdown was provided for gender, ethnicity, management level, and years of experience. Additionally, a qualitative sample of 34 was composed of 12 educational leaders chosen from those who did not reply to the OLEI and 22 participants who added comments on the OLEI. This study included two research questions: (1) In what ways do male and female leaders perceive the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory to be interactive? and (2) How do female leaders at different levels of management perceive the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory? The data were obtained from telephone interviews as well as responses to the open-ended questions on the OLEI. Data were categorized, coded, and triangulated to determine male and female perceptions of how the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory interacted and to determine perceptions of female leaders at different levels of management.

The analysis of data from the OLEI and the telephone interviews identified that male and female administrators found interactions between and among the four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory. Five interactions emerged from the coding process of the raw data from the 12 interviews and the 22 open-ended responses on the inventories. These interactions validated the relevance of the Synergistic Leadership Theory for both males and females. These five interactions included:

1. Interactions between external forces and leadership behaviors
2. Interactions between attitudes, beliefs, and values and organizational structure

3. Interaction between attitudes, beliefs, and values and leadership behaviors
4. Interactions between organizational structure and leadership behaviors
5. Interaction of all four factors

The findings for the first research question indicated that, although there was some disagreement between males and females on exactly how the four factors interact, there was unanimous acknowledgement that all four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory were interactive. These findings validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory as an interactive theory and validates that for males the interactions may be different than for females and visa-versa, which is a basic assumption of the theory.

Female leaders in all levels of management which included elementary principals, secondary principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent found that the four factors interacted; however, among the different levels, females from each management level saw different patterns of interaction. Four different patterns of interaction emerged from the qualitative data:

1. Elementary principal: Interaction between external forces and attitudes, beliefs, and values
2. Secondary principal: Interaction between external forces, leadership behaviors, and attitudes, beliefs, and values
3. Assistant superintendent: Interaction between external forces, organizational structure, and attitudes, beliefs, and values
4. Superintendent: Interaction of all four factors

While female leaders at all four levels of management validated the interactions of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory, they also viewed the interactions of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory differently in a progressive way. The female administrators in this study demonstrated a “big picture” knowledge and the ability to view more interaction of factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory as they progressed from elementary principal to superintendent. One finding was that the more interacting the factors, the more

harmonious the leadership and organizational effectiveness. This also validates the Synergistic Leadership Theory's premise that the interaction of the factors can cause harmony or tension for the educational leader.

The data supports the finding that male and female administrators acknowledge a range of male and female leadership behaviors that can be found in the leadership behavior factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. In other words, males and females acknowledge that they used leadership behaviors generally considered to be feminine and masculine. This was an important finding of the study and was unanticipated based on the literature. The same acknowledgement of the validity of the leadership behavior factor is also true of female leaders across a range of different levels of management. Although males and females saw the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory interacting differently, they agreed that all four factors of the theory were interactive. Likewise, female leaders at all levels of management validated the interaction of the four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory. Finally, the data validated the Synergistic Leadership Theory as allowing for a male and female perspective on leadership behaviors and interactions of the four factors in the Synergistic Leadership Theory.

The data obtained in our study validate the Synergistic Leadership Theory. The following statements illustrate this:

- The leadership behavior factor of the Synergistic Leadership Theory acknowledges a range of male and female leadership behaviors suggesting validity for both males and females.
- Male and female leaders confirmed that all four factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory interact in relevant ways.
- Female leaders at different levels find the theory to be relevant. Additionally female leaders validated the assumption of the Synergistic Leadership Theory that females at different levels of management may perceive that the interactions among the factors of the Synergistic Leadership Theory vary.

- The Synergistic Leadership Theory provides inclusive feminine leadership behaviors drawn from research and the female perspective.
- Where previously excluded, females are acknowledged as "contributors" to leadership theory and "knowers or agents" of knowledge.

The best application of the Synergistic Leadership Theory is awareness of the potential results of the interaction of the four factors. It is a systemic approach which describes the nature and interrelatedness of the four factors revealing the tension and harmony within the factors. By making administrators more aware of how their behaviors are affected by external forces, organizational structure, and beliefs and attitudes, these leaders will be better equipped to make decisions and face the challenges posed by a shrinking world where cooperation and collaboration will be essential.

Our study has validated, qualitatively, the Synergistic Leadership Theory, a theory that brings to the forefront the experiences of female leaders. It is the hope of these researchers that the inclusion of this theory in university and school district leadership programs will enlighten and positively impact a future generation of leaders, both female and male. Because of the inclusion of the female as well as male perspective, the Synergistic Leadership Theory has been validated as a gender-inclusive leadership theory.

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Leadership Behavior and Learning Styles: Considerations in Leadership Development

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This study employed a cross-sectional research design to examine the relationship between self-preferred learning styles and leadership styles. The participants of the study were comprised of the population of 288 commissioned officers of the New Jersey State Police. Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) provided the context to examine whether a relationship existed between learning styles and transactional and transformational leadership styles.

Kolb and Kolb's (2005) Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was utilized to identify the self-preferred learning styles of the commissioned officers, while The Leadership Profile (TLP) developed by Rosenbach and Sashkin (2003) was utilized to identify the self-reported leadership styles of the officers. The results of the two instruments were utilized to determine if there was a relationship between the preferred learning styles of the commissioned officers and their self-reported leadership styles.

Analysis of frequency and cross-tabulation tables revealed the assimilating learning style was significantly related to high levels of leadership behavior and characteristics. Contrastingly, the converging learning style was found to be significantly related to low levels of leadership behavior and characteristics.

Key words: Kolb, law enforcement, leadership, learning styles

Over the past few decades, significant research has been conducted in the area of adult learning. Much of this research has focused on the different needs and skills of the adult learner and how the learning styles must be taken into account when developing curriculum for programs of professional development. These programs of professional development comprise a multi-billion dollar industry aimed at improving the abilities of adult learners (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Improving the abilities of these learners has a positive impact on the organizations that employ them.

The confluence of learning styles and leadership styles presents an interesting intersection for scrutinizing the abilities or behaviors of leaders. While attention is often focused on the leadership abilities of a leader, very little attention is directed towards the learning styles of the leader. When scrutinizing the leadership behaviors of organizations' leaders, the lack of

attention focused on the learning styles of the leaders is understandable because the impact of learning styles on the way adults learn to lead is not well explained in the literature (Cook, 2002; Quay, 2003). While the research literature on both learning and leadership is voluminous, there is only limited literature linking learning styles and leadership (Gronn, 1997; Brown & Posner, 2001), underscoring the significant gap in the body of knowledge that links learning styles and leadership styles. Our study seeks to contribute to the fields of learning style and leadership behavior by strengthening the depth of inquiry that link these two streams of research together.

Purpose of Research

An increase in the knowledge of how learning styles and leadership styles may be related might contribute to organizations' efforts to train and develop leaders. Kouzes and Posner's (1995) qualitative research on the way leaders learn how to lead supports this premise, especially their data indicating that leaders reported learning to lead through trial and error (or experience), observation, or formal training.

Combined with the recognition of the importance of learning styles within the adult learning literature, leadership development efforts may benefit from research that takes a multi-dimensional view of the learning styles of leaders. The relationship between learning and leadership styles may deserve more attention in future research once it has been defined and measured, ultimately directing future investigations aimed at understanding the larger question of how leaders learn to lead.

The present study introduces recent research into an assessment of the relationship between the learning styles and leadership behavior of commanding officers in the New Jersey State Police. We first provide an overview of the theoretical context that formed the foundation of this study, followed by a discussion of study methodology, summary of the study's findings, and assessment of the implications for theory as it pertains to

learning styles and leadership styles. Finally, we provide recommendations for future practices.

Theoretical Background

Learning Styles

Andragogy is defined as the art and science of helping adults learn. Knowles (1970) coined the term *andragogy* based upon assumptions that focus on the concept of the learner, the learner's orientation to learning, the role of the learner, the learner's readiness for learning, and the learner's motivation to learn. The assumptions are important because andragogy asserts that, unlike children, adults approach learning with an increasing repository of life experiences. These experiences are thought to shape their readiness to learn, which is consistent with what Sternberg and Zhang (2001) found with regard to how adults learn, grow, and develop, and have an influence on their ability to comprehend new ideas. Simply stated, an adults' reservoir of past experiences has an impact on their learning styles.

Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory. Kolb's work remains at the forefront of research pertaining to learning style theory, which is itself based upon experiential learning (Pirkle, 1997). Kolb (1971) found that individuals fell into four basic categories or styles of learning, which are affected by personality type, educational specialization, professional career choice, current job role, and current dilemmas. Kolb and Smith (1996) explain that experiential learning theory was named as such due to the important role experience plays in shaping our learning, consistent with Kouzes and Posner's (1995) findings about the role experiences play in how leaders report how they learn to lead.

Learners fall into one of the four quadrants formed as a result of the intersection of two continua. According to Kolb and Smith (1996), these quadrants, or learners, are referred to as divergers, assimilators, convergers, and accommodators. The divergers are described as individuals who perceive information concretely and process it reflectively, generally

possessing imaginative abilities. Assimilators perceive information abstractly and process it reflectively, allowing them to develop theoretical models to integrate new information into existing knowledge. Convergers perceive information abstractly and process it actively, which allows them to reason well and focus on specific problems. Accommodators perceive information concretely and process this information actively, generally being risk takers who concordantly accumulate new experiences. In addition to these four primary learning styles, the balanced learning style, or balanced learner, utilizes learning skills contained within all four quadrants of the model without reliance on any one primary learning style.

Leadership Behavior

Leadership is perhaps one of the most diversely defined concepts in today's lexicon. Perhaps the reason for the differing definitions of leadership is the different perspectives from which the leadership construct is viewed. Discussing attempts to define leadership, Karmel (1978) stated that in order for a definition to be deemed "good" it must take into account the findings of theory and research supporting other definitions of leadership. Throughout most of the twentieth century, leadership research focused on the traits, behaviors, and situational contexts of leaders. It is important, however, to consider the evolution of this research to understand the leadership research that precedes and underlies transactional and transformational leadership theory.

There is considerable research literature on traits and their relationship to leaders. Extensive literature reviews on leaders possessing certain leadership traits were conducted by Stogdill (1948, 1974). The results of Stogdill's studies revealed no clear, specific personality or physical traits that could be associated with leader effectiveness or predicting the success of a future leader.

Bennis (1984) and Bennis and Nanus (1985) utilized a qualitative framework to represent the transformational behavior patterns of successful leaders. Kouzes and Posner (1995) also took a qualitative approach to

examining transformational leadership, eventually developing the quantitative Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) from in-depth interviews, which has been administered to over 60,000 respondents since 1995. As a result of the data collected from the interviews and the LPI, Kouzes and Posner found that people reported learning to lead by way of trial-and-error, observation of others, and formal training or education. Furthermore, Kouzes and Posner cite the importance of the opportunities that experiential learning presents to a developing leader.

When considering the operationalization of any leadership definition or theory and its dependence on the situational context (Campbell, 1977), and when considering that a leadership definition or theory cannot be so narrowly construed as to not take into account the various applicable definitions of leadership supported by other theory and research as suggested by Karmel (1978), transactional and transformational leadership theory emerges as a comprehensive, inclusive, and integrative leadership theory. The Leadership Profile (TLP) similarly emerges as a comprehensive and integrative quantitative assessment instrument that measures transactional and transformational leadership (Rosenbach & Sashkin, 2003). This 360-degree feedback instrument assesses two areas of transactional leadership and eight areas of transformational leadership.

Leadership and Learning

Argyris (1993) found that the learning experiences for participants of leadership development programs should be based upon real-life problems that are difficult, non-routine, and geared towards solving future problems. Vaill (1996) similarly believed learning to lead to be dependent on the level of participant engagement, claiming that learning is directly tied to the experiential learning theory of individuals and the complexity of today's organizations. When discussing successful leaders and "leaderly learning," Vaill states, "…managerial leadership is not learned: managerial leadership is learning. Permanent white water has made learning the preeminent requirement of all managerial leadership, beyond all other characteristics and

requisite competencies" (1996, 126-127). Vaill's discussion emphasizes the different modes of learning that a leader must be capable of utilizing to survive the turbulence and complexity that are commonplace in today's environment.

How leaders learn may have a direct impact on the value of these learning opportunities. In light of Kouzes and Posner (1995) citing the importance of the opportunities that experiential learning presents to a developing leader, different learning styles provide a different lens for each person to view these learning experiences. Lombardo, Bunker, and Webb (1990) assert that people who use a variety of learning tactics will be able to learn from their diverse experiences and be more effective in their organizations. This attitude has been supported by numerous studies to date, particularly the empirical studies by Dalton, Swigert, VanVelsor, Bunker, and Wacholz (1999). Dalton et al. focused on a sample of 279 army captains, finding a modest relationship between learning tactics and self-reported effectiveness along seven dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

Brown and Posner (2001) similarly hypothesized that certain learning tactics and leadership practices might be positively correlated. Utilizing a sample of 312 managers to complete the Learning Tactics Inventory (LTI) and the LPI, Brown and Posner found that certain learning tactics were more closely associated with self-reported leadership behaviors, especially transformational leadership behaviors. Managers who frequently engaged in all four learning tactics (action, thinking, feeling, accessing others) were also more frequently engaged in a greater variety of leadership behaviors ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.001$).

Bandy (2004) similarly utilized the LTI to examine the change in learning tactics based upon the experiences of individuals in their workplace. Results of the analysis were mixed, with virtual workplace experiences affecting some, but not all, learning tactics.

Brown and Posner (2001) concluded that their study represented a starting point for examining the relationship between learning versatility and

leadership behaviors. Furthermore, their review of studies focusing on leadership skills shows that the majority of leadership skills are attained by future leaders during their normal course of living through experiences in their work settings. The research of Bandy (2004) also provides direction for future research regarding the impact of workplace experiences and the ability to change learning styles or learning tactics. Bandy's research is significant when considering the assertion of Kolb and Smith (1996) that a person facing a myriad of new challenges must break free of his or her dominant learning style and begin utilizing the learning skills contained within all four quadrants of the experiential learning model.

A View of the Relationship Between Learning Styles and Leadership Styles in the New Jersey State Police

A recent study investigated whether there is a relationship between the preferred learning styles of commissioned officers in the New Jersey State Police and their self-reported leadership styles. This correlation study (Toms, 2007) utilized the population of 288 active duty commissioned officers (lieutenants, captains, majors, and lieutenant colonels) in the organization who have been managers for a varied number of years and have demonstrated their ability to manage and lead at various lower level supervisory positions within the New Jersey State Police.

A cross-sectional research design was employed in an effort to determine relationships among the variables. The administration of The Leadership Profile (TLP) and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was facilitated via email and the World Wide Web. The participants (n=198), who were primarily lieutenants and captains, male, and over age 44 with at least a bachelor's degree and at least 20 years of experience with the New Jersey State Police, were directed to a specific Web site to complete each of the two instruments. Data from these instruments were tabulated for analysis and hypothesis testing.

Frequency tables and cross-tabulation tables using LSI and TLP data were utilized to examine if there was a relationship between the preferred learning styles of the commissioned officers and their self-reported leadership styles. The instruments also identified the most prevalent learning styles and leadership styles exhibited by the population, which leadership behaviors were most frequently associated with each learning style, and if a leader utilizing a balanced learning style also utilized more leadership styles than leaders who rely on only one dominant learning style. Table 1 provides a summary of the banded TLP scale and subscale scores with the learning styles from the LSI.

Summary Table of Banded Leadership Data and Learning Styles

For the purposes of Table 1 (next page), there were only three instances when a leadership scale or subscale had the same frequency of respondents for both the high and low bands of a particular scale/subscale. In these three instances, the tie is represented as a "T" in the table and is not counted as an "H" (high) or "L" (low) in the Total Frequency row. When considering the data in the Total Frequency row with respect to which leadership behaviors are most frequently associated with each learning style, the following information was found:

- Diverging Learning Style is more frequently associated with high TLP scores;
- Assimilating Learning Style is more frequently associated with high TLP scores;
- Converging Learning Style is more frequently associated with low TLP scores;
- Accommodating Learning Style is more frequently associated with low TLP scores;
- Balanced Learning Style is more frequently associated with low TLP scores.

