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From the Editor

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Welcome to this ninth issue of the *International Leadership Journal,* an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains five articles, one pedagogy piece, and one book review.

The articles offer some unique perspectives of leadership in businesses and organizations. Ziek and Klenke look at two different aspects of corporate social responsibility (CSR). Ziek evaluates the competency of CEOs' communication of CSR, and whether or not this affects a company's reputation, while Klenke proposes a multi-level theoretical model of CSR based on the constructs of leader integrity, authentic leadership, and ethical work climates.

Davis explores how a hybrid business model—one with both for-profit and nonprofit entities—can increase the efficiency and effectiveness of a startup business. Comini, Vieira, Moreira, and Frei de Sá analyze the role of boards and the impact of their succession plans in Brazilian civil society organizations. Oginde looks at leadership from the other side by examining followers' expectations and most admired qualities of leaders.

The pedagogy piece by Watt et al. uses student outcomes to examine the effectiveness of a curriculum design for leadership development using the Facilitative Social Change Leadership approach.

For the book review, Pat Dipillo takes a look at *Women and Educational Leadership* by Margaret Grogan and Charol Shakeshaft and finds it paints an eye-opening picture of the historical and current status of women education leaders. It also offers a perspective on five women's leadership styles.

Please let us know your thoughts about the articles in the journal and feel free to submit articles for review.

Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora

Editor

ARTICLES

CEO CSR Communication Competency

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Previous research has overlooked how organizational leaders communicate about the organizational programs and strategies related to corporate social responsibility (CSR). This article highlights this unresolved issue and focuses on how CEO communication competency differs between firms that have good and bad CSR reputations. The data show that there is a measurable difference in the frequency of CEO CSR communication. However, content analysis of the instruments of CSR communication does not affirm that there is a difference between how CEOs communicate CSR. From these results, the author cannot unequivocally state that there is an overall difference in the communication competency of company leaders when conveying CSR information. Although there are some interesting patterns detected in CEO CSR communication, they do not correlate to the reputation of the firm.

Key words: CEO communication, communication competency, CSR

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has a long and varied history (Caroll, 1999). However, beginning in the early 1990s, a series of business changes became the impetus for the renewed interest in and adoption of CSR behavior and initiatives (Vogel, 2005). Environmental misbehavior, poor treatment of labor forces, and accounting irregularities seriously damaged the reputation of many organizations. In an attempt to rebound, Evuleocha (2005) explains that companies have turned to CSR "to protect and build their reputation and to manage risk across a diverse set of countries, cultures, and socio-political situations" (334). In fact, countless companies such as Nike, Exxon Mobil, Shell, and General Electric have dedicated enormous resources to improving firm behavior and responsibility toward all stakeholders.

Communication is the key that links CSR and reputation. As Brønn and Vironi (2001) assert, to properly manage reputation, companies must not only adopt CSR as part of its mission, they must also communicate this initiative to stakeholders. Stakeholders actively seek information concerning company policy

on governance, employees, environmental issues, social programs, and community involvement (Dawkins & Lewis, 2003), and it is the duty of the corporation to deliver this information. Indeed, as Aakhus and Ziek (2009) explain, corporations have invented and reinvented a range of strategies and instruments exactly for the purpose of communicating CSR. This includes: advertisements (Wang, 2008), annual reports (Dawkins, 2004), cause-related marketing (Brønn & Vironi, 2001), CSR blogs (Fieseler, Fleck, & Meckel, 2010), CSR Web pages (Coupland, 2005), information technologies such as GDSS— Group Decision Support Systems (Aakhus & Ziek, 2008); and non-financial reports (Segars & Kohut, 2001), to name a few. However, as is evident from the plethora of instruments used, the phenomenon of CSR communication is tenuous and unstructured, and furthermore, research has followed suit (see also Ziek, 2009).

For instance, little research has centered on how organizational leaders communicate CSR. Indeed, as Waldman, Siegel, and Javidan (2006) note, there have been very few studies that focus on how CEOs communicate CSR. This is surprising because the CEO is the spokesperson for the entire company, so communicative behavior largely contributes to the reputation of the company as related to CSR (Ferns, Emelianova, & Sethi, 2008). In other words, CEOs communicate a vast amount of information that influences how external stakeholders perceive the company (Doorley & Garcia, 2010), including "promoting the image of their respective firms through social responsibility" (Waldman et al., 2006, 1704). In an attempt to shed some light on this subject, the focus of this article is examining the role of the CEO in communicating CSR.

Literature Review

Management finds itself in between the interests of all stakeholders with the task of resolving conflicts while safeguarding the corporation (e.g., Clarkson, 1995). CEOs must then coordinate stakeholders to manage their differences with the firm so that reputation does not suffer. They do this by first playing a large role in the adoption and implementation of CSR programs and initiatives (Hemingway &

Maclagan, 2004). They also communicate to stakeholders the changes in the firm's social and environmental behaviors. CEO communication, then, is a tool for mediating the relationships with stakeholders and, consequently, the reputation of the firm. However, as Waldman et al. (2006) maintains, there has been very little systematic theoretical or empirical research analyzing CEO CSR communication and its relationship to reputation. This is not to say that the importance of studying how company leaders communicate CSR is unimportant, it is just that the role of this individual in promoting the reputation of the firm as it relates to CSR is underdeveloped (Godos-Díez, Fernández-Gago, & Martínez-Campillo, 2011). What follows are several articles that illustrate the importance of leadership CSR communication and the reasons why more research is needed about how it relates to reputation.

Genest (2005) provided an early attempt to illustrate the relationship between leadership and communicating CSR. Genest described how executive leadership is taking notice of strategic philanthropy, a term of corporate statesmanship equal to CSR, sustainability, and the triple bottom line. As Genest maintained, philanthropic giving is a response to particular cultural values in a given place and time. Corporate philanthropy, then, can be viewed as an extension of corporate communication or public relations, where a program is a planned strategic activity to meet business strategies. Moreover, corporate philanthropy is used by leaders as "a tool in the communication arsenal positioning the corporation in the competitive marketplace" (316).

Waldman et al. (2006) used the conceptual umbrella of transformational leadership to explore the role of CEOs in determining the extent to which their firms engage in CSR. As they explained, transformational leadership theory is a framework that could represent new possibilities for an understanding of the interplay between neo-charismatic leadership and CSR. After studying data from U.S. and Canadian firms, Waldman et al. found that "while strategic CSR is not significantly correlated with charisma, there is a significant positive correlation between strategic CSR and intellectual stimulation" (1717). And even though charisma was not found to be related to CSR, Waldman et al.'s study did show

that the presentation of the CEO plays a central role in how stakeholders perceive the firm in terms of social responsibility.

Freeman (2006) argued that companies must not "hide or bury the CEO" when communicating CSR because it is a leadership challenge that is too important to be delegated away from executives or the boardroom. To illustrate this point, Freeman used Jeff Immelt of General Electric (GE) as an example of an exceptional leader dedicated to communicating corporate social responsibility. Beyond changing the course of GE by adopting Ecomagination (a $1.5-billion-a-year clean technology research and development commitment), Immelt also moved to increase financial and environmental reporting transparency. Adopting these initiatives enabled Immelt and GE to assume a higher leadership platform within the context of CSR, which resulted in a wave of positive media coverage.

More so than any other organizational leader, there have been countless studies illustrating how instrumental Phil Knight, the chairman and CEO of Nike, was in the company's successful negotiation of the child labor controversy of the late 1990s (Boje & Khan, 2009). Specifically, Knight made numerous speeches and appearances that delivered trustworthy, knowledgeable, and truthful messages about the company and its subcontractors (Nijhof, Forterre, & Jeurissen, 2008). Knight's communication about the changes to the global production process significantly impacted public opinion (Knight & Greenberg, 2002). The company was able to rebound from the controversy to the point where they are now regular inhabitants on *Fortune*'s Most Admired Company list as well as recipients of high scores on Fombrun's Reputation Quotient.

Presupposed in all of these studies is the idea that there is a relationship between CEO communication and CSR reputation. In other words, how well a leader delivers social and environmental information will impact the perceptions of stakeholders. If this is true, then there must be a correlation between CEO communication skills and the CSR reputation of the company. The purpose of this article is to determine if this is indeed the case. To do this, the CEO CSR communication competency is examined between CEOs that lead companies with both good and bad CSR reputations.

Coupland (2005) pointed out that research needs to look at how CSR invokes legitimacy from beyond an organization as well as what communication tools deliver the message of legitimacy. Accordingly, this article will concentrate on CSR communication and its relationship to firm reputation, not the manifestation or implementation of CSR initiatives and behaviors; or, as Campbell (2006) explains, the rhetorical and symbolic behaviors of CSR, not the substantive.

Method

Since the field of business and society is young and the study of the relationship between the two has no widely accepted integrating empirical framework (Jones, 1995), qualitative research is especially suitable. Accordingly, a qualitative approach is taken here to determine both CEO CSR communication competency and its relationship to the CSR reputation of the firm. As Creswell (2003) discussed, when working with qualitative methods, the "researcher makes an interpretation of the data" (182). Therefore, based on the results of the study, the author made a determination of the relationship between CEO CSR communication competency and CSR reputation.

CEO CSR Communication Competency

Ruben's (2006) description of leadership communication competency is the foundation for CEO CSR communication competency. According to Ruben, leaders must exhibit proficiency with a vast number of communication skills so that they can effectively manage both internal and external organizational stakeholders. Some of the more specific and tangible skills described by Ruben are interpersonal and group orientation, listening, attention, question-asking, learning, public speaking, written and visual presentation, and debate. Other competencies that fall within the "major themes to be considered within the broader category of leadership communication" include influence and persuasion, creditability, charisma, and role modeling (Ruben, 2006, 33). The crux of the approach here is to encompass the written, oral, and nonverbal skills that constitute the overall communication competency of the CEO. Therefore, all of Ruben's competencies were considered when determining the exact units of

analysis.

Obviously there are dozens of available tactics and instruments that can be used to communicate CSR. But more specific to the aspect of leadership communication, as Argenti and Forman (2002) explained, the CEO helps build organizational image through a combination of meetings, speeches, and reports. Consequently, the author studied four units of analysis that encompass meetings, speeches, and reports, which, when taken together, are the basis for the CEO CSR communication competency. These units of analysis are CSR appearances, the annual shareholders letter, the annual social report letter, and CSR organizational linkages.

CSR Appearances

As Hackman and Johnson (2004) explained, influence through public address is a key tool that leaders must develop. Ruben (2006) further maintained that "public speaking, presentation skills (verbal and visual), and debate are fundamental communication competencies for any leader" (41). This unit of analysis includes speeches, interviews, and public appearances that involve discussion of company CSR behaviors and initiatives. Studying these types of appearances enables the inclusion of a variety of other competencies closely related to public address and debate. For instance, effective public address helps build influence and persuasion through credibility and charisma. Furthermore, to be successful during interviews, speeches, and public appearances, a leader must also develop listening, attention, question-asking, and learning skills so that they may effectively respond to question-and-answer sessions (Hackman & Johnson, 2004; Ruben, 2006).

Annual Shareholders Letter

Segars and Kohut (2001) explained that the content of the CEO letter is vital to communicating strategic information because it rationalizes corporate events and predicts future performance. As they maintain, "much attention has been devoted to the structure and content of the Chief Executive Officer's (CEO) Letter to shareholders" (535). Thus, if CSR is a company-wide initiative, then the CEO's

letter to shareholders will discuss the impact and importance of such programs. The effective use of the annual letter to shareholders to communicate CSR is directly related to speaking, written and visual presentation, and debate, as well as influence and persuasion.

Annual Social Report Letter

To move toward greater transparency and disclosure of behaviors, numerous companies have committed to producing annual social reports (Frankental, 2001; Haddock-Fraser & Fraser, 2008). Flawed as they may be considered (Schafer, 2005), CSR and sustainability reports are fundamental to how many companies communicate CSR policy and initiatives. As Collison, Cobb, Power, and Stevenson (2008) explained, non-financial reports are used by investors and investment analysts to judge the impact of social and environmental initiatives. For that reason, the CEO letter associated with a non-financial report is important in how CSR is communicated because it reflects management's decisions regarding CSR. This unit of analysis is closely related to the CEO's annual letter to shareholders because it is a skill associated with speaking, written and visual presentation, and debate. However, the difference between the two instruments of communication lies in the fact that the annual social report is thematic and specifically created to relay CSR information.

CSR Organizational Linkages

According to Witherspoon (1997), "organizational leaders also find themselves members of social collectives because of their positions in their own organization; they become links to other groups as a function of their organizational role or position" (41). Organizational linkages or competency in interpersonal and group orientation helps CEOs communicate CSR and subsequently build influence and persuasion regarding company virtue. Moreover, involvement in outside groups speaks to the leader's competency in role modeling as they are "translating talk into action" (Ruben, 2006, 43). According to Ziek (in press), there are two types of CSR-related inter-organizational linkages: private-public, wherein a business forms a coalition with

nongovernmental organizations, and private-only federations, which are composed solely of for-profit enterprise. For example, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is an alliance of for-profit organizations that develops new solutions to issues of sustainable development through dialogues with stakeholders such as shareholders, employees, investors, government development organizations, labor unions, human rights groups, religious groups, and educational and aid foundations (Daboub & Calton, 2002).

Data Collection

To collect data on CEO CSR communication competency, two research methods are used. The first is a nominal approach in which the "researchers simply count the frequency of occurrence" (Wimmer & Domminick, 1994, 173) or, in this case, the frequency of each of the four units of analysis. Although a nominal approach does not allow for meaningful rankings, it will provide a table of how frequently (Norusis, 2005) a CEO transmits CSR-related information using speeches, meetings, and appearances. Frequency of information transmission is an important aspect of CEO communication competency because, as Hackman and Johnson (2004) explained, "increased communication activity, in turn, leads to a number of positive outcomes" (20). In this case, a positive outcome is a firm's good CSR reputation.

The second data collection method is a content analysis of the instruments used by CEOs to communicate CSR. Here, the goal is determine the existence of any discernable patterns of CEO CSR communication within the units of analysis, which will provide an understanding of why some firms have better CSR reputations than others. According to Hackman and Johnson (2004), "leadership effectiveness depends on our willingness to interact with others and on developing effective communication skills" (20). Language is an important aspect of effective leadership communication because as Hackman and Johnson also stated, language can be used to spark emotion and produce memorable and moving communication. Therefore, the phrases and words used by CEOs to communicate CSR can have a significant impact on how a company is perceived.

CSR Reputation

The selection of companies and leaders for this study was an important consideration. The sample must represent companies that have both poor and good CSR reputations. The list of CSR Leaders and Laggards published in *BusinessWeek's* "Special Report: Beyond The Green Company" (Engardio, 2007) is used as the sample. Though there are numerous lists that would serve as good CSR samples, popular magazines such as *Forbes* (Murphy, 2005), *Fortune* 500 (Esrock & Leichty, 1998), and *BusinessWeek* (Dwyer & Whetten, 2006) have been successfully used in several previous CSR studies.

To develop the list of Leaders and Laggards, Engardio (2007) used ratings from the research firm Innovest. As Engardio explained, many experts maintain sustainability factors are good proxies of management quality. Moreover, Engardio asserted that the difference between good and poor ratings is also related to communication. Associated with the Laggards list is the statement: "concentrating on the bottom line makes companies postpone important changes. It can also lead to poor public relations" (53).

In total, the study includes 14 companies. The Laggards list includes Allegheny Energy, Bank of China, General Motors, Nintendo, PetroChina, Surgutneftegaz, and Wal-Mart. The Leaders list includes FPL, ABN Amro, Nissan, Hewlett-Packard, Royal Dutch Shell, Marks and Spencer, and Iberdrola. These companies have also been matched by industry; for example, the utilities industry Leader FPL was chosen to mirror utilities industry Laggard Allegheny Energy.

Coding and Content Analysis

Williams and Monge (2001) explained that when classified in terms of nominal scaling, variables are often called categorical. In this case, the CEO CSR modes of communication located were coded "yes" or "no" depending on the presence or absence of messages relating to social responsibility (Esrock & Leichty, 1998). Additionally, CEO CSR instruments were "examined in order to ascertain patterns of language used" (Coupland, 2005, 358). To do this coding and content analysis, a matrix and detailed notes were kept regarding every CEO and text encountered. For companies that did not include a CEO in the governance

structure, the communication of the highest operational manager was studied. For example, Bank of China's Li Lihui is president and vice chairman, ABN Amro's Rijikman Groenink is chairman of the managing board, Surgutneftegaz's Vladimir L. Bogdanov is president and general director, and PetroChina's Chen Geng is chairman. These executives have operating power so they can implement CSR initiatives (Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004) and are also one of their firm's most visible employees (Argenti & Forman, 2002). Thus, these positions are different in title but close in power to the role of CEO.

Procedure

The Internet is a great source for information and can be used as a CSR research tool (Chapple & Moon, 2005; Esrock & Leichty, 1998). Esrock and Leichty explained that one way in which an organization can communicate its social responsibility is to utilize rapidly expanding computer-mediated-communication networks. More specifically, Coupland (2005) stated that CSR corporate Web pages deliver a framework of argumentation repertories. Therefore, to discover the units of analysis, this study began by searching company Web sites. Where activities and modes of communication were found, entries were made and labeled. For additional information, Google, Dogpile, and Teoma search engines were used to search for the respective CEO CSR communication methods.

Results

Nominal

To determine some basic descriptive statistics, a composite variable was created that is comprised of the sum of all four units of analysis. A CEO composite score can range anywhere from 0 to 4 depending on how many modes they used to communicate CSR. Overall, CEOs in the Leaders group used more modes or channels to communicate CSR, three on average, compared to the average of two channels used by the Laggards. With a mode of 0, the Laggards group contains three CEOs that did not communicate CSR at all. But with the only 4

scored, the Laggards group also contains the only CEO to use all of the modes studied. Four of the seven CEOs studied in the Leaders group use all but one of the artifacts studied to communicate CSR. Finally, every CEO in the Leaders group communicated CSR in some form.

An examination of Leader and Laggard CEOs and coded variable cross-tabulations provides more information on the channels used to communicate CSR. All seven of the Leaders made CSR appearances, whereas only three of the Laggards made speeches, gave interviews, or joined panel discussions concerning CSR (see Table 1 below).

Table 1: CSR Appearances: Leader or Laggard Cross-Tabulation

| | | | Leaders or Laggard | | Total |
			Laggard	Leader	
CSR Appearances	No	Count	4	0	4
		% within Leaders or Laggard	57.1%	.0%	28.6%
	Yes	Count	3	7	10
		% within Leaders or Laggard	42.9%	100.0%	71.4%
Total		Count	7	7	14
		% within Leaders or Laggard	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The Laggards group had more CEOs mention CSR in the annual shareholders letter, four, than the Leaders with two (see Table 2 on next page).

Table 2: Annual Shareholders Letter:
Leader or Laggard Cross-Tabulation

| | | | Leaders or Laggard | | Total |
			Laggard	Leader	
Shareholders Letter	No	Count	3	5	8
		% within Leaders or Laggard	42.9%	71.4%	57.1%
	Yes	Count	4	2	6
		% within Leaders or Laggard	57.1%	28.6%	42.9%
Total		Count	7	7	14
		% within Leaders or Laggard	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Five of the seven Leaders wrote letters to accompany the annual social report letter compared to five of the seven Laggards who did not (see Table 3).

