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International Leadership Journal

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Volume 8, Issue 2, Summer 2016

From the Editor

June 2016

Welcome to the 24rd issue of the *International Leadership Journal,* an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains four articles, one pedagogy piece, and one book review.

In the first article, Fisher, Billing, and Chhina explore the creation of an integrative etic–emic framework of Indian military leadership based on the analysis of interviews with Sikh combat veterans. They identify 20 culture-general, or etic, constructs, along with 6 culture-specific, or emic, constructs that have a unique significance within the Indian military context.

Klenke reviews both academic and military research on women serving in combat operations and analyzes contexts such as ground close combat environments, rapidly changing war technologies, and terrorism. She also presents a conceptual model that ties together research on terror management and mortality salience and shows how they are linked to combat readiness and organizational and leadership.

Through multiple linear regression, Ochalski examines relationships between leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence; employees' age, gender, duration of employment; and employees' work engagement in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States. He also investigates the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Strong, Strong, Greenberg, Dolly, and Purdue analyze and identify the followership styles, based on critical thinking and engagement levels, of agriculture students at a university in the United States and another university in the Caribbean. They argue that identification of student followership styles will enable educators (leaders) to more effectively create curriculum and lead students in a classroom setting.

In the pedagogy piece, Theriou, Tasoulis, and Keisidou provide an experiential learning activity that fits within the curriculum of a leadership course. The one-on-one role-playing exercise, in which participants are assessed on the competencies of people management, planning and organization, and customer focus, gives students the opportunity to face, consider, and assess different leadership competencies in a realistic simulation exercise.

Finally, in her review of *Mayor for a New America,* DiPillo explores the story of Thomas M. Menino, Boston's longest-serving mayor, who rose from humble beginnings to demonstrate extraordinary dedication to a city struck by immense tragedy during the Boston Marathon bombing in 2013. During his 21-year tenure, Boston experienced a true urban renaissance, and Menino left a legacy marked by the creation of jobs, a better school system, community policing, and health care.

Please let us know your thoughts and feel free to submit articles for review. Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora, EdD
Editor

ARTICLES

Indian Military Leadership: An Exploratory Study[*]

Kelly Fisher
West Chester University

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Rowan University

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Carleton University

This article is part of a long-term research agenda to create an integrative etic–emic framework of Indian military leadership from the synergy between the two perspectives. It begins with an exploratory study of Indian military leadership that is grounded in veterans' own interpretations of military leaders' practices when preparing and leading soldiers into combat. The initial findings are based on the analysis of the first wave of seven interviews with Sikh combat veterans. The development of a codebook is described as the first step in constructing an integrative etic–emic framework of Indian military leadership. Preliminary coding identified 300 original and emergent themes based on the extant literature. Subsequent higher level analysis identified 20 culture-general, or etic, constructs, along with 6 culture-specific, or emic, constructs. Future research is needed to confirm that the following emic constructs have a unique significance within the Indian military context: (a) religion, (b) fatalism, (c) traditional stories as morale builders, (d) the consensus that good followers obey blindly, and the importance of (e) Sikh (ethnic) identity and (f) regimental pride in unit cohesion. Limitations and the direction of future research are discussed.

Keywords: codebook, etic and emic, military leadership, qualitative research

After decades of inquiry, leadership scholars have still not arrived at a consensus on *what* leadership is (McElhatton & Jackson, 2012) despite the growing consensus that context is both relevant and necessary in understanding the *how* and *why* of leadership (Jackson & Parry, 2008). This long-standing debate is particularly relevant in cross-national leadership studies. In our long-term study of Indian military leadership, we seek to identify shared and/or dissimilar practices between Indian and Western militaries. While some researchers embrace an emic, or culture-specific, approach to conceptualizing leadership, still others argue for an etic, or culture-general, approach (Barney & Zhang, 2009). While

acknowledging this dichotomy within the social sciences, Morris, Leung, Ames, and Lickel (1999) suggest that the etic/emic contrast is, in practice, a continuum and that the integration of both perspectives helps to overcome limitations of modeling culture. They argue that the "interplay" of both approaches are "partly able to counteract one another's theoretical weaknesses" while stimulating second-generation studies that synthesize prior critiques or claims (789).

We argue that the functional nature of military leadership lends itself to an etic–emic analysis in different national settings based on Goldschmidt's (1966) framework of comparative functionalism, which suggests that aspects of culture and society may be compared if they are "recurrent problems" (as cited in Berry, 1969, 121). We also assert that a contextual approach to leadership recognizes that leadership is embedded within the environment, structure, and technology of an organization (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). Along those lines, limited studies have suggested that a "supranational" military culture exists (Soeters, 1997; Soeters, & Recht, 1998), at least in Western militaries. As Huntington (1972) notes, the management of violence as legitimated by society is the key principle underlying the military ethos. At the individual level, Kolditz and Brazil (2005) further suggest leadership in a deadly setting in circumstances that cause followers to fear death may encourage the development and exercise of specific patterns of leadership by leaders who routinely operate in such circumstances.

The study of Indian military leadership, in particular, offers an opportunity to explore the possibility of shared (military) leadership practices for a number of reasons. First, the British Empire was an influence in India from the early 17th century, long before it was formally colonized in the mid-19th century (Hyam, 1976/2003). India did not become independent until 1947. Second, similar to the United States and other Western nations, India is a large, vibrant democracy with a globalized economy. Third, India is a longstanding Western ally; thus, greater understanding of its military leadership would be beneficial to current and future international military alliances (e.g., peacekeeping). Finally, and in general, much of the leadership research is Western-centric and has been quantitative or conducted within an academic setting. Examining a phenomenon embedded in a

real-world environment greatly increases the utility of research findings and enhances communication with a particular audience (Blair & Hunt, 1986).

To our knowledge, our article is the first academic study on Indian military leadership. This is in sharp contrast with the established stream of Western research on military leaders, which arguably began with Otis's (1950) study of U.S. soldiers during the Korean War. Similar scholarly work on Indian military leadership is missing, despite the wealth of military memoirs and biographies by Indian veterans (e.g., Issar, 2009; Rao, 2001; Singh, 2013). Since our research is an exploratory study of Indian military leadership, it is essential to capture emic constructs through the use of qualitative data, while not ignoring the rich theoretical development already available in Western military leadership studies. Accordingly, our article uses an integrated etic–emic approach that responds to calls for contemporary researchers in international management to go beyond the "context-sensitive" approach used to extend or generalize existing (and mainly U.S.-based) studies in non-Western contexts (Panda & Gupta, 2007; Tung, 2003).

The next section of this article frames the study within its respective military and Indian leadership contexts. The method section describes the research approach and methods, including details on the development of the codebook. The preliminary findings and discussion identifies the etic and emic codes that emerged in the analysis. A conclusion with limitations and future directions for research is then provided.

Theoretical Background

Military Leadership

First, it is necessary to clarify what does and what does not constitute military leadership research (Wong, Bliese, & McGurk, 2003). The most common approach focuses on studies that use military samples to test theories that have relevance across a wide range of organizations—or what Blair and Hunt (1986) call a context-free orientation. Another approach—the one used for this study—is to leverage the unique characteristics of the military and focus on studies that

explore leadership within a military context. This is a context-specific orientation (Blair & Hunt, 1986), which requires more in-depth knowledge of the military and is more likely to reflect the essence of what constitutes military leadership.

The critical distinction between military and civilian leadership is that subordinates of military leaders may be asked to risk their lives and possibly take lives to achieve organizational goals (Prince & Tumlin, 2004). With this *sine qua non* of military service comes an enhanced and profound accountability of military leaders who are deemed responsible for everything that their unit does or fails to do. In military vernacular, this is called total or unlimited accountability. The paradox for military leaders is that while they are tasked with protecting their soldiers from harm, they are also required to achieve operational goals, regardless of the potential life-or-death consequences for some of their soldiers (Langtry, 1983).

Western context-specific studies have empirically examined soldiers and their leaders in the field (e.g., Ben-Shalom, Lehrer, & Ben-Ari, 2005; Egbert et al., 1957; Kellett, 1982; Miller & Moskos, 1995; Wong, Kolditz, Millen, & Potter, 2003). Research by the Department of Behavioral Sciences and Leadership (BS&L) at the United States Military Academy (USMA) (Brower & Dardis, 2001) describes a paragon of a combat leader as someone who is "physically fit, brave, technically competent, genuinely interested in the welfare of his men, [and] friendly yet distant" (35). Leaders with these qualities are said to be influential because their followers have confidence in their competence; they genuinely care for their soldiers' physical and emotional well-being; they are not careless or wasteful with their men's lives; and, most importantly, they lead by example (Brower & Dardis, 2001). Moreover, the combat unit experience also fosters competencies such as initiative, risk taking, flexibility, adaptability, team building, mutual support, and self-efficacy (Avrahami & Lerner, 2003). Due to space constraints, a thorough review of the various knowledge, skills, and abilities (i.e., competencies) that have been associated with effective military leadership is not possible. However, a competency profile (see Table 1) developed by Penwell

and Nicholas (1990) in a meta-analysis of the ideal leader in life-threatening conditions (such as combat) provides a useful summary.

Table 1: Attributes of "Good" Leaders in Extreme Settings

Personal Attributes	• Highly task-oriented and industrious • Aggressive • Self-reliance and self-confidence in the lonely responsibility of command • High need for dominance • Emotional control • Flexible • Impartial
Task Management and Leadership Style	• Shows flexibility, though predominantly democratic • Tolerates intimacy and status leveling without losing authority or respect of the group • Delegates responsibility and trusts followers • Encourages discussion and involves others in decision making as appropriate • Defines and reinforces expected norms
Group Maintenance Skills	• Works to maintain harmony in the group • Demonstrates concern for subordinates' overall well-being • Shows sensitivity to clique rivalries • Makes frequent contact with subordinates • Liked by followers

Note: Adapted with permission from AIAA Paper 90-3766 "Leadership and Group Behavior in Human Spaceflight Operations," by L. Penwell and J. Nicholas, 1990, AIAA Space Programs and Technologies Conference Proceedings, Huntsville, AL. Copyright 1990 by the American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics.

Wong, Bliese, and McGurk (2003) note that due to the large number of soldiers that direct leaders command, military studies typically aggregate unit ratings of performance as a way of studying leadership effectiveness. Thus, in a military context, leadership efficacy is based on the cohesion of the unit, or what sociologists call the *primary group,* meaning "those small social groupings in which social behavior is governed by intimate face-to-face relations" (Janowitz & Little, 1974, 93). Based on the latest research, unit cohesion is comprised of two distinct constructs: task and social cohesion (MacCoun & Hix, 2010). *Task cohesion* is the shared commitment among group members to achieving a goal

through a collective effort and by coordinating their efforts as a team. *Social cohesion* captures the extent to which group members like and enjoy each other's company, prefer to spend their social time together, and feel emotionally close.

Although unit outcomes are not examined as the specific focus of this study, a unit's fighting power, as measured by its cohesion in combat, is a central measure of leader influence and associated efficacy. These constructs have been briefly introduced to provide a clearer understanding of the importance of follower motivation and morale implicit in military leadership. The leadership environment influences the members of the entire unit, wherein relations of dependency and total mutual responsibility connect individuals into a human task-driven whole (Gal, 1986; Popper & Ronen, 1992), and is a reflection of a strong culture where a clear set of norms and expectations permeate the entire organization (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). This strong culture is closely associated with a military ethos, which, in turn, helps shape and defines what is considered effective military leadership within a Western context.

Military Ethos. A *professional ethos* is defined as that "set of normative self-understandings which for the members define the profession's corporate identity, its code of conduct and, for the officers in particular, its social worth" (Burk, 1999, 450). In a Western military, the principles that underpin military culture stem from concepts of personal integrity, duty, honor, and country. Moreover, at the individual level, military service is an immersion experience that can affect the personality, skills, aspirations, goals, and career directions quite broadly at a transitional and formative time of life (Cohen, Segal, & Temme, 1986). For instance, subordinates are expected to carry out the lawful orders of their superiors without question. This military ethos can be traced back to the early laws of war and practices that emerged during the latter half of the Middle Ages, mitigated by medieval laws of chivalry and the influence of Christianity (Carr, 1978). These concepts are horizontally manifested through personal, collegial, and "brotherhood" linkages between professionals informally, while the vertical or bureaucratic linkages act as formal control mechanisms. Within a total institution

such as the military, in which the daily lives of inhabitants are mainly confined to the same, shared space (Goffman, 1961), earlier sources of socialization (e.g., family, religion, and educational institutions) may be overridden by professional dictates. Similarly, Huntington (1972) argues that the professional military ethic is both timeless and global, as long as the inherent nature of the military function remains the same.

While studies of that cultural values of different nationalities in military academies have found differences to exist (Soeters, 1997; Soeters & Recht, 1998), a supranational military culture was also found that, compared to business, is "relatively bureaucratic (specifically: hierarchical) and institutional (that is relatively less inclined towards income, career and private life)" (Soeters & Recht, 1998, 183). Other studies also suggest that a shared military professionalism seems to provide a framework of understanding that can—to a certain extent—help overcome cultural differences (Elron, Halevy, Ben-Ari, & Shamir, 2003; Elron, Shamir, & Ben-Ari, 1999; Moskos, 1976). Prior research therefore implies that there are culture-general (etic) norms that are shared in military organizations, irrespective of nationality. The development of our initial codebook was guided by the Western-centric extant literature; however, this study investigates the existence of both etic and emic constructs within the Indian context.