Table 1

TLP Band	Diverging	Assimilating	Converging	Accommodating	Balanced
Transaction'l Leadership	L	H	L	H	L
Transformat'l Ld. Behv.	H	H	L	T	L
Transformat'l Ld. Char.	H	H	L	L	L
Capable Management	L	H	L	L	L
Reward Equity	L	H	L	L	H
Comm. Leadership	L	H	L	T	L
Credible Leadership	H	H	H	H	H
Caring Leadership	H	H	L	H	H
Creative Leadership	L	H	L	L	L
Confident Leadership	H	H	L	H	L
Follower-Cent. Leadership	H	H	L	L	L
Visionary Leadership	H	T	L	L	L
Principled Leadership	H	H	L	L	L
Total Frequency	H 8-5	H 12-0	L 12-1	L 7-4	L 10-3

The null hypothesis of this study asserts there is no relationship between the preferred learning styles and self-reported leadership styles of commissioned officers in the New Jersey State Police. However, banded leadership data plotted against the five learning styles indicate significant differences between the expected and observed frequency in:

- The assimilating learning style and its associations with both high and low transactional leadership (scale);
- The assimilating learning style and its association with high reward equity (subscale);
- The converging learning style and its associations with both high and low reward equity (subscale), respectively.

Therefore, in response to the research question of this study, the analyses revealed there is in fact a relationship between certain types of self-reported

learning styles of commissioned officers in the New Jersey State Police and their self-reported leadership styles.

Significant Relationships

As reported in Table 1, three different learning styles appear to have some significant relationship to TLP leadership scores.

The assimilating learning style was associated with TLP scores in the high band for every TLP scale and subscale (with the exception of the Visionary Leadership subscale).

The high levels of leadership behavior associated with the assimilating learners directly contrasted with the low levels of leadership behavior associated with the converging learning style. The converging learner was associated with TLP scores in the low band for nearly every TLP scale and subscale, with the exception of the Credible Leadership subscale. It should be noted that the Credible Leadership subscale was the only TLP subscale that was reported most frequently in the high band across every single learning style. Credible leadership, as measured on the TLP, measures the ability to establish trust by taking actions that are consistent over time and with what is said.

The third learning style that appears to have some significant relationship to TLP leadership scores is the balanced learning style. Balanced learners reported utilizing predominantly lower TLP leadership styles. This means that balanced learners consistently had low TLP scores.

Significant Frequencies

Learning Styles. The difference between the expected and observed frequencies of learning styles among the respondents in this study was deemed to be significant. The expected frequencies were based upon the assumption that the learning styles were equally distributed among the respondents. However, this assumption must be contrasted with Kolb and Kolb's (2005) LSI data recorded from individuals (n=110) with an educational specialization in law, the educational specialization choice provided by Kolb

and Kolb closest to the background of the commissioned officers. When comparing this study's data with the data from Kolb and Kolb (2005), the learning styles of this study's respondents are consistent with the Kolb and Kolb LSI data in terms of population prevalence. Therefore, the findings of the present study with respect to respondent learning styles are consistent with prior research utilizing the LSI.

Balanced Learning Style. Another issue in this study, which could be significant, pertains to the balanced learning style. Respondents identified as balanced learners made up approximately 10 percent of lieutenants, approximately 15 percent of captains, and approximately 30 percent of majors. There were no lieutenant colonels identifying themselves as balanced learners, though only four lieutenant colonels participated. While these data could indicate a significant correlation between increasing prevalence of the balanced learning style with commissioned officers' increase in rank, the uneven distribution of officer types (143 lieutenants, 41 captains, 10 majors, and 4 lieutenant colonels) prevents definitive conclusions. This decrease in the number of respondents with increasing rank may mitigate the 20 percent increase in balanced learners from lieutenant to major. However, the increased prevalence of balanced learners in the higher ranks is consistent with the findings of Kolb and Kolb (2006) regarding the experiential learning theory of growth and development, whereby individuals reaching the peak of development within their career or organization begin to express non-dominant skills and styles, manifested as learning styles in the present study. As the commissioned officers reach higher ranks, they might utilize different learning styles, thus yielding the traits of balanced learners.

Implications for Theory

Balanced Learning Style

The idea that the commissioned officers' learning styles, as well as leadership styles, may shift or change during different stages of their professional

development has other support beyond Kolb and Kolb (2006). Vaill (1996) recognized the different modes or types of learning that a leader must be capable of utilizing to survive in changing environments, including the need to utilize different learning styles to take advantage of various learning opportunities. This is similar to the *breakthrough learning* experienced during action learning, which causes participants to challenge their dominant assumptions and learnings (Marquardt, 2004). Such breakthrough learning is consistent with the third and final stage of Kolb's experiential learning model that asserts an individual must break free of a previously dominant learning style and begin utilizing learning skills contained within all four quadrants of Kolb's model (Kolb & Smith, 1996). Sternberg and Zhang's (2001) findings regarding how adult experiences shape their readiness and ability to learn supports the idea that as officers are promoted to the higher ranks within the New Jersey State Police they may become more balanced learners and leaders.

Assimilating and Accommodating Learning Styles

According to Kolb and Kolb (2006), assimilating learners are generally less focused on people, more interested in ideas and abstract concepts, and are effective at understanding a wide array of information. In this study, assimilating learners (the most frequently occurring learning style) scored in the high band of TLP scores for each of the TLP scales and subscales (with the exception of the Visionary Leadership subscale). This conflicts with the LSI assumptions that assimilating learners are generally less focused on people, especially when the assimilating learners in this study scored high in Communications Leadership, Credible Leadership, Caring Leadership, and Follower-Centered Leadership.

The low levels of leadership behavior associated with the converging learners were consistent with respect to the assumptions of Kolb & Kolb (2006) for that learning style, especially with respect to people skills. Their assumptions about converging learners preferring not to deal with social and interpersonal issues are reflected in the results of this study. Converging

learners in this study were associated with TLP scores in the low band for every TLP scale and subscale (with the exception of the Credible Leadership subscale).

Consistent with the literature on learning styles, the lower TLP scores observed for the converging learners in this study should have been more similar to the TLP scores for the assimilating learners of this study. However, the assimilating learner, with its preference for information gathering and information analysis, may need more leadership skills than ever before to be successful, especially in law enforcement. The advent of COMPSTAT type processes in law enforcement (Haberfeld, 2006) that utilize computerized statistics to analyze data and trends and to develop strategies for crime and problem-reduction may need to combine more people-oriented skills to effectuate the strategies emanating from such information analysis. This may help explain why the commissioned officers in the New Jersey State Police who are assimilating learners also scored so high on the people-oriented skills contained within the TLP subscales. As the need for information exponentially grows in the New Jersey State Police and other disciplines, the need for assimilating learners with more people-oriented skills may become more prevalent, possibly shifting the LSI assumptions on assimilating learners.

Recommendations for Practice

The recognition of a relationship between learning styles and leadership styles has an impact on leadership development efforts. While Kouzes and Posner's (1995) qualitative research supported the idea that leaders reported learning how to lead through trial and error (or experience), observation (or role modeling), or formal training, leadership development efforts taking these three modes of *leadership learning* into consideration should also consider the importance of learning style research in the efforts to develop leaders. For example, both the relevant literature and the findings in this study indicate that the people skills of converging learners might be lower than those

desirable for a leader, especially with respect to social and interpersonal issues. Leadership development efforts that provide interpersonal communication skills and training methods including group problem solving may help converging learners develop their non-dominant learning abilities as well as develop the people-centered competencies needed by leaders.

While it is important to take the learning styles into consideration when designing a leadership development program, it is equally important to focus on those leadership styles that are either desirable or need development. For example, in this study the commissioned officers identifying themselves as accommodating, converging, or balanced learners accounted for a combined 58% of the respondents. Each of these learning styles scored in the lower TLP band for both the Visionary Leadership and Principled Leadership subscales. Rosenbach and Sashkin (2003) explain that the Visionary Leadership subscale measures a leader's ability to clearly define a future and deal with the ambiguity and complexity faced by groups and organizations. Their description of the Principled Leadership subscale essentially takes into account the leader's culture-building abilities. If 58 percent of an organization's potential leaders display low levels of visionary leadership and culture-building abilities, a leadership development program may not be able to deliver these competencies alone. Vision and the ability to build culture, which Schein (1993) says is the most important responsibility of leaders, will probably have to come from what Mumford et al. (2000) identify as job assignments with novel, challenging problems; mentoring; formal training; and first-hand experience in solving organization-wide problems. Coincidently, these are some of the very experiences, according to Kolb and Kolb (2006), which offer learners a way to relinquish their dominant learning style to adopt a balanced or adaptive learning style. Thus, such experiences provide an environment whereby both learning and leadership skills can be developed simultaneously.

Recommendations for Future Research

While the confluence of learning styles and leadership styles might be addressed in a parallel manner, more research is needed on how learning styles and leadership styles are actually related. The research conducted by Brown and Posner (2001) found that certain learning tactics, or styles, were more closely associated with the self-reported demonstration of leadership behaviors, especially transformational leadership behaviors. Brown and Posner pointed out that their research represented a starting point for examining the relationship between learning versatility and leadership style. This relationship could be viewed from several different vantage points, such as:

- Examining the effectiveness of leadership development programs that match instructional methods with the differing learning styles of students;
- Identifying individuals for leadership positions based upon learning styles that are more frequently associated with desired leadership styles or behaviors;
- Examining how different styles of learners rate the quality and/or effectiveness of the same leadership development program; or
- Examining how leader effectiveness is related to leaders with different learning styles

In considering any of these perspectives, the effectiveness of either a leader or a leadership development program must be defined. Even when effectiveness is addressed and defined, this study and the Brown and Posner study focused on self-reported data pertaining to preferred learning styles and leadership styles. Future research should consider the use of 360-degree assessments to compute and compare the magnitude of self-other difference scores and categorize individual responses as "in-agreement" or "not in-agreement" with the responses of observers of a study's respondents.

While 360-degree assessment instruments may help further define the

relationship between learning styles and leadership styles, longitudinal studies may also offer a valuable perspective on this relationship. Such studies offer a view of trends in changes of learning styles and leadership styles over time. Whereas a number of theories suggest that both learning styles and leadership styles can change over time and according to situations, a longitudinal study may provide concrete evidence of such a relationship.

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Leadership and the *Ethos* of Performance: The Role of Performative Skills

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Leadership requires a grasp of performative skills accompanied by good character. This article provides examples of these skills exhibited in performances by a variety of leaders with a wide range of ethical stances. It also points to contributions made to the concept of performance from the disciplines of anthropology, cultural studies, management studies, and performative studies. This article calls attention to the need for leaders to be adept in performative skills, to demonstrate authentic performances, and, even more importantly, to ensure that their performances are infused with ethical considerations.

Key words: **ethical leadership, performance skills**

The pursuit of what Aristotle called *ethos*, the ability to persuade accompanied by good character, must be the hallmark of leadership (Aristotle, trans. 1991). Proficiency in performative skills plays a key role in enhancing persuasion. But that is not enough. A leader may possess performative skills and be seen as a formidable persuader, yet lack good character. This article argues that leaders should seek the *ethos* that Aristotle described, combining the performative skills of persuasion with good character. Otherwise, why lead?

Ronald Reagan and Barack Obama provide outstanding example of leaders who display both performative skills and good character. Thanks to his years as an actor and his grasp of the communication possibilities available during his time, Reagan earned the titles “Great Communicator” and “Communicator-in-Chief.” Thanks to his years as a community organizer, his ability to negotiate through persuasion, and his grasp of the demands of the Communication Revolution, Obama earned the title “Master Communicator.”

The possession of performative skills is not a requirement exclusive to political leaders. Leaders in all areas must work at developing those skills. For example, their value in the corporate world was demonstrated in 1982 when a

crisis engulfed Johnson & Johnson over criminal tampering with the Tylenol capsules it produced that resulted in several deaths. On that occasion, Chairman of the Board James R. Burke exhibited performative skills through personal appearances and skilled impression management, coupled with a well-orchestrated publicity campaign. Burke instantly recalled 31 million bottles at a loss of $100 million dollars. His ethical stance showed that his company put people first and product second (Hogue, 2001).

The display of performative skills in the service of deception, however, can lead to unfavorable results. When President George W. Bush appeared, costumed in a flight suit on a stage—the deck of an aircraft carrier, the "Mission Accomplished" banner as backdrop, it was initially seen as a dramatic display of performative skills. However, in time, the deceptive and unethical nature of Bush's effort to portray himself as "Performer-in-Chief" and "Victor" in a war that dragged on for years became apparent and provided ammunition to ridicule the American leader (Commander-in-Chief, 2003).

The machinations of Adolf Hitler dramatically displayed the consequences of a leader possessing the highest level of performative skills yet lacking even a scintilla of the good character required by *ethos*. Riefenstahl's (1935) brilliant staging of Hitler's performances, vividly displayed in the epic film, "Triumph of the Will," provided ample evidence of the effectiveness of Hitler's performative skills. Viewing that classic film and Hitler's skilled performances, few may realize that, ironically, it was a Jewish Czech actor, Erik Jan Hanussen, who tutored Hitler in public speaking and who is widely credited with contributing to Hitler's effectiveness as a hypnotic and spell-binding orator. But Hitler's performative skills served only the cause of infamy.

The disciplines of anthropology, cultural studies, sociology, and performance studies contribute valuable insights applicable to a study on leadership as performance. Performance ethnographer Norman Denzin (2003) sees reality, as it is visually experienced, as "a staged, social production" (69). For Denzin (2003), "We inhabit a performance-based, dramaturgical culture where the dividing line between performance and audiences is blurred and culture itself has

become a dramatic performance" (81). Denzin echoes William Shakespeare's character, Jacques, in *As You Like It:* "All the world's a stage / And all the men and women merely players." The sociologist Erving Goffman (1959) carries Shakespeare's performative observation further through his oft-cited metaphor that social life serves as a theatre where humans live out their roles.

Anthropologist Victor Turner's (1987) statement that "[man is] a performing animal, *Homo performans*" (81), provided a base for the emerging field of performance studies. Introducing his landmark work, *Perform or else: From discipline to performance,* performance theorist Jon McKenzie (2001) states: "Today, as we navigate the crack of millennia, work, play, sex, and even resistance—it's all performance to us" (3).

There is a danger, as management authorities Edward Peck and Helen Dickinson (2009) point out in their recently published work, *Performing Leadership*, that leaders view leadership simply "as a theatrical performance, . . . little more than acting" (83). To meet the challenge of strengthening performative skills of corporate leaders in a non-artificial yet effective manner, Harry L. Davis, Professor of Creative Management at the University of Chicago's Graduate School of Business, has developed an innovative course, "Leadership as Performance Art," for senior managers and taught at the Chicago campus and in 12 other cities here and abroad, including Dubai, London, and Paris, as part of the school's Global Leadership Series. In a series of lessons, Davis has his audience of corporate leaders take on three personas: playwright, director, and actor. As playwrights, they create the framework, infusing it with their vision. As directors, the leaders make this vision happen. As actors, the leaders make the vision accessible to an audience, engaging the audience in an authentic fashion (Chynoweth, 2007). According to press and cable news commentaries, evaluations of this effort appear to have produced highly positive results.

This article has sought to provide an understanding of the tasks facing leaders in enhancing their proficiency in performative skills coupled with ethical stances. Performance theorist Baz Kershaw (2001) warns that, "the powerful have always known the importance of theatricalizing public spaces" (205-206)

and places a grave responsibility on all who attend these "performances" not to be taken in by "spectacle." The question now facing us is, To what extent are we willing to insist that our leaders conform to the dictates of ethically-infused performative leadership?