Table 3: Annual Social Report Letter:
Leader or Laggard Cross-Tabulation

| | | | Leaders or Laggard | | Total |
			Laggard	Leader	
Annual Social Report Letter	No	Count	5	2	7
		% within Leaders or Laggard	71.4%	28.6%	50.0%
	Yes	Count	2	5	7
		% within Leaders or Laggard	28.6%	71.4%	50.0%
Total		Count	7	7	14
		% within Leaders or Laggard	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Finally, the Leaders group also contained more CEOs, three, involved with outside CSR groups than the Laggards group did with only two (see Table 4 on next page).

Table 4: CSR Organizational Linkages:
Leader or Laggard Cross-Tabulation

			Leaders or Laggard		Total
			Laggard	Leader	
CSR Organizational Linkages	No	Count	5	4	9
		% within Leaders or Laggard	71.4%	57.1%	64.3%
	Yes	Count	2	3	5
		% within Leaders or Laggard	28.6%	42.9%	35.7%
Total		Count	7	7	14
		% within Leaders or Laggard	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Overall, it can be stated that the Leaders communicated CSR more frequently than the Laggards.

Language

Just as a model of frequency emerged from the nominal portion of the study, a pattern of language surfaced from the content analysis. There were two similar types of statements made by CEOs in both the Leaders and Laggards groups. The first genre of statement asserts that the company will work toward future stringent behaviors and goals. All the Leaders made it clear that they understand that CSR is a future business imperative. The second declaration is an acceptance of wrongdoing and proclamation that past misbehavior will be rectified.

Communicating the importance of future vigilance and improvement is a key message in CEO CSR communication. In Leader Nissan's *2006 CSR Report*, the CEO explained that "sustainability is a key challenge of our time" (Nissan Motor Corporation, 2006). In their *Sustainability Report 2006*, the CEO of Leader ABN Amro asserted that he understands the growing importance of CSR and that "over the next few years we will remain focused" on improving the company

(ABN Amro, 2006). In a message posted on the corporate CSR Web page, the CEO of Laggard Allegheny Energy declared, "I am committed to improve the performance even further as we move into the future" (Allegheny Energy, 2007). And finally, Leader Royal Dutch Shell's CEO stated in a speech for 2007 Youthful Energy for Europe that "there is more to be done" (van der Veer, 2007).

The company leaders studied also acknowledge and accept misbehavior and wrongdoing. For instance, the CEO of Leader Hewlett-Packard asserted in their *2006 Global Citizenship Report* letter that "our failure to meet our own principles during an HP investigation into leaks of sensitive company information has led us to redouble our commitment" (Hewlett-Packard, 2006). And when discussing initiatives to improve the company's environmental footprint, Laggard Wal-Mart's CEO stated in an interview with *Fortune*, "it seemed to me that ultimately many of the issues that had to do with the environment were going to wind up with people feeling like we had a greater responsibility than we were, at the time, accepting" (see Gunther, 2006). The CEO of Wal-Mart further affirmed in an article he wrote for *Greenpeace Business* that it has become a "bit of personal discovery . . . fortunately, it didn't take long for me to open my eyes to the enormous impact that our company can have on the environment" (Gunther, 2006).

Discussion and Conclusion

Indeed, there is a measurable difference in the frequency of CEO CSR communication. Leaders of organizations with good CSR reputations engage in more frequent CSR communication, following Hackman and Johnson's (2004) contention that communication frequency plays a role in positive outcomes. In essence, Leader CEOs are habitually connecting with stakeholders about CSR information, which means that they have greater opportunity to deliver more effective messages. In this respect, leaders of companies with good CSR reputations have a higher CSR communication competency than leaders of companies with bad CSR reputations.

However, content analysis of the modes of CSR communication does not affirm that there is a difference between the Leaders and Laggards CEOs and company

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reputations. Interpretation of the modes studied indicates that when CEOs did speak on the subject, they used the same language and made the same types of statements. The impact and power of the statements made to communicate CSR can not be oversimplified, as reality "is constantly mediated by and through language" (Hall, 1980, 131). All of the leaders studied use language to bolster the message of CSR (Benoit & Pang, 2008). Moreover, the argument of social legitimating can be applied to how these CEOs discussed CSR: "the main focus appeared to be to account for the organisation's attention to matters beyond the more obvious remit of a profit focused organization" (Coupland, 2005, 359). As a result, it can be stated that leaders of companies with both good and bad CSR reputations (of course, provided the leader engaged in some sort of CSR communication) have high communication competency.

For instance, as Doorley and Garcia (2010) point out, absolute honesty is a trait CEOs need to build consensus. This becomes particularly important if we consider two points from Hackman and Johnson (2004): leaders are held accountable for the actions of others, and credibility is the foundation of successful influence. The use of absolute honesty in accepting and discussing the wrongdoings of the company is a good tactic to build credibility and subsequently influence stakeholders' perceptions of the company relative to CSR. CEOs of both Leaders and Laggards used the acceptance of wrongdoing approach to communicate CSR.

From the results of this study, it cannot unequivocally be stated that there is an overall difference in the communication competency of company leaders of firms with good or bad CSR reputations. Although there are some interesting patterns detected in the CEO CSR communication competencies, these do not equate to the reputation of the firm. Frequency of communicating CSR can be correlated to firm reputation but not the language used when communicating CSR. These results could be a function of the study and its methods. This is admittedly a small convenience sample. A larger sample of CEOs could possibly produce more definitive results. Or, additional variables may need to be added, such as the communication style (Ruben, 2006; Witherspoon, 1997), as this is

"observable" and "sufficiently patterned" (Witherspoon, 1997, 64–65).

According to Hackman and Johnson (2004), "only when top leaders personally commit themselves to social responsibility does ethical consideration take precedence over profit and efficiency" (318). Beyond personal commitment and the acceptance of CSR as a business imperative, leaders in the public sphere must also be effective communicators so that they can profit from this new business imperative. However, the limited findings associated with this study remind us that we still do not understand how the communication of a company's most visible employee relates to CSR reputation. So if nothing else, this study reveals that CEO CSR communication competency is a subject that needs and deserves further research.

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Leadership at the Core of
Corporate Social Responsibility:
A Multi-Level Process Model

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Leadership not been sufficiently examined as a central construct in theoretical formulations of corporate social responsibility (CSR) or in empirical research. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to fill this gap by articulating a theoretical model that incorporates the following constructs as antecedents of corporate social responsibility; (1) leader integrity; (2) ethical work climates; and (3) authentic leadership with accountability serving as the moderator variable. The model is intended to broaden existing models of CSR and contribute to authentic leadership theory—which is in the early stages of conceptual development—by providing a set of antecedent constructs for which reliable and valid measures exist. Recommendations for empirical tests of the model are discussed.

Key words: authentic leadership, corporate social responsibility, CSR theory, ethical work climates, leader accountability, leader integrity

The year 2001 will undoubtedly go down into history as the year of corporate malfeasance. The spectacle of executives being led away in handcuffs may become one of the images that defines our times. Recent corporate scandals in North America (e.g., WorldCom, the International Olympic Committee, Enron, Tyco International, Qwest Communications International, Duke Energy, and Bristol-Myers Squibb) as well as the sex scandal in the Catholic Church have resulted in a loss of credibility and trust in the leadership of large U.S. corporations and institutions, unnerved investors, and shaken international markets. At Tyco, former CEO Dennis Kozlowski was accused of tax evasion and using company funds for personal entertainment. Domestic style maven Martha Stewart came under investigation for alleged insider training. Pillars of the Catholic Church were convicted of child molestation. According to Brugman and Prahalad (2007), "these recent shenanigans—fraud at Enron, insider trading at WorldCom, and inept governance at Hewlett-Packard, not to mention a rash of social, environmental, and health-related controversies at blue-chip companies such as Nike, Shell, and McDonald's—have led to a near crisis of confidence in

the role of the modern corporation in society" (82). As George (2003) recently exclaimed, "Thank you Enron and Arthur Anderson. The depth of your misconduct shocked the world and awakened us to the reality that the business world was on the wrong track, worshiping the wrong idols, and headed for self-destruction" (1).

It comes as no surprise, then, that a CBS poll taken in the fall of 2002 found that 79% of respondents believed questionable business practices were widespread, and less than one-third of the respondents thought that CEOs were honest (Wallington, 2003). While ethical lapses occur at all levels of organizations, senior executives who fail to set and live by high ethical standards and take the moral high road are pushed into the limelight and held accountable to employees, shareholders, and society at large for the consequences of unethical practices. Every decade evidences its share of corporate, political, and social villains, but the pervasiveness of ethical lapses in recent years has been astounding. Scandals at Enron, WorldCom, and elsewhere undermined the trust in big business and lead to heavy-handed government regulation (i.e., the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002). Management abuses of the public and private trust are everywhere, and some believe that the lack of moral leadership is America's number-one problem.

Over the past several decades, corporate social responsibility (CSR) has grown from a narrow and often marginalized concept to a complex and multifaceted construct that is increasingly central to much of today's corporate decision making (Cochran, 2007, 449.). According to Porter and Kramer (2006), "myriads of organizations now rank companies on their CSR performance and, despite sometimes questionable methods, these rankings attract considerable publicity. As a result, CSR has emerged as an inescapable priority for business leaders in every country" (78).

CSR activities have been implemented by incorporating social characteristics or features into products and manufacturing processes (e.g., aerosol products with no fluorocarbons or using environmentally friendly technologies), adopting progressive human resource management practices (e.g., promoting employee

empowerment), achieving higher levels of environmental performance through recycling and pollution abatement (e.g., adopting an aggressive stance towards reducing emissions), and achieving the goals of community organization (e.g., working closely with groups such as the United Way) (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006, 1–2). AsPorter and Kramer (2006) pointed out, "many opportunities to pioneer innovations to benefit both society and a company's own competitiveness can arise in the product offering and the value chain" (88). Critics argue that CSR distracts from the fundamental role of business.

Defining Corporate Social Responsibility

While there is no universal definition of CSR, it generally refers to transparent business practices that are based on ethical values; compliance with legal requirements; and respect for people, communities, and the environment. Carroll (1979, 1987) systematized CSR by distinguishing between economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities. Garriga and Melé (2004) argued that, subsequently, concerns with corporate performance, stakeholder relations, corporate citizenship, links to financial performance, and new applications of business ethics have extended CSR theory and practice. Falck and Heblich (2006) regard CSR as a voluntary corporate commitment to exceed the explicit and implicit obligations imposed on a company by society's expectations of conventional and corporate behavior (247).

Defining CSR is not easy because CSR is an "essentially contested concept, "being appraisive" (or considered as valued), "internally complex," and having relatively open rules of application (Moon, Crane, & Matten, 2005, 433–434). Thus, beyond making profits, companies are responsible for the totality of their impact on people and the planet and use the firm's resources to advance social interests. Thus, at the core of CSR is the idea that it reflects the social imperatives and social consequences of business success, and it empirically consists of clearly articulated and communicated policies and practices of corporations that reflect business responsibility for some of the wider societal good (Matten & Moon, 2008, 405). McWilliams and Siegel (2001) defined *CSR* as situations where the firm goes beyond compliance and engages in actions

that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and what is required by law. McWilliams and Siegel added that the lack of consistency in the use of the term *CSR* makes it difficult to compare results across studies, hampering the ability to understand the implications of CSR activity. Given the diversity of definitions and growth of related concepts such as corporate citizenship (e.g., Matten & Crane, 2005) and sustainability make theoretical development and measurement difficult (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006).

Purpose

McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright (2006) argued that there are numerous unresolved theoretical and empirical issues relating to the strategic implications of CSR. Among them are improving definitions of CSR by enhancing construct clarity and reducing construct redundancies, identifying institutional differences in CSR across countries, determining motivations for CSR, describing CSR strategies, modeling effects of CSR on firm and stakeholder groups, measuring the costs of CSR, assessing the current knowledge base, and determining the effects of leadership and corporate culture on CSR (8). More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to make a theoretical contribution to the CSR literature by developing a conceptual model of CSR that includes a nomological net of constructs that are non-financial/economic in nature. Most research on CSR has focused on ethical, economic, and governance issues, and empirical theory-testing has significantly outnumbered theory-generating research (Egri & Ralston, 2008).

  After a review of CSR literature, I will articulate a model comprised of three antecedents—leader integrity, ethical work climate, and authentic leadership as antecedents of CSR. In addition, accountability serves as an intervening variable, which moderates the relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion variable, CSR. The explication of the model parameters and theory-derived propositions are presented followed by an outline of the operationalization of the constructs of interest and procedures for empirically testing the model using moderated regression analyses.

Literature Review

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a relatively new field of study with concepts that are value laden and susceptible to particular ideological and emotional interpretations. Much of the early research conducted in this area has focused on the relationship between CSR and profitability based on the argument that first and foremost, businesses have responsibilities that are economic in nature. As such, organizations have an obligation to produce goods and services that society wants and to sell them at a profit; accordingly, all other business roles are predicted on this fundamental assumption (Carroll, 1979, 502). Since the 1980s, however, corporations have also been expected to shoulder many social burdens, largely through philanthropic support and/or lending expertise to community agencies, schools, art institutions, local government, and nonprofit community groups. This has prompted a growing number of studies on various facets of CSR that are more aligned with the social than the economic/financial end of the continuum (Quazi, 2003).

Carroll's (1979) widely cited CSR model conceptualizes four types of responsibilities of the firm: (1) the economic responsibility to be profitable; (2) the legal responsibility to abide by the laws of society; (3) the ethical responsibility to do what is right, just, and fair; and (4) the philanthropic responsibility to reduce or eliminate various kinds of social, educational, or cultural problems such as poverty, illiteracy, or HIV. Early scholars characterized CSR as "an eclectic field with loose boundaries; multiple memberships and differing training/perspectives; broad rather than focused, multidisciplinary; wide breadth, bringing in a wider range of literature; and interdisciplinary (Carroll, 1994, 14).

CSR Goes Global

Until recently, CSR was a phenomenon found primarily in the United States and the United Kingdom, while continental Europe and many other nations around the globe expressed less interest in the concept. However, the increasing globalization of trade has raised concern about the moral and economic ramifications of cross-national disparities in ethical business conduct, labor and

environmental standards, and human rights protection (Egri & Ralston, 2008). Despite their economic success, global companies stand accused of many social and ecological problems, including erosion of democracy; destruction of native industries in developing nations; fostering of excessive materialism, destruction of land and forest; abuse or abrogation of labor rights; and lack of sustainability, accountability, responsibility, and transparency (e.g., Dreher, 2002; International Forum on Globalization, 2002).

   As a result, CSR is spreading around the world. Corporations have begun to adopt the practice of CSR not only in Europe, but also in Africa, South America, and Southeast Asia (e.g., Puppim de Oliveira & Vargas, 2005). The European business environment, for example, has long been characterized by a presumption that corporations have social obligations that transcend their responsibilities to shareholders (Doh & Guay, 2006). The British brand of CSR is seen as the gold standard, with London having been the hive of innovation in CSR since the mid-1990s, thanks to a creative cluster of think tanks, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), consultancies, and inventive bosses. The Japanese for their part, see the roots of CSR in traditions of Japanese business such as *shobaido* (the way of doing business) and *shonindo* (the way of the merchant) (The Economist, 2008). China has become the new frontier for the CSR industry, and Brazil has a lively CSR scene. In India, big family-owned firms such as Tata are providing basic services such as school funding and health care for local communities. Across the globe, there are differences in priorities—workplace conditions, safer products, climate change and global warming, poverty, or human rights standards, which suggests that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to CSR (The Economist, 2008).

The Missing Link in CSR: Leadership
A review of the management and leadership literature reveals an increasing emphasis on the importance of ethical behavior on the part of organizational leaders as an important component of both CSR and leadership. Treviño and Brown (2004) argued that ethics and effective leadership are so closely related as to be inseparable. Leadership and ethics go hand in hand in that an ethical

environment is conducive to effective leadership, and effective leadership is conducive to the incorporation of ethical principles. In other words, effective leadership is a consequence of ethical conduct, and ethical conduct is a consequence of effective leadership. Therefore, ethics and leadership function as both cause and effect.

The recent crisis of confidence in corporations has stimulated much debate among scholars and practitioners (Bartunek, 2002; Lefkowitz et al., 2003) regarding managers' morality or lack thereof. Leadership scholars have acknowledged for quite some time the importance of honesty, integrity, and justice to the success of both leaders and their organizations (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Locke, 2000; Yukl, 2009). Bass (1998) argued that leaders are concerned about doing what is right and honest and are likely to avoid stretching the truth or going beyond the evidence because they want to set an example for followers about the value of valid and accurate communication in maintaining mutual trust of the leaders and their followers. Justice is another value that benefits both leaders and their organizations (Colquitt et al., 2001; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999) by contributing to a leader's moral high road. Furthermore, some scholars (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; O'Connor, Mumford, Clifton, & Connelly, 1995) have posited that certain leaders possess values and characteristics that make them more resilient to social pressures to engage in unethical behavior. These values have been brought to the forefront in the aftermath of the recent corporate scandals.

Carroll (1987) distinguished between immoral, moral, and amoral managers and management, noting that the organizational landscape is littered with immoral and amoral managers. Carroll (1987) defines immoral management as that which is not only devoid of ethical principles or percepts, but also positively and actively opposed to what is right or just. Amoral managers, on the other hand, ascribe to the belief that management is outside the sphere in which moral judgments apply and that the corporate world and the moral world are two separate spheres. Finally, moral managers are hard to find because:

. . . moral management aspires to succeed, but only within the confines of sound ethical percepts—that is, standards predicated upon such ideals such as fairness, justice and due process. Management, therefore, pursues its objectives while simultaneously requiring and desiring profitability, legality, and morality. (10)

As Waldman, Siegel, and Javidan (2004) noted, it is somewhat surprising that there has been virtually no theoretical or empirical analysis of the relationship between characteristics of CEO leadership and CSR as most CSR studies have ignored the role of corporate leaders in formulating and implementing CSR initiatives. The strategic use of CSR begs the question about the potential role of the CEO in determining the propensity of firms to engage in CSR activities. CEOs are charged with the responsibility for formulating corporate strategy and are often deeply involved in promoting the image of their respective firms through CSR. Waldman et al. (2004), for example, found that social CSR was not significantly correlated with either the charisma or intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership, but did report a significant positive correlation between strategic CSR and intellectual stimulation. The authors encouraged future qualitative and quantitative research that directly assesses the role of leadership in CSR.

One of the reasons why leadership is underrepresented in conceptualizations of CSR is due to significant philosophical differences between those who study management and leadership and those who study economics. Management and leadership scholars tend to focus on the moral choices managers make when encountering CSR, while economists devote most of their attention to the outcomes of CSR, rather than the motives for engaging in this activity (Waldman & Siegel, 2008).