Indian Leadership. As there has been scant examination of Indian military leadership in the field of management studies, our literature review was broadened to include studies of Indian leadership that explicitly drew on an indigenous, or insider, approach. The investigation of leadership in India may be traced back to the 1980s, when scholars became interested in the impact of Indian culture on management practices (Panda & Gupta, 2007). Chakraborty (1987, 1991) attempted to reinterpret insights from religious and ancient writings, while others focused on sociological and anthropological studies (Chattopadhyay, 1975; Sinha, 1977) related to cultural diversity within India. In the 1990s, several cross-locational studies identified locationally invariant (Pan-

Indian) cultural constructs (Sinha et al., 1994; Sinha, Sinha, Verma, & Verma, 2001; Sinha, Vohra, Singhal, Sinha, & Ushashree, 2002).

As is typical, there have been some attempts to test Western leadership theories in an Indian context. For example, Singh and Krishnan (2007) used grounded theory in the first stage of a three-stage study to develop a measure of transformational leadership in India. The combined studies found support for universal (i.e., etic) constructs, but also identified unique (i.e., emic) cultural dimensions, such as personal touch. *Personal touch* is similar to the individualized consideration factor described by Bass (1990), but in India, managers demonstrate transformational leadership by "taking an interest in the whole person . . . both personal as well as official aspects of the subordinate's life" (Singh & Krishnan, 2007, 232).

Over the past 25 years, a number of leadership styles have been identified as contextually appropriate in India. Guptan (1988) identified paternalism as an effective leadership style for superiors to relate emotionally to subordinates. A *Karta* (head of a traditional Indian family) model of transformational leadership was proposed by Singh and Bhandarkar (1990). Similarly, Kalra (2004) identified a consultative style of managerial leadership that was also based on the concept of *Karta* (XX). Finally, Sinha (1980, 1990) suggested that the nurturant–task leadership style was effective in the Indian context.

Seminal research led by Sinha (1980) is interesting in that it challenged early leadership studies in India that supported the notion that Indian culture is authoritarian; therefore, an authoritarian leader would be more effective (Meade, 1967). Sinha (1980) found a strong preference for an authoritative (not authoritarian) leader who is strict and demanding but who also takes a personal interest in subordinates' well-being and growth. Other characteristics of Indian leadership include a cultural preference for power combined with dependency needs (Sinha, 1995), pervasive use of ingratiating behavior (Pandey, 1981, as cited in Kakar, Kakar, Kets de Vries, & Vrignaud, 2002), high status orientation (Singh & Bhandarkar, 1990), and a preference for personalized interactions (Garg & Parikh, 1995).

Despite the extensive exposure to contemporary Western management concepts and practices, Kakar et al. (2002) argue that "the influences of Indian culture on the senior managers' perception of top leadership have not disappeared" (240), implying that a nuanced understanding of Indian military leadership would benefit from an integrative etic–emic framework such as the one that we propose.

Indian Military Leadership. To understand the collective psyche of the Indian military leadership of today, it is important to briefly review the prolonged and deep influence of British military culture on the current Indian military leadership ethos. Pre-British India was a conglomeration of many geographically and ethnically distinct kingdoms and principalities, most having their own armies or militias. Each was distinctive, based on the local societal culture. There is no evidence of a Pan-Indian shared military culture from this era. Subsequent to the arrival of the British, three small, geographically separate, British-led military forces were formed in India under the East India Company, essentially to safeguard British trade in India (Hyam, 1976/2003). These military forces merged in the mid-19th century and were placed under the direct control of the Crown (Bhatia, 1992). The British Indian Army, restructured in its current organizational form, emerged in the early 20th century from the amalgamation of all the Indian forces (Beckett & Chandler, 1996; Young & Lawford, 1970). That organizational structure has generally continued to endure until the present.

Before India achieved independence in 1947, the British Indian Army was primarily led by British officers who were trained at the Royal Military Academy (RMA) in Sandhurst, United Kingdom. Following the foundation of the Indian Military Academy (IMA) in Dehradun in 1935, a second cohort of Indian commissioned officers (ICOs) started emerging. A small group of select Indian officers continued to be commissioned at the RMA. Such British-supervised training, both at the RMA and the IMA, deeply imbued the Indian military leaders with the typical British military leadership ethos and provided the ideological bedrock for the new generations of officers who were commissioned in the post-independence era (Roy, 2013). Notably, even seven years after Indian

independence, the prestigious Defence Services Staff College at Wellington in Nilgiris, India, continued to be commanded by a senior British officer (Major General Walter Lantaigne), due to the unavailability of senior Indian officers (Rao, 2001).

The British model of the officer–subordinate relationship was based on professionalism and entrenched in the fundamental values of trust, fairness, and leading from the front (Masters, 1956). Officers were expected to maintain a secular and apolitical facade. Even a discussion relating to politics or religion was eschewed in the officer messes. It was these two pillars of secularism and nonpartisanship that were largely responsible for a smooth division of the British Indian Army into two parts (India and Pakistan) at the time of Indian independence. As argued here, the current mindset of the military officers is a legacy of traditions passed from one generation of officers to the next. Issar (2009), in his biography of General Satyawant Mallanna Shrinagesh, provides valuable insights on the transition of the Indian Army from a colonial to a national army. He also describes the development of a relationship between Indian officers and the men under their command that was closely modelled on the one that existed between the British officers and Indian soldiers.

Similar to U.S. civil–military relations, the Indian military is intimately linked to and functions within the broader Indian societal culture. However, the role of caste, which is so omnipresent in India as a measure of social hierarchy, has surprisingly little impact on the immediate officer–subordinate relationships within the somewhat insular culture of the military (Singh, 2013) for at least two reasons. First, the officers, as a group, enjoy social superiority vis-à-vis the other ranks, replacing the need for caste-based importance or power. They function on a set of assumptions and expectations that are common to them as a group. While being caring leaders of the men they command, they are still socially distant (Kala, 2003) from their subordinates. Other ranks (NCOs and soldiers), on the other hand, still have their own distinct "regimental" uniqueness (which is further linked to their common ethnicity) as a group. This is, at least partially, due to the method of their recruitment and training, a point discussed later in more

detail. Second, once an officer is commissioned to a combat unit, he stays affiliated to the unit (barring short breaks for staff jobs) for an extended period of nearly 15 years. The officer learns the ethnic peculiarities of the men and the regimental culture, and may even modify his personal behavior, in order to successfully train and lead the troops in combat.

In a sociological study of the Indian military, Gautam (2008) provides insights into the inherent strengths of an army modeled along ethnic lines and argues that such class-based units have an important role to play in achieving motivation and combat effectiveness. This distinction, known as known as martial race theory, was also recognized by the British (Mason, 1974; Tyagi, 2009). It suggested that certain ethnic or cultural groups (e.g., Gurkhas, Jats, Sikhs, and Pathans) were considered more eligible for soldiering. Despite a gradual shift toward creating more mixed caste units within the army, the tradition to have ethnically distinct regiments has continued to endure (Gautam, 2008). Currently, a majority of the 20 infantry regiments in the Indian Army are ethnically named (e.g., Sikh Regiment and Kumaon and Naga Regiment; Indian Army, n.d.).

This caste-based organization provides a major platform for motivating the soldiers through regimental pride and facilitating unit cohesion. The regimental izzat, or concept of honor, is one of the key motivational factors in the army. *Izzat* means "honour and much more . . . a person who loses his 'izzat' loses face and respect" (Jacob, 2011, 11). Older units, re-designated many times since their inception in the British Indian Army (some are older than 200 years), continue to preserve and be inspired by their unit's images of valor and sacrifice (Singh & Ahluwalia, 1987). Typically, a unit's tradition is transmitted and reinforced through a regimental center. Regimental centers, while performing the main function of enrolling and training new soldiers for assignment to battalion within the regiment, have an equally important mandate to safeguard and perpetuate the shared history of the regiment (Roy, 2001).

Closely linked to the caste-based categorization of the army is the relevance of religion, which plays an overarching role in the life of Indian society. As noted earlier, officers are expected to maintain a secular attitude professionally and

practice their personal religious beliefs privately. However, the enlisted ranks (NCOs and soldiers) are not only allowed to, but also encouraged to, perform regular religious ceremonies. Officers, notwithstanding their personal religious beliefs, are mandated to be part of such ceremonies. In predominantly single-caste units (such as the Dogra, Sikh, or Gurkha regiments), religion plays a major motivating role in combat (the battle cries of such infantry units are invariably related to religion). In mixed-caste units, religious functions of all castes are given equal importance. To symbolically create religious equality, many garrisons feature unique four-cornered buildings designed to house each major religion within the same building.

Current Indian military doctrine emphasizes that the profession of arms is a calling (Vij, 2004). It emphasizes that being a good soldier entails having a sense of responsibility, professional expertise, and loyalty to the nation and the military. The moral code sets forth principles and ideals and exhorts every man in uniform, but most importantly the officers, to abide by duty without regard to personal safety. Indian Army officers commissioned by the IMA are inspired by the Chetwode motto (inscribed outside the IMA's Chetwode Hall): "The safety, honour and welfare of your country come first, always and every time. The honour, comfort and welfare of the men you command comes next. Your own ease, comfort and safety, come last always and every time" (Chetwode, 1932). Vij (2004) notes that "this ethos forms the bedrock of the Army's preparedness in peace and is the key to its effectiveness in war" (ii).

METHOD

Research Approach
Our etic–emic approach supports this article's long-term research agenda to create an integrative etic–emic framework of Indian military leadership. Specifically, we wish to capture the interplay between both perspectives by identifying those elements of Western military leadership constructs that are applicable in the Indian construct and new, emergent military leadership constructs that are unique to the Indian context.

A qualitative, inductive research design is appropriate when exploring research questions that necessitate "examining various social settings and the individuals who inhabit these settings" (Berg, 2004, 7), and for building knowledge and extending the theory in an underdeveloped area (Crabtree & Miller, 1992; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Similar to other interpretivist researchers, we view leadership as socially constructed (Dachler & Hosking, 1995) and culturally contingent (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; House et al., 2004). *Social constructionists* see leadership as embedded in context—person and context are interrelated social constructions made in ongoing local–cultural–historical processes (Dachler & Hosking, 1995). *Culture-based theorists* see leadership as culturally contingent, wherein effective leadership, among other things, depends on whether or not a leader's style is congruent with his or her organizational culture (Bryman, Stephens, & Campo, 1996) or national culture (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004). House et al. (2004) suggest that "the attributes and entities that differentiate a specified culture are predictive of organizational practices and leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted and most effective in that culture" (17). Key findings from Project GLOBE (House et al., 2004) encompass both paradigms, reporting that various leadership attributes were found to be (a) universally endorsed as outstanding leadership (i.e., etic), (b) universally rejected as undesirable, or (c) culturally specific or contingent (i.e., emic) (Antonakis et al., 2004). Nonetheless, research shows that people's behaviors in leadership roles do not always differ according to their ethnicity or country of origin only—it is acknowledged that large individual differences do exist (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999). Thus, in line with Strauss and Corbin (1990), we adopted an iterative, qualitative approach with a planned series, or waves, of interviews to ensure theoretical saturation. Our aim is to identify shared and/or dissimilar practices between the Eastern and Western militaries by developing a codebook that initially draws on an imposed etic framework with the purpose of developing an integrative etic–emic framework that will benefit both basic theory and applied problems (Morris et al., 1999).

Data Collection: Theoretical Sampling

The initial set of interviews was conducted in the Punjab region of India in the summer of 2011. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews of seven Indian military veterans—one major general, one brigadier, one master warrant officer, three colonels, and one noncommissioned officer (see Table 2 on the next page). All of the interviewees were Sikh and had experienced combat during the Indo-Pakistani wars. Six interviews were conducted in English, and one was conducted in Punjabi (a language spoken in the northern state of Punjab). The Indian-born researcher was able to conduct interviews in both English and Punjabi. Interviewees were asked to focus on their combat experiences while answering semi-structured questions across four broad areas of interest: combat leadership, unit cohesion and discipline, training, and stress. To capture constructs around combat leadership, sample questions included "How would you describe effective and ineffective combat leadership?" and "What makes a good follower?" For constructs around unit cohesion, questions included "How did your superior affect team/unit morale?," "What contributed most to morale?," and "What undermined morale?" The average interview length was about 65 minutes.

   We chose to interview Sikh veterans from the Indo-Pakistan wars of 1965 and 1971 for our first wave of interviews for several reasons. First, veterans from the Indo-Pakistan war had experienced combat, but were still young enough to be in good health and accessible for interviews. Second, it is acknowledged that members of a fraternity such as the military are frequently reluctant to talk with outsiders (Williams, 1964). However, we believe that enough time had elapsed since the Indo-Pakistani conflict for the officers and the NCO to speak more openly and freely than if we had interviewed veterans from more recent conflicts. Third, Sikhs were one of most heavily recruited communities in the Indian Army during the 1970s and represented a fifth of Indian Army officers (Khalidi, 2001). Fourth, we argue that a historic perspective is a productive avenue for the eventual development of a model of military leadership in India. As noted, leadership does not exist in a vacuum, but is socially constructed over time

(Osborn et al., 2002), thus history matters by revealing valuable information about behavioral characteristics, situations, and outcomes of leadership.