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A Framework for Electronic Leadership Support Systems

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The purpose of this study is to develop a framework for Leadership Support Systems which can be used to aid in development, implementation, usage, and maintenance of such types of information systems. Existing leadership functions were reviewed from eight areas: business, education, military, not-for-profit, political, recreation and leisure services, spiritual, and sports. Existing components were reviewed from six information systems frameworks: management information systems, decision support systems, group decision support systems, expert systems, office automation systems and executive information systems and mapped to four leadership support functions: making decisions, influencing people, exchanging information, and building relationships. These reviews were then synthesized together to create a theoretical electronic leadership support system framework. The leadership support system (LSS) framework is a model that includes the components and relationships between the components necessary to support leaders.

Key words: framework, Leadership Support Systems, model

> Within the benefit of PC-based platforms, tools for rapid application development, and improved graphical user interfaces the executive information system has evolved into the ”enterprise information system” also called a ”performance measurement system.” The new EIS systems are intended to provide information to a wider range of people in an organization. Bill Gates (Gates, 1999, 17)

As Gates points out, we have seen the application of executive information systems (EIS) technology and strategies evolve into systems used by a wider range of people within a business environment. Soon, we expect to see the application of EIS technology and strategies evolving into systems being used in a wider variety of environments besides just business organizations, and by a wider variety of leaders then just business executives.

Unfortunately, at this point in time, no vehicle exists to aid in the application of these technologies to support general leadership functions. Currently, the user must adapt to the information system. Leaders in non-business environments

must view themselves as executives of the organization and adapt their leadership style to reflect such adaptation if they wish to take advantage of the information system technologies available in an executive information system. This study attempts to address this void. The purpose of this study was to develop a framework for a Leadership Support Systems which can be used to aid in development, implementation, usage, and maintenance of such types of information systems to support leaders of all types.

Literature Review

Leaders exist and operate in a variety of environments using a variety of titles. Depending on the environment and the title, they perform a variety of functions and tasks. However, it is believed that these functions and tasks can be identified across environments and organized together to provide profitable information. This information can be used for developing an information system framework that spans the work of leaders in different environments. Individual information systems can be developed using the framework. In addition, valuable development concepts can be traveled from one leadership domain to others. Table 1 (next page) shows several leadership positions and their operational environment.

Existing Management Support System Frameworks

As information systems research evolves, it is necessary periodically to attempt to model existing practices and theories. It is also necessary to suggest new theories and conceptual models which can be used to further the accumulated knowledge of the discipline. One method that can be used for modeling these accumulations is the development of a framework. A framework allows us to provide a visual representation of conceptual thoughts and ideas. As different types of information systems have evolved in practice, researchers have attempted to structure understanding of these systems to improve standards of practice among users and to enhance and direct research. Frameworks have proven to be popular for organizing thoughts about a type of information system and for inspiring research on how to improve the existing systems. According to

Sprague, Jr. (1980), a development framework is "helpful in organizing a complex subject, identifying the relationships between the parts, and revealing the areas in which further developments will be required." In the past, such frameworks have been developed for:

- Management Information Systems (Gorry & Scott Morton, 1971),
- Decision Support Systems (Sprague, Jr., 1980),
- Group Decision Support Systems (DeSanctis & Gallupe, 1985),
- Expert Systems (Luconi, et al., 1986),
- Office Automation Systems (McLeod, Jr., & Jones, 1987), and
- Executive Information Systems (Watson, et al., 1991).

Table 1:
A Sample of Different Leaders and Leadership Environments

LEADER	ENVIRONMENT
executives	business, for-profit organizations
administrators	not-for-profit organizations
officers	military
politicians	political; public service; government
coaches, athletic directors	sports
educators, principals	classroom, educational settings
pastors, priests, ministers	spiritual; church; ministry
counselors, guides	recreation and leisure services

Each new framework evolved when the application and use of the information systems technology changed to the degree that existing frameworks were inadequate. With the suggestion of a Digital Nervous System (Gates, 1999), it is time to introduce and codify a new information systems type framework which can incorporate ideas across leadership environments. Based on previous work developing frameworks for different types of information systems, it is important that such an effort be made to organize and codify the elements of Leadership Support Systems in a similar manner.

Define Leadership Support System

For discussion purposes, the current working definition of Leadership Support Systems is a computerized system that provides leaders with easy access to internal and external information, communication, and analysis relevant to their critical success factors. While a definition is useful, a richer understanding is provided by describing the characteristics of Leadership Support Systems. The findings of this study will provide descriptions of the characteristics, after they are identified.

In his classic work on theory building, Dubin identified seven features of a good theoretical model (Dubin, 1978). This study focuses on: (1) identifying the characteristics of the first feature, the units whose interactions constitute the subject under examination; (2) identifying the second feature, the laws of interaction among the units identified above; and (3) identifying the boundary of an information system that supports leadership functions. The remaining four features of theoretical model development will be performed in future research which builds on the findings of this study.

In this study, functions of leadership that can be supported by information systems technology will be identified. Components of an information system that can support these leadership functions will be presented. A model for inter-relating these components will be suggested. As seen in previous Management Support System frameworks, a visual model will be created to provide additional understanding regarding development of a leadership support system. From a theory building perspective, the relationships between the units of the model will be established and the characteristics of the relationship identified.

FINDINGS

Functions of Leadership

A total of 55 sources (listed in the Leadership Bibliography) spanning the eight environments for leadership were reviewed for this study. The difficulty of synthesizing the leadership functions across the eight environments is

compounded by the use of different terminologies for similar processes, tasks, skills and functions. To aid in the synthesis, the Integrating Taxonomy of Managerial Behavior (Yukl, 1994) was employed. The functions and tasks of the leaders from each environment were matched to the behaviors outlined in the taxonomy. This allowed for comparison across environments

Table 2 (begins on next page) shows this mapping. Descriptions of the behavioral categories of the taxonomy were reviewed. A review of the descriptions of each function or task resulted in a match to a particular behavior in the taxonomy. The taxonomy was determined to be inclusive enough that no new categories were identified. The terminology as it was presented in the original environmental area was used. This allows similar and complimentary functions and tasks to be viewed together across environments. For example, under Making Decisions, Consulting, the following similar and complementary functions and tasks were identified: command, career counseling, shared goals, staying in touch, personal work, advice, foreseeing the unforeseeable, coaching individuals, community political forces, and using school boards. The performance of these tasks and functions requires similar skills. Much can be gained by examining other environments of leadership besides the environment in which the leader functions. Examining several leadership environments allows the development of an information support system which will better support leaders in their individual environments. Better support can be provided by including features which may be standard in one environment, but have yet to be considered or tried in another environment.

Table 2: Functions of Leadership

	Military	**Recreation & Leisure Services**	**Busi-ness**	**Spiritual**	**Political**	**Not-for-Profit**	**Sports**	**Educa-tion**
Making Decisions								
Planning	Control Goal setting Planning	Planning programs Conver-gence Vision	Design-ing strategy Innovatin g the future Having vision Goal setting	Purpose Vision Thinking Big	Envision-ing goals Agenda setter Vision Strategy	Vision, mission and values statements Defining the mission	Planning Goal-setting	Build and exercise vision Long-term goals Curricular develop-ment
Problem Solving	Control Problem solving	Problem solving Creativity Critical thinking Divergence	Problem solving Creative thinking Critical thinking	Decision making Focus on objectives	Crisis manage-ment Decision making	Effective problem solving	Handling "problem" and "superstar" athletes	Solving problems
Consulting	Command Career Counsel-ing	Shared goals	Staying in touch	Personal work	Advice	Forseeing the unforesee-able	Coaching individuals	Commun ity political forces Using school boards
Delegating	Command Delegating	Delegation	Empower -ing decisions Selecting	Perform-ance manage-ment Delegation	Delegate Trustee Represen-tative	Assigning response-bility	Building independent athletes Using assistants	Empow-ering others
Influencing People								
Motivating & Inspiring	Command Inspiring Use persuasion	Motivating participants Motivation	Orchestr ating change Taking initiative Motivatin g	Inspiring Motivating	Motivating Serving as a symbol Renewing	Fundraisin g; volunteer motivation	Maximizatio n of productivity; outline goals clearly	Using symbols; coaching
Recognizing	Command Initiative Unselfish-ness	Feedback	Giving feedback Recogniz e performa nce	Communic ating self-fulfillment	Not self-serving	Donations and endowmen ts	Frequent feedback	Develop teacher leaders;
Rewarding	Command Structuring reward contingen-cies	Achieve--ment	Promo-ting develop-ment Promo-ting training	Communi-cating self-fulfillment	Affirming of others	Account-ability Desired results	Measure perform-ance; reinforce-ment	Perform-ance appraisal

Managing change	Courage	Change agent Changing direction Changing behavior	Promo-ting change Innova-tion Imple-menting change	Promoting change Wisdom Orderly succession	Courage Renewing	Making change imaginable	Turning an individual, a team, or a season around	Develop-ing a strategy for change
Exchanging Information								
Monitoring	Control Surveil-lance Monitoring the environ-ment	Managing risk Managing difficulties Supervision	Pursuing exce-llence Under-standing Feeling respon-sible	Account-ability	Intelli-gence	Tracking; Authority & control; Anticipat-ing crisis	Situational analysis Control	Monito-ing and assess-ing progress
Clarifying	Communic ations Expression : oral and written Clarity	Listening	Listening Focus on others Interest	Listening Question-ing	Explaining	Appealing to heart and head Defining the market	Teach to the learning process	Articulate District's vision
Informing	Communi-cations Dissemina -ting information .	Being a good communica-tor	Commu-nication Gather-ing Dissemin -ating	Communi-cation Letter writing	Eloquence	Fund-raising	Introducing tactics and techniques	Communi cating effective-ly with various constitu-encies
Building Relation-ships								
Supporting	Believing in Creating climate of supportive ness	Risk-taking Making people feel welcome	Achieving goals Encour-age risk taking Caring	Encouragi ng; Helping Rebuking	Managing	Leading subordin-ates	Emotional affiliation, acceptance, and belonging	Help under-stand learning/ teaching styles; Be there for staff
Developing & Mentoring	Training/ Coaching	Instructional skills	Motiva-ting develop-ment Coaching Training	Leadership develop-ment Mentoring	Intuition	Nurturing character	Correction and re-instruction	Transfer skills and know-ledge

Team Building & Conflict Management	Facilitating teamwork Resolve inter-member conflicts	Managing difficulties Building trust Conflict resolution Creating unity	Building partner-ships Conflict mgmt Team building	Team Develop-ment Consen-sus building Resolving difficulties	Achieving workable unity Conflict resolution Cooper-ation Negotia-ting	Collaborati on Team building Leadership teams	Conflict resolution Team work	Consen-sus building Conflict resolution Learning commu-nity
Networking	Get along well with others	Coordinat-ing Social relations	Bridging cultural differ-ences Network building	Network-ing	Network-ing Coalition building	Collabor-ation	Recruiting talent	Encour-aging others Partici-pating in local, state groups
Representing	Expression : oral Represen-ting the unit	Enthusiasm	Follows well Accepts responsib ility	Ambasssa dor for Christ	Represen-ting the group Affirming values	Fund-raising	Wants to coach Promoting programs Public relations	Commun-icating effective-ly with various constitu-encies

As another example, under Influencing People, Rewarding, the following similar and complementary functions and tasks were identified: command, structuring reward contingencies, achievement, promoting development, promoting training, communicating self-fulfillment, affirming others, accountability, desired results, measure performance, reinforcement, and performance appraisal. Some of these are exactly the same functions or tasks performed in different environments and, thus, are given different names or use different terminology. Others are decidedly different functions or tasks, but are complementary in nature. These functions or tasks may currently be utilized in only one or two environments. The potential advantage of seeing them listed with complementary functions or tasks is that leaders in other environments may find them useful and travel those functions or tasks over into their own environments. They may also review how functions and tasks are performed in other environments to improve performance in their own environment. The Leadership Support System can facilitate this process by

incorporating function and task support from all environments and making that support available to leaders in environments where it may not currently exist.

Components of Information Systems to Support Leadership Functions

A support system for leaders needs to be more comprehensive than previously considered models. Components and features from existing frameworks can be borrowed, but additional new features and components will be required to handle the comprehensive needs of the leader.

The leader will be considered part of the system and will be referred to as the user. The user will need to interact with the technology components of the support system. As with previous models, this interaction will be referred to as the interface. The interface refers to the hardware component of the system. The software component of interaction will be referred to as the dialog manager or subsystem, as with the decision support system models. The need to separate the two was a result of the need to focus on both the physical access to the support system and the cognitive access to the support system. An additional component included from the decision support system model was the model base. This particular feature requires additional enhancement to include more than the traditional statistical, financial, management science, and other quantitative models from the business environment. It must also include models of behavior, personality, demographics, and assumption determination. It must include personnel risk assessment models, divergent and convergent models for decision making and problem solving, and models of psychological and sociological theories of behavior.

From the expert system model, two additional components were included: the inference engine and the knowledge base. The knowledge base is required to keep more than a data base; it must contain the organizational knowledge of importance to the leader. It must include rules for risk management, convergence, divergence, and organizational values and cultural rules of behavior for dealing with diverse peoples. The inference engine must include the ability to help interpret the assumptions that underlie the facts and knowledge being presented. Help understanding rational behavior from different points of

view, trend analysis, and the ability to give priority to the goals and objectives of the organization must be included.

As with many information systems, major components of this system would be the warehouse of internal data and the warehouse of external data. Besides the regular transactional and informational data normally included in these data warehouses, extensive data about personnel would be required. Influencing people and building relationships are major functions performed by leaders. Leaders need the data available to better understand the people they are influencing and the relationships they are building.

The importance of the leader as a communicator can not be overlooked. Often leaders find it best to relate in a personal manner to take advantage of body language, facial expressions, gestures and other non-verbal communication cues. However, depending upon the size of the organization being led, it may not be possible always to communicate in person, so the necessary communication technologies would need to be included in a system to support leaders.

Four new components have been identified which would need to be included in a leadership support system. Environmental scanners would need to be included in this system. Technology to support environmental scanning already exists, and the technology may be in use by the leader, though the technology needs to be an integrated part of the system to insure systematic and continual collection and review of items of interest to the leader. A more specific type of environmental scanner for media collection and digestion would also be required. While some environmental scanning would need to be included in its entirety, these scanners would digest and summarize their scanning to decrease the time required to review the information.

A component to record, store, and be able to explain the relevance of organizational memory information and knowledge would be required. Finally, a component for dependency determination would be required. This component would identify the impact of a decision in one location on elements in another location. It would include the ability to identify which people work well together or

not. It would be able to identify conflicting organizational values in a given situation.

Table 3 shows how these components might be used to support the behaviors identified in Table 2 above.