Model Parameters

In this section, I explicate theory-derived model parameters to develop a nomological set of constructs that can be operationalized and empirically tested. Figure 1 depicts the proposed model, which is discussed in this section.
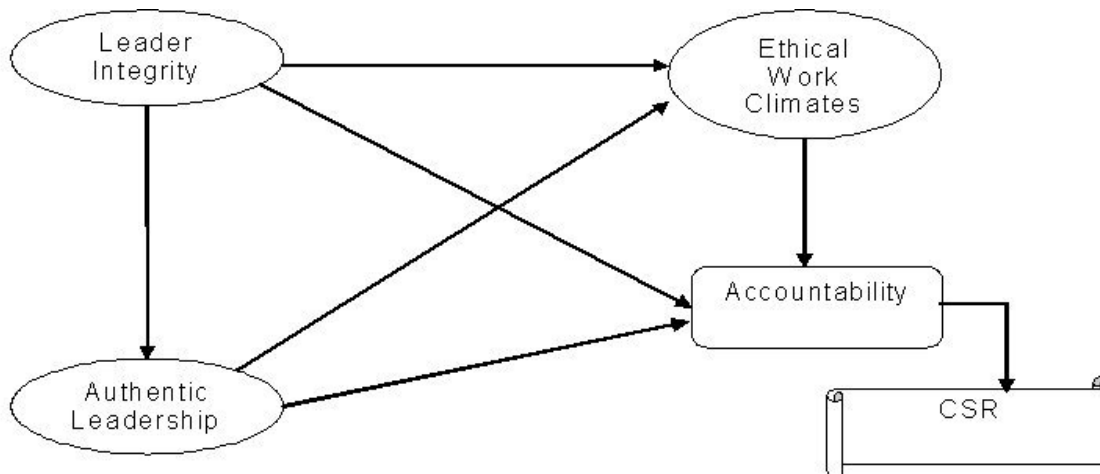
Figure 1. Relationships between leader integrity, ethical work climates, authentic leadership, accountability, and CSR

Leader Integrity

Integrity is an important aspect of leadership as indicated by incumbent managers who reported that they respect integrity above all other values and regard it as the most important characteristic of prospective managers, even above competence (Posner & Schmidt, 1984). The recent corporate scandals have also stimulated research interest in leader integrity. Bassiry (1990) argued that because the ethical integrity displayed by American corporate leaders is inadequate, business schools should restructure their curricula to provide students with better training in business ethics, a recommendation that many DBA programs have implemented over the past two decades. In addition, as Bass and Bass (2008) pointed out, integrity and trustworthiness have been conceptualized as important aspects of the highly effective charismatic/ transformational leadership style.

According to Thomas, Schermerhorn, and Dienhart (2004), leader integrity is associated with such organizational outcomes as the reduction of business costs through absenteeism and turnover. Moreover, they point out, less quantifiable costs could be associated with lack of leader integrity, such as those due to the loss of firm reputation, lower employee morale, or difficulty in recruiting top talent.

Based on this body of research on leader integrity, the following hypotheses are postulated.

Proposition 1:   Leader integrity is positively correlated with CSR.

Proposition 2:   The relationship between leader integrity and CSR is moderated by accountability.

Ethical Work Climates

The ethical failures of major corporations such as Enron, WorldCom, Tyco, and Adelphia; scandals involving the Catholic Church and International Olympic Committee; and government failures of accountability have deeply undermined the trust in executive leadership, and investors' confidence in American markets has been shaken. According to Johnson (2005), ethical violations are pervasive in all professions, from law enforcement, education, business, and medicine, to religion, where we hold leaders to high standards of ethical conduct. These standards include honesty, trustworthiness, and fairness (Ciulla, Martin, & Solomon, 2007).

Corporate misdeeds have resulted in formal external control systems, such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002, designed to increase and enforce corporate accountability and ethicality. At the same time, they also led to a proliferation of internal organizational initiatives, such as the implementation of codes of ethics. However, external and internal control systems are not sufficient to ensure that the organization, senior executives, and all employees value ethical behavior and demonstrate it in the performance of their daily tasks and responsibilities. In addition to conforming to the provisions of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act, other rules-based compliance programs, and formal codes of ethics, informal psychological issues exert a powerful influence on individual and organizational ethical performance. The ethical scandals exhibited by corporations and their senior executives have highlighted the vulnerability of leaders in their ethical decision making. Allen and Klenke (2009), for example, content analyzed 531 statements made by two exceptional leaders (Kenneth Lay and William Clinton) who have been publicly implicated in episodes of moral failure. Coding was based on a scale derived from Bandura's Social Learning Theory (SLT). The vulnerabilities of these two leaders were apparent in statements reflecting self-exonerating, morally disengaging processes. The analyses revealed a dynamic, chaotic

interaction of multiple intra-and interpersonal and contextual factors, many of which were also consistent with leader success.

Ethical work climates represent a subset of the more general concept of work climates and are an example of an informal ethical control system which, according to Schminke, Arnaud, and Kuenzi (2007), may be more powerful in encouraging ethical behavior than rule-based compliance programs are. An ethical work climate is a construct that taps into respondents' perceptions of how members of an organization make decisions concerning events, practices, and procedures requiring ethical criteria (Victor & Cullen, 1988, 109). According to Arnaud, Ambrose, and Schminke (2004), ethical work climates are comprised of four dimensions: (1) moral sensitivity or awareness of ethical issues; (2) moral judgment that comes into play when individuals become aware of an ethical dilemma that requires a judgment call as well as a choice between alternative courses of action; (3) moral motivation prompted by the importance of moral values such as honesty and integrity, which may compete with other values such as ambition, advancement, and self-actualization; and (4) moral character, which involves perseverance, courage, and strength of conviction. Schminke et al. (2007) noted that each of these four ethical climate dimensions have been linked to important outcomes such as reduced unethical and political behavior, improved employee workplace citizenship, and improved managerial follow-through with ethics programs (177). Moreover, these four dimensions can be aggregated at the group or organizational levels, allowing the proposed model to be tested at multiple levels of analysis.

From this research, the following propositions were derived:

Proposition 3: Ethical work climates are positively correlated with CSR.

Proposition 4: Ethical climates may differ at different levels of analysis resulting in multiple CSR initiatives and programs in the organization.

Proposition 5: The relationship between ethical climates and CSR is moderated by accountability.

Authentic Leadership

According to Harter (2002), authenticity as a construct dates back to the ancient Greeks, as captured by their timeless admonition to be true to oneself. Contemporaneously, authentic leadership has its roots in positive psychology, which represents a major paradigm shift in a discipline that has been traditionally viewed as a deficit discipline that emphasized people's weaknesses and pathologies and focused on developing treatments and interventions to remedy these problems. In contrast, positive psychology focuses on human strengths and virtues such as hope, resilience, optimism, and happiness (Seligman, 1998; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Seligman & Peterson, 2004). Positive psychology shifts "the emphasis away from what is wrong with people to what is right with people—to focus on strengths (as opposed to weaknesses), to be interested in resilience (as opposed to vulnerability), and to be concerned with developing and enhancing wellness, prosperity, and the good life (as opposed to the remediation of pathology)" (Luthans, 2002, 697).

According to Gable and Haidt (2005), "positive psychology is the study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups, and organizations" (104). The creators of positive psychology contend that the decrease in ethical behavior (e.g., WorldCom, Enron, and Martha Stewart) coupled with the increases in social challenges (e.g., September 11, the downturn of the U.S. economy, and the financial meltdown of major corporations) necessitates the need for positive leadership more so now than at any other time (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005). According to Youssef and Luthans (2005), in this post 9-11 era, and especially in light of the ramifications of corporate scandals, both academics and practitioners have become fed up with the "gloom and doom" and what is wrong with people, and now yearn for the positive, what is good, worthwhile, sustainable, and authentic (1). Moreover, positive psychologists argue that existing frameworks are not sufficient for developing leaders for the future (e.g., Avolio & Gardner, 2005b).

Positive Organizational Behavior (POB), which developed in part from the emergence of positive psychology, embraces strengths such as self-efficacy,

hope, resilience, and optimism, which are not only important for optimal individual functioning, but can also lead to extraordinary organizational performance. At the more macro level, POB is concerned with civic virtues and institutions that move individuals toward enhanced citizenship, responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, and work ethic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Seligman, 2002). POB incorporates theories of excellence, extraordinary performance, transcendence, and other individual and group characteristics that improve organizational performance and increase individual satisfaction in an organization (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003).

Authentic leadership as defined by Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005):

> . . . extends beyond the authenticity of the leader as a person to encompass authentic relations with followers and associates. . . [which are] characterized by: a) transparency, openness, and trust, b) guidance toward worthy objectives, and c) an emphasis on follower development. (345)

Luthans and Avolio (2003) suggested that authentic leadership represents the confluence of positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002), transformational/full-range leadership (Avolio, 1999, 2003), and ethical and moral leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; May, Hodges, Chan, & Avolio, 2003; Price, 2003) to inform the development of this new construct. Specifically, Luthans and Avolio (2003) focus on authentic leadership:

> . . . as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of the leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development." (243)

Luthans and Avolio's (2003) model of authentic leadership highlights the importance of organizational context in creating leaders who are not only self-efficacious, hopeful, resilient, and optimistic, but also ethical, genuine, and transparent.

According to Gardner, et al.(2005), authentic leadership is based on four foundational constructs: (1) *self-awareness,* which is based on the understanding of how one derives and makes meaning of the world; (2) *balanced processing,* or

the absence of denials, exaggerations, and distortions; (3) *relational transparency,* meaning that the leader displays high levels of openness, self-disclosure, and trust in close relationships; and (4) *authentic behavior,* which refers to being true to oneself as evidenced in the leader's core and espoused values that must be congruent with each other. Among the core behaviors leaders seek to model or exemplify are confidence, high moral standards, innovative problem solving, commitment, and self-sacrifice (Gardner, et al., 2005, 356). Avolio, et al. (2004) cautioned that espousing moral values in an instrumental or calculative manner could lead to perceptions of the leader as an inauthentic person, which may result in deleterious consequences for individuals and organizations.

Discussions of authentic leadership reached a critical mass with the publication of a special issue of *The Leadership Quarterly* (Avolio & Gardner, 2005a) in which the new construct was formally introduced and examined through a number of theoretical lenses designed to build a theory of authentic leadership. However, despite the excitement these articles created, a number of caveats were raised. Cooper et al. (2005) pointed out that research on authentic leadership cannot progress unless the following four issues are addressed: (1) defining and measuring the construct; (2) determining the discriminant validity of the construct; (3) identifying relevant construct outcomes (i.e., testing the construct's nomological network; and (4) ascertaining whether authentic leadership can be taught.

Authentic leadership has been operationalized as the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), which was developed and initially validated by Walumbwa, et al.(2008) using Kenyan, Chinese, and U.S. samples. They also adopted recent conceptualizations of authentic leadership (i.e., Avolio & Gardner, 2005b; Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005) and measured four components of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and an internalized moral perspective. They employed inductive and deductive approaches to develop the items, resulting in a pool of 35 theoretically derived statements that were reduced to 22 after item analysis. The items

retained for further analysis were distributed as follows: self-awareness (four items), relational transparency (five items), balanced processing (three items), and internalized moral perspective (four items), which were confirmed after a series of factor analyses. Further analyses established convergent validity with similar constructs including ethical and transformational leadership as well as acceptable internal validity estimates ranging from .72–.79.

However, Walumbwa et al. (2008) pointed out that "although authentic leadership is closely related to the four behavioral dimensions of transformational leadership, the four dimensions of authentic leadership are not explicitly encompassed by transformational leadership" (104). In other words, authentic leaders are distinguished by their sense of self-awareness and display an internalized moral perspective and self-regulation, dimensions that are not captured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the primary measure of transformational leadership. Likewise, with respect to ethical leadership, the authors contend that ethical behavior is a necessary condition for the development of authentic leadership, but it alone is not sufficient, as authentic leadership requires more than ethical behavior.

It is expected that further research on the ALQ will stimulate empirical research on authentic leadership that will allow scholars to determine the discriminant validity of the instrument as well as identifying relevant construct outcomes. Walumbwa et al. (2008) also discussed the need for additional research on the antecedents of authentic leadership as well as studies that include moderator variables. The model presented here addresses these issues, suggesting that CSR is part of a larger nomological net of constructs defining authentic leadership.

From this body of research, the following propositions were derived:

Proposition 6: Authentic leadership and CSR are positively correlated.

Proposition 7: Authentic leadership and ethical climate are positively correlated.

Proposition 8: The relationship between authentic leadership and CSR is moderated by accountability.

Accountability

It is commonplace in discussions of CSR that with the exception of "acts of God," as well as those not performed on behalf of the firm, executives should be held accountable for corporate activities. However, when things go terribly wrong as they did in the recent corporate meltdowns, corporate leaders often deny responsibility on the grounds that they did not know, or could not be expected to know, the information needed to prevent ethical dilemmas or disasters. And yet, it is the responsibility of senior management to know what is going on in their organizations. The requirement that individuals, leaders, and followers alike, be accountable for their decisions and actions is an implicit, if not explicit, assumption of organizational systems.

Accountability is a fundamental principle of organization theory (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999) that has yet to find its way into leadership theory and research. Simply stated, organizations cannot run effectively, or potentially will not run at all, unless managers and employees feel accountable to the organization or some other entity (e.g., board of directors, self, or society). Second, accountability provides a bridge from the individual to the organization. Specifically, accountability provides a link between "individuals and the authority relationships within which they work and live" (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999, 270). For many years, organizational theorists and strategic management scholars have been studying accountability at the organizational level in research on agency theory and corporate governance (e.g., Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997). However, there is now a growing body of literature that investigates accountability at the individual level of analysis (e.g., Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Frink & Ferris, 1998).

Corporate leaders, just as leaders in other contexts, such as politics, must be accountable to those whose interests they influence. However, it is less clear to whom they are accountable or for what effects and by what means the corporate leader should be held morally accountable. In American corporations, it is generally assumed that leaders must be accountable to workers, families, stakeholders, and the communities that share their risks. Corporations should be

accountable to employees who invest the best years of their lives so that the corporation can earn profits. Yet, business leaders are often out of touch with the perceptions of their rank and file about organizational life and are not held accountable for the multiple costs incurred by their neglect of integrity capacity as a key intangible, strategic asset (Petrick & Quinn, 2001). Petrick and Quinn defined the *integrity capacity* construct as the individual and/or collective capacity for repeated process alignment of moral awareness, deliberation, character, and conduct that demonstrates balanced judgment, enhances sustained moral development, and promotes supportive systems for moral decision making.

In organizations, accountability implies a system of rewards and sanctions for conformity to organizational standards, or a control system (Tetlock, Skitka, & Boettger, 1989). Tetlock (1985) argued that accountability is a universal feature of everyday decision-making environments. Accountability, from this standpoint, is a critical rule- and norm-enforcement mechanism: the social psychological link between individuals on the one hand and the social systems to which they belong on the other. The fact that people are ultimately accountable for their decisions is an implicit or explicit constraint on virtually everything they do. Moreover, Tetlock (1985, 1992) proposed that accountability causes individuals to be intuitive politicians, seeking means to maximize their status and self-image, often by efforts to manage those impressions. That is, individuals may use accountability contexts to manage impressions of themselves, and this objective may supersede organizational or task objectives.

Our knowledge base regarding accountability as a leadership responsibility is remarkably scant, as is our understanding of the dynamics of being held accountable for decisions and actions. Although there is no shortage of interest in the phenomenon of accountability, the leadership literature has not been responsive in including this construct in theory or research. The present model is therefore offered as a conceptual integration of several streams of literature: CSR, integrity, ethical climates, accountability, and authentic leadership, with accountability moderating the relationships between the three proposed

antecedents—leader integrity, ethical work climates, and authentic leadership—and CSR.

Operationalizing the Constructs and Testing the Proposed Model

Taken together, the three antecedents and accountability as the moderator variable comprise an integrated approach to CSR, which locates accountability at the core of leadership responsibility. For all the variables of interest, several standardized, reliable, and valid instruments exist for each construct. Table 1 (see next page) presents operational measures for each construct included in proposed model.

Table 1: Construct Measures and Corresponding Scale Properties

Construct	Scale	# of Items	# of Factors	α	Validity
Leader Integrity	Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (Craig & Gustafson, 1998)	77 items reduced to 43	One factor	.97 and above	Convergent (*r* =.66) with job satisfaction; discriminant (*r* = .15) with conscientiousness scale of NEOPI-R
Ethical Work Climates	Ethical Climate Index (ECI) (Arnaud et al., 2004)	36 items	Four factors	.60–.80	Convergent with Procedural Justice Climate Scale; divergent with organizational structure and job satisfaction scales
Authentic Leadership	Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Walumbwa et al., 2008)	36 items reduced to 16	Four factors	.72–.79	Convergent with ethical leadership and transformational leadership, but also distinguishable from these constructs Predictive validity: organizational citizenship behavior, follower satisfaction
Accountability	(Hall, Hochwater, & Ferris, 2005)	8 items	One factor	.84	Not reported
Corporate Social Responsibility	Corporate Social Orientation Scale (Aupperle, 1984)	15 forced-choice statements	Four factors	.84 to .93 (Aupperle, Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985)	Discriminant construct and content validity

Conclusions

Most of the current theories of CSR have focused on four main aspects: (1) meeting objectives that produce long-term profits, (2) using business power in a responsible way, (3) integrating social demands, and (4) contributing to a good society by doing what is ethically correct (Garriga & Melé, 2004). In this article, I introduced a theoretical model of CSR that expands existing theories by adding leadership as a central component of CSR. The model explicated here

hypothesizes that leader integrity, authentic leadership, and an ethical work climate are the drivers of CSR. In addition, the model proposes that the relationship between the antecedents and CSR is moderated by leader accountability. This model responds to the call for more cross-level research to better understand the connections between leader values and firm-level outcomes (e.g., Waldman & Siegel, 2008). In the model, integrity, leader accountability, and authentic leadership are conceptualized to operate on the individual level of analysis, whereas ethical work climates and CSR can be aggregated at the work unit, departmental, or organizational level. By assessing perceptions of CSR at several levels of analysis, testing the model will increase our knowledge of leader and follower assessments of CSR practices and policies in their organizations.

   One important subtext of this article suggests that the corporate meltdowns of recent years not only require a multi-level analysis of economic ideology, organizational practices, and public policy but also that the demise of organizations caught up in the recent economic meltdown is a consequence of a fundamental breakdown in leadership responsibilities. With the loss of responsibility come lapses in accountability for decisions and actions. High accountability leaders, according to Chaffee (1997), willingly accept the responsibility to lead in one way or another, make decisions, and act ethically on the organization's behalf. Moreover, Chaffee posits that high accountability leaders accept responsibility for providing directions for the organization's future by leading the company forward. Integrating organizational performance, societal needs, and corporate social responsibility requires strong strategic leadership. Therefore, leadership at the top is the key to ensuring an organization's commitment to CSR.

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Social Entrepreneurialism:
Hybrid Startup Organizations:
The Combination of a For-Profit Business Unit and a Nonprofit Affiliate

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One alternative to designing a startup business is opening a hybrid, or multi-operational, business that contains both a for-profit strategic business unit and a nonprofit affiliate. This article describes the shared features of three successful, flourishing businesses. These case studies illustrate how this alternative design added to the efficiency and effectiveness of the total organization.

Key words: nonprofit organizations, startup organizations, social entrepreneurialism

When starting a small business, owners undertake three categories of risk that together ultimately decide the success or failure of their business. First, there is the economy in which that business is located. Second is the industry in which that business is operating. Third is the risk exclusive to the business itself. There is little individual business owners can do to have an effect on the economy in which they operate, and Fredland and Morris (1976, 9) noted that during "cyclical downturns the marginal firm is more likely to fail." The failure is a result of not being able to adjust effectively to changing market situations.

Traditional (unitary) organizations frequently suffer from operational inefficiency, resource scarcity, and the lack of facilities to take advantage of economies of scale and risks that are more suitably spread across several business units. A fundamental reason for utilizing structural hybrids is to increase organizational competitiveness or capabilities through strategic relationships that allow resource sharing and capacity building (Gray, 1989; Powell, Koput, & Smith-Doerr, 1996).

Business diversification has received a great deal of research interest in the past, but somehow, business literature overlooks small businesses and provides little assistance on how small firms can best diversify (d'Amboise & Muldowney,

1988; Pettit & Singer, 1985). In addition, the few available discussions of small business diversification seem to be without empirical foundation or based upon results from large-firm research (Greenfield, 1989; Poza, 1988; Stoner & Fry, 1987).