Table 2: Demographic Profile of Wave 1 Participants

Rank Retired As	Army Division	Tenure in Indian Army (in years)	Awards
Brigadier	Punjab Regiment (Infantry)	32.5	Maha Vir Chakra, Vishist Seva Medal
Colonel	Corps of Engineers	29	
Colonel	Artillery Regiment	36	
Maj. General	Sikh Regiment (Infantry)	38	Yudh Seva Medal Ati Vishisht Seva Medal
Colonel	Punjab Regiment (Infantry)	Unknown	
Master Warrant Officer	Indian Air Force	33	
Subedar	Food Services	Unknown	

Data Coding and Analysis

Interview transcripts were analyzed using the software program QSR NVivo 7 (2006). Although qualitative analysis software such as NVivo is incapable of comprehending the meaning of text, using such a tool greatly facilitates the classifying and sorting of field notes, interviews, and documents, and the subsequent coding of themes and visualization of relationships (Berg, 2004; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Our data analysis further addressed the issue of preconceptions by staying close to the data to minimize inadvertent bias. For example, the use of "thick description" (Denzin, 1989) was employed to help retain the meaning of the experiences related by the informants. Denzin (1989) describes a full, or complete, *thick description* as "biographical, historical, situational, relational, and interactional" (91). Thick description, in turn, leads to "thick interpretation" (Denzin, 1989, 91), which attempts to reveal the conceptual structures implicit within an informant's behavior while recognizing that multiple

meanings will always be present in any situation. To reiterate, we sought to capture the *inside*, or emic, perspective, thus reflecting the informants' subjective experiences and reality (Morris et al., 1999), providing rich insights into military leadership practices in India, while refining the initial imposed etic framework.

Tsui (2004) suggests that high-quality local research requires native researchers who are familiar with the sociocultural nuances such as language, politics, history, and religious influences. Our analysis was conducted by three academics with complementary backgrounds that uniquely qualified us to undertake this particular research study. The lead author is American-born and served 20 years in the U.S. Armed Forces. The second author is Indian-born and has studied and worked in the United States for over 10 years. The third author is a retired Indian Army officer who is pursuing postgraduate work in Canada.

Finally, there is debate among qualitative researchers about the appropriateness of the standards by which quantitative research is judged and their use in the evaluation of qualitative studies (Agar, 1986). Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest that standards should be modified to fit qualitative research with the stipulation that the evaluation criteria used be made explicit. Appropriate to the constructivist approach in this study, trustworthiness and authenticity are considered appropriate substitutes for the positivistic criteria of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Trustworthiness relies on the constant comparative method typically employed by grounded theorists during analytic stages (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) and used throughout this study. Authenticity is achieved when the analysis contains a high degree of internal coherence, plausibility, and correspondence with readers' own experiences or understanding of the phenomena (Adler, 1998). In this study, authenticity is supported by the development of a structured codebook. The codebook provides a stable framework for the dynamic analysis of textual data and facilitates agreement among multiple researchers (MacQueen, McLellan, Kay, & Milstein, 1998).

Development of the Codebook

The initial analysis was an important first step in the development of a codebook, which ensures a consistent framework for the iterative analysis of data (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Codes are the building blocks for theory or model building and the foundation on which the analyst's arguments rest and embody the assumptions underlying the analysis. In the first stage of analysis, initial exploratory research relies on *imposed-etic constructs*— theoretical concepts and measurement methods that are drawn from the researcher's own culture. In the second stage, emic insights about the local culture are used to interpret initial findings, while acknowledging possible limitations of the etic constructs. The constructs in the model are then used to develop an integrative etic–emic framework.

The extant literature on military leadership guided the initial analysis in the development of the codebook. The interview transcripts were first coded independently by two of the researchers. Similar categories and themes were combined to form "parent nodes" that held associated "child nodes." An example is the parent node, "Why Men Fight," which contains four specific sub-themes, or child nodes: national pride, regiment pride, close relationships, and Sikh identity. Through engagement with this continuous process of rereading and reviewing (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), themes may emerge, patterns are identified, and conceptual frameworks may be developed based on the research question.

Once the independent coding was completed, themes were compared and disagreements resolved in order to develop a codebook. In our approach, the codebook functions as a "framework that the analyst constructs in order to systematically map the informational terrain of the text" (MacQueen et al., 1998, 3). The integrity of analysis can then be assessed in terms of the sensitivity and specificity of the codes, the richness of the text, and the validity and reliability of the constructs associated with them. As described here, the central challenge of systematic qualitative analysis lies within the coding process.

It was through this process that our mutually exclusive insider–outsider insights facilitated a nuanced and insightful analysis of the data. For example, the second

author's insider role as the daughter of an Indian Air Force Officer led her to code "relationship with superior" and "relationship with followers" as two distinct themes. The second author also identified tensions between the "old guard" and the "new guard" with respect to the shifting role of some enlisted soldiers from functioning in the role as "man-servant" to senior officers to strictly working in a soldier capacity. Similarly, the first author was able to identify themes that are singular to the military, such as the use of alcohol and sports to bond across ranks and other differences that can be found in most military units (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Equally important, the third author was able to act as a peer reviewer (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007) as an informed expert on the Indian Army. Once agreement was reached on each of the themes, a codebook was developed that consisted of 6 parent nodes and 26 child nodes (see Table 3 on the next page). Any constructs mentioned by two or more sources were included as recommended by Hollensbe, Khazanchi, and Masterson (2008). As appropriate in an inductive, qualitative study such as this, the codebook will be revised and developed further (MacQueen et al., 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) in subsequent waves of interviews.

Table 3: Initial Codebook of Etic and Emic Constructs

Parent Node	Child Node	Source	References
Combat Leadership		**7**	**94**
	Leads by example	7	16
	Takes care of men	6	19
	Role of courage	4	11
	Development of their soldiers	3	6
	Calm and cool under fire	3	6
	Physical fitness	2	7
	Role of trust	2	5
	Demands excellence	2	4
	Competent	2	4
	Decisive	2	2
	Importance of preparation	2	2
	Respect	2	2
Ineffective Leadership		**6**	**12**
	Cronyism	2	4
	Poor unit discipline	2	2
Followership		**7**	**11**
	Good Follower, follows orders	5	9
	Loyalty	2	2
Military Ethos		**7**	**50**
	Military discipline	6	14
	Warrior ethos	4	10
	Pragmatic	2	3
Morale Factors		**6**	**43**
	Religion	6	13
	Stories as motivation	2	6
	Role of sports	2	5
	Fatalism	2	3
Why Men Fight		**5**	**24**
	Regiment pride	4	13
	Close personal relationships	4	6
	Role of Sikh (ethnic) identity	2	3

Note: Culture-specific, or emic, constructs are italicized.

Preliminary Results and Discussion

As our analysis demonstrates, the emic–etic continuum conceptualization affords rich accounts of culture and organizational behavior (emic), which lay the groundwork for the formulation of possible transcultural dimensions (etic). Three hundred original and emergent themes were coded during the preliminary

analysis. Since the focus of this paper is on Indian military leadership practices, the results and discussion are delimited to the themes that emerged across the two broad areas of interest: combat leadership and unit cohesion and discipline. Subsequent higher-level analysis identified 20 culture-general, or etic, constructs, along with 6 culture-specific, or emic, constructs. These constructs were grouped into 6 categories based on the extant literature: combat leadership, ineffective leadership, followership, military ethos, morale factors, and why men fight. The codebook itself was further organized by the number of sources and frequency of occurrence of a particular construct. For example, *combat leadership* was mentioned by all seven interviewees a total of 94 times.

Etic Culture-General Constructs

Initial analysis confirms that India's military shares many of the same characteristics of Western military institutions, thus providing empirical support for the etic nature of specific military leadership constructs at the individual level. The constructs that emerged (such as taking care of soldiers, leading by example, and courage) have been identified in prior research on combat leadership practices in a Western context (Gal, 1986; Janowitz & Little, 1974; Langtry, 1983). These shared practices may be understood given the strong culture demanded of an organization whose members wage war (Goffman, 1961) and whose leaders must command respect and loyalty and inspire trust in deadly situations (Kolditz & Brazil, 2005).

   The shared constructs that emerged around unit cohesion (military ethos, morale, why men fight) support Soeters's (1997) work, which suggests that the institutional aspects of military life are much stronger than in the civilian sector and that personal values tend to converge within military organizations. Unlike a civilian occupation, the military as an institution promotes deeply internalized values and norms that directly and indirectly affect the attitudes and values of military personnel as individuals and the morale and cohesion of military units as a whole (Schein, 1990). Our findings thus give support to prior research on the existence of a "supranational" military culture (Soeters, 1997; Soeters & Recht, 1998) and extend Soeters's (1997) study, which was limited to Western nations.

This seems reasonable given the presence of the British in India for much of the 19th and 20th centuries, in addition to the functional nature of all militaries to protect and defend their national interests.

While the emergence of shared etic constructs of military leadership in a different national context is an important contribution to the literature, this article's purpose is to develop an integrated etic–emic framework. Therefore, the focus was narrowed to six emergent constructs of unique significance in the Indian military context that require additional research for validation: religion, fatalism, and traditional stories' role as morale builders, the consensus that good followers obey blindly, the importance of Sikh (ethnic) identity, and regimental pride in unit cohesion. In order to operationalize these emergent constructs appropriately, we drew on both Indian and Western leadership theories, then provided two representative quotations from the data.

Emergent Cultural-Specific Constructs

Religion. While it is a truism in Western militaries that there are "no atheists in a foxhole," the integration of religion into the daily lives of the soldiers and their belief in divine intervention was remarkable for its prominence in the data. Six out of seven respondents noted the importance of religion to individual morale in a combat situation. One explanation for religion's distinct role in morale is that India is characterized by a diversity of religious beliefs and practices and popularly known as a land of deep spirituality. According to the 2011 census, 79.8% of the population of India practice Hinduism and 14.2% adhere to Islam, while the remaining 7.37% adhere to other religions (Christianity, Sikhism, Buddhism, Jainism, and various indigenous ethnically bound faiths) (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015).

> The Goddess of those places has a high value. I have heard [that] at Longewala every year on [the] fifth [of] December, there is [a] celebration at the same post. People don't know this is the only temple who has saved the army men. This is my personal faith, and in that temple, the goddess has saved us.

> [The] Indian Army has got this beautiful thing. Other armies also. We have got [in] every Sikh unit a *granthi,* [in] every Hindu unit a *pandit,* and [in] every

Muslim unit a *maulvi,* who give you discourses. . . . In combat, they put faith in the mind of [a] soldier; they are morale builders.

Fatalism. Data analysis revealed a sense of inevitability in how events on the battlefield (and in everyday life) would unfold. Two of the interviewees reflected on how external events were in general beyond their control. This perspective may be understood as a deep cultural belief that is rooted in religion and widespread in India. Specifically, a fatalistic perspective has been suggested as the outcome of Indians' socialization that "their present nature and current state of affairs are unchangeable" (known as *karma*) (Gopalan & Rivera, 1997, 160).

What God has written [is] my fate.

The quality of a commander doesn't change. It is the circumstances. Today a man is brave—he achieved a great success, and tomorrow, he can fail.

Use of Traditional Stories. Analysis uncovered a subtle distinction between Western and Indian militaries and how historical facts are leveraged to motivate soldiers prior to combat. For example, in the U.S. military, new recruits are exposed to a general history of their branch of service; however, it would not be typical, for example, for a platoon leader to motivate his or her followers with an uplifting anecdote about General Dwight D. Eisenhower's courage prior to battle. However, in the Indian military, inspirational stories of heroic, historic figures were used shortly before a combat action was anticipated. Such stories were also woven around the men from within their regiment who had shown bravery (and had possibly been decorated for their valor). The use of oral stories to motivate men going to battle during the Indo-Pakistani wars was most likely a pragmatic response to the historically high illiteracy rate in India, particularly at the lower socioeconomic levels. In 1981, the literacy rate for males was 54.8%; in 2015, it is 80.9% (UNESCO, n.d.). More importantly, oral tradition "was the preferred means of communication in India" (Varadarajan, 1979, 1009).

"I started giving them examples [from] Sikh history, [such as] Guru Gobind Singh's children. They never ran away from the battle place . . . if we should run away, we will be black mark[s] not only on [the] Indian Army, but [on the] Sikh community."

"It is very difficult to take someone in front of death. People say [I] motivated [them] when I told the story of Guru Gobind Singh's sons . . . in the [Battle of] Chamkaur Sahib. It paid [off], and they [were] motivated."

Good followers or soldiers (jawans) obey blindly. Interview analysis showed that five out of seven of the combat veterans felt that the ideal subordinate should exhibit unquestioning loyalty or that it was expected of them by their superior officer. Although contemporary Western militaries value autonomous thinking by the military member on the ground (Useem, 2010), the perspective that a "good follower" obeys orders unquestioningly may be a reflection of a traditional military culture (Huntington, 1972) that has been perpetuated in the Indian Military Forces (IMF) (Achuthan, 2013; Rosen, 1996) and reinforced by a preference for paternalism (Guptan, 1988).

"Want to know? Really, he should be dumb. A dumb soldier is one who doesn't ask questions."

"Here, there is a lot of blind faith in leaders, and you have to be professionally honest with them."

Role of Ethnic Identity. Two of the interviewees explicitly recognized the role of their ethnic identify in their motivation in a dangerous, deadly setting like war. The role of Sikh (ethnic) identity was also reinforced through regimental pride and traditional stories. One possible explanation can be placed in the context of ongoing political and societal conflict between the Sikhs and non-Sikhs within India that has occasionally resulted in bloodshed (Mahmood, 1997), thus facilitating a strong connection with one's origin.

"Sikhs have the tradition of fighting, particularly after the 10th Guru raised an army. We have inherited those fighting qualities from our ancestors."

"All four of us have been in [the] Sikh Regiment. That is a great tradition. . . . We treat [the] Sikh Regiment as home."

Regimental Pride. Four out of seven veterans strongly felt that regimental pride was an important aspect of a unit's cohesion. The Indian military is still a primarily caste-based organization, thus regimental pride, or *izzat,* is a dominant motivational factor, in contrast to the typical American soldier who is more

motivated to fight based on their personal, dyadic relationships within their unit (i.e., buddy relations; Little, 1964).

> "And then you feel the pressure of self-esteem. The battalion you are serving (and) its own level of glory. My battalion was 154 years old. You have to carefully maintain that flag afloat."

> "The unit to which I belong . . . like in army. . . . I should have loyalty [to] what is the uppermost and then there is something known as esprit de corps . . . like my regiment has been doing well [and] I never wanted my regiment's name [to] come down, so esprit de corps is very important."