Table 3. Components (with Examples) of Information Systems to Support Functions of Leadership

	MAKING DECISIONS	INFLUENCING PEOPLE	EXCHANGING INFORMATION	BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS
User	*Trained in decision making	*Trained in interpersonal skills	*Trained to handle information overload	*Trained in interpersonal skills
Interface	*Ready availability	*Motivational design	*Popup boxes w/critical information	*User friendly
Dialog Manager	*Smart prompts	*Reminders to check on critical success factors	*Reminders to check information sources, web sites, blogs, etc.	*Reminders to encourage subordinates
Inference Engine	*Goals/vision filter *Trend analysis	*Rationality filters and identifiers	*Assumption identifiers	*Impacts of decisions on individuals of interest
Knowledge Base	*Risk mgmt rules *Convergence rules *Divergence rules	*Excellence rules *Organizational values rules *Change mgmt rules	*Information overload rules *Information quality rules	*Cultural rules
Model Base	*Forecasting *Visioneering *Divergence tools *Convergence tools	*Personality influence factors *Psychological theories *Performance matrix	*Quality of Info. -complete -accurate -concise -redundant *Assumption frameworks	*Personality profiles *Demographics
Data Warehouse: External Data	*Available consultants *Skill profiles *Experiences	*External benchmarks	*Professional organization data *Industry data	*Friends *Friends of friends
Data Warehouse: Internal Data	*Transaction data *Critical Success Factors	*Private, personal data	*Transaction data	*Employee profiles
Communication Tools	*E-agenda *Format Checker: -Problem statements -Written objectives	*Email feedback *Socialization of change	*Email *Blogs *e-FTP *word processor *spell checker *Grammar checker *Format checker	*Important employee milestone reminders *Personalized question prompter
Environmental Scanners	*Push technology *Overload filters *Fact collection	*Review employee communications for ideas	*Review internal document traffic	*Head hunting for new employees
Media Collection and Digestion	*Organizational coverage *Public sentiment	*Review employee work for achievements	*Mass media communications	*Identify, sort and store information of interest to others
Memory Function with Explanations	*Decision documents w/ explanations *Update consultant capabilities	*Organizational memory of change	*What information was communicated *Why information was communicated	*Conversation and life events storage
Dependency Determination Function	*Compare data with knowledge *Resource availability	*Identifying personal priority conflicts *Identify conflicting values	*Impact of one piece of information on others and on organizational memory	*Works well together *Doesn't work well together

Interrelationships Between the Components

Figure 1 (next page) shows a diagram of components of the suggested Leadership Support System. The user is the center of functionality. The interface of the system allows the user to interact with the dialog manager, the memory function, the inference engine or the dependency determination manager, or some combination of these components. The inference engine handles the decision support system and expert system capabilities, helping to select which models and which knowledge would be most appropriate for dealing with the tasks at hand. The memory function provides storage for decisions and objectives from previously completed tasks. It assigns importance levels to stored knowledge so that it can be easily retrieved at the appropriate time, much like the human brain is able to recall the necessary knowledge to apply to new or similar tasks performed by the individual. The dialog manager handles the enormous volume of data that must be filtered, sorted, and cataloged for application at the right time to the correct tasks. The rules for collection of data for the internal and external data warehouses are determined ahead of time. These rules are periodically reviewed and updated as needed. The dependency determination manager handles risk assessments and inter-relationships between tasks, functions and decisions.

Conclusion

The resulting Leadership Support System framework proposes 12 components. The first is an interface for direct interaction with the leader. The interface manages the memory function, the inference engine, the dialog manager, and the dependency determination manager. The inference engine manages the model base and the knowledge base. The dialog manager manages the data warehouse of internal organizational data and the data warehouse of data that is collected from outside the organization.

Components which serve similar purposes currently exist for many of the proposed parts of the Leadership Support System. The memory function and dependency determination manager are new components and will require additional development before they can be incorporated into a Leadership Support System.

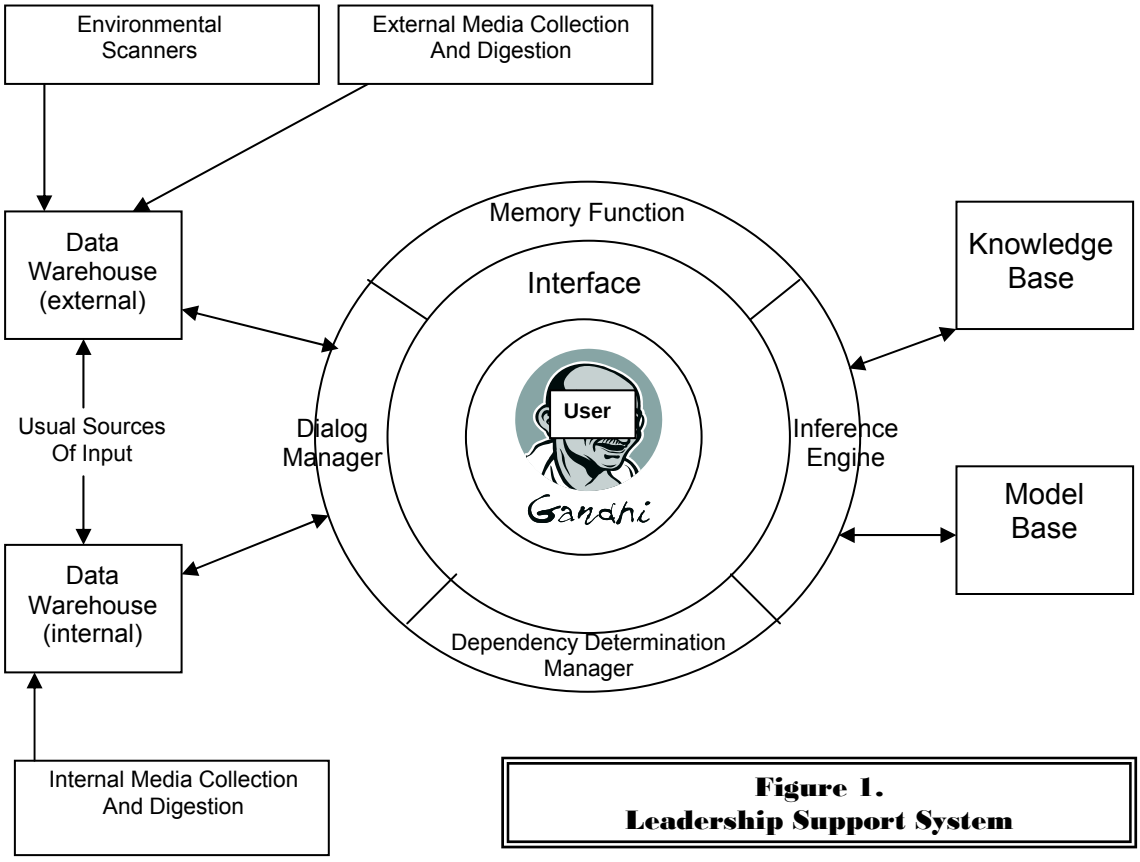

Figure 1.
Leadership Support System

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Examining Research Trends in Management Decision Making: Leadership, Power, and Politics

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Applied management literature is broad in scope, encompassing wide-ranging topics, theories, and concepts. As the study and field of management continues its evolution, so too does the body of knowledge pertaining to organizational theories and management concepts. An examination of articles published from 2002 to 2006 revealed patterns and trends in research focusing on applied decision making, leadership, power, and politics within the field of management. This paper discusses the following keywords and phrases used in the literature review: "decision making," "leadership," "politics," "power and management," and "social power." Additionally, the review focuses on the theme of decision making and observes several emerging research trends in applied management theory.

Key words: decision making, leadership, management, politics, power

Management and organizational theories develop as the field evolves. A perusal of 72 articles published from 2002 to 2006 in seven journals resulted in the identification of emerging patterns and trends in research focused on the areas of decision making, power, and politics within the field of management. The seven journals reviewed included: *Academy of Management Journal, Academy of Management Review, Academy of Management Executive, Harvard Business Review, Administrative Science Quarterly, Organization Science,* and *Strategic Management Journal.* In 2002, there were 14 articles identified; in 2003, 16; in 2004, 17; in 2005, 16; and in 2006, 9.

Key Terms and Patterns

The following keywords and phrases were searched in the literature review: *decision making, leadership, politics, power and management,* and *social power.* This search included articles that were directly related to management in the United States. Key terms/themes that emerged from the literature included "decision making," "politics," "power," and "leadership," and others such as "culture," "diversity," and "team." While conducting the review, I found it notable

that the 2003 and 2004 articles included three articles reprinted from the 1960s and 1970s.

Each year of the review period provided information on the concept of leadership, with 27 articles on the concept posted during the review period. Six articles on leadership were posted in each of the following years: 2002, 2005, and 2006. In most articles, the concept of leadership related to individual leadership of managers or management rather than organizational leadership in the sense of a specific company being an industry leader. Two of the reprinted articles from the 1960s and 1970s were on leadership.

The concept of power produced the next highest number of articles: 19. Each year of the review period produced materials related to this concept. Six articles related to this concept were posted in 2003, five in 2005, and four in 2006. In 2002 and 2004, there were two related articles each year. The concept of power was conceived differently by various researchers. The concept included notions of social power, strategic power, venture capitalist power, micromanagement, and power in negotiations, among others. One of the reprinted articles from the 1960s and 1970s related to power.

The total number of articles related to decision making published during the review period was the next highest, at 15. Articles related to decision making appeared in journals during 2002, 2004, 2005, and 2006. None were posted in 2003. During 2004, there were eight decision making articles published. The year 2002 showed the next highest number of articles on decision making, with five related articles published. One article each was published in 2005 and one in 2006. One of the 15 articles discussed decision making within the context of the individual employee within an organization while the remainder focused more on the organization or on groups. Discussion related to decision making included multiple ideas such as outside expertise, group process, unanimity, and participatory management. Other related ideas included decision making in a global context, the role of emotion in organizational decision making, and factors related to decision making.

Seven articles related to culture and diversity were published in 2004, with a total of 12 articles for the review period. There were no related articles on culture and diversity published in the seven journals in 2003 and 2005, with three articles in 2002 and two in 2004. The concepts of culture included gender, ethnic, and organizational culture as well as national and international cultural issues. A number of articles provided additional discussion on Geert Hofstede's theories associated with culture. Most articles that addressed cultural issues tied the discussion to the concepts of power and leadership.

While *team* and *teamwork* were not keywords in the search, 10 articles during the review period surfaced that were directly related to these concepts. None were published in 2004, four were posted in 2003, and two were printed in journals each year during 2002, 2005, and 2006. Several articles that discussed teams tied the concept to leadership. Other related topics included power centralization, performance, diversity, and multidisciplinary approaches.

Within the seven journals surveyed, only five articles directly corresponding to the concept of organizational politics (in contrast to governmental politics) were published in the review period. A number of articles related to government and politics appeared in the journals. Two articles on organizational politics appeared in 2003, and one article was published each year in 2004, 2005, and 2006. No articles were noted for 2002. The articles on politics discussed:

- Public policy and how a business can influence public policy
- A model of a democratic business organization based upon a model of leadership similar to the ancient city-state of Athens
- Decision making, board politics, and power.

Each article addressed politics from a different theoretical perspective.

Decision Making

Several research trends emerged from the focus on the theme of decision making. The following identified research questions relate to the topic of decision making: What can an organization do to prepare itself to make effective decisions? How can organizations make effective decisions in increasingly

complex environments? What factors influence the (internal staff) acceptance of organizational decisions? The articles published during the review period responded to these or similar research questions. This remainder of this paper will discuss these three questions as they relate to decision making.

What can an organization do to prepare itself to make effective decisions? The two articles that addressed this question approached it from divergent perspectives: one from the viewpoint of the benefit of enhancing staff ability and knowledge, the other focusing upon maintaining status quo. The first article (Maurer, Pierce & Moore, 2002) discussed the efficacy of staff development to increase knowledge and skill, which often results in an organization being prepared to make effective decisions. The other article (Nickerson & Zenger, 2002) posited that organization inertia may be a positive factor in the decision making process.

Maurer et al. (2002) approach decision making, specifically regarding professional development, from the perspective of the employee. A number of organizational theories are cited to provide a background for the discussion. The authors propose that decisions to further one's professional development involve three dimensions as perceived beneficiaries: the person, the supervisor, and the organization. Influencing the decision making process are two internal factors for the individual: self-efficacy and personal values. The authors contend that employees in Western cultures choose professional development options that first provide the individual benefits (such as opportunity for career advancement or advanced degrees) with a secondary emphasis on benefiting the supervisor or the organization. Conversely, in many cases, the organization and the supervisor support and encourage professional growth for the individual even when is does not directly benefit the organization and the supervisor. According to this thinking, an organization usually assists an employee in honing decision making skills, especially if the new information aids the organization in furthering its mission.

Nickerson and Zenger (2002) provide a decision making theory originating from the organization's perspective. Their discussion centers on deciding to make structural changes within an organization, specifically related to the

concepts of centralization and decentralization. The authors hypothesize that organizations fluctuate on a continuum between centralization and decentralization regardless of the external environment. Using Hewlett-Packard and Ford Motor Company in their discussion, they propose that even when key factors such as the environment, management, and marketing strategy are static, an organization changes. They assert that organizational inertia can be beneficial as it may impede premature structural changes within an organization. Deciding to change encompasses numerous considerations, including the need to increase effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the costs of changing, such as upfront monetary costs and transitional productivity loss. To make effective decisions, the authors propose that management be aware that organizations modulate on the centralization-decentralization continuum; that they count the costs associated with changes; and that they consider organizational inertia a key factor.

A major point of this theory is that organizations change their operations and structures even when key factors are stable. This proposes an area for further research: If organizations modulate between discrete structures when a key factor such as the environment is stable, how does an increasingly complex environment influence organizational change and decisions? It appears that decision making in the midst of organizational change within a complex environment would be, at best, extremely complicated. Nickerson and Zenger's (2002) discussion also relates to the second research question: How can organizations make effective decisions in increasingly complex environments? While it focuses upon internal factors and excludes consideration of the external environment, the discussion provides a foundation for understanding intra-organizational dynamics. This understanding can be applied to inter-organizational relations and interactions with complex environments.

Seven additional articles (Anand, Glick & Manz, 2002; Barney, 2004; Daft, 2004; Gavetti & Rivkin, 2005; Kerr, 2004; Spicer, Dunfee & Bailey, 2004; Vaaler & McNamara, 2004) approach the second research question. Spicer et al. (2004) address the national context of an organization and how this influences decision

making in complex environments. Two other articles (Barney, 2004; Daft, 2004) look at transcultural implications of managerial practices. Two articles (Anand et al., 2002; Vaaler & McNamara, 2004) discuss applying information from outsiders in decision making. The remaining two articles that examine decision making in complex environments provide the reader with two approaches to the issue. Gavetti and Rivkin (2005) recommend using analogy as a means of decision making, problem solving, and strategic planning; Kerr (2004) proposes that organizational democracy is a bona fide managerial approach to decision making but has its limits

Spicer et al. (2004) conducted research to gain understanding about how national context may influence ethical decision making. Their research compares similar populations of managers who were U.S. citizens: one group resided in the United States, while the other group consisted of managers assigned to work in Russia. The research demonstrates a significant difference in the approach to ethical decision making between the populations, with emphasis placed on how local norms were incorporated into the decision-making process. The researchers concluded that national and, specifically, local contexts play a significant role in the decision making process.

Barney (2004) and Daft (2004) discuss Theory Z. This theory is the blend of components of Japanese managerial practice adapted to U.S. culture resulting in a hybrid model of managerial theory comprising seven elements. The second element is consensual decision making. This concept connotes typical approaches to atypical situations. In contrast to the typical American approach, where managers are the thinkers and decision-makers, and employees are the doers, this model incorporates a consensus-based decision making practice resulting in increased quality and productivity.

Anand et al. (2002) and Vaaler and McNamara (2004) discussed the concept of organizational social capital and securing information from outside sources, including experts and consultants, and how these practices influence internal decision making practices. Anand et al. provide organizations with a framework to obtain large amounts of information from outside sources by using their

connections with external individuals and organizations. The article presents a variety of methods to gather information and includes guidance on matching the method to the information needed. Cautions include the need to consistently monitor the quality of information provided and being aware of the potential danger in external relationships becoming liabilities. The article concluded with ways to avoid the pitfalls that can arise from using information from external sources.

Vaaler and McNamara (2004) focused on the accuracy or inaccuracy of information provided by external sources, namely experts and consultants, and the resulting influences on decisions made. This group hypothesized and concluded that "expert decision making is vulnerable to distortion due to factors in the experts' industry environment" (Vaaler & McNamara, 2004: 698). Furthermore, they discovered that experts from highly unstable industry environments provide assessments that are subjectively influenced by environmental factors and significantly deviate from objective criteria. In these situations, the expert tends to forecast increasingly negative scenarios. The researchers concluded that gathering information from outside sources is beneficial; however, in their view, in accord with the warnings of Anand et al., it is important for organizations to monitor the veracity of information provided and to make decisions with caution.