The purpose of this article is to explain how the alternative strategy for a startup using a hybrid, or multi-operational, approach can succeed, whereby having this type of business model strengthens the organization's mission, uses limited resources efficiently, responds to change, and is practically attainable. A hybrid startup runs programs with dual financial objectives and funding structures, and the development of a for-profit organization with a nonprofit affiliate not only creates a link between business strategies and philanthropy to advance social change, but is also highly sustainable. The cultures of these businesses are generally defined as having the for-profit and nonprofit sides work together to make contributions that integrate economic, environmental, and social sustainability for the benefit of present and future generations.

There are two essential characteristics of these hybrid models, which are: (a) the association between their business enterprises—their compilation of goals and incentives—and the mission-driven goals of their social service (Hasenfeld, 1992), and (b) the competencies performed by staff and experienced by clients receiving services (Lipsky, 1980) within such an organization.

The hybrid arrangements represented by these strategic alliances command our attention for several reasons. From a managerial perception, they are significant because they advocate other ways of increasing a firm's capabilities or bringing about strategic renewal, yet they introduce different management challenges, such as the coordination of two businesses, than those found in a conventional organization. From a theoretical viewpoint, hybrids are of interest because they have unique characteristics due to the incorporation of two businesses with two distinct purposes that challenge the existing theory to both describe and explain their causes and operation.

However, whatever type of business model that is used, a business model is a unique combination of three streams—the value stream for business partners

and buyers (value proposition), the revenue stream (revenue from the short-term value), and the logistics stream (design of the supply chain). Amit and Zott (2001) describe the business model as "the architectural configuration of the components of transactions designed to exploit business opportunities." They emphasize four value drivers: novelty, lock-in, complementarities, and efficiency. They claim that many failed business models have been developed around one main factor rather than emphasizing the significance of mutual and complementary factors. Therefore, the concentration has been on how successful companies were able to establish business models with workable revenue models that created value in an innovative way. With the exception of the work on value creation, however, there has been little to guide the entrepreneur.

In terms of dealing with the capability-based challenge of new market entry, a reference is made to Henderson and Cockburn's (1994) notions of "architectural" and "component" competences, where the former refers to the firm's ability to integrate knowledge and the latter to the possession of skills or assets specific to particular local activities. In other words, the innovation in new market creation needs to be considered at the level of architectural and component competencies, which is analogous to Teece's (2000) work on autonomous and systemic innovation.

Adapting these concepts to describe the innovation in new market creation, autonomous innovation can be considered to occur where existing resources and capabilities retain value, while the opposite would be the case with systemic innovation. Hence, autonomous innovation can be considered to occur when entry into a new market does not affect existing functional capabilities significantly, either with respect to the underlying component tasks or to how they are configured (i.e., their architecture). Systemic innovation, conversely, is a significant impact on individual functional capabilities, particularly in respect of how they are integrated within the organization.

As the quantity of nonprofit hybrid organizations increases, there is a rising fear that even among "bonoficers"—nonprofit organizations who allot at least some of

their resources toward the public good—the introduction of business logics can disrupt the mission focus of the organization (Tuckman, 1998; Weisbrod, 2004). New management tools, such as the "mission/money matrix" decision guide (Boschee, 1998), the "blended" calculation of financial and social returns (Emerson, 2003) and "thinking at the margin" resource deployment (Young, 2004) have been introduced to prevent mission drift. However, examinations of the connection between commercialization and mission exposed some disturbing trends. For example, Adams and Perlmutter (1991) found that 22 out of the 25 nonprofit enterprises they surveyed experienced tension between commercial goals and mission (cited in Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004), and Salamon (1999) found commercial revenues to be negatively related to the number of poor clients an agency served (cited in Guo, 2006).

Notwithstanding these noteworthy lines of research, the literature on nonprofit enterprises is deficient in empirically grounded, theory-driven analysis (Dees & Elias, 1998) on how mission-driven business enterprise models structure themselves to deal with the tension between social mission and commercial goals or the specific mechanisms of mission drift. Based on the existing research from U.S. based nonprofit organizations, this article maintains that the neo-institutional literature contains beneficial theoretical tools to guide an analysis into the crucial question about hybrid organizational models: How do organizational demands deriving from "multiple sector membership" (Hyde, 2000, 64) influence the structural architecture of internal work processes?

Neo-institutional theory is based on the idea that "organizational fields" (defined as the "key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organizations that produce similar services or products") construct certain standard norms or institutional logics that structure organizational behavior in a given industry, sector, or niche (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, 148). While the literature on neo-institutional organizations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Fligstein, 1990, 2001; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Powell, 1991) has primarily examined the relationship between isomorphic pressures and organizational behavior in distinct organizational fields, this article focuses on the relationship between forces in the

external organizational fields and internal organizational technologies within hybrid social services models.

Research on Nonprofit Enterprise

Much of the research on commercialization in the nonprofit sector has concentrated on the role of the non-distribution constraint and the differences in service provision between nonprofit and for-profit institutional forms (Rose-Ackerman, 1996; Steinberg, 1986; Weisbrod, 1998). The majority of this research compares the performance and quality of nonprofit and for-profit organizations in mixed sector industries (such as health and day care). However, Weisbrod (1998) studied the dissimilarities in the bounds of the behaviors of nonprofit enterprise. The research differentiates between nonprofit "bonoficers" and "FPIDS" (for-profit in disguise), who "behave like profit maximizers, distributing their outputs no differently, taking no less advantage of their informational superiorities and distributing no fewer external costs than private firms" (Weisbrod, 1998, 72).

Nonprofit organizations have usually operated in the so-called social sector to solve or improve such problems as hunger, homelessness, environmental pollution, drug abuse, and domestic violence. They have also provided certain essential social goods—such as education, the arts, and health care—that the public believes that the marketplace, unaided, will not sufficiently make available. Nonprofits have supplemented government activities, contributed ideas for new programs and other innovations, and functioned as a means for private citizens to go after their own dreams of the good society, autonomous of government policy. Therefore, the goals of the social purpose nonprofit business enterprises include: providing jobs for homeless adults; creating job training for disenfranchised youth; offering employment transition for vulnerable populations such as welfare recipients, former convicts, and substance abusers; and, spurring economic development in poor communities.

These nonprofits are faced with trying to cure greater ills with even less money or finding new ways to generate revenue and become less dependent on

foundation and government grants. Confronted with increasing expenses, additional competition for scarce resources, the emphasis on being sustainable, and just the daily ordeals of running an organization, these situations place huge stress on an organization's time and energy. Some nonprofits are even starting and running small, profit-seeking companies, channeling their earnings back into social services programs. Developing a nonprofit organization and a for-profit organization to establish a multi-operational small business has created efficiencies by intentionally and strategically sharing administrative and overhead costs, as well as building a core competency by working jointly. Both the nonprofit side, which is using new methods to undertake societal problems, and the for-profit side, which have a precise social cause, can obtain access to new forms of financing, primarily in typical capital markets. In addition, many other nonprofit organizations are using private-sector management techniques in an effort to get more mileage out of whatever resources they have. Either way, the new "social entrepreneurs" are establishing hybrid businesses that obscure traditional sector lines and expose astonishing uses for marketplace power.

The main net effect of the for-profit influence is to reverse the flow of accountability that the nonprofit world has used. In traditional nonprofits, it was the funding organizations that had to be satisfied first, then the executive director (usually the means to funding sources), then the employees and volunteers, and eventually, the clients, whose satisfaction was directly tied to the organization's mission in the first place. Nevertheless, with no one measuring the results that an organization produced, who could tell if the real clients were being well served, since an alternative baseline was gauging the effectiveness of a nonprofit in the absence of a traditional cash-flow report. Now, as the new social entrepreneurs redirect the attention to clients, people can clearly see whether or not those clients are well served.

Large hybrids, containing the financial, strategic, and organizational effects of diversification, have been studied (Balakrishnan, 1988; Hill & Hoskisson, 1987; Hill & Snell, 1989; Jahera, Lloyd, & Page, 1987; Lubatkin & O'Neill, 1987; Prahalad & Bettis, 1986). However, perceived benefits and costs of

diversification are likely to be different between publicly held firms and owner-managed businesses due to the presence or absence of influential stakeholders, organizational size, or task differences between owner-managers and strategists in large firms (Otterbourg, 1989; Shaffer, 1985).

A key determinant of risk is variability in earnings. Factors affecting a business's profitability, in particular, the variability in profitability, will also affect the perceived risk for that business. Small businesses can use diversification methods to decrease the unsystematic risk (firm and industry based), which is one of the main reasons for business failure (Alexander & Sharpe, 1989; Markowitz, 1952). In addition, when a mixed business holds both nonprofit and profit assets, the co-ownership and cooperation between the for-profit side and the nonprofit side are created because of some synergetic advantages, which frequently share both risks and profits.

Nonprofits may have some advantages when competing in commercial markets. Those advantages include their tax status and their capacity to make the most of volunteer labor, attract in-kind contributions and supplier discounts, and use philanthropic money to help cover startup costs and capital investments. However, those advantages alone will not guarantee profitability.

In many cases, grant income is not enough, and the amount of money in the capital market dwarfs the amount of money in traditional philanthropy many times over. In many cases, it is possible to get startup money and to show verification of concept. But it can be very challenging to get to the next stage of funding after a business has been in operation for a couple of years, and that funding is necessary to actually execute and grow an organization and develop one's strategies to the next level. For anything to work, the transaction costs must be very low, which means high volume, and low risks. Moreover, that is a purpose of working on the supply side.

In the empirical sections below, the author explores three ethnographic studies of multi-operational nonprofit-profit business enterprises to determine the internal management of the organizational technologies within hybrid forms of organizations that merge business and social service. This article explores how

these organizational technologies are structured within an organization to better understand the general structural tensions within social service hybrid organizations more generally. The main thesis is that in hybrid social service organizations, the business side functions as a technical organization with tightly coupled technologies, while the social service side functions as an institutionalized organization with loosely coupled technologies.

Methods

Design/Procedure

Since this study uses participant observation and in-depth interviews, a qualitative research design using a naturalistic or field study serves as the framework for this study. This descriptive research contains data collection on many variables over an extended period in a naturalistic setting. The time period is five years of three startup businesses with social missions.

The primary method of data collection was onsite interviews with the owner-manager of each company, throughout the five years, with the intention of developing a clear image of and fully knowing the unique characteristics that influence the approach to each firm's services, distinctive competencies, customers, and diversification process. The interviews were structured around a series of open-ended questions designed to offer a common framework for analysis. Each was recorded on audiotape, transcribed, and summarized. This method permitted the author to obtain the conditions of each company's activities and recognize the value of the culture and leadership styles that influenced the results.

Prior to working and establishing a close relationship with the small business owner, the author researched each startup to familiarize himself with the industry and to determine its needs and obtained data regarding the organization's service and potential financial performance in order to recommend appropriate solutions.

With all three companies, I helped establish the criteria concerning the financial, organizational, marketing, and other aspects for setting up and running

a business, as well as oversaw the marketing and advertising campaigns during the five-year period. In addition, after establishing fund-raising goals according to the financial needs of each agency, I helped coordinate promotions and special fund-raising activities for each of the nonprofit affiliates through public and private grant agencies and foundations and benefit events. I also helped conduct massive direct mailings to reach potential contributors, formulate policies for collecting and safeguarding contributions, as well as initiate public relations programs to promote community understanding and support.

All three businesses are owner-managed, and each business is located in the same major U.S. city; however, each is in a different industry—beauty, religious literature, and entertainment. All three businesses have the legal form of a C-corporation, with two strategic business units (SBUs)—a for-profit limited liability company (LLC), and a nonprofit educational 501(c)(3).

These three businesses are hybrid in structure. These businesses should not be confused with dual business models, as these businesses do not have two different business models in the same market—they are not dual-purpose organizations competing with dual strategies that could conflict with one another (e.g., one SBU has a low-cost strategy while the other SBU has a differentiation strategy). These three businesses all have a nonprofit SBU that assists the for-profit SBU in training the staff to organize economically, socially, and ecologically sustainable developments within their respective businesses. These nonprofit SBUs function as agents, directing financial and technical help to the for-profit SBUs, which seek to build sustainable businesses that are healthy by offering the nonprofit SBUs technical assistance, project financing, operating support, and training, as well as being a means for product innovation, business management practices, and corporate leadership.

Salon and Day Spa. The first startup business is a day spa. This spa is less pricey and has faster service than resort or medical spas with licensed cosmetologists and licensed massage therapists on staff, as well as a registered nurse, certified nutritionist, and fitness instructor. It is located at a strip mall on a busy street with good visibility. This strip mall is on the side of the city that is fast

growing and full of upper-middle-class people from the corporate world. The nonprofit portion of this business does a lot of community involvement, which helps promote the spa. The nonprofit SBU sells wholesome lunches to the patrons, runs a daycare center for the children of the patrons, and provides seminars on holistic medicine, nutrition, and health-related issues for women. It receives a lot of support from the beauty supply industry. In addition, the nonprofit has collaborated with the local board of education to utilize the high school students who need to perform volunteer work. The students provide help in the daycare or, under the supervision of one of the cosmetologists, help provide grooming to senior citizens at the nursing homes in the area.

Christian Coffeehouse/Bookstore and Gift Shop. The second startup business is a nondenominational Christian coffeehouse/bookstore and gift shop, whose nonprofit affiliate is a religious ministry. The coffeehouse is well liked with the commuting professional group, and students of all ages have taken advantage of the wireless Internet access available there. The majority of people, who patronize the place, have selected this establishment for the quality of service and the products that cater to the taste of people with many different lifestyles.

The nonprofit affiliate hosts a hearing-impaired ministry, Bible studies, concerts, and informal gatherings and sponsors tutoring for grade-school students. It also offers free sign language classes and allows the students to utilize their developing skills by being servers in the coffeehouse for the hearing-impaired patrons on a weekly-designated day. This startup has been in the black for a couple of years, and the main goal is to expand the business. This is accomplished through events and book sales, which are publicized by sending out flyers. In addition to direct-mail advertising, this startup also promotes itself over the radio, mainly via sponsorships with local Christian stations, thus reaching the target audience of consumers considered most likely to buy from this Christian bookstore.

Urban GospoCentric Network and Showcase for Talent Search. The third startup business is a promoter and producer of teen-focused gospel music and

Christian hip-hop and fosters contemporary gospel and alternative gospel artists. It has a nonprofit affiliate that has a mission to educate while entertaining and informing groups of people through the promotion and production of seminars and conferences.

The seminars are looked upon as a community service and are a useful educational forum that attendees return to year after year. The nonprofit does not make any money from the seminars. These seminars help educate and motivate, as well as provide hope to people.

Results

Table 1 (on the next page) provides a summary of the key profit and nonprofit characteristics of these organizations and describes the synergy achieved in each organization and the skills that a manager needs for both sides of the enterprise.

All three startups are hybrids that provide a service. These three businesses are allied to nonprofit affiliates, which are related but do not compete with the for-profit side (i.e., a daycare and promoter of health and wellness, a religious ministry, and a promoter and producer of seminars and conferences related to the music industry, respectively).

Table 1: Characteristics of the For-Profit/Nonprofit Startup Organizations

Business Model	**Hybrid**—Firm-based control of economic returns to a service, which is allied to the nonprofit affiliate, but an innovation-based development of knowledge by relying on the public through the nonprofit affiliates. The profit and nonprofit sides are related but do not compete.
Organizational Form	**Innovative form**—Possesses a high potential for scope and flexibility of knowledge integration and a satisfactory level of efficiency of knowledge integration.
Combinative capabilities	**Systems capabilities**—Uses direction, policies, procedures, and manuals to integrate explicit knowledge bases whereby, the efficiency of knowledge is very high and the scope, and especially, flexibility, of knowledge integration are less satisfactory. **Coordination capabilities**—Enhances knowledge integration by relations between members of the group through training and job-rotation, natural liaison devices and participation, and joint decision-making processes that cut across lines of authority.

These hybrid models of business have a high potential for the scope and flexibility of knowledge integration, and a satisfactory level of efficiency of knowledge integration because each of the owner-managers has one set of directions, policies, procedures, and manual that is used for both the for-profit and nonprofit side of their organization. The common use of the manuals integrates the knowledge bases, whereby, the efficiency of knowledge is very high. The employees of these startups work for both the for-profit and nonprofit side of the organization as well as help in the decision-making of the organization, which enhances knowledge integration between the two sides of the hybrids.

Yet because the employees work both sides of the hybrid, adaptation is a challenge because these hybrids have to continually reevaluate which "bit" of public information can be used to make a minor improvement that slightly increases the economic returns. The for-profit and nonprofit sides of the hybrid

may have very different strategies, depending on their understanding of the innovation possibilities (Fransman, 1999). It is this internal conflict between the for-profit and nonprofit sides that limits the scope and flexibility of knowledge integration.

Discussion

> People involved in funding start-ups will tell you that out of every 10 launches, they will get two successful efforts, two that are complete failures, and the rest in the middle—the walking wounded. When a for-profit fails, it's viewed as a learning experience, an investment in intellectual capital. However, when a nonprofit manager fails, it scars the person for life. We try to help the nonprofits adopt the private sector's attitude.
> —Jeb Emerson (McLeod, 1997, 3)

A major problem with the growing trends in nonprofit venturing is the possible threat to the social mission that could be incurred by connecting a social service condition to a business enterprise. Designing a hybrid business as an organization located within two organizational fields (for-profit and nonprofit) and attempting to coordinate two different internal organizational technologies offers a framework for investigating the conflicts that can appear in these models.

First, the framework of the organizational field highlights the challenges the hybrid organization faces in timing and managing strategic actions in two different fields, as each progresses at a different rate. While there can surely be structural inertia in for-profit organizational forms (Hannan & Freeman, 1984), nonprofit scholars suggest that the pace of work is different across sectors. DiMaggio and Anheier (1990, 146) argue that historical contingencies can be preserved indefinitely in the nonprofit sector, in contrast to for-profits, which must adapt more quickly to environmental change due to market discipline. The nonprofit hybrid organization engaged in commercial activity, however, must structure itself internally to accommodate both paces of work.

Second, the framework of the organizational field highlights the heightened business and market risk faced by nonprofits entering into competition on the open market and tying social service provision to the success of their enterprises. Market risk—the threat to businesses due to broader economic cycles and

restructuring—can seriously threaten the viability of the hybrid model no matter where the organization is situated in its business field. Market risk, like business risk, not only puts in danger the well-being of the business enterprises, but also the stability of social services.

Finally, using a hybrid structure is a strategy that can be understood as an attempt to reduce the risk to client services from the boom/bust cycles of the market fluctuations. This strategy ultimately does not shield social service delivery technologies from goal displacement by market pressures facing the commercial enterprises. However, the business enterprises, which in theory provide an agency more freedom to provide unrestricted services for clients, place further demands on an already overly prescribed social service program.

The susceptibility of the service technologies in the face of the pressures of the business technologies may be connected to the vague and hazy character of service technologies in general (Glisson, 1992; Hasenfeld, 1992). Some of the best tools in the social enterprise literature, such as Young's (2004) techniques for "thinking at the margins" (decisions about resource, staff, and client allocation are made incrementally with careful calculations to protect the quality of services and the efficiency of resources over time), are assisted by hybrid models relying on government funds. The fundamental part of the program (e.g., clients) and the service technology is mainly structured by grant contracts won in a competitive environment rather than through careful calculations of when and how to bring a program to scale. Institutional forces from the social service arena could be a real influence on the internal operation technologies within the hybrid organization and, along with market forces from the business arenas, must be considered methodically.