Our study is among the first to explore the nature of Indian military leadership, in addition to developing a codebook as a preliminary step of an integrative etic–emic framework. While these initial findings are interesting, the Indian military is a reflection of the civil society. Given India's extremely large population of more than 1.23 billion people (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015) and its complex social and political environment, future research is needed to confirm that these emergent constructs are broadly shared by different castes and in different geographic locales.

Conclusion

As noted earlier, our purpose was to report on a first wave of interviews and the development of a codebook in the pursuit of an integrative etic–emic framework of Indian military leadership. This article offers two significant contributions to the literature. First, we extend prior research on the suggested global nature of specific military leadership practices by identifying 20 culture-general constructs shared between Western militaries and the Indian military. In so doing, our research explicitly focuses on the organizational context in which leadership is conducted. We also identify six culture-specific constructs. These context-specific behaviors lay important groundwork for future research on leadership in a non-Western context. Second, the development and refinement of a theoretical codebook is also significant. The revised codebook will provide a more robust and nuanced analysis of the remaining data and is an important step toward the future development of a holistic model of Indian military leadership.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although this study has made a distinct contribution to the body of knowledge within leadership studies, there are acknowledged limitations. Since our study was conducted in the northern region of India, our sample is dominated by Sikh respondents. There may be factors that are uniquely Sikh with respect to national or military culture that have an impact on the interviewees' understanding of events or behavior. While this is a limitation of the study, the sample resembles the demographic composition of the Indian Army during 1970s, as Sikhs were one of the most heavily recruited communities in the Indian Army and represented a fifth of Indian Army officers (Khalidi, 2001). Future waves of interviews will focus on Hindus, who comprise the majority of the Indian military forces (Khalidi, 2001), in addition to the smaller ethnic groups.

Issues regarding recall must also be acknowledged, as the primary data were solicited from veterans who were recalling events that occurred over 40 years ago. Most research supports the *trauma superiority argument,* which states that trauma may enhance rather than impair memory (Peace & Porter, 2004). Every effort has been made by the researchers to verify the accuracy of events through triangulation with independent sources, such as historical books and memoirs on the Indo-Pakistani wars.

It is also important to capture the perspective of the noncommissioned officer (NCO) since proximal (i.e., direct, or on-the-ground) leadership exemplifies a hands-on approach and is enacted face to face and within a relatively short timeframe (Wong, Bliese, & McGurk, 2003). Western military studies further suggest that direct leaders must have "more initiative and foresight and decreased sensitivity to rank differences. This shifts the leader's focus from who is right to what is right" (Yeakey, 2002, 73). In so doing, these studies recognize that social support is more important for lower-level leaders (Dixon, 1976). Collecting and analyzing the narratives of military leaders at both the tactical and strategic level will ensure that important emic constructs are not overlooked.

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Women in Combat:
Contexts, Terror Management, and Mortality Salience—
Implications for Women's Leadership[*]

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The role of women in combat has been a matter of intense debate and scrutiny in the United States. It received a new impetus in 2013 when then-Defense Secretary Leon Panetta ordered that all branches of the U.S. military repeal all of women's exemptions from direct combat units by January 2016. In this article, I review both academic and military research on women serving in combat operations and analyze several contexts such as ground close combat environments, rapidly changing war technologies, and terrorism. I also present a conceptual model that ties together research on terror management and mortality salience and shows how these constructs are linked to combat readiness and organizational and leadership effectiveness. Terror management theory has important implications for leaders in the present era of mounting concerns over war and terrorism as well as for women willing to serve in ground close combat units.

Key words: female soldiers, mortality salience in combat, terrorism, terror management, women in direct combat

The distinct demarcation of gender roles has been blurred over the past decades and across many contexts, but nowhere are they as sharply defined as during times of war. Women have been an integral part of war efforts for centuries in different roles that have included combat situations, and many have displayed heroism, great courage, and skills. They participated in service roles on battlefields as cooks and nurses as well as in many officer and enlisted specialty positions on land, in the air, and on the sea and have served in harm's way throughout the world. However, Operations Enduring Freedom (Afghanistan) and Iraqi Freedom marked the first major combat operations since thousands of positions in the military were opened to women, who were then deployed as fighter, bomber, attack, and helicopter pilots in all branches of the military, and aboard combat and support Navy and Coast Guard vessels (Cohen, 2006).

However, none of these assignments involved direct combat positions vis-à-vis the enemy.

Until very recently, women have been excluded from direct offensive combat operational roles. Although many military training programs extended their admissions policies to include women during the 1970s, women represented a minority in military training programs. In the service academies, both genders must meet the same standards for appointment, admission, training, and commissioning. Nevertheless, women continue to represent a small minority (about 15%) in the military and in military training programs (CNN, 2013). As a gendered organization uncongenial to women, women's token status is often attributed to the salience of gender role stereotypes in the military. The gender-stereotypic beliefs about women are in marked contrast to the attributes required for successful performance as a soldier and may have a variety of effects on the experiences of women in the military. For example, Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani's (1995) review of objective and subjective indicators of leadership performance in the military found that women performed less effectively than men, both on the battlefield and in the military in general.

More recently, Boldry, Wood, and Kashy (2001) reported that this pattern continues. Their research documented the effects of gender stereotypes on the evaluation of women in the male-dominated environment of military training camps. Their findings showed that in comparison to stereotypic females, stereotypic male cadets were judged to possess more of a cluster of traits associated with leadership including dedication, physical fitness, and diligence. These differences emerged although there were no gender differences on any performance measure, suggesting that actual performance differences did not underlie the differential evaluation of men and women in military training. This pattern of findings suggests that the impact of stereotypic beliefs in military settings is problematic for women because of the discrepancy between the attributes that comprise the social stereotype of women and the attributes required for effective military performance (Boldry et al., 2001).

   The purpose of this article is to examine the pros and cons of women serving in combat positions. This examination serves to evaluate the roles of context, gender, and leadership theories in order to provide a theoretical basis for empirical research using a variety of methods including quantitative and qualitative research designs. Currently, there is a dearth of scholarly research on women in combat; the majority of the literature is largely atheoretical and located in the media—typically newspapers, television reports, and military white papers—and is focused primarily on gender differences in physical strength. The discussion needs to shift from one based on biases and outdated gender norms to one that is befitting contributions women have made and will continue to make to the all-volunteer military (Szivak, Mala, & Kraemer, 2015). In this article, I promote the integration of several streams of research including leadership and gender differences, contextualism, and terror management and mortality salience theories as potential sources for theory development and theory testing. This analysis is significant since it represents the first attempt to apply a number of theories on the topic of women in combat to stimulate both theoretical and empirical investigations.

Removal of the Ban on Women Serving in Combat Positions

In 2013, the Obama administration announced the president's intent to repeal regulations exempting military women from direct combat units such as the infantry. Then-Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta translated this intent into action, setting in motion incremental steps to lift the ban on women serving in direct ground combat by January 2016. This initiative affects Marine and Army infantry, armor, and artillery units, and Special Operations Forces, such as Navy SEALs, and will result in the opening of hundreds of thousands of front-line positions and potentially elite commando jobs, reversing generations of limits on women's military leadership positions (Baldor, 2013). The Pentagon ordered the armed services to change the ground combat exclusions and allow women the opportunity to join all fields. It also mandated that if the services want to close a military occupational specialty (MOS) to women, it will require the approval of the

Secretary of Defense. Some jobs may be open as early as this year, while assignments for others, such as Special Operations Forces including Navy SEALs and the Army's Delta Force, may take longer. Under the Department of Defense mandate for "gender diversity," women will be incrementally ordered (not "allowed") into land combat battalions by January 2016. Top military commanders now describe "women as essential to the operation of the U.S. military" (Goldstein, 2003, 93), citing women's superior communication skills, willingness to compromise; transformational leadership style; and the ability to be collaborative, flexible, and inclusive. These are skills that pay off in combat.

This groundbreaking decision recommended by the Joint Chiefs of Staff overturned a 1994 rule prohibiting women from being assigned to smaller combat units. This policy defined direct ground combat as (a) engaging the enemy with individual/crew-served weapons; (b) being exposed to hostile fire and to the high probability of direct contact with the enemy; and (c) being located directly on the battlefield while defeating the enemy with fire, maneuver, or shock effect (Sheppard, 2007). Fifteen years later, this definition of direct combat was rendered untenable.

However, the integration of women into the U.S. military has not met with universal approval. Serrano (2014) argues that the national movement for complete gender equality, including incorporating women into infantry units, is not in the best interest of U.S. national security. She asserts that having women in an infantry unit will disrupt the infantry's identity, motivational tactics, and camaraderie (37). She also notes that the average infantryman is in his late teens or early 20s, at an age when men are raging with sex hormones and easily distracted by women and sex. She argues that the infantry is the one place where young men are able to focus solely on being a warrior without the distraction of women or political correctness. Serrano states that "since few jobs are as physically and emotionally demanding as the infantry, infantry leaders feed on the testosterone and masculinity to increase morale and motivation and encourage the warrior ethos" (37). Moreover, the incorporation of women takes

time away from training, jeopardizes readiness, and puts undue strains and requirements (such as separate billeting and bathrooms) on the unit.

The Pentagon has launched an initiative that involves developing gender-neutral standards that involve define precisely what it takes to be a warrior in the modern military (Mulrine, 2014) in preparation for the opening of these jobs to women. The Army had already opened up more than 33,000 jobs for women by the spring of 2014 and is rapidly preparing to bring female soldiers into all combat specialties. Yet there remain serious reservations about putting women in combat roles, reservations that highlight the cultural differences between the branches of the military. For example, the Marine Corps (U.S. Department of the Navy, 2015) conducted a study in which two battalions were compared, one with 200 men, the other with 100 men and 100 women, as part of its efforts to develop a Marine Corps integration plan. Both groups were trained and tested in infantry, artillery, and armor over a nine-month period. The all-male group significantly outperformed the integrated group in almost every metric. Women were not only slower and weaker, but they also injured themselves at six times the rate of the men. The report noted that the Marines infantry is very different from the Army. Marines have to carry heavy loads for extended distances and are expected to satisfy greater performance demands. The Department of the Navy's study had many flaws, such as reporting only averages without mentioning top performers, men or women. This omission is of particular concern since selection for combat assignments is based on individual performance and not team performance. Advocates for fully integrating the armed forces accused the Marines of cherry-picking data to bolster the case to keep women from certain combat jobs (Druzin, 2015).

There are other discrepancies that highlight the cultural differences across the branches of the services. For example, the Marines 2013 strength test proxy results confirmed wide gender-related differences (CMR, 2014a). The Marine Corps employs a combat readiness test for which male candidates can train but females cannot. In addition, male candidates are allowed to repeat the basic training course, while women are not. An interim Center for Military Readiness

(CMR) special report (2014b) concluded that none of the research findings by the Marine Corps over the past three years support the notion that women can be physical equals and interchangeable with men in the combat arms. Reliance on unrealistic "best-case" scenarios, according to the report, would impose heavy burdens on women and put all troops at greater risk. The CMR encourages Congress to exercise diligent oversight and to challenge all assumptions and theories, political mandates, media bias, public misperceptions, and misguided groupthink in academia and the administration.

The recent arrival of the first women at the Army's elite Ranger School again raised concerns that women cannot make the cut on the battlefield. Between January and April 2015, 113 women attempted to qualify for Ranger School, but only 20 were successful. Of the 19 women who started the course, 8 were still in contention one week later. By comparison, 197 of the 381 men were dropped from Ranger School during the first week. Ranger School is one of the toughest in the U.S. military; only 20% of the men who attempt to complete the course make it the first time, and those candidates who persevere often require two or three attempts to complete the course. The school seeks to maintain the standards without lowering the requirements for female students (Mulrine, 2015). Women are expected to handle the most grueling rigors of war as well as their male counterparts. The success of training is dependent, at least in part, on male soldiers believing that women are not singled out for any special treatment. The situation is very different in the Marine Corps. Since 2012, 29 female Marine officers have tried to pass the Infantry Officer Course, but they were unsuccessful. Only 4 candidates survived beyond the first day of the course, which involves extraordinarily tough challenges that prepare Marines to lead others in battle (Donnelly, 2015).

Then-Secretary of Defense Panetta set January 2016 as the goal for fully integrating women into the military (Thompson, 2015). However, the military branches are faced with a dilemma. On the one hand, the military are developing new tests to implement the policy; on the other hand, they are confronted with pressures to lower the requirements for women, especially those pertaining to

physical strength qualification. The onus will be on the armed forces to prove why a woman cannot serve in a particular combat role. While not all men and women are able to meet the qualifications to become combat soldiers, they are entitled to serve in these roles.

The Continuing Debate: Inclusion/Exclusion of Women from Direct Combat

Three major lines of reasoning have been used extensively to justify the exclusion of women from direct combat (as opposed to placing them in a variety of roles in combat areas: (a) physical strength, (b) unit cohesion, and (c) threats to national security.

Physical Strength

Many of the debates surrounding the roles of women in combat have focused on the differences in physical strength (e.g., upper body strength) between men and women. In general, most men are stronger than women. Women have 45 to 50% less upper body strength and 25 to 30% less aerobic capacity, which is essential for endurance and a serious factor considering that soldiers generally carry 65 pounds of gear (Thompson, 2015).

   However, a closer inspection of the physical strength argument reveals two troubling double standards. First, the argument that women should be excluded from combat because they do not possess the requisite physical strength is both over- and under-inclusive. Many women have the physical strength and stamina to engage in ground combat while many men do not (see Michaels, 2013; Thompson, 2015). Second, while men are not disqualified from entering combat career fields for lack of physical strength, all female recruits are peremptorily disqualified from such assignments, regardless of their physical strength. The military services have launched extensive efforts to verify the physical requirements needed to succeed in dozens of MOSs that were previous closed to women. The burden has now shifted to the military branches to apply the same standards to men and women, as they are not allowed to lower physical requirements for women (Michaels, 2013).