Gavetti and Rivkin (2005) provided discussion on applying analogical reasoning to target problems by performing similarity mapping where the decision makers reflect upon former source problems that have similar characteristics to the target problems, then using analogy to generate candidate solutions to address the target problems. Using analogy in decision making, problem solving, and strategic planning goes beyond the process of deduction (whereby general administrative and economic principles are applied to a specific business situation) and beyond the process of trial and error (in which learning takes place after the fact). The authors described ways that analogies fail, including the focusing on superficial rather than deep similarities, and they

provide suggestions on how to avoid superficial analogies. They propose that analogical reasoning is effective in the midst of complexity.

Kerr (2004) discussed the lack of acceptance of the concept organizational democracy in light of a changing political world in which more and more countries embrace the ideologies of democracy. He questioned two common assumptions concerning applying democracy to organizations: political democracy provides a useful framework for organizational democracy, and democratic processes apply to all organizations. He concluded that political democracy provides limited guidance for organizational democracy because the crucial characteristics of political democracy are not supported in organizational settings. While he asserted that the democratic process is useful and effective in limited circumstances, such as in organizational decision making, he further purported that broader application of the democratic process is capable of being implemented only when it significantly contributes to an organization's performance and competitive advantage. In Kerr's view, in complex environments organizations may benefit from applying democratic processes to some aspects of decision making.

Six articles (Barsade, 2002; Brockner, 2002; Hurley, 2006; Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004; Muller, 2004; Romme, 2004) discussed factors that influence the (internal staff) acceptance of decisions. Barsade (2002) and Maitlis and Ozcelik (2004) addressed the role of emotions in organizational decision making. Muller (2004) recognized the need for organizational self-assessment of decision making and other processes. Brockner (2002) approached the research question by exploring the concept of procedural fairness; Romme (2004) explored how the concept of unanimity rule can be applied effectively to organizational decision making. Hurley (2006) addressed the question by proposing a model to develop trust for leaders and for decisions made.

Barsade (2002) presented a model of emotional contagion that examined the transfer of affect resulting in divergent processes in decision making and in group dynamics. The research concluded that the mood of one individual within a group may affect a group's emotional state; however, contrary to expectations, Barsade

asserted that negative emotions are no more contagious than positive emotions. According to this research, positive emotional contagion increases cooperation and perceived task performance and decreases intergroup conflict, while negative emotional contagion has the opposite effect. The research focuses more on the processes of group dynamics and decision making than the outcomes of these; nevertheless, Barsade (2002) concluded that an outcome of the research is that organizations need to be aware that contagion occurs and that potential ramifications exist for decision making and group dynamics. This research concluded that emotional contagion likewise affects the acceptance of organizational decisions.

Maitlis and Ozcelik (2004) asserted that emotions are significant factors that influence the acceptance of decisions. They presented the concept of "toxic decision processes" (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). Toxic decision processes are organizational decision practices that evoke pervasive negative emotions in an organization. The authors presented a three-phase model through which toxic decision-making processes unfold. The three identified phases are inertia (avoidance of the issue), detonation (decisions made and emotions explode), and containment (rationalizing and repressing). They concluded that emotion plays a powerful role in both the organizational decision-making process and staff response to decisions—linking their conclusions to historical research trends of decision making from the perspectives of bounded rationality, policy and procedure, and politics.

The factors of time, story, and organizational culture affect organizational decision making and responses to such. Muller (2004) asserted that unrecognized assumptions affect choices, decision making, and internal responses. The author suggested that if organizational legacy and history are used, they can provide a helpful guide to organizational decision making and the acceptance of decisions. He cautioned that as management makes decisions to respond to external environmental factors, results may undermine organizational culture and generate negative emotions on the part of the staff. Muller (2004) encouraged management to remember that external choices affect internal

operations and that it is important for organizations to evaluate their internal and external approaches to determine if they significantly correspond to the organizational mission and vision, then to communicate effectively within the organization.

Brockner (2002) approached the research question by exploring the concept of procedural fairness in conjunction with outcome favorability. He asserted that these factors interact to influence employees' support for decisions, decision makers, and organizations. While previous research found that employees generally respond more favorably when procedural fairness is high, the author discovered that employees engage in additional activities to make sense of decisions, and they assess their level of personal responsibility in meeting anticipated outcomes. These factors interact to establish levels of individual and group acceptance of organizational decisions.

Romme (2004) found that rule influences the acceptance of organizational decisions. Romme (2004) presented a model using unanimity rule in organizational decision-making processes. While this approach is rarely, if ever, used in organizational decision making, the model appears to be effective in smaller groups and organizations (with membership of 20 or below). The results in these settings included greater acceptance of decisions. Romme found that reaching unanimity in large organizations is cumbersome, time consuming, and difficult to achieve. The author claimed that to use this model in larger organizations, widespread organizational system change is required. His research found that unanimity rule improves staff response to decisions; however, attaining this is a challenging, if achievable, process.

A key factor that influences the acceptance of organizational decisions is trust in the leadership. When trust is high, an organization's internal atmosphere is positive, increasing the potential for positive outcomes. Likewise, the opposite is true: A low level of trust generates a negative internal environment that impedes organizational success. Hurley (2006) proposed a model to develop trust for leaders and for decisions made, and he suggested practical ways to manage trust.

Conclusion

While trends and patterns emerged from the literature review, it is clear that research in the areas of decision making, power, and politics within the field of management continues to proliferate and evolve. Focusing on decision making, at least three research trends are visible from the articles that were reviewed. For the most part, the articles moved beyond the historical research trends of decision making from the perspectives of bounded rationality, policy and procedure, and politics while also touching aspects of these perspectives.

A number of methods, representing the various perspectives of organizational theory, were employed to gather information. Kerr (2004) used observation and historical analysis as a basis for his theorizing; he also used descriptive measures. These methods are reflective of both the classical and modern perspectives of organizational theory. Maitlis and Ozcelik (2004) used ethnographic interviewing, and Nickerson and Zenger (2002) developed narrative case studies, both of which correspond to the symbolic-interpretive perspective. Gavetti and Rivkin (2005) and Hurley (2006) appeared to be approaching the postmodern perspective in that their methods included deconstruction and the critique of theorizing practices. A number of articles relating to organization decision making, power, and politics are available in scholarly journals and text books. The articles reviewed enable researchers to develop a collage of theories and applications, thus moving further toward the postmodern perspective.

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PEDAGOGY

Cultural Influences in French Higher Education

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This paper examines the impact of cultural influences in French education, particularly within its university systems. The interaction between French culture and its impact on organizations and higher education is complex and finding causation is a slippery task. Centralizing education policy is common among many countries with leading business schools. France, however, with its cache of small, prestigious universities known as *Grande Ecoles* is unique and arguably elitist for these schools produce many of its CEOs and prime ministers. The second set of universities, with open admissions, has been long been criticized for insufficient research, lack of quality teaching, and student services. Hofstede's dimensions of national culture (1984) provide a basis to examine the underlying links between French schools, organizations, and culture.

Key words: careers, culture, France, higher education, leadership

Hofstede's research (1984) produced the bold definition of culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of the group or category of people from another." He sees culture as something we learn, which means that it is "not directly accessible to observation but inferable from verbal statements and other behaviors and useful in predicting still other observable and measurable verbal and nonverbal behaviors."

Hofstede (1984) further distinguished cultural systems along four measurable dimensions: (1) individualism vs. collectivism, defined in terms of the individual's interests taking precedence over the interests of the group vs. the interests of the group taking precedence over the interests of the individual; (2) power distance, described as the extent to which there is inequality among people and which those people in the country consider normal; (3) masculinity vs. femininity, seen as assertiveness and competitiveness vs. warmth and collaboration; and (4) uncertainty avoidance, or the degree to which people in a country prefer structured over unstructured situations.

These dimensions are useful for understanding significant factors in education, organization, and careers. Characteristics and patterns can be found,

though it cannot be assumed that these apply to the entire population of a given country. There is variance within each country/culture, and Hofstede's research is intended to provide a general framework to describe that variance.

Undergraduate University Rankings

The interest in university rankings is no longer an Anglo-Saxon obsession. As universities compete more and more for their students, they look more closely at their standings. A list of the top 500 universities in the world as compiled by Chinese researchers at Shanghai Jiao Tong University demonstrates the global appetite for such rankings. While some scoff at the reliability of these studies because of the way they reduce such a complex subject to a number, they seem to encourage intense competition. And one way to increase stature and ranking for a university is to transform itself into a global center of learning and research for both its domestic and international students and faculty. Interestingly, the highest ranking French institution, Université Pierre et Marie Curie, came in at number 42 in the world and provoked the French Senate to issue a report that suggested the rankings were biased towards Anglo-Saxon institutions (Labi, 2008).

The Grande Ecoles

At the graduate programs level, France hosts three top-ranked English language MBA programs—INSEAD, ESCP, and HEC. More broadly, within its undergraduate programs taught in French, France's higher education is organized on a two-tiered system in which 95 percent of the students have access to university education through non-competitive entrance and 5 percent are admitted to preparatory schools, which are tasked with the job of preparing students for the highly competitive exams for the famous Grande Ecoles. These schools will eventually admit less than 1 percent of the total number of university students, but they receive 30 percent of the national university budget. The Grande Ecoles are not part of the rest of the university system and, despite their

tiny size in student body, actually number about 250 in total, as compared to 85 universities.

The Grande Ecoles in France are primarily for students interested in business or science. Students graduating from the Grande Ecoles rarely have to worry about finding a job as most government ministers and company CEOs come from one of the Grande Ecoles. This system of favoring graduates of select universities is detrimental to diversity but has existed for several hundred years and shows no sign of changing in the future (the Ecole de Pont et Chauseés was started in 1747). In fact, one could even call it a special kind of aristocracy in higher education. Carreyrou (2006) wrote of this lack of diversity in admissions and polled French university professors. "ENA has done a lot of harm to the country," says J. M. Fourgous, a member of France's Parliament. "It has produced an elite that is brilliant intellectually but incompetent economically and sociologically cut off from the people." "Enarques have become like the mandarins of Medieval China," says B. Zimmern, an ENA graduate. "ENA is the main obstacle to reform and change in France. It needs to be shut down" (Carreyrou, 2006).

At the end of studies in one of the Grande Ecoles there is a ranking and students choose an Ecole d'Application. Not surprisingly in such a culture as France, the most important jobs go to people with an engineering degree, commonly known as civil servants but in reality members of a Grand Corps. Specializations, such as engineering, resulted from the ancient system in which everyone had a specialization. Many specializations, it should be noted, were not accepted by the traditional university system in France.

University Budgets

Hofstede (2005) finds that most high Power Distance Index (PDI) cultures dedicate more spending to university education than they do for secondary education. O'Brien (2007) finds the contrary and says that expenditures for secondary education in France are actually higher than most other countries, and low for university education as compared to other countries. Although a new

government initiative has helped open up the way schools operate, there are still major areas of education in which decisions are made by a centralized authority. This holds particularly for the areas of hiring, budgets, and salary pay scales.

Currently, professors at French universities are paid according to a 50 percent teaching and 50 percent research ratio (Marshall, 2009a). The new proposal from the French government would give university presidents the authority to decide who would do the teaching and research, and how much of each. The balance of these two activities would also be decided by the university president. This has been achieved in 20 universities so far, with the rest to take place in the next 5 years. Bringing more autonomy to universities has not included the freedom to select students for admission, except in the case of the Grande Ecoles.

Marshall (2009a) suggests that the latest OECD report on French universities should be looked at more closely and used as a model for improvement. The report finds higher education institutions needing more autonomy in financial and personnel matters. The recommendation to increase student tuition fees has been met with much controversy and unrest among students and faculty. Raising university tuition fees has been forecast to cover the rising costs, but there has been no significant change in costs or in the autonomy for universities to decide fees. The OECD report (O'Brien, 2007) sees higher tuition fees as essential to improving the quality of higher education. It says that the fees should be raised gradually and that for those students unable to meet costs, student loans should be made available. Although this could impact some students negatively, the debate continues about whether or not it will be implemented.

University Research

While most of the world has been developing their schools of business and sciences, France has continued to focus on certain areas of unique specialty, such as the School of Mines (Ecole des Mines), School of Bridges and Harbors (Ecole des Ponts et Chausées), and School of Artillery (Ecole Polytechnique). These schools, however, are not depended on for producing research in the way

top universities in the United States are. A small group of other research centers are actually more involved in developing the kind of research that business and government depend on. These organizations are state-sponsored and have specific focuses. Two of the most important research centers, the Centre national de la recherche et scientifique (CNRS) and Institut national de la santé et de la recherche médicale (INSERM), work closely with the Grande Ecoles and as a team on research projects, but they have often been criticized for their bureaucracy and inability to connect to economic realities.

Communication Styles

It is common knowledge that there is a certain dependency in France on large governmental organizations to protect the people from social ills. This situation simply forces people to do things that are designed to help them in the long term. If French taxes are among the highest in Europe, it is because of the high contributions to health care and pension plans. On the other hand, the French can boast of enjoying the world's best health care and a fine pension plan when one retires. The French are protected by an extraordinary number of social benefits that are in place to guard against any sort of unpredictable events. For instance, instead of allowing business owners to make decisions for themselves about having their stores stay open longer, in many cases the French government forbids it. Until recently, no stores and supermarkets were allowed to be open on Sundays, as if storeowners could not be trusted with this decision and needed to be "guided" towards the right way of managing the business.

Edward Hall's study of intercultural differences in communication focuses on context, time, and space (1976). His research suggests that understanding comes not just from the information that is transmitted but also from the context in which it occurs. Some cultures have, comparatively speaking, "richer" contexts for expressing meaning; in these cultures, there is much more non-verbal communication and the links between people are strong. A high level of "implicit" or unspoken communication occurs. The other side of this is the culture in which

communication is more explicit and only valuable when the message is expressed in clear terms. This is the "explicit" culture.

Hofstede (2005) states: "Many things that in collectivist cultures are self-evident must be said explicitly in individualist cultures." In the workplace, as compared to Americans, the French prefer not to be so direct in conversation and will not say things in blunt terms. If contracts and written agreements are considered a serious commitment in France, oral discussions offer opportunity for an escape route and are non-binding. French people tend to create space for multiple interpretations and enjoy reviewing different adaptations to projects. This is part of the well-known Mediterranean preference for maintaining some form of "grey" in transactions and discussions. And while organizational charts and objectives are not clear, with a plethora of rules and regulations, these organizations operate very reliably. After work, the French feel free to choose whether or not to spend time with colleagues, and generally do not like mixing work with their personal life. Thus, having lunch with a colleague is not at all the same as doing dinner with the boss; this would involve using one's free time and it is not appreciated or expected in France.

Time and Space

Hall's (1976) second concept concerning culture, monochronic vs. polychronic, is based on the way people use their time during a specified time period. Despite there being no empirical data available to ground the assertion that French people are polychronic, there is merit to analyzing the implications and the rationale. The French enjoy doing several things at the same time and seem to do it well. If an employee is late to work or to a meeting, he or she can be excused if the reason for being late is based on working to achieve a better result, which contrasts with the time-value-money perspective in the United States, which demands timeliness.

Feeling about interpersonal distance in the United States are displayed in many situations, from home size to the way suburban towns are organized with great distances between the residential areas and areas of commerce. In France,

security is found in being part of a group and, one could argue, was long necessary as a means of defending the land against marauding Romans. Tightly constructed villages were fortified to protect themselves from invading armies. Feudal kingdoms were often constructed in this way for good reason and would not have survived without such a practice.