All three of these businesses are very successful. The owner-manager of the Urban GospoCentric Network is forming a record label, as well as broadening the scope of the business to include a literary agency and an agency for painters and sculptors. The owner-manager of the Christian coffeehouse/bookstore and gift shop is planning to start an e-commerce (Internet) business by selling its

products on the Internet. In addition, the owner-manager of the salon and day spa is planning to open another location within two years.

The commonalities of the owner-managers for the three businesses are that they all have the eagerness of a devotee concerning their business and are personally involved in the business. They are persistent in their pursuit of their goal of making their business a success. For the overall business commonalities, all three businesses advertise to let people know that they exist. Much of their advertisement is from their community involvement through their nonprofit affiliates. In addition, the business focus is on being good at one or two things, and making money by providing a better service than anyone else can. The profits are used to expand and modernize their businesses so that the businesses are now becoming self-supporting. The employees are paid a little higher than market rate, so the training costs are low because the employees already possess the required skills and training, and there is a high quality control. Finally, there is a large repeat business.

Combining a for-profit organization with a nonprofit organization creates an exponentially increasing network of stakeholders that can take sustainability to a new level if the relationship is facilitated effectively, particularly if the principles of sustainability are incorporated into the corporate culture. These businesses illustrate that the sustainability factors should be taken into consideration for both the sake of the firm's reputation and its long-term financial benefits. For such for-profit-nonprofit entities to work from individual strengths, as well as a combined advantage, these entities need to be able to listen and learn from each component. In addition, both the for-profit and nonprofit sides must recognize that mechanisms are needed to allow the nonprofit side to be compensated for their legitimate contributions that help the overall corporation avoid and mitigate adverse social and environmental impacts of development, while subtly highlighting the for-profit side's own efforts and creating goodwill. These small businesses as a whole have benefited from acquiring program-related capital investments at below-market rates from foundations, but otherwise have very commercial methods of operations.

Moreover, these owner-managers understood that they had to rethink not how to raise money, but how to make use of the assets in the communities. These owner-managers did not talk about charitable contributions, but they did discuss how to create added economic value to the interaction between nonprofits and the communities in which they work. In addition, these owner-managers spoke of the culture clash between their own wish to make a profit (to provide more services) and the distrust of money characteristically felt at nonprofits. However, because these for-profit-nonprofits manage to generate earned income, they attain greater independence from the demands of funding sources, and, ultimately, it allows them to be more responsible to the people they serve.

Conclusion

The main concern of clients receiving services in any human service agency, including hybrid social service organizations, is the quality of services provided. In light of rapidly increasing trends in nonprofit venturing and social enterprise, it is vital that the marketing of social services in the nonprofit sector be analyzed with careful attention to the tensions between mission and profit. The growth of social purpose nonprofit businesses is evidenced in the surge of conferences, newsletters, business plan contests, and consulting services committed to the topic. It could be claimed that these hybrid organizations are increasingly occupying their own separate organizational field. Yet legally, they still must functionally straddle both social service and business organizational fields.

Adding momentum to all this change is the lack of distinction between the type of new-generation founders of nonprofit organizations and the founders of ambitious growth companies. The same people who are fashioning the hybrid social enterprise might as likely have been for-profit entrepreneurs. Little wonder, then, that the once-impregnable barriers between businesses and charities are now a lot more porous.

By looking for nontraditional ways of earning income—such as running a business or developing a corporate partnership—a nonprofit establishment becomes less dependent on mercurial sources of funding, such as government

grants, and replaces them with a stream of income that has at least a chance of achieving self-sustaining momentum. At the core of the funding shift is a change in the way nonprofits have typically regarded money and the way they have valued their own assets.

With all the excitement surrounding these new hybrid forms of social service organizations, more research is needed on how other organizational models for social enterprise are set up to control exposure of core social services to market and business "risk," taking into account different societal conditions. In addition, the structural risks to the nature of these services provided to the clients—the population these organizations are built to serve—must be evaluated. Future research in this area must integrate more methodical measures to evaluate the particular arrangements of hybrids in their organizational field(s), and the incorporation of internal tight and loose coupling technologies within the specific organizational structure models.

Due to the embryonic stage of the social enterprise field, neo-institutional theory could forecast a wide range of emergent organizational models for combining a business enterprise with social goals (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Leiter, 2005). This theory could prove to be very valuable with its focus on the competitive and institutional isomorphic demands in the organizational fields and the particular forms of organizational technologies. As Powell (1991, 186) contends, institutional and technical characteristics are present across fields and are not "dichotomous" factors, but rather, "dimensions along which environments vary."

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Brazilian Civil Society Boards:
Their Roles and Challenges in the Succession Process

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This article has a twofold objective: studying the role of boards and the challenge of the succession process in civil society organizations (CSOs). The growing number of social organizations in Brazil since the 1990s has resulted in a strong competition for capital. The challenge of professionalizing these organizations directly impacts governance policies and practices. To understand how these issues are being addressed the authors conducted a descriptive exploratory study and analyzed questionnaires completed by 74 organizations. We emphasized four competences crucial to board members: strategic vision, problem solving and decision making, relationship building, and planning. Whereas small organizations indicated that their board members concentrate on operational areas, larger ones indicated a more strategy-oriented approach. This difference implies that scarcity of capital can influence the focus of a board's strategic performance goals. The study also discovered that for 58% of the organizations studied, the boards did not have succession plans.

Key words: director council, governance, succession

The transformations in the political and economic worlds during the 1980s and 1990s strengthened the democratic system in Brazil and led to an increase in the participation of its civil society. The changes within the country were accompanied by a worldwide wave of democratization that included the foundation of numerous, well-funded organizations, characterizing the beginning of the Third Sector. This growing number of civil society organizations (CSOs) generated the birth of a new era. Fighting for space to pursue their agendas of social, political, environmental, and cultural advancement and to search for support and financing for their actions has become a requirement for survival, especially considering the 2008 economic crisis. According to a survey conducted by Brazil's Census Bureau (IBGE, 2008), the challenge of Brazilian social organizations is achieving sustainability.

A survey conducted by IBGE (2008) shows that only 13.1% of today's current such organizations were created before 1980. In other words, there is a high rate of mortality for CSOs. The survey points out that the number of private foundations and nonprofit associations decreased by 22.6% from 2002 to 2006, after a period of increase from 1996 to 2002. It also highlights the fact that of the organizations created in the first five years of the last decade, most (42.6%) emerged during the first two years (2001 and 2002), and the number of organizations created decreased in successive years to total 40.2% during 2003 and 2004 and only 17.2% in 2005.

The organizations that find themselves in a consolidation and maturity phase have begun professionalizing their actions, seeking to build capacity in their executive officers and hire collaborators with technical backgrounds, who, simultaneously, identity with their cause. This commitment to professionalization has permitted a more clear analysis of the impact of civil society organizations and their effective contribution to sustainable development.

If, on the one hand, one observes better technical and managerial qualifications among employees working in the Third Sector, on the other, the number of organizations aware of the need to improve governance polices and practices is still incipient, particularly those involving the board of directors. Organizations and board members seem to give little importance to clarifying their role, and boards eventually assume functions that are similar to that of executives on the organization's day-to-day activities, thereby becoming directly involved in the target activities of the organization.

It is fundamental that boards identify with the cause and contribute to the strategic goals of organizations, by debating the guidelines that should orientate their tactics and operational planning, as well as through the execution of their activities. The purpose of this study was to analyze how social organizations in Brazil view their governance policies, especially with reference to the role of board members. An effective performance of the board and a structured process of succession of their members will lead to the accomplishment of the mission and objectives of nonprofit organizations.

Theoretical Framework

Governance

Due to the complexity of the theme of governance and the application of this term in different contexts and organizational forms, placing them within a historic context seems necessary to understand when the issue of governance started to gain importance among organizations' management processes.

According to Lodi (2000), although the term *corporate governance* reached its maturity in the 1990s, its origin dates back to the 1950s and 1960s in the United States, a period that revised the ways in which private firms are directed and controlled. In Brazil, this process is much more recent, only starting to become important within the business community in the 1990s, when, in 1994, the Brazilian Institute of Corporate Governance (IBGC) was created[1].

In 1999, the IBGC defined the concept of *corporate governance* in its "Code of Best Corporate Governance Practices," a document that was based on reflections on Brazilian company laws in force at the time. This code has since been updated to incorporate the new challenges of the business sector and, in its last version, defines corporate governance as:

> . . . the system whereby organizations are run, overseen, and incentivized. It involves the relationships between the shareholders, the Board of Directors, the Officers, and oversight bodies. Good corporate governance practices convert principles into objective recommendations, aligning interests with the purpose of preserving and enhancing the organization's value, facilitating its access to capital and contributing to its longevity. (IBGC, 2009, 19)

Both the phenomenon of globalization and the process of privatization in various public institutions strongly impact large corporations and make it imperative to distinguish between ownership and management (Lodi, 2000). In this sense, the board of directors starts to be a fundamental instrument for balancing agency conflicts that naturally occur between shareholders and stakeholders, as well as between owners and management. Moreover, the presence of an effective board enables more equity, transparency, and accountability in organizations, as well

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[1] Initially called Brazilian Institute of Administration Councilors (IBGA)

as compliance with the country's laws.

In the case of nonprofit organizations, the idea of corporate governance has been becoming more relevant in the early 2000s. One reason for this is the more exacting requirements of financiers, who, being approached by a high number of nonprofit organizations, have started to single out those presenting better controls and management systems.

According to Guimarães (2008, 14), thinking about governance mechanisms in civil society organizations is believed to be a way of better understanding how the management of these organizations is "currently practiced and how it could be improved," so as to "effectively ensure that their performance doesn't stray from the mission and objectives for which they were created."

The Role and Importance of Boards of Directors in Civil Society Organizations

The boards of directors addressed in this study are the highest representatives for strategic decision making in civil society organizations; their key role is to establish institutional policies and determine the direction of organizations. According to Guimarães (2008), the board of directors:

> . . . is accountable for ratifying and monitoring decisions that have been initiated and implemented by the managers of the organizations. Thus, one tries to decrease risks by separating decision-making power, so that stakeholders remain confident that organizational resources are being used in the expected ways and with the expected outcomes. Subscribers to this theoretical construct argue that members have the responsibility to select and evaluate a suitable administrator, as well as supervise his/her work to ensure that the interests of the hired professionals and the staff are aligned so as not to conflict with the mission of the organization and with society. (74)

According to studies conducted by Ostrower and Stone, cited by Guimarães (2008), one cannot state that there is a specific, single performance model for a board. Due to constant changes in the social, economic, and political spheres, boards are known to be deeply influenced by the context in which they operate and, undoubtedly, governance mechanisms will have to take that context into consideration in order to establish performance policies that engage their internal and external audiences.

What is always true is that the boards will be called upon to address issues concerning the strategic plan of organizations, which is crucial to the success and longevity of the institution, and includes its mission, vision, programmatic plans of action, goals, evaluation and monitoring indicators, target public, and other categories that may be directly relevant for measuring the organization's success and sustainability.

The literature on this theme shows a strong degree of similarity between the boards of private organizations and those of CSOs, due to the conceptualization and functions attributed to these groups. Boards are thought to be strategic groups with an extremely high level of knowledge about the organization and the scenario in which they operate.

The board of directors is a body involved in essential, strategic decision making, playing an important role in the adequate performance of the governance of organizations, but according to studies conducted by Mindlin (2009):

> . . . various factors contribute to the fact that this body is not, often, as
> efficacious as expected. In Brazil, for NPOs[2] to be able to maintain income tax
> exemption, board members must not be remunerated. That tends to generate a
> low commitment from board members to the actions and strategies of
> organizations as well as infrequent participation in board meetings, although it
> can be argued that board members' involvement with the cause of the
> organization would, per se, be sufficient to ensure their involvement,
> particularly if they are large suppliers of capital. (67)

In addition, board members are often appointed for their social and economic status as a means of facilitating fund-raising or establishing relevant contacts for the entity. Although they are useful and worthy of merit, these functions are distant from those regarded as governance mechanisms. The composition of the board often does not take into consideration necessary competences and the representation of the various interested parties.

Miller-Millesen (2003), cited by Guimarães (2008, 94–95), posits that the board members' strategic contribution should focus, specifically, on questions related to

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[2] Nonprofit organizations

mission development, strategic planning, programs evaluation, recruiting, and supervision of executives, as well as resource allocation.

Within the internal scope of organizations, the board of directors must understand the organization's institutional policies, succession plans, and code of conduct and ethics. Within their external scope, the board should focus on strengthening institutional relationships aimed at forging liaisons with partners—in order to feed the flow of information inside and outside the organization—as well as stretching the limits of its operating performance.

According to Carver (2006), the board of directors should not delegate three essential activities:

1. The board's first direct product is the organization's linkage to the ownership;
2. The board's second direct product is explicit governing policies; and
3. The board's third direct product is assurance of executive performance.

Board members are expected to fundamentally contribute to the organization based on competences related to the understanding of the environment that influences the organization, to have an interest in the purpose of the institution, to have the ability to manage crises, strategic vision, and ethical behavior.

It is worth emphasizing the importance of a diverse group of board members, including persons from different social groups, ethnicities, races, genders, professional fields, and social classes, which will enrich the information exchange between each board member and, consequently, the organization. A diversified board can strengthen strategic decisions by taking into consideration different points of view and professional and life histories.

Though the board's role is clearly and objectively allied with the organization's strategic issues, the board also has the freedom to guide and give opinions in relation to actions taken by the executive team.

According to Carver (2006):

. . . the board does not exist to help the staff, but to stand in for the owners. The board does not exist to supply auxiliary skills to the staff. Board members can help staff, of course, but it is crucial to remember that such help is not why the board exists; that is, helping staff is not the purpose of governance (2).

It is important to bear in mind the distinction between the roles of board members and executive management officers. The board supervises and controls the actions of executives to whom the decision management is delegated. This separation between control and management is an important principle that aligns the interests of the managers and those of board members.

Succession: Opportunities and Challenges

Business succession planning has been increasingly studied as the most sensitive and challenging phase in the continuity of organizations. According to Adams (2006), this process can be emotionally charged, requiring a great deal of work. A failed transition can weaken an organization. However, Adams states that by creating a succession plan and proactively addressing transition issues, it is possible to strengthen an organization's structure and vision, making it more prepared for the changes to come.

As with every complex process, succession requires good planning. According to Lansberg (1997), cited by Moreira and Bortoli Neto (2007), even strategically well-positioned enterprises can disappear because of the lack of a succession plan adequate to their need.

According to Silva (2002), a well-thought-out succession plan requires defining the profile of each job: "After defining a job profile, it is easier to find the candidate that best fits the profile." A hasty decision in choosing a successor often results in an inappropriate choice.

Adams (2006) posits that some transitions and succession can be even more complex when they involve, for instance, charismatic leaders or founders that have been in an organization for a long time. Another important point he addresses is the need to ensure that intended strategies are implemented and that opportunities that arise at the time of the transition are taken.

Communication is one of the best tools in this process. It which must be used so that all stakeholders can be involved and, for the development of a good succession plan: "The tool of communication should be used to enable the process, and all participants should discuss all policies and strategies that will be

used" (Moreira and Bortoli Neto, 2007, 51).

Adams (2006) asserts that the act of creating a succession plan is even more complex when is done by the organization itself, insofar as it requires an impartial stance and dealing with delicate emotional and organizational issues. It is important to have somebody with experience in organizational development, but who is not involved with the organization, to contribute to the process.

In the case of civil society organizations, this problem is even greater because most board members have serious difficulty in giving the needed attention to the process of strengthening and developing the organization. According to a study with executives from nonprofit organizations by Santora, Seaton, Caro, Prime-Monaghan, and Sarros (2007) cited by Santora, Sarros, and Bauer (2008), a number of executive directors interviewed reported that, despite their good intentions, board members don't have the time, experience, commitment, or interest to do so. They also do not view the succession plan as a priority issue.

Seeking to improve this scenario, some international authors have been emphasizing the importance of thinking about the succession process in civil society organizations, pointing out some paths to be followed. Wolfred (2002) posits that the board should consult key stakeholders before and during the transition. According to the author, it is extremely important to listen to stakeholders' concerns and discuss the transition plan with them.

Gilmore (2003), cited by Adams (2006), points out that if an organization wants to be proactive rather than passive, it must use its relationship network. Thus, board members should search collectively, conduct board meeting workshops, and exchange information with friends.

In the words of Teegarden (2004), the transition of executives provides a unique moment for the organization to look at its vision of the future strategically and find executives that will help it achieve that vision.

Method

The survey evolved from an applied descriptive exploratory study using an online

questionnaire, available through the Survey Monkey[3] survey generation tool, which was sent to representatives of civil society organizations. It aimed to assess how, in practice, their boards of directors operate in Brazil, evaluate the roles performed by their members, and determine if the organizations are dedicated to building a succession process for their board members.

Prior to sending the questionnaire, a pre-test was carried out with six organizations. The invitation to the survey was then sent to 413 civil society organizations. The survey was disseminated through networks of organizations known to the authors, so as to represent all regions of the Brazilian territory. The questionnaire was available for a month. After this time, 75 questionnaires, or 18%, had been completed by the main representatives of the organizations (e.g., board chair, founder, etc.).

The questionnaires contained 34 questions, which were divided into seven groups to facilitate the understanding of the themes to be addressed. The question groups were: 1. Respondent's profile; 2. Organization's profile; 3. Board of directors; 4. The board of directors' succession process; 5. If the organization has a succession plan for the board of directors; 6. If the organization does not have a succession plan for the board of directors; and 7. Final remarks.

The analysis of the data collected in the survey was instrumental in demonstrating convergences and divergences in the opinions of the organizations' executives about board members and their contributions to the development of the entity.

Results

We observed that 53% of the respondents have an annual budget above 1.000,000.00 BRL (approximately 450,000 EUR); most are associations (78%); and are located in Brazil's southeast region (72%). A total of 77% of the CSOs carry out their activities with less than 50 employees—suggesting they have lean professional staffs. A great diversity was observed concerning their focus. The following areas are the most common: 19% in social assistance, 14% in

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[3] Survey Monkey Web site http://www.surveymonkey.com

education and research, and 11% in health. Among the organizations that answered the alternative "other," 11% maintain more than one area of performance, which may mean a lack of focus in some cases.

  With regard to the length of time in leadership in the organizations (see Table 1 below), we observed that in 59% of the cases, the respondents had been leaders for more than seven years, whereas only 4% of the respondents have occupied leadership positions for less than one year, thus demonstrating low turnover and commitment to their entities.