The performance of the previously mentioned 19 women who participated in the U.S. Army Ranger School in September 2015 dispelled the myth and stereotype of women as unfit for direct combat when they outperformed their male counterparts on the first day. This was the first integrated class of the school after decades of debate of whether or not women are physically fit to serve in combat roles. The Ranger School is known for its grueling training course, which lasts for two months and simulates different combat environments. In addition, all candidates must pass the Army Physical Fitness Test, or they are immediately dismissed from the program (Clymer, 2015). Other than physical strength, there are no military relevant differences between men and women.

The inability to perform pull-ups or lift heavy weights over one's head does not disqualify women from most MOSs that are open to them. Reasonable accommodations make it possible to recruit and retain women who are valuable members of the all-volunteer force (AVF). Requirements are different, however, in the combat arms. In that environment, a person's inability to carry heavy loads over long distances, climb over high obstacles, and dig fighting holes before attacking the enemy could compromise missions and cost lives.

Disruption of Unit Cohesion

Debates about cohesion, going back decades, seem tied to the social/task cohesion dichotomy popular in business and academia. In the academic literature, group, or unit, cohesion has two dimensions: emotional and task-related (Eisenberg, 2007). The *emotional dimension of unit cohesion* refers to the nature and quality of emotional bonds of friendship, liking, caring, and closeness among members of a group. *Task cohesiveness* refers to the degree to which members of a unit share group goals and work together to achieve these goals. One of the most widely studied topics is the relationship between cohesion and performance, which has mixed results, some positive and some negative (Hornaday, 2001). The seemingly contradictory findings are primarily due to different moderating variables such as sample size, study design, and setting.

Military experts who provided testimony to the 1992 Presidential Commission on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces defined *cohesion in combat*

unions as the relationship that develops in units based on mutual trust for survival in battle (C80). Unlike academic comparisons of social and task cohesion, the Presidential Commission recognized two essential types of cohesion for combat effectiveness: *vertical cohesion,* the bond between commanders and the troops they lead, and *horizontal cohesion,* mutual trust and dependence for survival. Thus, *cohesion* is

> the relationship that develops in a unit or group where (1) members share common values and experiences; (2) individuals in the group conform to group norms and behavior in order to ensure group survival and goals; (3) members lose their personal identity in favor of a group identity; (4) members focus on group activities and goals; (5) unit members become totally dependent on each other for the completion of their mission or survival; and (6) group members must meet all standards of performance and behavior in order not to threaten group survival. (Eisenberg, 2007, 387)

This definition stresses the importance of survival and mission accomplishment in the best interest of the military unit rather than the individual. (Note that the word *survival* appears three times, and the word *group* appears eight times in this short paragraph.)

The purported disruption of a combat unit's *esprit de corps* and cohesion is a second major reason why women have been banned from frontline combat positions. The forces that push unit members together are influenced by unit size, degree of similarity between members of a unit, and perceptions of external threats (Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon, 2003). The Presidential Commission's (1992) report also noted that cohesion can be negatively affected by the introduction of any element that detracts from mutual confidence, commonality of experience, and equitable treatment. In the absence of unit cohesion and vertical trust in the chain of command, morale suffers. Tensions and distractions related to voluntary and involuntary sexual misconduct also detract from morale and discipline, harming women and everyone else concerned.

Unit cohesion is a leadership issue. It takes leadership to mold a collective of diverse individuals into an effective combat unit focused on a mission that requires sacrifices and personal qualities such as a sense of duty, responsibility, integrity, and discipline. The presence of women might disrupt cohesion in

ground combat units due to the lack of performance of required tasks, lack of privacy, traditional male views of women soldiers, prejudice, double standards, and sexual misconduct—all of which may be significantly reduced or eliminated given an appropriate leadership climate that maximizes unit cohesion. As McSally (2007) points out, leadership has the greatest effect on group cohesion, regardless of the gender composition of the unit.

Threat to National Security

The military is unlike any other organization. Its primary mission is to fight and win wars for its nation. To that end, military forces are honed for one purpose: to win. This begs the question: Will putting women in combat units enhance or threaten U.S. military combat capabilities? This question is not easy to answer, since we are uncertain about the number of women who will volunteer for direct combat assignments. According to an Army survey of soldiers on active duty, in the reserves, and in the National Guard (Baldor, 2014), 95.2% of the 30,000 female respondents indicated they would not serve in combat arms. The vast majority of women who expressed an interest to serve in combat units were also in the lower ranks and were age 27 or younger. This survey and others conducted across the Army revealed that both genders are nervous about women entering combat jobs (Baldor, 2015; Lemon, 2015). Men are worried about losing their jobs to women, while women are concerned about getting combat assignments based on gender rather than their qualifications. Both genders agreed that the services should not lower standards to accommodate women. In the final analysis, the push to integrate female soldiers into formerly all-male combat roles and units could increase injuries, death, incidents of sexual assaults, and ultimately, harm national security (Wiser, 2013).

The Military as Context for Women's Leadership

Traditionally, the military has worshiped at the altar of command (Sullivan, 2007). As an organizational structure, the military is unquestionably traditional and highly bureaucratic. There is a clear delineation of power across hierarchical levels and clear prescriptions about how leaders and subordinates are expected

to act. The modern military includes many elements of Weber's (1947) bureaucratic organization, which emphasizes the creation of a fixed division of tasks, a hierarchical supervision, a chain of command, centralization of authority and decision making, and reliance on detailed rules and regulations in order to achieve precision, speed, clarity, reliability, and efficiency. These are the structural elements that have dominated the armed forces in the past and worked against women.

The wars in Iraq and Afghanistan propelled women into jobs as medics, military police, and intelligence officers who were sometimes attached—but not formally assigned—to battalions. While a woman could not be assigned as an infantry soldier in a battalion on patrol, she could fly a helicopter to support the unit or move in to provide medical aid if troops were injured. Women performed combat roles such as flying refueling planes, troop transport aircrafts, and helicopters; firing Patriot missiles to destroy scud missiles, and supplying mechanized brigades with fuel and ammunition. The way in which female service members in Iraq and Afghanistan performed a range of duties once thought unimaginable for them—from driving trucks on bomb-strewn roads to serving as gunners on vehicles—is evidence not only of their mettle but also of the military's ability to properly train and deploy its troops.

In these wars, there was no forward area on the battlefield, which was nonlinear and encompassed a 360-degree radius around the troops (McSally, 2007). The advent of insurgency wars that have no front or rear lines has made the debate of women in combat irrelevant (Wise & Baron, 2011). These conflicts, where battlefield lines are blurred and insurgents can lurk in every corner, have made it almost impossible to keep women clear of combat. The realities of current combat, the performance of women in Iraq and Afghanistan, the Army's transformation from a conscripted to an all-voluntary force, and the challenges of meeting recruiting goals in an all-volunteer force provided the context for analyzing the ground combat exclusion policy (McSally, 2007). Despite the ground combat exclusion policy that is being phased out, women have served in

combat every day. However, it should be noted that women were attached—not assigned—to combat units, and their primary mission was not to kill the enemy.

   In this section, I discuss three contextual environments that have affected women's integration into combat units and their roles in direct combat operations: (a) ground close combat characteristics, (b) changes in war-related technologies, and (c) the war on terrorism.

Ground Close Combat (GCC)

A British Minister of Defense report recently analyzed by the CMR (2015) explicitly defines what "tip of the spear" fighting teams such as infantry armor, artillery, and Special Operations Forces, which deliberately attack the enemy, actually do when they get close to and kill the enemy. Missions of these units go beyond the experience of being in harm's way in war zones. The report, which highlights physiological differences, cohesion, and related factors having an effect on combat effectiveness, also revealed weaknesses in attempts to sugar-coat the evidence. For example, combat arms communities are expected to embrace several rosy scenarios in making women-in-land-combat policies work.

   Ground close combat is intense and involves violent death, injury, horror, fear, and high levels of emotion. Combat exposes inadequacies and creates manifold stresses that are likely to occur repeatedly throughout combat operations and require high levels of both mental and physical endurance (Donnelly, 2015). It requires soldiers to deploy on foot over difficult terrain, carrying substantial weight; to engage in close quarter fighting; to recuperate in the field, and then do the same again and again over an extended period. Ground close combat challenges gender differences in preparedness for combat.

Changes in War-Related Technologies

Given the rapid changes in war-related technologies, Shamir and Ben-Ari (2007) predict that digitization will eventually replace traditional warfare and, with it, hierarchical military leadership. These authors note that "the dominant view of the Army of the future suggests that the military will be increasingly organized around information and information technologies with the possibility of deflating

the military commander's leadership role" (17). *Electronic warfare* and *digitized battlefields* refer to a variety of battles fought on communications and computer networks, missions devoted to hindering a country's security websites, or deliberate sabotage to economic infrastructure and activity. Military technologies are now positioned to support network-centric warfare (NCW).

Network-centric warfare has been defined as "operations that rely on computer equipment and networked communication technology to provide shared awareness of battle space for U.S. forces" (Wilson, 2007). According to Alberts (2002), NCW has the following foundational advantages: (1) a robustly networked force improves information sharing; (2) information sharing and collaboration enhance the quality of information and shared situational awareness; (3) shared situational awareness enhances self-synchronization; and (4) these, in turn, dramatically increase mission effectiveness. Robb (2014) points out that the way in which forces communicate, disseminate intelligence, are issued orders, and report to their commanders has been revolutionized through the use of networks, which harness the power of networks of geographically linked nodes that allow for extremely rapid, high-volume transmission of digitized data (Dombrowski, Gholz, & Ross, 2003). Robb (2014) notes how the United States-led invasion of Afghanistan in 2001 illustrated how the doctrine of NCW provided the military with high levels of shared battlespace awareness that was exploited to achieve strategic, operational, and tactical objectives in accordance with the commander's intent.

Nevertheless, as Wong, Bliese, and McGurk (2003) point out, "the streets of Bosnia, the mountains of Afghanistan, and the deserts of Iraq require boots on the ground to achieve victory" (660). Warfare continues to remain an intensely human activity dependent on individual capabilities such as risk taking, loyalty, heroic courage, behavioral and cognitive complexity, adaptability, and willingness to make the ultimate sacrifice for one's country. As warfare is becoming more and more technology driven, ground combat becomes less about physical strength. It does, however, require human abilities such as consensus-based decision making, interpersonal skills in negotiations, and the ability to lead

organic structures—competencies that are among the major strengths many women bring to military leadership. However, the role of women in this technology-driven military has yet to be investigated.

War on Terrorism

In addition to the changing nature of warfare, the war on terrorism, both domestic and abroad, is also redefining and expanding the context for women in the military. After the Cold War came the "war on terror" (Bush, 2010). In 1993, Islamist terrorists tried to level the World Trade Center (WTC), and in 1998, they bombed the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania. The attacks of September 11, 2001, followed. In response, the United States attacked Afghanistan in 2001 and routed the Taliban. In 2003, the United States invaded Iraq, removed Saddam Hussein, and established democracy there (Yew, 2007).

The war on terror moved to the forefront of the political and social discourse with the events leading up to and defining 9/11. On September 20, 2001, President George W. Bush delivered an inspirational speech to America that rallied support for the war on terror, which eventually led to the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. The term *war on terror* has been used since to refer to a global military, political, legal, and conceptual struggle against both organizations designated as terrorist and regimes accused of supporting them (Lustick, 2006). The war on terror marks the transition from military interventions to a long-term counterterrorism policy (Boeke, 2014).

Following the terrorist attacks in September 2001, mortality concerns for many U.S. citizens have grown exponentially (Pyszczynski, Solomon, & Greenberg, 2003). While such concerns typically dissipate over time, the subsequent incidence of natural disasters, (including the Indonesian tsunami in 2004, Hurricane Katrina in 2005, the Haitian earthquake in 2010, and the earthquake and tsunami in Japan in 2011, along with fears regarding potential epidemics of diseases such as avian and swine flu and mass shootings, such as those in Clarksville and Chattanooga, Tennessee, and Charleston, South Carolina, in 2015, are also keeping mortality concerns among Americans high. They have

also stimulated increased research studies on how individuals cope psychologically with death reminders.

Women in Combat: Terror Management, Mortality Salience, and Leadership

Ground close combat operations are a double-edged sword: they evoke terror and anxiety and force men and women on the battlefield to face their mortality. However, they also propel a few exceptional individuals to the limits of their physical and psychological potential, leading to extraordinary acts of heroism. The war on terror has not only added a new contextual dimension for women in the military, it has also created a body of theory and research on concepts such as terror management theory (TMT) and its related construct, mortality salience (MS).

Terror Management

Terror management theory (TMT) suggests that humans experience a basic psychological conflict that results from having a desire to live but realizing that death is inevitable. This conflict produces terror, and it is believed to be unique to humans. Originally proposed by Greenberg, Pyszczynski, and Solomon (1986), TMT has, since its inception, generated a considerable amount of empirical research. Inspired by the writings of Becker (1962, 1973, 1975), the theory proposes that a potential for terror results from the juxtaposition of death awareness and the instinct for self-preservation. TMT posits that the simultaneous predisposition toward self-preservation combined with our awareness of the inevitability of our eventual mortality has the potential to be terrifying (Greenberg & Kosloff, 2008; Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986; Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991).