Leadership

With Hofstede's (1984) four dimensions to assess cultural differences, the findings on the individualism-collectivism dimension are uniquely similar between the United States and France. However, this has different implications in the workplace for Americans, who tend to follow the Protean career path in which the employee is in charge, not the organization, of managing the process towards career success. Douglas T. Hall (1976) first coined the term "Protean" to describe the boundaryless career when he began noticing the shift away from the organizational focus to careers. He saw this as similar to Proteus in Greek mythology, a figure who was able to change form at will in order to adapt to threats that he experienced. The criteria of success in this way of viewing career progress come from intrinsic forms of psychological success and are based on achieving personal goals rather than external factors such as salary or titles. The French, on the other hand, are loyal to the company and are much more sentimental in their relationships with colleagues. It is also conceivable that in the not-too-distant future, as downsizing and buyouts become commonplace, things may change in French culture and corporate relationships.

The Power Distance Index (PDI) for France is notably high (68) and has important implications not only for the way it contrasts starkly with the United States but also because it is higher than any other Western European country. The authoritarian manner in which French managers wield power can be difficult to understand in terms of its success, especially when one considers French CEO Carlos Ghosn, who basically saved Nissan and is now doing the same for Renault. The French workplace, with its high individualism and high power distance, is seen by French sociologist Michel Crozier (1964) as follows:

> Face-to-face dependence relationships are … perceived as difficult to bear in the French cultural setting. Yet the prevailing view of authority is still that of … absolutism…. The two attitudes are contradictory. However, they can be reconciled within a bureaucratic system since impersonal rules and centralization make it possible to reconcile an absolutist conception of authority and the elimination of most direct dependence relationships.

Philippe d'Iribarne takes it one step further, as he finds this element of organizing relationships based on strong authority dating back to before Napoleon and the start of the eighteenth century. According to d'Iribarne (1989), everyone has a rank (and therefore high power distance), described as "the rationale of honor," but the meaning of this rank is not determined by the group but by the traditions. He states this is "not so much what one owes to others as what one owes to oneself." Ironically, this could be called the French version of individualism.

Individual values pertain to areas such as interests and abilities, whereas cultural values pertain to areas that are based on social status, ethnicity, and gender (Leong & Hartung, 2000). Every culture has its own value system, which influences the individual's relationships, time orientation, self-control, and work values. Chope (2006) argues that in many cultures there is much pressure to conform to the expectations of the culture and family, and often the family is the bigger influence of the two. Work ambitions for some may not be as central to others (Chope & Consolis, 2006). Furthermore, Hofstede (2005) argues that the family is our very first "social mental programming"; the influence of such programming is very strong and difficult to change later in life.

In the high power distance country of France, students require and support hierarchy. Attempts to give responsibility to students can backfire and be interpreted as a sign of weakness on the part of the teacher. The educational process in France sees the teacher as the fountain of knowledge and the student as a sieve, as if students are ignorant and need to be set straight on things. The French term for what is known as the "guru" in the US is a *maitre à penser*, a "teacher for thinking." The quality of learning, with this focus on one individual, is rather dependent on the excellence of the teacher.

High power distance countries typically spend more money on university level education and less on secondary schools, and the situation is the opposite for low power distance countries (Hofstede, 2005). The result is obvious as it maintains a certain polarization in the culture between the elites and the uneducated. d'Iribarnes (1989) confirms this view of French authority:

> The often strongly emotional character of hierarchical relationships in France is intriguing. There is an extreme diversity of feelings towards superiors; they may be either adored or despised with equal intensity.

The expectation expressed by such polarization results in differences in the way cultures will handle certain leadership methods. In the United States, Management by Objectives (MBO) is well established and accepted based on the fact that individualist countries, such as the United States, consider high performance an important goal by both the subordinate and the boss (Hofstede, 2005). The fact that in the United States there is a good level of independence between the subordinate and the boss helps them foster dialogue. Comparatively speaking, the United States also has a low Uncertainty Avoidance Index.

And yet France, also high in Individualism, has not accepted MBO (known as DPO in France: *direction par objectifs*). The model was first seen as offering a more democratic model of management, but it was rejected. Franck (1973) saw the problem as basically one that had to do with the entrenched culture in which workers—at all levels, from blue collar to white collar and higher level managers—maintain dependency relations. He writes, "Only the deviants dislike this system. The hierarchical structure protects against anxiety; DPO, however, generates anxiety." Thus, no single management method can be counted on for success in all cultures.

Organizations

INSEAD business school (Fountainbleau, France) professor André Laurent's research on beliefs about organizations in the 1970s revealed much about high Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) countries. Among cultures with high UAI, there is agreement on dislike for ambiguity and desire for precision (Laurent,

1981). This also seems to produce a culture in which specializations are in high demand and there is strong belief in expertise within upper level management. France, itself a high UAI culture, has a multitude of specialized business programs. It may even be said that its culture has spawned a belief in expertise and specializations that suggests the general manager is not capable or does not possess the skills to do the job. France hosts many specialized MBA programs that do not exist in most other countries. The United States, as with most other cultures that have a more accepting culture of UAI, tends to maintain a belief in common sense and in generalists. In fact, these two countries' university systems are organized exactly along those lines; France emphasizes choice of specialization immediately upon entrance to a university, while the United States allows students to take 2 years of general education before making a choice.

There are important trickle-down effects of this process. For example, in the United States, most parents advocate that their son or daughter study whatever suits their passion at university. The implicit belief is that organizations will accept someone with any degree from a good university. Wall Street is even hiring many graduates who have studied the field of History for their skills in analysis, which many people argue are more difficult and time consuming to teach than the skills of understanding and mastering the field of finance.

Career Choice

French parents, emulating what they find in their own culture, consider with great care and emphasis the right choice for a university degree. Since there is less acceptance in France for entering a business career with a degree in literature, parents encourage specialization, starting with the university degree. There are also a good many business programs of a very specialized nature in France, ones that are directly related to its culture, including champagne management, luxury brand management, purchasing, and concierge service management. Schools that offer these programs have strong links to organizations in which students can expect to land, at the least, an internship. Although there are no empirical data available for comparison and it is not unique to have business

programs that are specialized and organized according to the local economy, it is unusual that France offers so many pure business schools. These schools also drive the development towards specialization in business programs, and the specializations offered at some French business schools are growing and changing every year.

And it is not just the business of education; it is more about how French society tends to view education before experience. Contrary to the U.S. model of requiring four to five years of business experience for admission to a good business school, French schools and families believe that education is the first necessity. Educational institutions, not the organization or individuals, are therefore charged with developing young people. Students will enter a specialization immediately after completing an initial three-year undergraduate degree. The French culture, rather than a professional experience or influential individuals, seems to play a larger role in how students make a choice for a business degree.

How students make that choice for a degree may depend in part on how organizations view graduate education. French firms rarely encourage their employees to further their education and, once students are admitted, never participate in tuition sharing programs. In the United States, it is common to find organizations that will support employees attending evening or weekend MBA programs. The result is that, comparatively speaking, France places a heavier emphasis on schools to develop the individual. French organizations are almost suspicious of the employee who desires more education and see the higher qualification as a clear threat. The perception among French organizations is that, with a higher educational qualification, the employee may choose to leave after completing the graduate degree. In this scheme, the benefit is viewed as only for the employee and not the organization. For this reason, organizations prefer not to support employees with either time off or financial assistance to attend graduate business programs.

University Reforms

This greater emphasis in France on choosing a university degree and on career choice with little to no actual professional experience may have some impact on students leaving university. Indeed, there is some recent research within France to support this view. According to OVE, the National Observatory of Student Life, one in five students who enroll in university eventually quit. Until recently, little research in France has been conducted on this question. These latest findings show that the top reason for leaving university is because the student enrolled in the "wrong" course of study (Marshall, 2009b).Determining the exact reason for how this occurred could be difficult to pinpoint, but it is clear that without some previous exposure through coursework, as happens in the U.S. system of university education in the first two years, there will inevitably be some students who are unhappy with their choice. Furthermore, the lack of proper guidance in French high schools about career opportunities and education leaves many students struggling for a method of how to pick a university degree and career.

O'Brien (2007) says university students should be selected rather than having automatic entry guaranteed. Competitive entrance to university, according to the report, would develop competition between the universities to attract the best students. There is also a perception that the lack of selection is partially responsible for how students enter degree programs that are not especially suited for them. Many students start a university degree that is not compatible with their high school background in terms of the courses they have taken and grades they have achieved.

Moving towards selective admissions would mean that both high schools and universities begin to advise students on the best course of studies for them based on their abilities. Unexpectedly, the OECD (O'Brien, 2007) report also recommends that French universities should not allow students to enroll in courses that the university believes they will be unlikely to complete. This would go against most views of student and young adult development. Any information given to a student should be free from bias and should not be offered in a way

that would discourage the student from choosing a profession that is perceived as difficult or filled with challenges (Behren & Altman, 2000).

The reform in higher education as initiated by French President Sarkozy includes guidance for high school graduates with a booklet of statistics on success rates in exams, completion of university degree, further studies, and finding a job (Marshall, 2009a). This has been called the "active guidance" scheme and was initiated at the start of 2009. Universities send prospective students an advisory letter with information on programs in which they would have good chances for success. This seems to be an implicit method of discouraging students from seeking choices that would be far from their background and experiences. In a culture of specialization and expertise, and particularly in France with its high UAI, perhaps this is not surprising.

Conclusions

Given the differences in value patterns from one culture to the next, there are also differences for the professor and the student. Additionally, Hofstede (2005) has written extensively on the impact of power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. These values in the French (and American) cultures can have tremendous impact in the school setting. School administrators and teachers come from different value systems than those of the students and, predictably, problems may arise.

Expectations generated by the educational system differ widely. In the United States, institutions are free to develop the curriculum, set fees, and admit students according to their own policies, while in France the government details the curriculum, decides on fees, and admission is open to all students (except in the Grande Ecoles). U.S. universities regularly ask students to provide feedback on their courses and professors. Such a culture suggests the openness to student feedback and, more importantly, the importance of the student-teacher relationship in which student participation and ideas are valued. Although France is high in individualism, its high PDI rates more important in this area. There is much rote learning, and French students are given little chance to express their

opinions freely in the classroom. The centralized power in French schools means students require and support hierarchy in the classroom. It seems unlikely that this will change.

The role of professional experience and relationships is considered less important than university diplomas from the right business school. Formal education is emphasized in France much more than other western European countries, and a tendency to look towards these programs as a method for selecting job candidates gives the impression that appearances sometimes matter more. On the other hand, in France, a reliance on expertise and knowledge–personal authority–enables the student and manager to focus on daily operations rather than on strategy, as the generalist MBA student in the United States might.

Recommendations

The United States with its Ivy League universities and France with its Grande Ecoles offer education systems that many consider elitist. There are vast differences in the way these schools operate, especially because top U.S. schools are mostly private and French schools are all public. Employers shop at these schools for graduates and cultivate close relationships with the career development office. Access to these schools is open to everyone based on exams, except that U.S. institutions use wider criteria to arrive at their final selections. Selectivity varies, with Harvard at about 7 percent and the Grande Ecoles vary from 9 percent on up to about 20 percent.

For the normal universities in France, if the government does move towards changing its policy of admitting all students to university and demands a hike a tuition fees, this would likely increase competition between students and universities. However, creating more anxiety for students and universities seems to go against the way French management operates. Nonetheless, as the rankings game takes center stage more and more every year, the leap towards competitiveness may eventually become the only way France can keep its

students and universities on par with the other countries that offer world-class education.

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Leadership Education: The *Chak De* Experience

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Movies are powerful art forms that bring abstract concepts to life. This article proposes *Chak De India*, a Hindi movie, to pivot an entire course on leadership for management graduates. The pedagogy comprises dramaturgy, movie, debriefing, fish bowls, and role plays. Students have greatly appreciated this approach to leadership education.

Key words: experiential learning, leadership, movies

Leadership scholars are increasingly emphasizing the role of experience in leadership education (Finan, 2004; Guenthner & Moore, 2005; Kaagan, 2003). Movies can emotionally and intellectually engage people and immerse them in lifelike experiences. Movies have been identified as teaching resources for some time now (Champoux, 1999; English & Steffy, 1997). They can enrich learning in various ways: as a case study, an experience, a metaphor, a meaning provider, and a retrospective visualization tool (Bali & Wickramasinghe, 2007).

Movies are typically used in the constructivist way for classroom purposes. Constructivism assumes that learners construct their own knowledge (Bruner, 1966). Accordingly, learners are allowed to interpret the movie using their prior knowledge and experiences. This is especially important for a course on leadership that must enable learners to apply learned concepts in diverse situations.

The *Chak De* Experience

I teach a course called ”Leadership Excellence in Organizations.” It is an elective course that students take toward the end of their Post Graduate Diploma in Management program. Considering the need to integrate learning

with experience in leadership education (Kolb & Kolb, 2005), the course, in large part, takes the experiential route to learning.

I have found a hugely successful Hindi movie, *Chak De India,* extremely useful for teaching leadership. It was made by the Yash Raj Films, starred Shahrukh Khan, and proved a huge success in 2007. It is the story of a defamed hockey player who salvaged his prestige as the coach of the world champion Indian Women's Hockey Team. The hockey team's journey to success with its coach Kabir Khan (Shahrukh Khan) weaves the leadership magic that spellbinds the audience. This year, the movie has been awarded the national award for the best movie for wholesome entertainment.

The Proposed Pedagogy

Encouraged by the students' appreciation and my own experiences, I suggest a method to optimally utilize the potential of *Chak De India* for teaching leadership. The method integrates different experiential tools such as dramaturgy, movie, debriefing, fish bowls, and role plays to the curriculum. It involves creating intense leadership experiences within a very short span of around three weeks. It assumes that the course is divided into 20 sessions of 90 minutes each in a term spanning around 12 weeks.

The pedagogy demands that the students know basic theoretical concepts of leadership, influence, power, and trust before watching the movie. They should also have an idea about the impact of culture, gender, and hubris on leadership. A conceptual understanding of the topics would give them the prior experience required to interpret the movie. Thus, at least the first five classes should be devoted to these topics.

The *Chak De Experience*, as I call it, begins much before the students actually view the movie. The first half of the movie depicts the hockey players being led by power and influence. Students would be able to empathize with the players if they themselves have experienced such leadership. Considering that students are about two-and-a-half weeks away from viewing the movie, the teacher should use the dramaturgical method to let students

experience the political leadership based on power and influence. The dramaturgical approach to leadership education is considered the most intense experiential learning method available in management and leadership studies (Barbuto, 2006; Leberman & Martin, 2005). It is student-centered and highly effective in creating an appreciation of the topics at hand (Schwandt, 2005). The dramaturgy approach is combined with the movie to take the learning experiences to the next level.

As proposed by Barbuto (2006), the students should be informed about the dramaturgical approach and its usefulness in the first class itself. They should be told that for the next two weeks or so, the teacher will be in the role of an authoritative leader both inside and outside the class. The teacher should appear as authoritative, planned, and structured during this period. The rules for the class should be set, and students must be penalized for violating any one of them. The teacher might appear whimsical about the assignments to include the element of uncertainty that surrounds such leaders. The stratification of students according to their performance should be explicit in the class. The teacher must ruthlessly award performance and punish any present or expected performance deficiency. Sudden assignments on leadership, influence, and power can also be given. The students must be stretched to the extremes to experience the demanding but functional political leadership. The teacher is successful if the students start believing that he or she is actually a highly authoritative, status conscious, demanding person. That sets the stage for the movie.

Based on the available time, the teacher can make a decision on how to use the movie. If time is at premium, the movie can be given to the students for viewing beforehand. In this case, the questionnaire for discussion can be provided in advance. The students should keep the questions in mind while viewing the movie. If the teacher can devote four hours at a stretch, then viewing the movie along with the students would be advisable. I call this the ”Leadership Theater.” Even in this case, the students must get the

questionnaire beforehand. The teacher must continue to be in the role of an authoritarian leader until the debriefing for the first part of the movie is over.

The second part of the movie marks a shift from authoritative leadership to transformational leadership. The students would be able to appreciate this shift if the teacher also shifts his or her style. Before viewing the second half of the movie, the teacher should announce that he or she is getting out of the role of an authoritarian leader and getting into that of a transformational leader. It is not necessary that students know the transformational leadership theories beforehand. They will notice the change anyway.