Table 1: Length of Time Worked for Organization
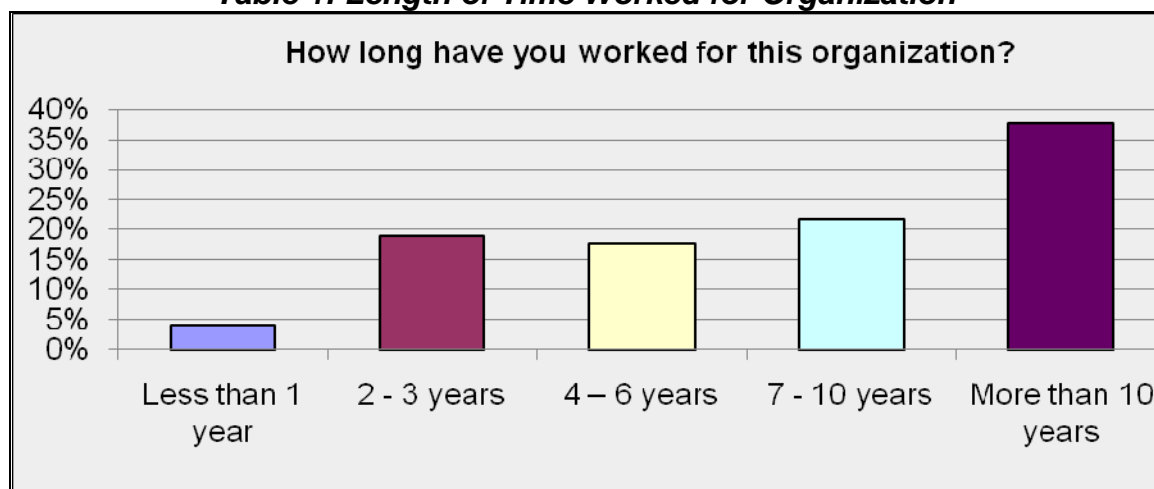
The answers obtained in the survey point out four competences that an organization's chair expects from its board members: strategic vision (23%), problem resolution and decision making (13%), relationship building (12%) and planning (12%). These four competences also relate to the answers to questions about the board members' functions. The survey demonstrated a correlation between the two variables pointing out that the board members' expected competences are related to overall operational performance in smaller organizations. In larger organizations these focus on controlling strategic areas. This differentiation may indicate that scarcity of resources can influence a board's strategic performance.

  The authors also observed that in 73% of the organizations studied, all or almost all board members have a clear understanding of the purposes of their

organizations. This is a key factor in being able to provide accurate and adequate communications about the organization to the public with whom they have established relationships. In organizations where only a few of their board members have clarity about mission and vision (27%), there is the need for educate board members —mission and vision are the main premise of a board's strategic role.

It is noted that 69% of the organizations studied formed committees of both board and staff members to expand their knowledge of technical issues; this is a good practice in organizations that have reduced the number of employees so as to use their human capital more efficiently.

On the topic of elections, in 42% of the organizations studied, board members are elected through an assembly, and in 33%, board members are appointed by the founder, president, or current board members. Some organizations have made advances in planning the board's composition: 15% select their future board members based on profile requirements.

In relation to the succession plan of the boards, although this process has been increasingly studied, it remains a challenging subject for even strategically well-positioned enterprises can fold in the absence of a succession plan adequate to their needs.

In 58% of the organizations studied, no succession plan exists for the board of directors (see Table 2 on next page). Unfortunately, most reported that a succession plan for boards is not a priority. But when a succession plan is present, it is often incorporated into organizational by-laws, which provides legitimacy. Those organizations with formal succession plans had established them in their by-laws (19%).

Table 2: Succession Plans of the Board's Members

Response Options	Percentage of Responses	Number of Responses
There is no succession plan. Succession occurs without planning.	58%	43
The organization has a formal succession plan established in its by-laws.	19%	14
The organization has a formal succession plan.	8%	6
Other	15%	11
Total Responses		**74**

When they are in place, most succession plans were developed by board members and other members of the organization (42%), which indicates that organizations more committed to good governance also enjoy a more participative process in developing the succession plan.

Respondents mentioned the following items in their organizations' succession plans: elections (32%), candidates' profiles (23%), role definitions for former board members (13%), transition periods (12%), and training of new board members (12%).

The authors observed that the biggest concern of organizations with regard to their succession plan is the preliminary phase of defining who will staff the board of directors. Many organizations do not see the importance of training new board members about organizational values, the transition period, and the future relationship with former board members. The importance of the latter should be stressed, as these people are important resources for the organization: they know and are part of its history; they know the community and the organization's partners, and they are potential ambassadors of the organization.

Limitations to This Study

The development and analysis of the data from this survey pointed to some limitations that the authors find important to report to researchers who may be interested in this subject.

First, most responding organizations were located in the south and southeast regions of Brazil (where the authors live). This variable influenced the sample.

Second, the information provided about each organization's board represented the viewpoint of only one individual: their main executive. Therefore, the answers may have a personal character that does not reflect the reality of the organization, particularly when answered by founders, whose personal wishes may have influenced their responses.

Third, because this analysis is about the present, it is not possible to analyze the evolution of the performance of a board and the development of a succession plan over a period of time.

Finally, although boards of directors and their succession are important success factors in organizations, a broader analysis that includes other governance factors is necessary to explain the success of an organization.

Conclusions

The authors conclude that, in general, organizations are maturing and internalizing corporate governance policies that address the performance of board members and their succession plan. It is worth emphasizing that a succession plan is important factor in the continuity of an organization, particularly those that are growing with many employees and dependent beneficiaries. This evolution is expected to strengthen an organization's objective of ensuring its continuity, to reduce crises due to lack of strategic planning, and to lessen the impact of the succession of board and other members of the organization.

However, rethinking the real role of board members is a prerequisite for devising succession plans. For many organizations, this role is not well thought out when the board is created, nor is it addressed in their by-laws or code of conduct, which hinders the strategic performance of the boards.

Many organizations cannot absorb the constant changes occurring in the Third Sector and the requirements of professionalization. They run the risk of failing to differentiate themselves from the large number of new organizations or perhaps not effectively and efficiently fulfilling their goals and, consequently, their mission.

This survey points out that the current challenge of a Brazilian CSO is adopting practices of medium-and long-term strategic planning, so that the organization contributes to its institutional development in an structured way with the goal of aligning actions that enhance both its performance and its sustainability.

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Follower Expectations of a Leader:
Most Admired Leader Behaviors

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Follower expectations of a leader were examined to identify the most admired leader behaviors. Selected staff members of a medium-sized microfinance company in Nairobi, Kenya, were interviewed for their perspectives on the definition of leadership, the characteristics of a good leader, the qualities of leaders they admired, and perceived special virtues of their current leader. The findings indicate that follower expectations of leaders fall within existing theories and concepts of leadership, with transformational, authentic, and servant leadership behaviors eliciting the highest levels of admiration from followers.

Key words: authentic leadership, follower expectations, leader behavior, transformational leadership

A recent analysis of popular leadership books revealed that effective leaders are seen as those effecting change, possessing great experience and knowledge, and providing their followers with opportunities to reach their unique potential (Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007). Previously, Staw (1975) had argued that followers tend to rate their leaders on the reported performance of their organizations rather than on their abilities and behavior. Meindl (1990) described this phenomenon as the *performance cue effect,* wherein the leadership role in events is socially derived, accentuated, and ascribed to the leader. Hence, leadership is not so much the role of the leader but the psychology of the individual follower within a sociological group. It is the perceptions and expectations of the follower that determine the perceived success or failure of the leader.

Meindl (1995) proposed a follower-centric social constructionist approach in which leadership was defined through the followers' thought processes. Images of prototypical leaders were conjured in the minds of followers that were quite independent of empirical realities surrounding the leader—a conception that Chong and Wolf (2010) considered to have resulted in a socially constructed relationship between leaders and followers that relied heavily on a romanticized

notion of the leader. This consequently formed the basis for the "Romance of Leadership," which marked a significant departure from leader-centric phenomenology focusing on the leader's personality and behavior to one of follower perceptions.

Unfortunately, according to Chong and Wolf (2010), such a romanticized notion of leadership has left charismatic leaders, who have mastered the use of "impression management" to gain followers' admiration, inspire them, and gain their commitment (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Yukl, 2005). Furthermore, such leaders can create and sustain a heroic image, and consequently, charismatic leaders may appear larger than life while their leadership is largely symbolic (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Chong and Wolf also argued that if traits and values of effective followers and leaders are similar, then to be truly effective, leaders must imbue the predominantly desired traits and values of their followers. Furthermore, leaders must make it their primary purpose to be identified with and be of situational relevance to their followers. Thus, the current study set out to identify what followers want and what they expect from their leaders. The research question is framed as follows: What do followers want from leaders, and how does this compare to the current leadership literature?

To explore the research question, four main interview questions were used, supplemented with follow-up questions as necessary:

1. How would you define leadership?
2. When you think of a good leader, what comes to mind?
3. Think of a leader you admire. What qualities stand out about him or her?
4. What would you say you like most about your current leader?

Methods

The study was conducted among employees of a medium-sized microfinance institution in Nairobi, Kenya. Interviews were conducted with seven selected staff members drawn from various departments based at the company's head office. All those interviewed were at different levels of the organization's staff hierarchy.

The data were collected using open-ended questions in face-to-face interviews, which were recorded through note taking and audio recording.

The data were compiled and analyzed to identify common themes and concepts from the seven interviewees. These were then coded and grouped into broad categories of leadership concepts arising from the four interview questions as described below.

Definitions of Leadership

Each interviewee was asked to give his or her definition of leadership. A summary and analysis of their responses appears in Table 1.

Table 1: How Would You Define Leadership?

Interviewee	Definition of Leadership
Interviewee 1	Being over others* Giving instructions** Listening to views of followers Giving guidance**
Interviewee 2	Supervising others* Guiding and directing others towards a goal**
Interviewee 3	Art of motivating others to achieve a goal++
Interviewee 4	Ability to influence others positively or negatively+ (e.g. Mandela and Hitler)
Interviewee 5	Recognizing leadership responsibility Being in front in areas of responsibility**
Interviewee 6	Position of responsibility* Forefront in guiding others** Born or taught to lead
Interviewee 7	Influence toward a desired goal+ Inspiring people to act willingly++

Emerging Key Themes:
 *   Supervising
 **   Guiding
 +   Influencing
 ++ Inspiring and Motivating

As evident from Table 1, the interviewees' definitions of leadership fell into four main categories: supervising, guiding, influencing, and inspiring or motivating. Yukl (2005) observed that most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by a person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization. He argued that the definition of leadership will affect the understanding of the same. It can thus be reasoned that the definition and understanding of leadership by a follower will consequently affect the follower's expectations of the leader. Thus the followers in the current study, in line with their definitions, would expect their leaders to supervise, guide, influence, and inspire and motivate them toward specific goals in the course of their duties.

Supervising and Guiding. As shown in the analysis, the staff expressed supervision and guiding as key aspects of leadership. They defined leadership with such terms as: giving instructions, sharing openly, giving counsel and advice, guiding and directing others towards a goal, helping others overcome difficulties, and clarifying instructions. This view falls within the realm of *directive leadership* (Sims, Faraj, & Yun, 2009), which expresses leadership through direction, instructions, and commands. It also follows Hemphill and Coons' (1957) definition of leadership as the behavior of an individual directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. Such direction requires that the leader not only know the course the team should be taking, but is also possessed of the requisite skills and abilities to provide practical guidance as necessary.

Yukl (2005) posited that such task-relevant knowledge and skill are a major source of personal leadership power in organizations. However, the expertise becomes a source of power only if others are dependent on it. Thus the leader must be perceived to be a reliable source of information and advice. According to

Yukl, in the short run "perceived expertise is more important than real expertise" (155). Consequently, just as the interviewees indicated, followers expect leaders to develop and maintain a reputation for technical expertise and strong credibility by solving important problems; making good decisions; providing sound advice; and successfully completing challenging, but highly visible, projects.

Influencing, The other behavior identified by the respondents as defining leadership was influencing. It was apparent from the interviews that this notion may have been based on the definition of leadership offered by Maxwell (1993), who was quoted by some of the respondents. Maxwell asserted, "After more than four decades of observing leadership within my family and many years of developing my own leadership potential, I have come to this conclusion: Leadership is influence. That's it. Nothing more; nothing less" (1). Whereas this definition has been disputed by some (Barna, 2002), it is nonetheless prevalent, and in transformational leadership, one of the four components is *idealized influence.*

Yukl (2005) observes that the primary influence process is through personal identification. This is influence derived from the follower's desire to please and imitate the leader. In this regard, according to Yukl, charismatic leaders are especially influential because they appear so extraordinary—due to their strategic insight, strong convictions, self-confidence, unconventional behavior, and dynamic energy—that subordinates idolize these leaders and want to become like them.

Inspiring and Motivating. Another component of the definition of leadership arising from the interviews identified a leader as one who is inspiring and motivating. The respondents described such a leader as one who motivates others to achieve a goal, inspires people to act willingly, and inspires people to follow.

In transformational leadership, *inspirational motivation* is one of the key components of effective leadership. It is defined as the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge followers with

high standards, communicate optimism about future goal attainment, and provide meaning for the task at hand. Such behavior is considered to be a great performance motivator, and, as confirmed by the interviewees in the current study, such leadership becomes naturally attractive to followers.

Characteristics of a Good Leader

For the second question, the interviewees were asked to give the personal characteristics of a good leader. A summary of their responses are shown in Table 2 (on the next page).

Table 2: When You Think of a Good Leader, What Comes to Mind?

Interviewee	A Good Leader
Interviewee 1	Listens*
	Discusses issues with followers**
	Does not gossip*
	Does not have favorites or cliques
	Soft spoken/doesn't shout at followers*
Interviewee 2	A people person***
	Interacts freely with followers**
	Shares his/her mind openly*
	Keeps confidences*
	Approachable***
	Problem solver++
	Committed to excellence
	Listens*
	Is diligent++
	Sets an example+
	Is ahead of followers+
	Creative
	Imaginative
Interviewee 3	Has character
	Is a role model+
	Inspires confidence++
	Able to handle crises
Interviewee 4	Values people***
	Cares about relationships***
	Listens to people in the course of duty*
Interviewee 5	Forward looking
	A mentor***
	Manages challenges++
	Able to deal with difficult people***
Interviewee 6	Serves others***
	Listens*
	Seeks opinion of followers**
	Does not impose personal ideas**
	Allows for and provides feedback*
	Clarifies instructions*
	Willing to learn from others**
Interviewee 7	Is an example+
	Passionate about goals
	Knowledgeable of what is to be achieved++
	Has broad picture of the future
	Has integrity (means what he says and says what he means)
	Inspires people to follow
	Has character

Emerging Key Themes:

* Listening and Communication

** Learning from Followers

*** People Focused

+ Example and Role Model

++ Effectiveness

The themes that arose from this question may be summarized as: listening and communication; learning from subordinates; people focus; example and role model; and effectiveness.

Listening and Communication. Listening was a recurring theme among the interviewees when they described a good leader. Such a leader is one that listens, listens to views of followers, or listens to people in the course of duty. Listening may be associated with emotional intelligence, which is conceptualized as a skill and is related to personality traits such as emotional maturity, self-monitoring, self-confidence, and achievement orientation (Yukl, 2005). For Yukl, emotional intelligence leads to the ability to listen attentively, communicate effectively, and express appreciation and positive regard. Wong and Law (2002) found that emotional intelligence was related to follower job satisfaction and performance. Rogers and Farson (2009) reasoned that one basic responsibility of the supervisor or executive is the development, adjustment, and integration of the individual employees. To accomplish this, the leader must have, among other abilities, the capacity to listen intelligently and carefully to those with whom he or she works. This ability is also known as active listening, and has been shown to have positive impact on groups and individuals (Rogers & Farson, 2009). Thus, followers expect their leaders to listen actively and to communicate effectively.

Learning from Followers. Several interviewees considered a leader's willingness to learn from followers to be a sign of good leadership. They described such leaders as those who provide room for others to be innovative and creative, discuss issues with followers, do not dictate ideas, seek opinions of followers, do not impose personal ideas, and allow for and provide feedback.

From current literature, such behavior may be associated with a learning attitude. Yukl (2005) reported on a study of 1,800 high-level military officers in which leaders' openness to learning predicted self-reported career achievements. Other studies have shown that one of the most important competencies for successful leadership in changing times is the ability to learn from experience and from others (Argyris, 1991; Dechant, 1990; Mumford & Connelly, 1991). Vaill (1997) referred to this orientation as the *learning premise*, and suggested that being involved in a learning process or proceeding from a learning premise means to be "continually confronted with newness—new problems, ideas, techniques, concepts; new gestalts; new possibilities and new limits; new awareness and understandings of oneself" (4). Hence, as expressed by the interviewees in this study, followers expect effective leaders not to pretend to know everything but to be humble enough to seek to learn, both from their followers and from others, thereby ready to be continually confronted with newness.

People Focused. People focused was another of the key expectations of good leaders that emerged from the study. The interviewees described such a leader as a people person, caring, empathetic and understanding, valuing people, caring about relationships, interacting freely with followers, showing confidence in me and others, bringing out potential in others, and serving others. These expressions may be associated with *individualized consideration* in transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Individualized consideration is defined as the degree to which a leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, and listens to the follower's concerns and needs. In this regard, then, it can be said that the transformational leader is altruistic and therefore lays aside personal comfort in order to attend to the needs of individual followers, as was desired by the interviewees in this study.

Kaplan (2000) defined altruism as helping others selflessly just for the sake of helping, and involves personal sacrifice, though there is no personal gain. Likewise, Eisenberg (1986) defined altruistic behavior as being voluntary behavior that is intended to benefit another and is not motivated by the

expectation of external reward. Interestingly though, Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2004) arguing for servant leadership, reasoned that transformational leadership shows leaders as focused on the organization, and thus is insufficient to explain behavior that is altruistic in nature, or that is follower-focused. According to Patterson (2003), the servant leader demonstrates a follower focus through: (1) agapao love, (2) acting with humility, (3) being altruistic, (4) being visionary for the followers, (5) trusting, (6) serving, and (7) empowering followers. So, these virtues or morals are qualitative characteristics that are part of one's character, something that is internal, almost spiritual (Whetstone, 2001). These qualities characterize the servant leader, who is guided by virtues within. Whatever the case, it seems clear from the study that followers appreciate leaders who provide individualized attention for followers' personal and work needs.

Example and Role Model. Leadership by example was an expectation of leaders by those interviewed. When asked to describe the characteristics of a good leader and of a leader they admired, the interviewees used phrases such as: sets an example, is ahead of followers, is a role model, and is an example to followers.

Sims and Brinkmann (2002) argued that leaders represent significant others in the organizational lives of employees, "with significant power qua behavior role models or simply qua power in the meaning of being able to force others to carry out one's own will" (328). Consequently, leaders' examples and decisions affect not only the employees who report to them, but also the stockholders, suppliers, customers, the community, country, and even the world. Therefore, if leaders are consistent in what they pay attention to, measure, and control, then employees receive clear signals about what is important in the organization (Sims & Brinkmann, 2002). Yukl (2005), on the other hand, emphasized the importance of congruence between a leader's expectations of followers and his or her own behavior. He reckons that a manager who asks subordinates to observe particular standards or to make special sacrifices must set an example by doing the same; otherwise, the effort is lost.

The implication here is that leaders have a significant role in modeling what is important, both in task and conduct. Such modeling should also span the commitment to organizational vision, mission, and ideals. Van Fleet and Yukl (1986), for example, found that some of the most inspirational military leaders have been ones who led their troops into battle and shared the dangers and hardships rather than staying in relative safety and comfort. Hence, role modeling is especially important for actions that are unpleasant, dangerous, unconventional, or controversial (Yukl, 2005). It is clear then that followers expect their leaders to blaze the trail, set the pace, and hold the fort.

Effectiveness. Several of the staff identified effectiveness as an expectation they have of a good leader. The interviewees described such a leader as a problem solver, diligent, inspiring confidence, managing challenges, and knowledgeable of what is to be achieved. Whereas these represent diverse concepts of leader effectiveness, Yukl (2005) observed that most researchers evaluate leadership effectiveness in terms of the consequences of the leader's actions for followers and other organization stakeholders. Such measure of effectiveness is especially contingent upon the extent to which the leader's organizational unit performs its task successfully and attains its goals, how well the leader satisfies follower expectations, and the leader's contribution to the quality of group processes, as perceived by followers and outsiders. Therefore, it is natural for followers to expect their leader to be effective in these areas. Furthermore, Hooijberg, Lane, and Diverse (2010) found that, in terms of being perceived as effective, what mattered most was how goal-oriented and productivity-oriented one is in the eyes, not just of the boss, but also of direct reports.