According to Pyszczynski et al. (2003), there are two protective mechanisms that can defend people against pervasive feelings of terror: their cultural worldview and their self-esteem. *Cultural worldview* refers to a person's shared values in a world that is meaningful, stable, and orderly. A person's cultural worldview provides context for managing death-related anxieties (Arndt,

Greenberg, Schimel, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 2002). According to TMT, cultural worldviews assuage anxiety by imbuing the world with meaning, order, and predictability; by providing standards through which individuals can achieve personal value; and by promising some sort of death transcendence to those who live up to these standards. Over a decade of research inspired by TMT has shown that in face of mortality, people have defended themselves against death anxiety by believing that some aspect of themselves will continue after death, either literally or symbolically, such as the belief in the continuity of life through one's children or the belief in an afterlife. TMT can help explain that peace work is hampered particularly in the context of war and life-threatening violence as it suggests that our most vile attitudes and actions toward other groups stem from a fear of death that we cannot fully cope with or comprehend (Burke, Martens, & Faucher, 2010, 156)

Individuals who tend to hold these worldviews find significance in their lives and often experience an enhancement of self-esteem. *Self-esteem,* the second anxiety buffer, is one's perception of how well we are living up to the standards of values prescribed by our worldview (Greenberg, Solomon, & Pyszczynski, 1997; Harmon-Jones et al., 1997). Self-esteem gives people a sense that they are valuable participants in a meaningful world. Self-esteem is acquired by believing in the absolute validity of our worldviews and our conviction that we are living up to its standards and values. Harmon-Jones et al. (1997), in three interrelated experimental studies, present evidence that self-esteem reduces mortality salience effects beyond general anxiety buffering, establishing a specific relationship to the problem of death. Together, our worldviews and self-esteem function as anxiety buffers to counteract death-related fears, also known as mortality salience.

Mortality Salience

Mortality-related fears, treated in the literature as nonconscious situational cues, have tended to run high for the majority of individuals in the United States over the past two decades (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Koole, & Solomon, 2010). In large part, these fears have been elevated due to media coverage of the 2001

and subsequent global terrorist attacks, frequent large-scale natural disasters, a spate of mass killings, fears of epidemics, fears of the consequences of climate change, and rampant warfare and strife associated with ethnic and religious intolerance in many parts of the world. The battlefields of wars are also an example of a context likely to generate death-related thoughts and anxieties that make mortality salient.

In one study conducted post-9/11, Pyszczynski et al. (2003), portrays the events of 9/11 as a natural MS induction—normally an experimental procedure in which death-related fears and mortality salience are manipulated under laboratory conditions. *Mortality salience (MS)* is the extent to which unconscious death-related fears surface when people are confronted with the inevitability of death. The events of 9/11 illustrate these defense mechanisms. For example, the authors discuss how many of the symbolic defenses prompted by 9/11 (e.g., veneration of culturally sacred objects, such as flags) paralleled those found in response to MS inductions in TMT research. According to Landau et al. (2004), many symbolic defenses in response to 9/11 represent efforts to reaffirm the integrity and validity of the American worldview in response to increased accessibility of implicit death-related thoughts.

The most prominent line of empirical support for TMT is based on tests of the MS hypothesis, examining whether priming people with their own mortality increases adherence to their cultural worldviews and/or self-esteem. More specifically, the *MS hypothesis* states that accessibility to death-related thoughts (MS) should instigate increased worldview and self-esteem defense and striving (Burke et al., 2010). In other words, if the cultural worldview functions to provide protection against death-related concerns, then reminders of death should intensify efforts to bolster and defend faith in the worldview. This broad hypothesis has been supported by a wide range of studies demonstrating the many ways in which MS increases defense of one's worldview.

While many studies testing the tenets of TMT have provided significant evidence that mortality fears do influence individuals' behaviors and attitudes at a subtle level, little extant research has explored factors related to gender-related

variables (Burke et. al., 2010). The empirical investigation of gender differences in experienced death anxiety has yielded some support for the idea that females reported more death anxiety than males (e.g., Kastenbaum, 2011). In a study examining gender differences across the lifespan, Russac, Gatliff, Reece, and Spottswood (2007) found that male and female participants experienced a spike in death anxiety in their early 20s; however, female participants also showed a significant spike in death anxiety in their 50s.

Another way that people can defend themselves against existential angst is by adhering more strongly to stereotypes (Renkema, Stapel, Maringer, & Van Yperen, 2008; Schimel et al., 1999). Because stereotypes provide people with an orderly and stable conception of reality, they exist as part of people's cultural worldviews that offer protection from existential fear. By viewing groups stereotypically and preferring stereotype-consistent individuals over stereotype-inconsistent individuals, people confirm the validity of their cultural worldviews, making these worldviews more effective buffers against existential angst. Schimel et al. (1999) demonstrated, across five studies and four distinct social groups, that mortality salience increases the use of group stereotypes in evaluations of individual members from those groups.

TMT posits that an individual's worldview is a culturally derived yet individualized conception of reality that provides protection again deeply rooted fears of human mortality and vulnerability. To the extent that stereotypes are significant components of such a worldview, people would be expected to be especially committed to maintaining their stereotypes when reminded of the source of their fear. Thus, MS would be expected to increase one's tendency to perceive individual members of out-groups (minorities) in stereotypic ways and lead to a preference for stereotype-consistent out-group members over stereotypic inconsistent ones (Schimel et al., 1999).

Leadership at the Juncture of TMT and MS

As more and more military occupational specialties previously closed to women now allow women into their ranks, the opportunities for women to assume leadership roles on battlefields increase. These two interrelated streams of

research, TMT and MS, provide conceptual underpinnings for research on women in combat and have implications for leadership roles women may assume in direct combat situations, especially in mixed gender units. Women have characteristics—such as less physical strength, a preference for transformational leadership, and lack of aggression—that indicate low status and power and devalue them in the leadership context (Hoyt & Chemers, 2008). The bias that many women confront in the leadership domain stems from the mismatch between gender stereotypes and the characteristics deemed crucial for success in leadership. In addition, there is an additional mismatch between stereotypic female attributes and the characteristics of an effective soldier. While the military in general as a context for women's leadership has been widely researched, specific research on the battlefields of war is relatively unexplored due to the recent lift of the exclusion of women from combat.

Research has shown that subtle reminders of our own mortality are associated with changes in preferred leadership styles (Cohen, Solomon, Maxfield, Pyszczynski, & Greenberg, 2004). According to the authors, the existential angst arising from pervasive death-related thoughts can be managed in part by identifying with and supporting leaders who make people feel like they are a valued part of something larger than themselves. Cohen et al. (2004) report that subtle reminders of death lead to more positive evaluations of charismatic leaders but less positive evaluations of relationship-oriented leaders. More specifically, their results demonstrate that MS enhances the appeal of a charismatic leader who promotes a grand vision and promises followers a significant role in a noble mission. Moreover, charismatic leadership is a style that boosts people's self-esteem. Cohen et al. conclude that under MS, "people want to identify with special, great things, and charismatic leaders typically offer the promise of just that" (850).

In a related study, Landau et al.'s (2004) study investigated how thoughts of death and the 9/11 terrorist attacks influenced Americans' attitudes toward then-President George W. Bush. Based on TMT, the authors argue that "people avoid potentially debilitating preoccupations with personal frailty and finitude, in part, by

transferring power to and investing faith in a powerful authority" (1139). Landau et al. found that (a) when research participants were reminded of their own mortality (MS induction), their support for Bush and his counterterrorism policies increased; (b) reminders of both mortality and 9/11 increased support for Bush; and (c) MS led participants to become more favorable toward Bush and voting for him in the upcoming election, but less favorable toward presidential candidate John Kerry and voting for him. Taken together, these studies provide clear support for TMT and show that concerns about personal mortality can cause people to cling to the protection provided by their leaders.

Few studies have examined the role of gender and gender differences in TMT and MS. In one study, Hoyt, Simon, and Reid (2009) investigated the effects of MS on gender stereotypes in evaluations and preferences for leaders. Investigating people's preferences for gubernatorial candidates, they found that MS resulted in a general increased preference for the agentic candidate over the communal candidate. Under MS, female participants preferred a fictitious gubernatorial candidate who possessed traits typically associated with the leader role. More specifically, women preferred and voted for the agentic candidate regardless of gender, and males also preferred the agentic leader. For women, MS was associated with a preference for agentic leaders, and men were more likely to be perceived as agentic. Overall, Hoyt et al. (2009) found that MS has an impact on people's preferences for political leaders based on gender stereotypes.

The model of women in combat depicted in Figure 1 on the next page summarizes the concepts and research presented in this article.[1]

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[1]Due to page limitations, the variables under "Selection Testing for Combat Units and Base Training" are not discussed in the article. However, they include personality characteristics that have been shown as predictors of effective military performance such as character, integrity, ambition, and resilience.
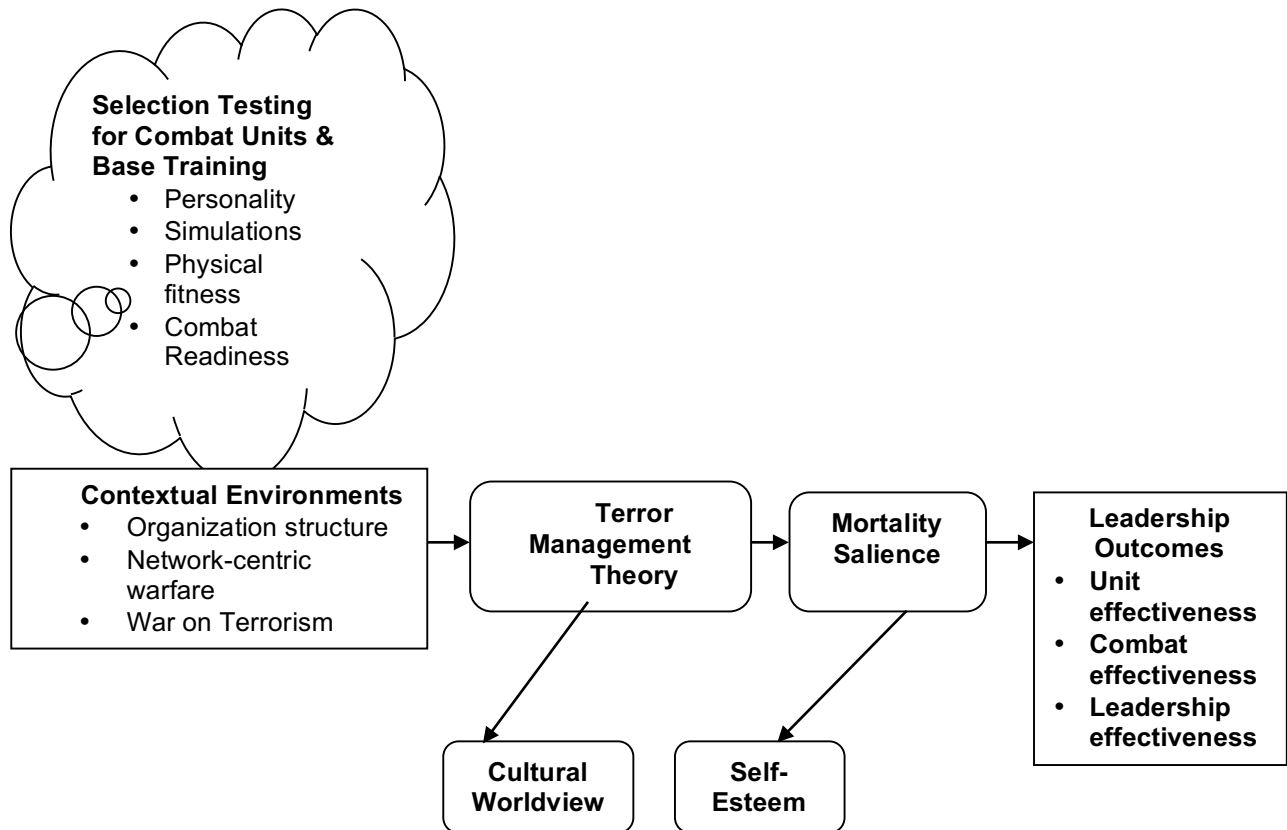
Figure 1. Women in combat at the juncture of TMT, MS, and leadership

Conclusion

Lifting the ban on women serving in direct ground combat units has positive as well as negative implications for women's leadership. Repealing women's exemptions from direct combat operations will undoubtedly open many leadership positions and opportunities for women. Only by giving servicewomen opportunities to prove themselves in combat situations will military commands be able to determine if their missions have been compromised by including women in combat units. The creation of a gender-neutral, capabilities-based assignment system that would provide maximum flexibility for military leadership during the planning and execution of combat operation would conceivably open thousands of combat positions for qualified women to fill these positions and to serve in combat roles. Differences in physical strength have been shown to have no connection to women's ability to operate complicated equipment, fly jet aircrafts, or fire sophisticated weapons. Likewise, women do not, by their mere presence,

diminish cohesion in a war fighting unit. Recommendations for consistent, reality-based policies, supported by relevant research findings, could change the direction and political dynamics of future integration efforts and policies. Furthermore, there are many unresolved issues that have not been studied, such as the disproportionate occurrence of debilitating injuries in female members of the military reported in military training programs in independent studies conducted by several branches of the services (Thompson, 2015) or the cultural ambivalence about combat violence against women when caught as prisoners of war and exposed to torture, rape, mutilation, and execution.

These topics suggest that there are large gaps of missing research that await empirical investigations, that are theoretically grounded, and that employ a variety of research methods. Leadership theories, such as complexity theory (e.g., Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007), relational leadership theory (e.g., Uhl-Bien, 2006), and gender difference theories (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2007) may serve as initial starting points. The role of context in leadership has been widely recognized (e.g., Klenke, 2011; Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). The five military branches represent significantly different branches that illustrate the concept of context congeniality (e.g., Eagly et al., 1995). In a meta-analytic study, Eagly et al. (1995) argue that a context is increasingly uncongenial for women leaders if it is male-dominated, if the women is a token representative, if the task is masculine stereotypic, and if hierarchy and power are stressed over egalitarianism and influence. All these characteristics are evident in the military, which is generally considered an uncongenial context for women. However, there are differences between the services, and the current debate on the integration of women into active combat positions accentuates the different cultures prevailing in the five service branches. For example, the Marines continue to argue most vehemently that certain combat roles such as tank crewman or scout sniper should be off limits for women.