The teacher should appear highly encouraging and energetic, and tell students that he or she is convinced about their ability to lead people. The students should definitely feel relieved. They should be encouraged to celebrate the shift for a while. I normally order some snacks to encourage celebrations. After that, the second part of the movie can be viewed together. A fruitful debriefing for the full movie takes around 90 minutes.

The Debriefing

The debriefing is divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the pre-intermission movie viewing while the second part focuses on the movie as a whole. The first part is further divided into three parts: preliminary discussions, presentations, and advance discussions.

Preliminary Discussions. This makes use of the fish bowl method of discussion. Students are organized into several groups of five to seven members each. Each group forms two circles with only the inner circle of people having the right to speak. If anyone in the outer circle wants to speak, he or she must tap the speaker in the inner circle to exchange the positions. Each group can take one or two questions to discuss; the allocation must take place just before the debriefing. The discussions continue for 10 minutes on the following questions:

- How does the culture and background of different players influence them? [Scene: Arrival of player]

- What does it take to overcome the lack of cohesion among team members? [Scene: Coaching the players]
- What are the bases of power utilized by Kabir Khan in changing the players?
- What are various influence tactics utilized by Kabir Khan to influence the players?
- What happens during the farewell lunch? [Scene: Farewell lunch]
- Can you see the impact of the Pakistan match incident on Kabir Khan?

Presentations. The teacher asks the students to reconvene and present what they have discussed. The presentations continue for around 10 minutes, with the teacher continually checking the validity of their ideas.

Advance Discussions. The teacher facilitates this using critical thinking questions. This component continues for another 20 minutes.

- Why is it important for new leaders to address people issues first? [Scene: Coaching the players]
- What kind of personal experiences did Vidya and Preeti have? What is the impact of those experiences on them?
- Why is it important for leaders to mean what they say?
- How does Bindiya emerge as the leader of the group? Why does she appeal to the team instead of her usual seniority? [Scene: The dressing room]
- Why does Kabir Khan fail to change the team despite using all the power at his disposal?
- After the hotel brawl, why did players react the way they did? [Scene: Farewell lunch]

After the advance discussions, students can take a five-minute break. Then they should watch the movie until the end. The second debriefing

session immediately follows. It is mediated by the teacher. It lasts for 30 minutes and uses the following questions:

- Why do people often get back to their older ways after doing a wonderful job in training?
- Explain Kabir Khan's leadership from
  - Leader's perspective: Traits, skills and styles
  - Situational perspective: Situational leadership, contingency theory, path-goal theory, and leader substitute theory
  - Follower's perspective: LMX theory
- What does it take to change the way people think in the organization?
- Why does Kabir Khan shun the limelight after the victory to go home? Can you relate it to the Level 5 leadership of Jim Collins?
- Explain the role of meaning in the leadership phenomena.

Sometimes the students are not able to think fast, especially during advanced discussions. Providing them with some cues has worked for me in such situations. Cues generally relate to the scenes of the movie and, at times, to the concepts under discussion.

The Role Play

The teacher takes the discussion on the issue of meaning in leadership to the dressing room speech delivered by Kabir Khan just before the final match. This sets the stage for inviting the student volunteers to play the role of Kabir Khan. Each volunteer is given one minute to deliver the motivational speech. The teacher keeps on asking students to compare their speeches with Kabir Khan. Students normally find problems with their speeches. The teacher keeps on challenging them to put conviction into their words and the exercise

goes on for around 10 minutes. After appreciation and applause, the teacher ends the sessions by asking the students to summarize their learning.

The Follow Up

The movie offers much more to capitalize on in subsequent classes. Students can guess the Myers-Briggs Type Indicators (MBTI) profile of the players in the class on the psychodynamic approach to leadership. They can reflect on the role of profile mismatch in the conflicts among the players. While discussing emotional intelligence, the students can analyze its impact on the first India-Australia hockey match as shown in the movie. While discussing spiritual leadership, students can comment on the spiritual side of Kabir Khan and its possible impact on his leadership. Transformational leadership theories can be introduced by asking students to reflect on the way leadership transformed both Kabir Khan and the players. In brief, the movie can be used to anchor an entire leadership course for management graduates.

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CODA

The Future of Leadership

William Howe

What will leadership be like in the coming decades? This reflective article explores potential changes for tomorrow's world that have been set forth by researchers and thinkers from several fields, including biology, neurology, physics, cosmology, astrophysics, nanotechnology, information science, the philosophy of science, genetics, computer science, psychology, and medicine. Those potential changes—life extension, robots and artificial intelligence, exposure of many long-held assumptions, species intermixing or transformation, virtual reality, entanglement, living outside planet Earth, synchronized brains, telepathy, advanced education/training strategies, multiple dimensions, split identity, social aggregation, empowerment of people around the globe, and extended brain power—are discussed in terms of their implications for leadership. The article concludes by suggesting that in the future leadership and leaders may be unnecessary and extraneous, and that leadership—as word, concept, and practice—may "die" in the years ahead and give way to a new empowered and enlightened mankind.

Key words: entanglement, future, leadership, life extension, robots, telepathy virtual reality

As we hear so often today, leadership is about change—transformation, continuous improvement, restructuring, re-strategizing—and about leading change. We are, as Peter Vaill has reminded us, paddling in permanent whitewater, facing the challenges of constant change and the need to constantly change our organizations and ourselves to adapt and to remain competitive.

But rarely, I must confess, do I encounter discussions of leadership that move beyond the need to address the changes of *today*. Simply addressing the generic need for present-day change in a changing world seems shortsighted to me. What about addressing where the world is going and where it will be in the coming decades? What will leadership look like in a world that is significantly different from the world of 2010? I suggest that leadership—and in fact all organizations and all social life—could look radically different from what it seems to be today.

Back in the mid-1990s I spoke at a conference and outlined some ideas that I thought might help us take the field of leadership studies in new directions. At that time I felt as though the field was rather static and not moving ahead with generation of new theoretical proposals, innovative research, or significantly different practices. I suggested, for example, that researchers push the envelope on the unit of analysis in leadership studies—that is, from teams and organizations, to organizational fields, and even to macro-level entities such as global organizations (for example, the United Nations), nation states, and geographical regions (such as the European Union). I suggested, too, that we look at how non-human species exercise or exhibit leadership, thereby—and given the relatively common genetic makeup of animal life in general—perhaps providing clues that could potentially inform human leadership. In addition, I suggested that we give increased emphasis to how the arts and the humanities can inform the study and practice of leadership. To be honest, my suggestions were met with puzzled and even incredulous stares; it was quite similar, I would say, to what young Marty McFly met with when, in the movie *Back to the Future*, he started playing a fast-paced Chuck Berry rock-and-roll song on an electric guitar a decade or so before rock-and-roll music emerged. My audience just didn't seem to understand my desire to push leadership studies into the coming decades.

But what of the future from 2010? What lies ahead, and how may impending events will change leadership and leadership studies? Rather than suggesting some of my own ideas for future directions, as I did in 1994, let me try to outline some ideas put forth by scholars from several fields—molecular biology, physics, neuroscience, cognitive science, computer science, astrophysics, geophysics, cosmology, nanotechnology, information science, quantum-mechanical engineering, genetics—and then, given those ideas, offer some thoughts along the way about how their implications may change leadership studies, leadership development/education, and leadership practice. Related ideas, I might note, were offered within Margaret Wheatley's *Leadership and the New Science*, though Wheatley was talking primarily about leadership as a phenomenon that

can be situated within the new science, while I am seeking to offer areas of potentially imminent change that may well affect and even transform the way we conceive and practice leadership.

One caveat: The future is highly unpredictable, of course. As Kai Krause, a software pioneer, has argued, “Is it not incredibly obvious that the *real future* has always turned out unimaginably different from *any* of the predictions ever offered?” (Krause, 2010). Nevertheless, I offer the following 15 areas of change that could, according to scholars across a variety of disciplines, *potentially* change our lives dramatically and, in consequence, our conceptions of—and practices of—leadership. These areas of change are broad enough, I believe, to be credible scenarios for the coming decades. More than mere science fiction, they represent changes that we, as leaders or leadership scholars or leadership educators, would do well to envision and to consider. Leadership, of course, is often defined in terms of vision; it is time, I suggest, that we envision the world that is quickly coming toward us from the future in terms of leadership itself.

Areas of Change and Their Potential Impact on Leadership

1. *Life extension:* Researchers within neurobiology, molecular biology, gerontology, and other fields affirm that humans will live increasingly longer lives and, in fact, could potentially live indefinitely once we “defeat” aging as a “disease.” Researchers are confronting aging on numerous fronts—genetics, cellular biology, tissue and whole organ regeneration through stem cells and other means, the enzyme telomerase, significant life extension experiments with the worm *C elegans*, calorie restriction, and so on. Many believe that we will actually be able to “defeat” aging within a few decades. How, then, will we lead populations that are increasingly "older," that will not retire, that may make numerous career shifts and develop numerous new interests over scores or hundreds of years, that may see work in a radically different way, and that may approach truth, beauty, goodness, and other values in ways we don’t yet

understand? Clearly, the implications for leadership of longer lives or of infinite life spans are enormous.

2. *Robots and artificial intelligence:* Many researchers from several fields now argue that robots, supercomputers, entities that are part biological and part robotic, or entities whose identity as either biological or robotic is entirely unclear or indeterminable will be among us soon. Some even suggest that we may be able to download our entire memories and neuronal systems into computers that would, with our input plus their own capacity to learn, far surpass our current levels of human intelligence. How will we lead robotic entities or supercomputers that may be far more capable of understanding and practicing leadership than we are? How will we "empower" biological/robotic entities or entirely robotic entities to exercise leadership? And to extend this line of thought, how might we lead downloaded selves—that is, "people" whose complete memories have been downloaded in silica and who are thereby immortal? Here too, the implications are extraordinary, almost surely putting in question the way we currently conceive leadership.

3. *Exposure of many long-held assumptions:* Physicists, biologists, neuroscientists, cognitive scientists, cosmologists, and others tend to agree that in the coming decades we may have to shed, or at least confront as potentially problematic, many long-held assumptions that, given evidence, will seem increasingly illusory. Such assumptions may include time (particularly as a continuous "flow"), mind, soul, spirit, objectivity, the external empirical world, individuality, consciousness, and an afterlife. Such assumptions have often undergirded some leadership practices and, at a deeper level, the cultural behaviors of some countries. How will we lead if these or similar assumptions are called into question, and how might such questioning affect the ontological, theological, metaphysical, and epistemological attitudes many people, Western and

Eastern, have held for millennia? "This," P.Z. Myers argues, will be our coming challenge: to accommodate a new view of ourselves and our place in the universe that isn't encumbered by falsehoods and trivializing myths. That's going to be our biggest change: a change in who we are" (2010). Nørretranders even suggests that we may discover that reality is entirely in our brains, not outside us, and that to change something—certainly one of the central ways of defining leadership—is to change what is inside us, not what is outside.

4. *Species intermixing or transformation*: If we can transform one species—i.e., *homo sapiens*—into another simply by changing the DNA in our cells, or if we are capable, as many scientists believe we are, of intermixing human and other species, then what will that mean for leadership? My suggestion above that we might learn something about leadership by looking at other species pales in comparison to this notion, entertained by many, of combining or altering species through genetic engineering or other means. What will leadership look like for or among these new species? And how adaptable will leadership have to be if we produce many new human-related species, each one quite different from the other?

5. *Virtual reality:* In the future, many argue, the distinction between physical reality and virtual reality will be blurred or even obliterated. At present, of course, we conceive of leadership as something that is exercised within what we take for granted as our physical reality. Certainly, however, there will be virtual realms that stand alone on their own or are indistinguishable from physical reality. How will we conceive and practice leadership within virtual worlds or within worlds that may or may not be virtual or physical? Will we have virtual leaders and virtual followers perhaps?

6. *Entanglement:* Quantum physics indicates, of course, that particles at great distances from each other (even light years apart!) may be "entangled," meaning that they seem to communicate with each other across the distances or at least to act in accord across the distances. Can larger entities be similarly entangled, or interactive, or mutually charged? If so, what might such entanglement mean for leadership practices? How, for example, might we lead in a world wherein everything may somehow be entangled with everything else? Surely this would take current notions of collaboration, mutual influence, cooperation, and shared decision making to a completely new and far more elaborate level. Csikszentmihalyi (2010) suggests that it is now crucially important "to understand events, objects, and processes in their relationship with one another [rather] than in their singular structure…. It is now time to take synthesis seriously" While that notion is extremely important, it almost seems to pale when seen next to the counterintuitive idea of universal entanglement put forth by quantum physics.

7. *Living outside planet Earth:* Many scientists and futurists believe that we will colonize on another planet during the current century, thus initiating the potential to spread life well beyond Earth. What will leadership look like in these new environments? Will we simply replicate the kinds of leadership we have known on Earth, or will we implement entirely new forms of interaction and leadership?

8. *Synchronized brains:* Some scientists now argue that we need to understand how different brains become synchronized and then put this synchronization to good use. Brains, we believe, may be able to synchronize across huge distances and over time, particularly if, as recent research demonstrates, we can understand and utilize the function of "mirror neurons"—"brain cells that respond to the actions of other individuals as if one were performing them oneself" (Barucha, 2010). We

know much about group dynamics, crowd behavior, empathy, social intelligence, and other related behaviors and attitudes, but new knowledge deriving from these notions of mirror neurons and synchronized brains could help us see leadership in some remarkable new ways. As with entanglement, such knowledge could help us rethink collaboration, mutual interaction, teamwork, and cooperation.

9. *Telepathy:* At present we communicate with one another through language or through non-verbal cues, both of which have been identified for many decades as integrally important to leadership. Many leadership scholars, in fact, have argued that communication—i.e., speaking, writing, listening, reading—may well be *the* key leadership skill and may provide the foundation for all leadership processes. How, then, would we exercise leadership if communication were telepathic—that is, if we could transmit and read each other's thoughts? Powell (2010) suggests that transmitting thoughts is "not terribly far fetched" and "would break down one of the most profound isolations associated with the human condition…. Transmitting specific, conscious thoughts would require elaborate physical implants to make sure the signals go to exactly the right place—but such implants could soon become common anyway as people merge their brains with computer data networks." Powell says he gives "synthetic telepathy" a 70 percent chance of coming about within his lifetime. Obviously, this may raise serious ethical considerations, but the ramifications for leadership practice would be truly astounding, particularly if thought transmission could occur across global dimensions. At the very least, it now seems, we are moving rapidly away from a text-based world into an increasingly audio-based and video-based world, a transition that will send significant ripples through leadership practices.

10. *Advanced education/training strategies:* Many researchers and thinkers argue that our current education/training systems, embedded in centuries

of institutionalized notions of how people learn, are antiquated and anachronistic. Despite new and emerging technologies, we all too often remain wedded to old learning models—lecturing to passive learners, persisting with rows of desks or seats and GPAs that emphasize individual learning and achievement, departmentalized learning and the separation of disciplines into bounded (even protected!) concerns. How will we lead people who *graduate* from these old systems and move on to new systems that are highly interactive, engaging, and relevant because they utilize advanced technological, scientific, and entertainment discoveries? Toby and Cosmides (2010) envision the use of "Hollywood post-production techniques, the compulsively attention-capturing properties of game design, nutritional cognitive enhancement, a growing map of our evolved programs…, an evolutionary psychological approach to entertainment, neuroscience-midwived brain-computer interfaces, rich virtual environments, and 3-D imaging technologies." How will leadership learning—not to mention on-the-job learning—become transformed in such an extraordinary educational/training environment?

11. *Multiple dimensions:* Many quantum physicists argue that the universe is composed of multiple dimensions—perhaps 10 or 11 it seems, rather than the 4 we now take for granted. Indeed, many of those physicists, along with many cosmologists, suggest that there may be multiple universes. What if we were to break through to other dimensions or universes? Though this potential area of change may seem even further afield than others I am offering, it certainly is a major focus of much contemporary physics and cosmology, and for many substantive reasons. How would we lead across multiple dimensions or bring multiple dimensions to bear upon the practice of leadership? What would leadership look like within an as yet unidentified dimension?