Qualities of an Admired Leader

For the third question, interviewees were asked to identify a leader they admired and to list the qualities that stood out about that leader. A summary of their responses are in Table 3 on the next page.

Table 3: Think of a Leader You Admire.
What Qualities Stand out about Him or Her?

Interviewee	Qualities of Admired Leader
Interviewee 1	Transparent* Honest* Listens Does not dictate ideas Gives counsel and advice
Interviewee 2	Accountable* Fears God Approachable** Caring**
Interviewee 3	Empathetic and understanding** Helps others overcome difficulties** Well rounded in skills and knowledge Broad understanding of issues Personal character and integrity* Able to handle money*
Interviewee 4	Shows confidence in me and others** Delegates responsibilities** Develops responsibility in others**
Interviewee 5	Is balanced Objective Focused Loves God Has faith in herself+ Has faith in others** Courageous+ Brings out potential in others**
Interviewee 6	Is a people person** Loves God Considers the impact of issues on others** Has good relationship with staff** Has humility
Interviewee 7	Passionate+ Courageous+ Committed Inspires others** Knowledgeable Forthright+

Emerging Key Themes:

*   Integrity and Character

**   People Focused

\+   Charisma

The themes arising from this question were integrity and character, people focused (which was previously discussed), and charisma.

Integrity and Character. Personal character and integrity was a common theme among several of those interviewed. They described the good leader and their admired leaders with phrases like: transparent, honest, accountable, has character, has integrity, means what s/he says and says what s/he means. This appears to be consistent with a study by Fields (2007), which predicted that authentic leaders whose actions are consistent with their own beliefs are likely to have more influence on followers, in part because followers interpret authenticity as evidence of reliability of the leader. Thus, an authentic leader is more likely to be emulated by followers as a credible role model. This may be because authentic leaders are characterized as having (a) a heightened capacity to effectively process self information, including values, beliefs, goals, and emotions; (b) the ability to use their self-system to regulate behaviors while acting as a leader; (c) high levels of clarity of self; and (d) the ability to manage tension between self and social demands (Chan, Hannah, & Gardner, 2005). Other studies (e.g., Palanski & Yammarino, 2007, 2009) provide evidence of association between integrity and honesty: matching deeds to words, a sense of morality, and that it lies in the eyes of the beholder. Therefore, even for a new leader, if there is a perception of credibility, the uncertainty among followers is greatly reduced, leading to confidence in both the leader and in the team. So there is an expectation that a true leader will possess integrity and character.

Charisma. Another theme arising out of the interviews seemed to define charisma. The interviewees, in describing the qualities of their admired leaders, used such terms as faith in self, courageous, passionate, and forthright.

Weber (1947) observes that the term *charisma* was initially used to describe the characteristics of religious figures and political and military leaders. However,

charismatic leadership theory has been expanded by a number of researchers into somewhat diverse concepts of charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Sashkin, 1988; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Trice & Beyer, 1986). More recently, charismatic leadership has been recognized as one of the components in Bass's transformational theory of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Murphy and Ensher (2008) associated charismatic leadership with such behavior as vision and vision articulation, personal risk and deviation from the status quo, unconventional behavior, sensitivity to group members' needs, and sensitivity to environmental trends. Thus, charismatic leaders often exhibit very unique behavior that surprises other members of the organization, and is especially important in creative groups (Jaussi & Dionne, 2003). Charismatic leaders are believed to possess a heightened sensitivity to the environment— carefully scanning for trends that would cause them to adapt their vision and align accordingly. It is no wonder that followers are attracted to perceived charismatic behavior in leaders.

Virtues of Current Leaders

For the final question. interviewees were asked to name the key virtues they liked the most about their current leader (see Table 4 on the next page).

Table 4: What Would You Say You Like
Most about Your Current Leader?

Interviewee	Current Leader
Interviewee 1	Soft spoken Listening
Interviewee 2	Fears God+
Interviewee 3	Gives space to others to be innovative and creative Does not micromanage Gives guidance
Interviewee 4	Decisive** Focused* Firm*
Interviewee 5	Focused on his mandate* Loves God+
Interviewee 6	Man of action* Results oriented* Decisive**
Interviewee 7	Focused* Has zeal and determination** Intelligent Knowledgeable

Emerging Key Themes:

*   Focused and Results Oriented

**   Courage and Decisiveness

+   Love for God

The responses were categorized as focus and results orientation; courage and decisiveness; and love for, or fear of, God.

Focused and Results Oriented. The interviewees used the terms *focus* and *vision* to describe virtues of the leader of the organization under study. Specific descriptions included focused, forward looking, focused on his mandate, and results oriented.

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) investigated the separate effects of three leadership behaviors: visioning, communication, and offering advice. They found that followers of leaders with the visioning behavior perceived a task to be more interesting, challenging, and important. They set higher performance goals and

had greater trust in the leader. Furthermore, Yukl (2005) found that visioning had a positive effect on the quality of follower performance, mediated by higher goals for quality and more self-efficacy. Though such behavior is often associated with task-oriented supervisors, it also appears to be attractive to followers.

   Courage and Decisiveness. Interviewees identified courage and decisiveness as key characteristics of a good and admired leader. They identified such a leader as forthright, having zeal and determination, a person of action, decisive, courageous, and passionate about the goal. These characteristics represent those of charismatic leaders. Such leaders are often identified by their strategic insight, strong convictions, self-confidence, unconventional behavior, and dynamic energy (Yukl, 2005). Judge and Piccolo (2004) identified such passion as *charisma* or *idealized influence.* This is considered to be one of the four components of transformational leadership and is defined as the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with the leader. It is no surprise that interviewees identified such characteristics as admirable.

   Love for God. An interesting virtue selected by some interviewees about their current leader, which also appeared in Table 3, was love for God. This virtue was described by the interviewees as fears God, love for God, loves God, and spiritual. In the development of a theory for spiritual leadership, Fry (2003) reasoned that "spiritual leadership comprises the values, attitudes, and behaviors that are necessary to intrinsically motivate one's self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership" (711). Fry, Vitucci, and Cedillo (2005) provide strong support for spiritual leadership theory. They provide evidence that followers who have hope/faith in a transcendent vision within a context of the values of altruistic love have a higher sense of calling and membership, are more committed to their organization, and describe their work units as more productive. These findings are similar to Malone and Fry's (2003) longitudinal field experiment of elementary schools, in which they found similar support for positive influence of spirituality on commitment and unit productivity. Likewise, Davidson and Caddell (1994) found that the more people think of

themselves as religious, the more they stress social justice beliefs (good works), and the more they view work as a calling.

Garcia-Zamor (2003) argued that whereas many critics have pushed for the separation of spirituality and work, such criticisms ignore the fact that spiritual and religious beliefs are not easily compartmentalized; they shape attitudes toward, and actions in, all aspects and spheres of daily life. Garcia-Zamor points out that there has been ample empirical evidence that spirituality in the workplace creates a new organizational culture in which employees feel happier and perform better. This is especially true because bringing together the motivation for work and the meaning in work increases retention. She provided several examples of companies that increased their organizational performance after deliberately adopting workplace spirituality. Thus, followers expect some level of spirituality from their leader, as was the case in the current study.

Conclusion

This paper set out to explore the research question: *What are the follower expectations of an organizational leader?* From the study, the themes and concepts of the key follower expectations of leaders emerging from the interviews may be summarized as follows:

1. People focused
2. Guidance and instruction
3. Listening and communication
4. Integrity and character
5. Inspiring and motivating
6. Influencing
7. Effectiveness
8. Charisma
9. Courage and decisiveness
10. Focused and results oriented
11. Learning from followers
12. Example and role model

13. Love for God

It appears that these follower expectations of leaders fall within existing theories and concepts. Of these, *transformational, authentic,* and *servant* leadership behaviors seemed to elicit the highest admiration from followers. Thus, followers want leaders who pay attention to their individual needs and concerns. They expect their leaders to inspire and motivate them towards the achievement of goals. Leaders are also expected to possess demonstrable competence and should maintain a reputation for technical expertise and a strong credibility by solving important problems, making good decisions, and providing sound advice. And yet, paradoxically, followers expect leaders to be open to learning both from their subordinates and others.

Though the findings are obviously limited in their ability to be generalized due to the scope of the interviews and the organizational context, they nevertheless reflect current thinking and seem to confirm most of the extant leadership theories, especially transformational leadership.

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PEDAGOGY

Contemporary Issues in Leadership: A Field Study of Leadership Development

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This paper addresses the challenge of teaching leadership in an undergraduate leadership studies course. Effective instruction involves defining and conceptualizing leadership given the many definitions of leadership along with the enhancement of pragmatic leader skills. The curricular design used in this course promoted the development of Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL). This approach seeks to motivate leaders, guide their influence, and instruct their behavior as it affects effective everyday leadership, organizational leadership, and transformative servant leadership. The student learning outcomes from the course provides evidence that anyone can be taught to be an effective leader when the individual is exposed to a panorama of structured learning experiences in an upper-division course based on the FSCL approach to leadership development.

Key words: leadership, leadership curriculum, leadership development, leadership education, leadership theory and practice, social change leadership

The Association of American Colleges and Universities (2002) reports that "students are flocking to college because the world is complex, turbulent, and more reliant on knowledge than ever before" (viii). In such times, future effective leadership is a quantity in high demand. It has facilitated the immense progress society has made and is what will keep the world from turning to utter chaos.

Leadership is a quality possessed by an individual—some are born with this quality, and others obtain it through life experiences. Fortunately, the reality for organizations and society today is that everyone can learn to be an effective leader. Thompson (2000) indicates that "for decades now, writers have tried to define leadership" (9). Too often, attempts to define leadership have reduced it to a set of principles and skills to be practiced by every leader in every situation. The problem with that is there is no one *best way* to be an effective leader; however, a key to preparing effective leaders for the future lies in providing a broad understanding of this mysterious phenomenon called *leadership*.

A need to understand the various leadership theories and approaches exists today because both good and bad leadership is present in today's society. In a society where people value individuals and assertiveness, we must be prepared for toxic leaders who have lost sight of the organization's goals and become self-perpetuating, which leads to loss of effective communication, unethical decision making, and, ultimately, to disorganization.

Therefore, teaching students to develop as leaders is an important function of colleges and universities (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001). "The goal of leadership education is to provide opportunities for people to learn the skills, attitudes, and concepts necessary to become effective leaders" (Huber, 2002, 27). However, the students in today's classrooms are different than they were two decades ago. Research now indicates they learn in nontraditional ways (Nash, 2009). So it is important for educators to design multifaceted learning environments.

A considerable amount of ink has been devoted to the teaching methods and strategies used in leadership classrooms (Barbuto, 2006; Guenthner & Moore, 2005; Roberts, 2008; Williams, 2006). Brungardt and Crawford (1996) also reported on the impact of leadership education courses and programs. While leadership education courses and programs have become prominent in the United States, it is imperative that they focus on student learning outcomes related to the type of leadership development that reaches higher levels of developmental maturity in the areas of leadership skills, knowledge, and competence (Haber & Komives, 2009). The question then is, "How do educators teach leadership so students develop into effective 21st-century leaders?"

This article reports the results and observations from a field study involving a curriculum design for leadership development. The study was conducted as part of a course grounded in the Facilitative Social Change Leadership (Watt, 2009) approach. This approach focuses on issues such as what a leader is, what leadership is, and key characteristics of effective leaders.

Methods

The upper-level undergraduate course discussed in this article is part of a leadership studies minor program at a NCAA Division III private university in the southeastern United States. The population in this report consisted of five undergraduate students (two of whom were nontraditional age) enrolled in LSS 340: Contemporary Issues in Leadership during the Fall 2010 semester.

Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL) Approach

The theoretical basis of the course was the Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL) approach to leadership. The students examined well-known leaders and many current approaches to leadership that impact organizational, political, economic, and social issues. Facilitative Social Change Leadership seeks to motivate leaders, guide their influence, and instruct their behavior as it affects everyday leadership, effective organizational leadership, and transformative servant leadership. A fundamental goal of the course was to develop leadership potential through a variety of instructional methods that facilitate effective decision making, project planning, and communication.

   The FSCL approach to leadership (see Figure 1 on the next page) seeks to address issues such as "How does the leader empower people to meet head-on and effectively deal with social change in the organization's internal and external environments?" Too many people are often too comfortable with the current way of doing things. Therefore, they are not motivated to seek necessary change and may actually resist it. FSCL leaders stress the need to break down old structures while putting in place new structures designed to enhance the new direction being taken.
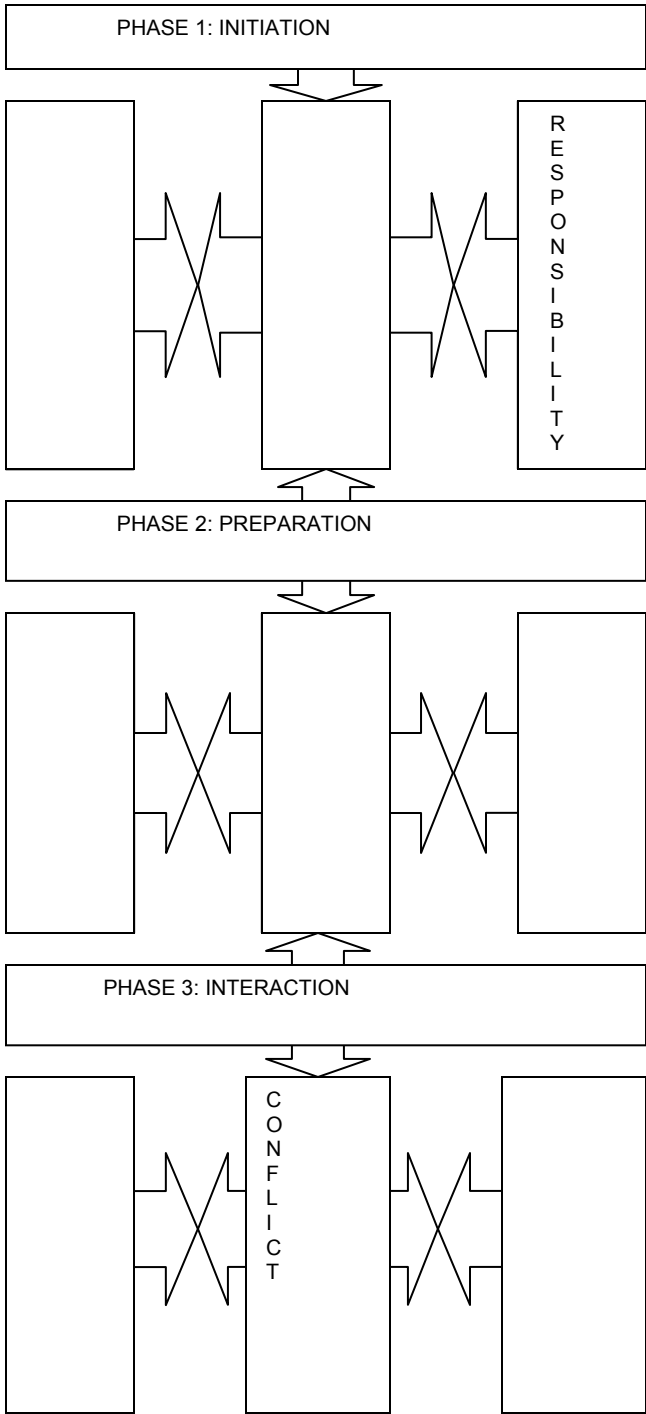
Figure 1. Three-phase Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL) process model

In Phase 1: Initiation, leaders must be willing to take a stand based on their visions and established goals. It is necessary for them to follow the paths laid before them and take action to seek and implement innovative changes within their organizations despite the various obstacles facing them—both internal and external. FSCL leadership rests on the leader's *willingness* to lead. Without individuals motivated to take risks and action, little productive change can be achieved. The status quo rolls along unhindered; much to the glee of some within the organization. *Awareness* that innovation is demanded in a given circumstance must move the leader to initiate the needed change. The need for change may be a result of a perceived problem in the organization or a broad societal issue or a weakness of a particular leader. However, being aware of the need for change is not enough to initiate the process. Once aware, the leader must assume *responsibility* to resolve the situation. FSCL leaders must take responsibility to ensure action.

In Phase 2: Preparation, it is necessary to provide a *description* of the problem, issue, or situation. In contrast to the status quo, the leader needs to determine *alternatives* to the current way of doing things. Once an alternative has been established, the leader must seek assistance by developing *coalitions*. Coalition building supports the leader's chances of being successful.

In Phase 3: Interaction, with an alternative in place and coalitions established, the leader must have a *confrontation* with those in the organization maintaining the status quo, including those who oppose the change as well as the higher powers in control. It was mentioned above that social change brings with it *conflict*. It should be noted that while social conflict is not necessarily comfortable, without conflict it is unlikely that the leader's vision and goals will be adopted. After a period during which all parties argue and support their own positions, a need arises for *collaboration*—that is, for everyone to seek to support the proposed change. When seeking to institutionalize a change, it is necessary to modify current practices within the organization in favor of the new innovation. It must be remembered that each individual and group is an interdependent entity in the organization and, therefore, is affected by the proposed change. Only by

working together can progress be achieved and the desired change made for the advancement of the organization. It is imperative for FSCL leaders to follow up the implementation of any change with periodic evaluation to ensure the productivity and future survival of the organization.

FSCL leaders empower followers in constructive ways to create a shared vision, and the corresponding strategies for addressing change are more likely to be successful. When collaborative practices are implemented, disenfranchised individuals or groups will be more likely to be motivated to work toward the established vision and goals. As a result, a broader group of people are leader-followers who have been empowered to act. Empowerment through FSCL gives a sense of ownership to the followers. Therefore, tangible results can be achieved because various individuals work together with a unified focus. When working with other committed individuals, a synergistic effect with the potential to produce extraordinary outcomes is often created.

Course Design

The leadership course included five instructional segments. *Segment A: Definition and Assessment* involved students completing four self-assessment instruments along with a "What I Learned Paper" for each assessment. In this segment, students were also asked to write a "pre" definition of leadership. These definitions were presented to the class for open discussion.

During *Segment B: Foundations,* students were asked to read and discuss the course textbook in order to provide a common knowledge base for the class. The students were given two written examinations on the text material, one of which was a group examination (see Coers, Lorensen, & Anderson, 2009; Moore, 2010).

Segment C: Contemporary Leadership Views provided students the opportunity to explore current leading views of leadership from such experts as Maxwell (1977, 2005), Covey (1989), Keith (2008), Brungardt and Crawford (1996), and others. The students were presented key elements of the experts' views on leadership, and the information was discussed in class. Students completed "What I Learned" papers and presented the information to the class for

discussion. In addition, the students were required to complete a written and oral presentation on a book about a well-known authentic leader or a recognized theory of leadership.

Segment D: Application involved the observation of several episodes of the television series *The Unit* (see Williams, 2006). Students completed "What I Learned" papers, which were discussed in class.

Segment E: The Great Leader Debate consisted of an open forum debate of the students' post-definition of leadership and identification of effective leader characteristics which they wrote and discussed in class. In order to prepare for this structured learning experience, students were required to interview five leaders throughout the semester to ascertain their views on leadership and what a leader is. The students completed "What I Learned" papers for each person interviewed as well as a synopsis paper. The course instructor moderated an open-ended debate and processed the information the students gleaned from their interactions with successful community leaders.