The incorporation of TMT and MS is one of the unique contributions of this article, both in terms of the integration of these two theories into leadership theory, as well as into research on women in combat. Thus, Figure 1 represents

not only a conceptual map of the research presented in this article but also a research map on which a variety of empirical studies can be mapped.

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The Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Work Engagement[*]

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Through multiple linear regression, relationships between leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence; employees' age, gender, duration of employment; and employees' work engagement in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States were examined. In addition, the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement was investigated. The results indicated a significantly predictive regression model in which employees' gender and leaders' transformational leadership were found to be significant predictors of employees' work engagement, while emotional intelligence approached statistical significance. However, when investigated individually, transformational leadership accounted for 44%, while emotional intelligence accounted for 39% more of the variation in employees' work engagement than the demographic variables alone. Leaders' emotional intelligence, however, did not significantly moderate the relationship between leaders' transformational leadership and employees' work engagement.

Key words: emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, work engagement

Globally, 60% to 80% of employees are not engaged in their jobs (Aon Hewitt, 2014; Blessing White, 2013; Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). Lack of *work engagement,* defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003, 4) has a significant impact on organizational productivity. Gallup (2013) and Pati and Kumar (2011) estimate that disengaged employees cost the United States economy up to $550 billion each year in lost productivity. On the other hand, engaged employees exhibit positive emotions at work, enjoy better health, and are able to transfer their positive engagement to others (Bakker, 2011). Organizations with higher levels of work engagement report reduced turnover, greater productivity, and better overall financial returns (Baumruk, 2006). Shuck and Herd (2012) and Wallace and Trinka (2009) suggest that leadership plays a role in affecting work engagement, yet Aon Hewitt (2014) found that there has been limited promotion of the importance of

work engagement by leaders. Bakker, Albrecht, and Leiter (2011) and Ghadi et al. (2013) suggest that transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) has a direct and positive influence on work engagement. However, Bakker (2011) posits that the current data do not fully explain "how leaders influence their followers' engagement and the mechanisms that explain this influence" (268). Consequently, Shuck and Herd (2012) implore researchers to consider how emotional intelligence affects work engagement and the role emotional intelligence plays on the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Transformational Leadership and Work Engagement

Transformational leaders inspire passion and commitment in their followers that can lead to achieving profound organizational results. Aryee, Walumbwa, Zhou, and Hartnell (2012) posit that transformational leaders are able to elicit employee work engagement due to their ability to align the organizational vision with employees' work-related desires. This positive relationship is due to the leader's ability to create an environment that fosters employees' visions of themselves within the organization. Similarly, Kovjanic, Schuh, and Jonas (2013) establish that transformational leaders positively affect employee work engagement by inducing employees' needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. In another study, Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) found that charismatic leadership, a concept embedded in transformational leadership, was strongly linked with work engagement.

Emotional Intelligence and Work Engagement

Broadly, emotional intelligence describes a multidimensional approach that defines a person's ability to manage their own emotions and competencies and the emotions of others (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2009; Batool, 2013). Emotional intelligence plays a central role in the leadership process since a leader's emotional state can affect how followers perceive a leader (George, 2000). A follower's perception of their leader can be a factor in determining

whether the employee is engaged and committed to their organization (Parimalam & Mahadevan, 2012).

Ravichandran, Arasu, and Kumar (2011) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement in IT professionals. There was a moderate but significant positive correlation between the overall emotional intelligence score and overall work engagement. Thor (2013) conducted an Internet-based study of more than 5,000 members in the American Society for Quality to measure work engagement of individuals employed in the health care and medical device industries. Through correlation analysis, a moderate statistically significant relationship was found between emotional intelligence and work engagement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between employees' work engagement; leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence; and employees' age, gender, and duration of employment in current position in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States.

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What is the relationship between employees' work engagement; perceptions of leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence; and employees' age, gender, and duration of employment in current position in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States?

Research Question 2 (RQ2): How do employees' age, gender, and duration of employment in current position affect the relationship between their own work engagement and their perceptions of their leaders' transformational leadership?

Research Question 3 (RQ3): How do employees' age, gender, and duration of employment in current position affect the relationship between their own work engagement and their perceptions of their leaders' emotional intelligence?

Research Question 4 (RQ4): To what degree does a leader's emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between their transformational leadership and employees' work engagement in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States?

Method

This study employed a cross-sectional, quantitative, nonexperimental, survey design that used multiple linear regression. A moderation analysis based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) methodology was also conducted to examine the influence of the interaction of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership on work engagement.

The study sample was comprised of employees working in pharmaceutical organizations in the United States who were members of the SurveyMonkey Pharmaceutical and Healthcare Audience (SurveyMonkey, 2015). SurveyMonkey e-mailed the study link to a random sample of participants who were 18 years and older, worked full time in the pharmaceutical industry in the United States, and had an immediate supervisor at the time of the survey. In total, 1,214 responses were obtained. Of these, 157 (13%) were fully complete, constituting the analyzable dataset.

Measures

Based on their perceptions, participants evaluated their immediate supervisor's transformational leadership behaviors using the 20 statements from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X-Short (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Perception of participants' immediate supervisor's emotional intelligence was measured using the Genos Emotional Intelligence Concise Inventory (Gignac, 2010b). Finally, participants rated their own work engagement using the 17-question Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Bakker et al., 2011).

Results

The frequencies and percentages for participants' individual and organizational characteristics are shown in Tables 1 and 2 on the following pages.

Table 1: Frequencies and Percentages for Individual Characteristics

Variable	Frequency	Percent (%)
Age (Years)		
18–30	37	24
31–40	48	31
41–50	39	25
51–60	31	20
61–70	2	1
71 or older	0	0
Gender		
Male	74	47
Female	83	53
Highest Educational Level		
Associate's Degree	36	23
Bachelor's Degree	55	35
Master's Degree	21	13
Doctoral Degree	11	7
Other (e.g., professional degree)	10	6
No Degree	24	15

Note. N = 157.

Table 2: Frequencies and Percentages for Organizational Characteristics

Variable	Frequency	Percent (%)
Pharmaceutical Industry Sector		
Prescription	81	52
Consumer	27	17
Medical Devices	49	31
Department or Functional Area		
Research and Development	43	27
Manufacturing	17	11
Administrative	42	27
Other	55	35
Time in Current Position (Years)		
< 1	19	12
1 to < 3	40	25
3 to < 5	28	18
5 to < 10	30	19
10 to < 15	25	16
>15	15	10
Geographic Location		
New England	14	9
Middle Atlantic	24	15
East North Central	31	20
West North Central	14	9
South Atlantic	15	10
East South Central	15	10
West South Central	14	9
Mountain	5	3
Pacific	23	15

Note. N = 157.

Work Engagement, Transformational Leadership, and Emotional Intelligence. Participants reported a mean overall work engagement score of M = 4.40 (SD = 1.10) on a scale from 0 to 6 and leaders' overall transformational leadership score of M = 2.62 (SD = 0.86) on a scale from 0 to 4,. Both scores are comparable to average normative scores (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). For an assessment of emotional intelligence, raw scores on a scale from 1 to 5 are totaled for all constructs and converted into percentile scores (Gignac, 2010a). However, according to Gignac (2010a), conversion into

percentiles is not appropriate for statistical analysis purposes. A summary score of the leaders' composite emotional intelligence construct was lower ($M = 107.64$, $SD = 20.85$) compared to the normative score (Gignac, 2010a).

Multiple Linear Regression Results. Results for RQ1 indicated a significantly predictive regression model ($F(5, 151) = 32.05$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .52$) as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Multiple Linear Regression Model Summary for RQ1

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	*SE* of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	*df* 1	*df* 2	Sig. F Change
1	.72[a]	.52	.5	.78	.52	32.05	5	151	.000

Note. Dependent variable: Work engagement.
[a] Predictors: (Constant), age, gender, duration in current position, transformational leadership (composite), emotional intelligence (composite)

Using *t*-tests, shown in Table 4, gender ($t = 2.52$, $p = .013$) and transformational leadership scores ($t = 7.58$, $p < .001$) were found to be significant predictors of work engagement. Emotional intelligence approached significance, but did not provide any predictive ability beyond what was explained by the demographic variables and the composite transformational leadership score ($t = 1.85$, $p = .066$).

Examination of the unstandardized *B* values indicated that females had average work engagement scores that were 0.32 higher than those of males. For transformational leadership, after holding emotional intelligence and the set of covariates constant, a single unit increase in the transformational leadership score corresponded with an increase of 0.76 in work engagement.

Table 4: Prediction of Work Engagement by Gender, Age, Years in Current Position, Transformational Leadership, and Emotional Intelligence

Predictor Variables	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Gender	0.32	0.13	.14	2.52	.013
Age	0.10	0.07	.10	1.46	.146
Years in Current Position	−0.01	0.05	−.02	−0.25	.800
Emotional Intelligence	0.01	0.00	.14	1.85	.066
Transformational Leadership	0.76	0.10	.59	7.58	.001

Note. N = 157.

Results for RQ2 indicated a significantly predictive regression model in the final step (F(8, 148) = 19.99, p < .001, R^2 = .52) as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Multiple Linear Regression Model Summary for RQ2

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	*SE* of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	*df* 1	*df* 2	Sig. *F* Change
1	.27[a]	.08	.057	1.07	.08	4.13	3	153	.008
2	.72[b]	.52	.493	.78	.44	27.37	5	148	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: Work engagement.
[a] Predictors: (Constant), age, gender, duration in current position. [b] Predictors: (Constant), age, gender, duration in current position, idealized influence [attributed], idealized influence [behaviors], inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

When compared to the model with only covariates included (F(3, 153) = 4.13, p = .008, R^2 = .08), the subscales of transformational leadership accounted for 44% more of the variation in work engagement than the covariates alone. Using *t*-tests, shown in Table 6 on the next page, gender was again a significant predictor of work engagement (t = 2.56, p = .011). The inspirational motivation score stood apart as the only transformational leadership subscale that predicted work engagement beyond what was accounted for by the other subscales (t = 2.52, p = .013). Examination of the unstandardized *B* value indicated that after holding the covariates and remaining subscales of transformational leadership constant, a single unit increase in inspirational motivation scores corresponded with an increase in work engagement of 0.42.

Table 6: Results of Work Engagement Regressed on Transformational Leadership Subscales (Controlling for Gender, Age, and Years in Current Position)

Predictor Variables	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Step 1					
Gender	0.47	0.17	0.21	2.72	.007
Age	−0.03	0.09	−0.03	−0.34	.735
Years in Current Position	0.13	0.07	0.18	1.93	.055
Step 2					
Gender	0.33	0.13	0.15	2.56	.011
Age	0.08	0.07	0.08	1.10	.275
Years in Current Position	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.06	.949
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0.27	0.20	0.22	1.31	.192
Idealized Influence (Behaviors)	0.12	0.20	0.10	0.61	.541
Inspirational Motivation	0.42	0.17	0.35	2.52	.013
Intellectual Stimulation	−0.01	0.16	−0.01	−0.07	.943
Individualized Consideration	0.07	0.17	0.06	0.43	.666

Note. N = 157.

Results for RQ3 indicated a significantly predictive regression model in the final step ($F(10, 146) = 12.73$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .47$) as shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Multiple Linear Regression Model Summary for RQ3

Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	*SE* of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	*F* Change	*df* 1	*df* 2	Sig. *F* Change
1	.27[a]	.08	.06	1.07	.08	4.13	3	153	.008
2	.68[b]	.47	.43	.83	.39	15.26	7	146	.000

Note. Dependent Variable: Work engagement.
[a] Predictors: (Constant), age, gender, duration in current position. [b] Predictors: (Constant), age, gender, duration in current position, emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others, emotional self-control.

When compared to the model with only covariates included ($F(3, 153) = 4.13$, $p = .008$, $R^2 = .08$), the subscales of emotional intelligence accounted for 39% more of the variation in work engagement than the covariates alone. Using *t*-tests, shown in Table 8 on the next page, gender was a significant predictor of work engagement ($t = 2.88$, $p = .005$). In addition, emotional reasoning ($t = 6.05$, $p < .001$) and emotional management of others ($t = 2.24$, $p = .027$) scores stood

apart as the only emotional intelligence subscales that predicted work engagement beyond what was accounted for by the other remaining subscales.

Examination of the unstandardized *B* value indicated that after holding the covariates and remaining subscales of emotional intelligence constant, a single unit increase in emotional reasoning scores corresponded with an increase in work engagement of 0.13. Similarly, a single unit increase in the emotional management of others scale corresponded with an increase in work engagement of 0.10.

Table 8: Results of Work Engagement Regressed on Emotional Intelligence's Subscales (Controlling for Gender, Age, and Years in Current Position)

Predictor Variables	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Step 1					
Gender	0.47	0.17	0.21	2.72	.007
Age	−0.03	0.09	−0.03	−0.34	.735
Years in Current Position	0.13	0.07	0.18	1.93	.055
Step 2					
Gender	0.39	0.14	0.18	2.88	.005
Age	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.90	.372
Years in Current Position	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.56	.579
Emotional Self-Awareness	−0.04	0.04	−0.10	−0.81	.422
Emotional Expression	−0.04	0.04	−0.12	−0.94	.347
Emotional Awareness of Others	−0.09	0.05	−0.26	−1.95	.053
Emotional Reasoning	0.13	0.02	0.56	6.05	.001
Emotional Self-Management	0.05	0.04	0.15	1.17	.246
Emotional Management of Others	0.10	0.04	0.28	2.24	.027
Emotional Self-Control	0.05	0.04	0.15	1.45	.149

Note. N =157.