12. *Split identity:* It is quite possible, some researchers claim, that we may in coming decades be able to split ourselves so that we exist in our bodies in one location but are able to experience, partially or fully, through robotic interface or other means at another location or at several other locations (see e.g., Lisi, 2010). Geary (2010) suggests that we could see brain-machine interfaces where one "could be lying on a beach on the east coast of Brazil, controlling a robotic device roving on the surface of Mars, and be subjected to both experiences simultaneously, as if … in both places at once." Assuming that leaders and those who "follow" them could participate in such possibilities, who then are the leaders and the led? This might seem to give new meaning to the old idea of the leader-as-individual, particularly if the individual is in himself multiple!

13. *Social aggregation:* We have only scratched the surface of the possibilities of the Internet. One possibility is that we will increasingly look to systems of ranking or rating information, not just to gathering it. Hence the popularity of Google and other search engines, of course. Orrigi (2010) envisions a new "Age of Reputation" wherein, "thanks to the tremendous potential of the social Web in aggregating individual preferences and choices to produce intelligent outcomes," we will be guided by collective cyber judgments. Clearly, such guidance could form a new "substitute for leadership" in which we are led by our collective decisions about information. Clearly too, such guidance could create a problematic situation in which we are dictated to by collectivism and thus lose track of the creative and innovative outliers, almost as though we will have taken marketers' strategies of optimizing via numbers and overlaid that on all information processing. There are, then, some serious ethical considerations with this potential area of change, as there are in several of the others I am presenting, of course.

14. *Empowerment of people around the globe:* Here too, the Internet may be the key. At present there are, by some estimates, about 4 billion of our nearly 7 billion people on Earth who are illiterate, have no access to the Web—not to mention clean water and adequate food, and are not participating in the knowledge revolution (Harari, 2010). Once these 4 billion obtain access to that revolution—and they will in rapidly increasing numbers—how will we lead them? Perhaps a more appropriate question will be: How will they participate in leading themselves and the world? No doubt they will assume awesome power and will demand the kinds of resources enjoyed by the 3 billion who have enjoyed the Earth's resources, often in abundance. Once most people on our planet become part of the social network, our very conception of leadership will almost surely shift dramatically.

15. *Extended brain power:* Though some of the areas noted above already hint at this potential advance, it is worth describing briefly at this point. In the future, some believe, our brains will be able to control machines, tools, and, thus, various production processes. "Neural control," as Schwartz calls it, is already here in the form of prosthetic devices (Schwartz, 2010). But it could become far more powerful in the years ahead, especially if we could manipulate machines and tools at a distance through thought processes. To be sure, the implications for leadership with such a change would be staggering, particularly in terms of leadership as defined, as it often is, in terms of task completion and productivity. Leaders might even become extraneous if everyone could exercise mind control over machines and tools.

Conclusions

Some of the areas of change outlined above may be far closer to us in time than we realize; others may be more remote yet, may not occur within our lifetime, or may not occur at all at any point in the future. Still, they are ideas that have been

offered by some of the most astute, intelligent researchers/thinkers on the planet today, and those researchers/thinkers honestly believe that many of the ideas will become a reality within the next several decades.

Let me try to look across those ideas and present a few conclusions—my personal opinions, I admit, but opinions that are drawn through a consideration of those ideas in the aggregate:

1. In the future, leadership will be conceived and practiced without many of the spatial and temporal boundaries that constrain it today—that is, it will potentially become a phenomenon that moves well beyond the bounds of specific locations (perhaps even of planet Earth) and specific temporal restraints.
2. In the future, leadership may function according to completely new and strangely different metaphysical, ontological, epistemological, and theological assumptions about life, learning, time, space, mind, and other key concepts, with the new assumptions even serving to transform current ideas about who and what man is. Briefly perhaps, the new assumptions may include a purely subjective notion of reality and change, and a far more diffuse notion of what man is as a biological and/or robotic entity, a "real" and/or virtual person, a single and/or multiple being.
3. In the future, leadership may be exercised by robotic entities, by biological-robotic entities, by entities that blur any distinction between biology and robotics, by mixed species entities, or by split human entities that can operate in different places simultaneously, as well as—or perhaps instead of (?)—by humans as we currently know them.
4. In the future, leadership will be increasingly shared, democratic, collaborative, interactive, and characterized by synthesis, with far more of the planet's population participating in leadership processes and activities. Obviously it will move light years away from the old theories of the "great man" or even individual leaders' traits, styles, or behaviors, though elements of those perspectives may continue to have a residual impact.

5. In the future, leadership will focus on the needs of far different populations, for example, on people who are living well past 100 and perhaps indefinitely or as long as they wish, on entities that combine biology and robotics, on robots themselves, and perhaps even on entities that inhabit virtual worlds or places that combine the virtual and the "real." Leadership will be associated with both "real" and virtual contexts, or with contexts that blur distinctions between "real" and virtual. This will certainly give new meaning to theories of contingency or situational leadership.
6. In the future, leadership will be exercised through new forms of communication that move far beyond our centuries old reliance on text. These will increasingly include audio and visual forms and could potentially include telepathy, the use of brains to manipulate distant machines and tools, or as yet unimagined forms.
7. In the future, leadership will be learned through intensive strategies that will make current learning strategies seem ancient. The new strategies will be highly engaging, entertaining, and, through seemingly "real" virtual interaction, relevant to actual practices.
8. In the future (and this may obviate numbers 1 through 7), leadership and leaders may be unnecessary and extraneous. In short, the future, with the potential for genuine sharing and interaction that can be performed with abundant technological assistance, may spell the end of leadership. For much of human history, we seem to have needed leaders and leadership processes to guide our actions and to create change. Soon, however, we may cast aside the very ideas of leaders and leadership and see them as elitist notions that were congruent only with an elitist past in which many people were marginalized and disempowered, in which mankind existed within highly constrained spaces and for limited life spans, in which man was a singular being who could not interact instantaneously with the "real" and various virtual worlds, and in which man lived amidst hierarchies rather than in a vast interconnected web.

For years now scholars or writers have suggested that "leadership is dead," almost in echo of Nietzsche's infamous phrase "God is dead." They have argued that great man leadership is dead, that executive leadership is dead, and even that any conception of leadership as featuring a singular leader is dead. Surely the future will put many nails in the coffin of leadership, particularly since the very present in which we live seems to sense that "leadership"—the word but also the concept and practice—may be outworn, a kind of dinosaur whose hide cannot be stretched to fit a world that is rapidly becoming increasingly democratic, connected, and empowered. Leadership, it seems, cannot live on as a watershed word (+ concept or practice) that continues to *mean* through attempts to resurrect it as "shared leadership," "leader-full teams," "substitutes for leadership," and so on. We may be approaching its funeral, which in itself would perhaps signal the birth of a truly empowered and enlightened mankind.

References

All citations in this article are to selections within a single provocative and compelling text. I highly recommend that text, referenced below, as a guide to thinking about the future.

Brockman, J. (2010). *This will change everything: Ideas that will shape the future.* New York: Harper Perennial. I highly recommend that text as a guide to thinking about the future. In addition, I recommend the following texts for further reflection:

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BOOK REVIEW

***Andrew Carnegie* (2007)**

by David Nasaw

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Reviewed by John M. Berry, South Carolina State University, Orangeburg, South Carolina.

A Case Study in Philanthropic Visionary Leadership That Has Outlasted His Great Steel Empire

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Nasaw begins the journey of his research on Andrew Carnegie with Andrew Carnegie's birth in an upstairs back room of a small "gray stone cottage" in Dunfermline, Scotland. Born to a poor working-class couple, Andrew Carnegie rose to be one of the richest men of his epoch—a story worth chronicling. Nasaw paints a portrait of Carnegie as a master of organizational management who built a steel empire that provided this man from humble beginnings with open access to every power center of his day—palaces, estates, and the U.S. White House. To be sure, the power to walk among presidents and kings speaks volumes about this extraordinary life that was Andrew Carnegie's.

Landing in the United States in 1848 as a member of the great European migration was the beginning of what would become for Carnegie a truly remarkable ascendancy to power and wealth, along with a rather ruthless life. Those who read this rather robust reflection on this renowned American cannot help but marvel at this one human being's sheer will, drive, intellect, vision, and ability to succeed during the embryonic capitalistic industrial age that was the

turn of the twentieth century. Nasaw systematically takes the reader through how Carnegie managed to be a visionary for what the United States would soon be as it stood on the verge of becoming a global power while still struggling to emerge from a Civil War to right itself as a democracy from the evil institution of slavery. It was under these conditions that Andrew Carnegie positioned himself to lead his steel empire.

Andrew Carnegie's achieved power, vision, and strategic philanthropy are the driving focuses for this lengthy book. Nasaw spells out Carnegie's significant philanthropic impact on higher education in the United States as well as his legacy to his land of birth, Scotland.

As Nasaw notes, Andrew Carnegie clearly saw beyond his mortality and set about giving, primarily in the United States, lasting philanthropic gifts to organizations and strategic think tanks that are still having an impact upon our century's perplexing socioeconomic and cultural challenges. These include:

- Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching
- Carnegie Corporation
- Carnegie Council on Ethics and International Affairs
- Carnegie Endowments for International Peace
- Carnegie Institution Science Research Trust
- Carnegie Scottish Universities Trust

Nasaw shows how Carnegie's vision of how philanthropy can empower civilization to address positive change was central to his love of public service. On the other hand, Nasaw also addresses Carnegie's dark side of ruthlessness and ignorance when it came to the thousands of poor laborers who made his wealth possible. This will forever be the paradoxical position of Andrew Carnegie ─a man who was an insightful and kind philanthropist but also believed in winning at all costs when it came to breaking labor strikes within his steel empire.

Nasaw points out that Carnegie amassed enormous wealth even by today's standards. In order to provide the reader with the context in which rich men like

Andrew Carnegie viewed their world, he provides a fascinating look into the Gilded Age of America's robber barons, wherein "men of mighty wealth who roamed the United States and the world … took what they deemed important to their own interests." Men like Carnegie ruled, influenced, and impacted every aspect of the United States society that they deemed worthy of their attention.

Carnegie shared his dynamic vision as to how individuals should handle the awesome burden of wealth attainment which ultimately must lead to philanthropic distribution before a rich person's death. To that end, one cannot do true academic justice to the evaluation of Andrew Carnegie's existence without bringing attention to his most famous primer *The Gospel of Wealth*. Nasaw addresses Carnegie's primer as "a political economy and advice manual for millionaires." In this document Carnegie points out that wealth distribution using philanthropy is a complex subject, particularly since it comes up against the issue of taxes. Carnegie clearly supported the "steepest possible inheritance taxes," reasoning that if a rich man did not give his wealth away during his lifetime taxing the estates heavily at his death condemns him as a selfish millionaire. Carnegie summed up his primer by stating that "the man who dies thus rich dies disgraced."

Carnegie's support of higher education was not uncommon for a man of his station. It was his desire to avoid funding already well-endowed universities like Harvard and Yale and focus instead on small colleges with his investments/donations. Nasaw points this fact out in Carnegie's pattern of grant funding as a prime example of the relationship he established with Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) as well as with numerous small majority colleges and universities across the United States.

Carnegie chose not to fund Atlanta and Fisk Universities, claiming that these institutions' support for the newly freed slave population was beneficial but that he preferred Booker T. Washington's Tuskegee paradigm of Blacks learning technical skills for available jobs. Although progressive in some of his views, Carnegie still was a man of his time in believing that Blacks should not pursue a "classic education," feeling that the Black American masses were sadly not ready

to take their place in society. Booker T. Washington contacted Carnegie in 1890 to solicit funds for Tuskegee and was awarded his first grant from the philanthropist of $20,000 for a library.

In 1906, Washington arranged for Carnegie to visit Tuskegee's campus. According to Nasaw, Carnegie "was very happy" with what he saw while at Tuskegee. He toured the library for which he had donated funds. What impressed him was that Tuskegee students had built the library. All that he saw and experienced while at Tuskegee convinced him to back up his praise of Washington's teaching of the trades to Blacks by awarding $620,000 to Tuskegee and $441,045 for Washington's alma mater, Hampton.

Nasaw documents that Carnegie spoke about Booker T. Washington as one of this nation's geniuses of the twentieth century. Indeed, Carnegie was so taken by Washington that he would often invite him to his 91st Street New York home and introduce him to his friends, who were among the elite class of New York.

Nasaw writes about Carnegie's ability to be a visionary when it came to investing in higher education. Carnegie's boldness is nowhere better reflected than in his support of the higher education system in Scotland. With ideas he received from other Scots, Carnegie created the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland, which was designed differently from his other trust in the United States. The only requirement for a student to attend one of the four universities covered by the Trust was that the student had to be in financial need.

Nasaw's analysis of Carnegie' s trust for Scotland's universities includes a consideration of an initial $10 million in 1901 to start the trust—a fund that Nasaw estimates would be about $5 billion in twenty-first century dollars. Not surprisingly, by 1910 the Carnegie Scottish Universities Trust was covering the tuition for half of the universities included in the trust. This Carnegie investment is still applauded today by many Scots who benefit from the trust.

Nasaw reveals that Carnegie believed so deeply in the "cause of Negro Education and uplift so vitally important to the future of the Nation" that when invited to give a lecture to the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution in 1907 his topic was "The Negro in America." Coming down on the side that slavery was a

"blot" on the "Triumphant Democracy," he believed that Blacks could and would benefit from the support of the northern white philanthropists. This sociocultural and economic transformation would take time, but it would eventually help the Negro population prosper as fully productive citizens of this nation.

Nasaw's analysis of Carnegie's assessment of the Black population in the United States in the early twentieth century was at best unrealistic, however, particularly if one considers the socioeconomic conditions of rural Blacks who at the time were living in the South. Nasaw justifiably points out that Carnegie failed to address the terrorist acts carried out against Blacks in the South by lynching, the new form of slavery (sharecropping), peonage, Jim Crow laws, and the general Black disenfranchisement in Southern society. Carnegie's assessment of the Black race in the United States was that it was "younger" and therefore less developed than the White race. Nevertheless, Nasaw does provide the complexities of Carnegie's thinking on race and race relations in the United States. On the one hand, Carnegie believed that the Black race was not ready to hold the same status as White Americans enjoyed from birth. On the other hand, Carnegie points out that whites and blacks may "remain separate and apart as now or may intermingle." Nasaw documents that Carnegie's "faith" in Blacks' progress caused a backlash from Southern racists who "denounced the iron master as a "despicable creature," "an ass," and a "defamer of the Scotch."

In 1914 President Wilson requested that Carnegie donate funds to Berea College, located in Kentucky. Nasaw reveals the dilemma Carnegie was faced with in such matters, for he was often belittled for supporting of Negro colleges of the day in the South.

Another interest of Andrew Carnegie was public libraries, which provided knowledge to the common man. During his lifetime, Carnegie invested $41 million (valued at $7 billion in today's dollars) for 1,,689 public libraries in the United States.

Carnegie stated he would give away most of his fortune during his lifetime, and according to Nasaw he came extremely close. According to financial documentation, Carnegie gave away "more than $350 million," which would be

equal to billions in today's dollars. Nasaw brings his analysis of this complex and fascinating man to a close by stating that "with this he accomplished the final, and to his mind, most important goal he had set himself." Carnegie bequeathed his beloved wife about $26 million and gave nothing to his daughter who, as he stated on numerous occasions, should not be burdened with wealth.

Nasaw's in-depth analysis of Andrew Carnegie as one of America's most iconic figures reviews Carnegie's ability to reallocate his wealth to build social organizations that addressed complex public issues, including education and world peace. As the book suggests, visionary philanthropy was Carnegie's greatest legacy.