This article reflects the students' understanding of effective leaders and leadership through their comments on a two-part final examination in which they wrote definitions of the concepts *leader* and *leadership* as part of an in-class assignment. These definitions were shared with the rest of the class. The second portion of the final examination was the Great Leader Debate described above. Students orally shared their views concerning key elements of leadership. They were not only allowed to, but encouraged to, openly disagree with the various positions of other class members.

Results

Table 1 (on the next page) reflects the students' statements of their understanding of *leader* and *leadership* concepts. These comments will be discussed later in the Discussion and Observations section of this article.

***Table 1: Student Reflections on* Leader *and* Leadership**

Student 1

Leadership is. . .

- A quality an individual possesses—some are born with this quality, and others obtain it through life experiences.
- far more than managing tasks—it is guiding, listening, trusting, deciding, changing, motivating, and communicating.
- what keeps the world from turning to utter chaos and has facilitated the immense progress society has made.
- a quality that individuals possess that enables them to steer others towards a common goal.
- something anyone can experience and become an effective leader.

_____

Student 2

Leadership. . .

- starts with self: personal integrity is the most important part of leadership.
- means if those you are leading cannot trust you to be true to your character and morals, then they will not trust you to lead.
- means genuinely caring about and serving the people you are leading.
- is an overall attitude of love toward your group that goes a long way.
- is at its best when the leader is doing just that—leading. Leading is not trying to do all the work, bossing people around, or drawing attention to yourself; however, it *is* providing the right direction. . . guiding others with care and determination.

_____

Student 3

Leaders are. . .

- people who are good at managing conflicts.
- people capable of motivating, inspiring, and effectively leading a group of people to a common destination.
- people who possess qualities not seen in the average person—they are good at serving, enabling, communicating, visioning, and leading by example.
- good at helping their coworkers or team members to reach their maximum potential.
- those whom everyone can look up to and trust to get the job done effectively.

_____

Student 4

Leadership is. . .

- the art of leading people.
- when the leader uses the principles of leadership to obtain a mutual goal—one held in common—to affect change.
- when a leader may have a designated position of power, but only becomes a leader when the *authority to lead* is given to the individual by others.
- effective when the leader works as a team player and understands the importance of the interdependence of members of the team.
- effective if the leader knows himself and has a vision for change—he leaves his legacy to others and the leaders that follow after him.
- motivating, inspiring, serving, and enabling others.

_____

Student 5

Leaders. . .

- should model important qualities of leadership such as competence, commitment, compassion, flexibility, and supportiveness.
- use effective communication to ensure their leadership excels.
- must be communication driven.
- recognize that when individuals understand the goals and direction of an organization, there is buy-in. This sense of ownership allows individuals to work to their full potential. They become passionate about their work, their organization, and its accomplishments; therefore, the organization succeeds.
- are aware that in a society where people value individuals and assertiveness, we must be prepared for toxic leaders who have lost sight of the organization's goals and become self-perpetuating, which leads to loss of effective communication, unethical decision making, and, ultimately, to disorganization.
- are individuals who possess the qualities and strengths to guide and encourage others to reach their full potential in pursuit of common goals.

After completion of the leadership course, the students were able to identify a number of behaviors and characteristics that they believed to be essential for effective leadership in their 21st-century world. Table 2 (see next page) contains effective leader behaviors and characteristics identified by the students.

Table 2: Leader Behaviors and Characteristics

Affects change	Uses proper authority	Caring
Strong character	Committed to people/group	Shares common goal
Communicates effectively	Compassionate	Competent
Able to make decisions	Displays determination	Directs
Enables	Flexible	Guides
Inspires	Integrity	Leaves legacy
Listens	Loving	Manages conflicts
Displays moral character	Motivating	Uses power appropriately
Serves	Supportive	Team player
Trustworthy	Vision setting	Leads by example

Discussion and Observations

A unique contemporary approach to identifying quality leaders and determining effective leadership has been developed by Kellerman (2004) who made several conclusions based on examinations of bad leaders and ineffective leadership. She wrote about the dark side of leadership, pointing out that leadership occurs more in shades of gray, even black, then what we may generally acknowledge in our pursuit to clarify what leadership is all about. Kellerman made the case that leaders are not necessarily wise and inspirational people; instead, sometimes the dark side of the leader may be what drives a leader and the followers. She also made the valid and important point that leadership ought to be viewed as a complex whole.

Despite looking at leadership from the dark side, Kellerman (2004) identified characteristics of style, personality, and motivation shared by both bad leaders and good leaders:

- Incompetent

- Rigid

- Intemperate

- Callous

- Corrupt

- Insular

- Evil

She also suggested ways people can strengthen their capacity to be effective and ethical leaders, including:

- Limit your tenure. When leaders remain in positions of power for too long, they tend to acquire bad habits.
- Share power. When power is centralized, it is likely to be misused, and that puts a premium on delegation and collaboration.
- Do not believe your own hype about how great you are and the wonderful job you are doing.
- Get real, and stay real. Stay in touch with reality.
- Compensate for your weaknesses.
- Stay balanced. Avoid being a workaholic; rather, be dedicated to the job without sacrificing family and friends.
- Remember the mission.
- Stay healthy.
- Develop a personal support system. Every leader needs people around who will save the leader from her/himself.
- Be creative. The past should not determine the future or narrow the options that are available.
- Know and control your appetites. These appetites include power, money, success, and sex.
- Be reflective: Leaders need to recognize the importance of self-knowledge, self-control, and good habits.

Facilitative Social Change Leadership (FSCL) is an eclectic approach to understanding leaders and leadership. It melds principles of Transformational Leadership Theory, Social Change Leadership Theory, Social Change Theory, and Servant Leadership Theory to identify effective transformative leaders. FSCL leaders challenge the accepted, current process of doing business by creating new ideas or ways of dealing with situations by thinking outside the box in support of new ideas and approaches to problem solving. They demonstrate a willingness to challenge systems—organizational, governmental, societal—in order to turn these new ideas into actions that result in new products, processes,

and services. Leaders who adhere to the FSCL approach seek challenging opportunities that test their knowledge and abilities, resulting in innovative ways of improving the status quo. These transformative leaders show a willingness to change standard operating procedures. They experiment and take risks by adopting new approaches to how "business" is done. For them, learning is a lifelong process. The FSCL leader recognizes the need to be prepared to make mistakes because "error" leads to new understanding and new opportunities for success. They learn from their mistakes, and unlike toxic leaders, they do not shift responsibility for them and blame others.

Leadership is not exclusive to the rich, famous, and powerful. Anyone can become an effective leader. The knowledge and skills that constitute effective leadership can be acquired. Effective leaders are essentially good followers, because leading is not trying to do all the work, bossing people around, or drawing attention to yourself; however, it is providing the right direction. . . guiding other with care and determination. Everyone is under the authority of someone. FSCL leaders understand they are accountable to others. An effective leader works as a team player and understands the importance of the interdependence of members of the team. Transformative FSCL leaders know it is unwise to act as a lone wolf.

A leader may have a designated position of power, but only becomes a leader when the authority to lead is given to the individual by others. The long-term power possessed by a leader is positively correlated to the person's ability to help their coworkers or team members to reach their maximum potential.

Sometimes it is necessary for leaders to step outside the box, to be innovative—to be a change agent. The effective FSCL leader is not only self-aware, but has a vision for change, both personally and professionally. Such leaders possess qualities not often seen in the average person. . . visioning and leading by example. They are visionaries whose presence and hard work lead to transformative change. These leaders are flexible enough to know it is time to try a new procedure or implement a new policy that benefits the organization or society.

Important qualities of a leader are competence, commitment, and compassion. An individual who assumes a leadership role must be committed to benefiting the team, group, organization, and/or society. FSCL leaders internalize the vision and mission of those they are leading; therein, they are committed to using their abilities to lead others, perform technical skills, and conceptualize situations to ensure goal achievement.

FSCL leaders enhance opportunities for everyone. They empower others to achieve their potential. We have concluded that a leader is an individual who possesses the qualities and strengths to guide and encourage others to reach their full potential in pursuit of a common goal. When individuals understand the goals and direction of an organization, there is buy-in. This sense of ownership allows individuals to work to their full potential.

Covey (1989) claims effective people are proactive people. In other words, such individuals take the bull by the horns while serving, enabling, communicating, visioning, and leading by example. Such leadership requires leaders to facilitate the group's activities—organizing, overseeing, directing, collaborating, and making decisions.

Conflict is natural, constant, and inevitable. Conflicts often occur because people are not able to differentiate between task-related conflict issues and their personal investment in a given situation. Effective FSCL leaders are good at managing conflicts. Conflict must be managed in a productive manner in order to meet the needs of individual leaders as well as the needs of the group, organization, or society.

In the past, leaders too often viewed followers as lazy, unwilling to take responsibility, and needing to be controlled. However, when people are dealt with in an open and honest manner, they are likely to perform at an optimal level. When individuals understand the goals and direction of an organization, they become passionate about their work, their organization, and its accomplishments; therefore, the organization succeeds.

Communication plays a vital role in the achievement of interpersonal and organizational goals. FSCL leaders recognize that their leadership must be

communication driven. Communication is a two-way process that requires leaders who are capable of speaking well and listening effectively. The importance of listening is highlighted by Covey's (1989) Habit #5: Seek First to Understand—Then Seek to Be Understood. Hearing and listening are not synonyms. Poor listening skills undermine people's self-esteem, self-confidence, and creativity. It is through effective communication that leadership excels.

D'Aprix stressed the importance of "loving in our organizational relationships" (cited in Goldhaber, 1993, 217). "Loving" in this context means leaders acknowledge the value of coworkers and treat them respectfully with the dignity they deserve. Good leadership means genuinely caring about and serving the people you are leading. In fact, an overall attitude of love toward your group goes a long way. FSCL leaders recognize the importance of letting others know they are *cared about* (i.e., loved).

Being an effective FSCL leader begins with the correct mindset—a willingness to lead while serving others. An effective leader possesses the desire to step up to an opportunity to lead, to be involved in influencing not only one's personal situations, but that of those being led. This leadership attitude flows from a reasoned choice; it is a conscious decision to take on the leader role with all its rights and responsibilities. Amid natural chaos and interpersonal interactions, FSCL leaders are able to focus on the vision, mission, and goals of the team, group, organization, and/or society. Such leaders are determined to ensure that not only personal goals are reached, but more importantly, the broader objectives.

According to Northouse (2007), people come in contact daily with transactional, transformational, authentic, and even toxic leaders. In a society where people value individuals and assertiveness, we must be prepared for toxic leaders who have lost sight of the organization's goals and become self-perpetuating. Toxic leaders can be overcome by 360-degree leaders who are capable of managing conflicts that disrupt cohesive working relationships through effective communication (Maxwell, 2005).

Effective FSCL leadership involves competence in three areas: *Technical—*

tasks, *Human*—people, and *Conceptual*—vision/ideas (Northouse, 2007). It involves a commitment to competently use one's qualities and strengths with compassion to direct others—through effective communication—so as to achieve personal and professional goals. In this way, FSCL leaders allow followers to reach their full potentials as they pursue their common goals, enabling everyone, thereby enhancing the lives of all people involved.

In order to be an effective FSCL leader, one must realize that leadership is based on service, not hierarchy (Hackman & Johnson, 2009). In essence, FSCL leadership involves authentic transformative leaders who are servant leaders seeking to help people, organizations, and society to achieve their full potential. As Greenleaf (1977) noted, "There is something subtle communicated to one who is being served and led if [there] is the understanding that the search for wholeness is something they share" (36).

Servant leadership is diametrically opposed to the power model of leadership that is found all too often in today's society. When a leader is service-oriented, people can be inspired to achieve personal success as they achieve a common vision. It should be noted that the servant leadership approach is beneficial not only for those being served, but also for the leader. Servant leaders achieve a balance between leading and serving that brings about a positive, healthy feeling of satisfaction in a job well done that is often not available to leaders committed to using the power model of leadership.

In addition, effective FSCL leadership starts with integrity. Effective leadership education must help students to understand the relationship of their value statements and behaviors. Neglecting instruction concerning the importance of integrity makes the training useless, because only people who have it deserve the confidence and support of others. "The most effective leadership is by example, not edict" (Maxwell, 1977, 104). Few things are as essential to effective leadership and affecting subordinate behavior as the leader's integrity as demonstrated through her or his behavior.

Conclusion and Limitations

The results of this course provide valuable feedback that could be used to modify leadership studies courses. This field study of leadership education based on the theoretical underpinnings of the FSCL approach to leadership may be helpful when devising instructional strategies for other types of leadership courses and programs.

In exploring the student learning outcomes concerning the concepts of *leader* and *leadership* in an educational setting, it was discovered the students gained a generally positive understanding of Facilitative Social Change Leadership through their individual and group work throughout the course. Of course, their understanding was dependent upon prior experiences as well as work in the classroom. These findings could imply that the students in the classroom needed a conceptual foundation of leadership development in order to fully understand and appreciate its breath and depth in human interaction. Additional research is necessary to determine the degree to which introducing students to these concepts—FSCL leadership, leader, and leadership—impacts student development of leadership ability.

It was evident the course design aided students in their understanding of what constitutes a *leader* and what *leadership* is. All five participants indicated a change in their understanding of these concepts by the end of the semester. They also demonstrated a positive perception of the FSCL leadership approach. Thus, participation in the course was an effective method of impacting their attitudes and perceptions of leadership because of the structured learning exercises (SLEs) they experienced throughout the semester.

The student learning outcomes sought in the course were, in part, achieved because the students were immersed in a variety of SLEs that allowed them to learn about leadership—its theories, issues, and processes. Because the students experienced ownership in determining some of their assignments and studied relevant literature, including, but not limited to, the course textbook, they were aware of what they were learning from their textbooks as well as how

leadership was practiced in actual real-world experience through interaction with community leaders.

Further study is needed in various types of leadership studies courses to determine the level of learning experienced by students. This project involved a small group of participants; therefore, further study is needed using larger populations in various types of leadership studies courses to determine the level of learning experienced by students. The project involved only one class during the course of one semester; therefore, continuing to explore curricular designs to enhance positive student learning outcomes in leadership studies courses is advisable for the future. The instructor in the course was conducting the project; therefore, it is possible participants may have censored their responses. In a field study of this type, it might be helpful to have observers who are not connected to the course gather the information and make it available to the instructor after student grades have been assigned for the semester.

Although only one course was involved in this project, the students' observations offer support for leadership education. Educators must continuously evaluate their curricula and make use of student feedback in order to make instructional improvements. Qualitative field research can provide important data concerning student learning as well as feedback on the effectiveness of various curricular designs in providing successful learning experiences for students. Whatever design and/or methods are used by educators, they should ensure students connect leadership theories and issues to real-life situations.

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BOOK REVIEW

Women and Educational Leadership **(2011)**

by Margaret Grogan and Charol Shakeshaft

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Cost: $ 22.50, Pages 132

Reviewed by Pat DiPillo, Fitchburg State College, Fitchburg, Massachusetts

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Margaret Grogan and Charol Shakeshaft accomplish two very important goals with *Women and Educational Leadership.* The first goal is providing current statistics on the number of women in leadership positions in school systems as well as in higher education positions. Even in the 21st century, there is a distinct lack of female executives and especially those of color in the top jobs. The authors provide some grim data about the percentage of women who actually arrive and break through the glass ceiling. It is astonishing, they note, that from the pool of female teachers—roughly 75%—only very few make it to the superintendency. Equally appalling is that men are 40 times more likely to step into that role. They are seeing some movement, however, after many decades of stagnancy. What is staggering is that the authors claim it will take another 77 years to reach true equity with male superintendents. For women of color, the picture is even bleaker. The authors conclude that white women and women of color are underrepresented in school administration. Any advancement in this area is due to the fact that many more women have attained doctoral degrees. It is also worth mentioning the lack of research in this area. Most of what does exist comes from doctoral dissertations. The lack of available empirical data indicates that there is a great need for it. Perhaps the authors will continue to do the much needed work that will illuminate a rationale for why there are so few female

executives in the field of education. They do paint a more positive picture of emerging and broader literature on which to draw so that research can stand on more solid ground.

The second goal is offering five descriptions of women's leadership styles and how each operates. Those styles are:

• Relational Leadership

• Leadership for Social Justice

• Spiritual Leadership

• Leadership for Learning

• Balanced Leadership

As is expected, female leadership consists of collaboration, improvement, and a focus on increased achievement for students. There is a discussion about how women work with and through others as a collective endeavor. In analyzing this book, I believe that the five leadership styles discussed could have been consolidated into the simpler terms of "relational leadership" and "leadership for learning." *Relational leadership* means that leadership is about being in a relationship with others in a horizontal rather than a hierarchical sense. It is conceptualized as power "with" rather than power "over" others. Leadership for learning involves professional development and instructional competence. It puts instruction and learning at the center of leadership for the purposes of improvement. There is a strong focus on teaching and learning. Emphasis is placed on collaborative planning and collective vision making to validate a collaborative school culture that results in high quality teaching and learning. It appears as though the authors are making distinct comparisons between female and male executive positions, although they do mention references to shared decision making and collaborative decision making as being types of leadership that men customarily use. The authors indicate that one reason men still outnumber women in leadership roles may be in regard to change theories because they are typically traits reserved for male administrators.

One of the most valuable and poignant themes of the book is the explanations of the diversity of perspectives as a means to problem solving. They title it the

"diverse collective" and claim that the more diverse ideas available, the more likely innovative approaches will result, causing a cognitive shift. The result is an integration of ideas that encourage and embrace change and new directions. The authors have referred to this as *collective leadership,* which is responsible for changes that challenge the status quo. Many of the ideas connected to collective leadership can also be found in social networks. True transformation can also reframe, and reframing causes cognitive shifts in thinking. A *cognitive shift* is defined as the result of meaning or sense making that allows a change in the thinking of the constituencies and in the perceptions of the problem and its possible solutions. Research uses these cognitive shifts as a level of analysis of leadership activity. Therefore, documenting these cognitive shifts can provide a description of the collective work of leadership.

In essence, this is the beginning of defining the work of women's leadership. The stage has been set for future research to define cognitive shifts as outcome measures and, therefore, re-conceptualize leadership in the collective sense as opposed to management or administration. The authors again mention that documented research is still in its incipient stages and can lead to further understanding of women's leadership strategies. Also worthy of note is that the book may redefine the reasons why women seek out leadership positions for their outcomes and not just to "be" in a leadership role. If that is so, and productivity and higher student achievement are the outcomes, then, they say, by hiring a woman, one hires a much more effective leader. From there, the authors lead us into a discussion of social justice as leadership and cite the many examples of prominent leaders, such as Deborah Meier and the Big Picture Schools, as models of a successful social network.

Another effective part of the book, however, is the concluding sections for each chapter in which two principals discuss, advise, and help one another with the various aspects of their jobs. It is an excellent blend of the theoretical premises discussed throughout the book and the experiential work done by two professionals. The authors hope that their text, combined with practical application, will afford readers the opportunity to understand collective leadership

that is grounded in diversity. In fact, they support a redefinition of leadership available to all that results in better achievement for students based on a diversification of perspectives. There are also discussion questions and notes at the end of each chapter for reflection. This book provides a much needed look at women's leadership, its recurring themes in research, its problems, and the possible solutions necessary for going forward. It is an ideal book to use as a supplementary text in a leadership program for practitioners.