Results of the Baron and Kenny (1986) moderation analysis did not support leaders' emotional intelligence as a significant moderator to the relationship between leaders' transformational leadership and employees' work engagement, as shown in Table 9 on the next page.

Table 9: Multiple Linear Regression Model Summary for RQ4

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	*SE* of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	*df* 1	*df* 2	Sig. *F* Change
1	.69[a]	.47	.47	.80	.47	139.28	1	155	.000
2	.69[b]	.48	.48	.80	.008	2.37	1	154	.126

Note. Dependent Variable: Work Engagement.
[a] Predictors: (Constant), transformational leadership. [b] Predictors: (Constant), transformational leadership, transformational leadership x emotional intelligence.

Though both steps of the regression were significant (Step 1: $F(1, 155) = 139.28$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .470$; Step 2: $F(2, 154) = 71.44$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .48$), the interaction term in Step 2 did not provide significant predictive ability beyond what was accounted for by transformational leadership alone ($t = 1.54$, $p = .126$), as shown in Table 10. Therefore, moderation was not supported.

Table 10: Results of Baron and Kenny Moderation Analysis

Predictor Variables	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	0.89	0.08	.69	11.80	< .001
Step 2					
Transformational Leadership	0.81	0.09	.63	9.05	< .001
Transformational Leadership*Emotional Intelligence	0.03	0.02	.11	1.54	.126

Note. N = 157.

Discussion

The lack of support for employees' age predicting employees' work engagement may be confounded, although not surprising. For example, according to James, McKechnie, and Swanberg (2011), work engagement generally decreases with age though James et al. note that the trend has not been supported by employees over the age of 60. Unfortunately, this study enrolled only two participants over the age of 60. Avery, McKay, and Wilson (2007) found a negative correlation between age and work engagement, and Bakker, Demerouti,

and ten Brummelhuis (2012) found an extremely low and not significant relationship. However, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) found a positive but weak relationship between age and work engagement, while Goštautaitė and Bučiūnienė (2015) found that age was significantly positively and linearly related to work engagement and was a predictor of work engagement.

With respect to gender, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) posit that the relationship with work engagement has been inconsistent. For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) suggest that men tend to have statistically significant higher work engagement scores than women, although the difference lacks practical significance. Schaufeli (2012) observes that no systematic differences exist between gender and work engagement, while Banihani, Lewis, and Syed (2013) opine that work engagement is a gendered construct favoring men. The results of this study contrast with previous findings; however, they align with Gallup's (2013) report, which suggests the difference may be due to women basing work engagement on the type of relationships they have at work (a construct inferred in this study), while men's engagement is based on what the company offers them.

Finally, duration of employment in current position as it relates to work engagement has not been systematically studied. However, Blessing White (2013) and Garg (2015) found that a longer duration of time in current position increased levels of work engagement. Thus, as employees spend more time in their jobs, they are given more tasks and greater accountability, and they develop a more significant interest in their job function, leading to greater work engagement. The lack of support of duration of employment in current position as a predictor of work engagement highlights the discordance on the role tenure may play in affecting work engagement.

The absence of statistical significance of emotional intelligence predicting work engagement, in the presence of transformational leadership, was surprising. However, this could be due to the positive correlations between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Arunima, Ajeya, Sengupta, Mariamma, & Tripathi, 2014). Brown, Bryant, and Reilly (2006) propose that

professionally and morally accepted standards of behavior, which can be based on trust, character, and rapport, are woven into both transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. The potential overlap between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership could be because subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness are based on the character and trustworthiness of those leaders (Harms & Credé, 2010). Trust and rapport have been described (Honeysett & Metheny, 2012) as drivers of emotional intelligence, and both traits are inherently embedded in transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Also, from an operational perspective, a single rating source to assess leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence raises the issue of common method variance (CMV).

Consequently, the intent of RQ2 was to investigate the role transformational leadership plays on employees' work engagement when the demographic variables of employees' age, gender, and duration of employment were held constant. Results confirmed previous findings (Aryee et al., 2012; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Breevaart et al., 2014; Kovjanic et al., 2013; Salanova, Lorente, Chambel, & Martínez, 2011) of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement.

Inspirational motivation, the only subconstruct that predicted work engagement, is the ability to articulate a convincing organizational vision that motivates others to strive toward achieving personal and group goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Inspirational motivation inspires followers to see themselves as part of the leader's vision and enables followers to contribute to that vision. Inspirational motivation creates and fosters an environment of psychological safety that Bass and Riggio (2006), Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), and Kahn (1990) posit is essential in establishing high levels of work engagement. The relationship between inspirational motivation and work engagement is consistent with the findings of Hayati, Charkhabi, and Naami (2014). Through inspirational motivation, leaders create greater follower work engagement by encouraging employees to be accountable and energized about their jobs by subscribing to the leader's vision. The alignment of beliefs, goals, and objectives between

leaders and followers allows employees to focus on their work role by becoming immersed and engaged in their jobs and helps them perform their duties with pride, accountability, and high energy.

RQ3 investigated to what extent only leaders' emotional intelligence helps to explain employees' work engagement when the demographic variables of employees' age, gender, and duration of employment were held constant. Although the overall construct of emotional intelligence explained employee work engagement, only two subconstructs—emotional reasoning and emotional management of others—were, in fact, responsible for predicting work engagement. *Emotional reasoning* is the effective use of emotions in the process of engaging others. The effective use of emotional reasoning transpires when individuals ask questions and inquire about the validity of their own and others' understanding of issues. The use of emotional reasoning suggests there is a partnership between leaders and followers given the exchange of information. Toegel, Kilduff, and Anand (2013) suggest that employees contribute to the organization at a higher level when they recognize that their managers understand and support them.

Emotional management of others is concerned with how emotions of others are managed at work. Effective use of emotional management of others addresses how leaders motivate their followers and how leaders are able to modify followers' emotions to improve work-related outcomes (Gignac, 2010a). Leaders who are effective in the emotional management of others create a positive working environment for their staff and are adept at resolving issues, frustrations, and obstacles that employees may be facing in their job. A work environment rich in positive mood and morale can enhance employees' desire to want to come to work, and, hence, to feel engaged in their job.

Interestingly, with the exception of emotional awareness of others, the other four emotional intelligence subconstructs that did not predict work engagement were the dimensions of emotional intelligence that specifically define behaviors at the supervisor level only, rather than those in the supervisor-direct report relationship. This finding suggests that the emotional intelligence behaviors that

may be most effective in creating an engaged work environment are those that involve both the leader and follower.

Given the independent effects transformational leadership and emotional intelligence have on work engagement, the lack of moderation of transformational leadership and work engagement by emotional intelligence suggests that dimensions of emotional intelligence may overlap with the constructs of transformational leadership. As such, if individuals already exhibit strong transformational leadership behaviors, emotional intelligence may not strengthen the relationship to work engagement. However, the results could be a reflection of single-source reporting and issues with CMV.

Recommendations for Further Research

Future consideration should be given to investigating the relationships between transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, and work engagement in organizations outside the United States and organizations other than pharmaceutical companies. Furthermore, the apparent overlap between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence in predicting work engagement warrants additional investigation, using a multi-rater assessment in an attempt to avoid the potential pitfall of CMV.

Conclusion

Work engagement has become a topic of critical importance for organizational success. Practitioners and scholars have suggested that transformational leadership is a significant contributor to employee work engagement. However, in the absence of fully understanding the mechanisms of how leadership affects work engagement, emotional intelligence has been proposed as a viable consideration. This study addressed a theoretical gap in the relationships between leaders' transformational leadership and emotional intelligence and employees' work engagement, in addition to employees' age, gender, and duration of employment in current position within the pharmaceutical industry.

Only gender significantly predicted work engagement, with women achieving higher scores than men. In addition, leaders' transformational leadership

predicted employees' work engagement, while emotional intelligence, in the presence of transformational leadership, approached statistical significance. Leaders exhibiting inspirational motivation are more apt to elicit employee work engagement. Additionally, emotional intelligence behaviors that span the relationship between supervisors and subordinates may be of more importance in predicting employees' work engagement than emotional intelligence behaviors associated only with leaders. Finally, this study suggests that leaders' emotional intelligence does not strengthen the relationship between leaders' transformational leadership and employees' work engagement.

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Understanding Learners as Followers: A Study of an American University and a Caribbean University[*]

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If we accept leaders and followers as active collaborators in the education process, an understanding of educational leadership is insufficient if we fail to examine the students' followership styles in conjunction with educators' leadership styles. The purpose of this study was to identify students' followership styles (critical thinking and engagement levels) as described by Kelly (2008). An electronic questionnaire was sent to students studying agriculture at one university in the United States and another university in the Caribbean. The research found that the majority of participants from both institutions were conformist followers (n = 128, or 57%) indicating that students did not challenge the traditional guidelines of the faculty and the university. Therefore, educators must first understand the critical thinking and engagement levels of students before they can effectively create curriculum and lead them in a classroom setting.

Key words: college students, followership, learning

Followership has been a long neglected component of leadership research. The challenge was recently brought forth for leadership researchers to develop a stronger conceptual model of followership (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014) and to conduct additional followership studies within specific contextual applications. The misconception surrounding the term *follower* may be partially responsible for the lack of research on the topic. *Followership* refers to a certain role in a situation, not a character type (Baker, 2007). *Follower* has become synonymous with *subordinate, passive, weak,* and *mediocre*, and using these connotations precludes the recognition of the potentially influential power of followers on leaders and leadership (Hoption, Christie, & Barling, 2012). However, when we remove that stigma, we can examine a follower as their role

relates to a leader (Baker, 2007). In the average organization, leaders contribute to 10 to 20% of success, while followers make up the remaining 80 to 90% (Kelley, 1992). When we choose to see followers as "active agents in the leadership relationship, not passive recipients of the leader's influence" (Rost, 1993, 112), we can look at followership as an interdependent topic to supplement leadership studies (Osborne, 2011).

Understanding followership in different contexts will add to the validity of the concept. Education, both formal and informal, is a context in which followership has not been studied. In education, the instructor's role is to enact change, often resulting in knowledge acquisition or in behavioral modification. The instructor therefore takes on the characteristics of a leader and, conversely, the students are the followers. The phenomenon of education and the dynamic between instructor and students are complicated by the same issues more formally recognized leaders experience, yet instructors often do not categorize themselves as leaders (Strong & Williams, 2014).

Understanding the factors that influence student learning in the classroom is imperative when creating curricula to train competent domestic and international change agents. According to Kelly (1992), "we need to pay attention to followers. Followership is worthy of its own discrete research and training. Plus conversations about leadership need to include followership because leaders neither exist nor act in a vacuum without followers" (5).

Followership

The historical progression of the development of leadership theories has moved from very leader-centric focus (e.g., trait theory, behavior theories) to those that focus on the multivariate process of leadership (e.g., contingency theory, transformational leadership; Bass & Bass, 2008). This shift toward a more holistic view of leadership has led to the discussion and study of followership as an integral component of the leadership phenomenon. Hollander (1992) notes that "the concepts of leader and leadership do not exist in isolation. To be viable, both depend upon followership" (43).

Understanding the often-dyadic relationship between leaders and followers is the basis for many theories and studies. Bass and Bass (2008) conclude that it is the relationship between leader and follower that determines "good" leadership. Followers' perceptions of the leader have been studied in determining leader effectiveness (Hollander, 1992), which have led to implicit leadership theory development wherein social construction and cognitive representations of both the leader and follower, along with culture, give a more dynamic view of leadership (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). The relationship dynamic-based studies and theories steered four researchers to create a more in-depth portrait of followers as their own entity. These researchers ascertained that the more leaders understood about their followers, the more effective leaders could become.

Types of Followers

Zaleznik and Kets de Vries (1975) classify followers using two dimensions: dominance and submission and activity and passivity. Combinations of these dimensions produce four types of followers: impulsive, compulsive, masochistic, and withdrawn. Chaleff (2009) focuses on followers and how their empowerment could lead to better organizational support. He identifies four types of followers: implementers, partners, individualists, and resources. Kellerman (2008) uses engagement for follower typology. She describes followers (ranked from least to most engaged) as isolates, bystanders, participants, activists, and diehards. Kelly (2008) also utilizes a two-dimension model, but classifies followers by their critical thinking tendencies and engagement in the organization. His work yields five potential types of followers—passive, conformist, alienated, pragmatic, and star—for leaders to identify. It is Kelly's work that forms the conceptual framework for this study.

Students as Followers

Students are the followers and teachers are the leaders in educational settings (Strong & Williams, 2014) who have power to influence their students inside and outside of the classroom. If we accept that leaders and followers are active

collaborators in the education process, it is important to examine both the educators' leadership in conjunction with the students' followership types. Keeping the concept of situational leadership in mind, it is counterproductive to enter into a leader/follower (teacher/student) partnership without making concessions; and therefore, the style of teaching should be tailored to the students (Grow, 1991).

The goal of an educational system is not only to teach, but also to produce change agents. When creating curricula designed to train change agents it is imperative to understand the factors that influence students' learning (Shinn, Wingenbach, Lindner, Briers, & Baker, 2009). Change agents should be actively engaged in their environment and with their followers, should be critical thinkers, and should be self-directed in solving problems (Rogers, 2003). Strong and Williams (2014) assert that understanding the relational, influential, and often-reciprocal roles of followers is essential for reaching organizational goals. Kelly (2008) suggests that leaders are malleable products of cumulative followership actions. In that respect, by focusing on the student, our study will provide insight on critical thinking and engagement to educators who are training change agents and add to the empirical knowledge of followership styles and how it connects to student learning.

Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study was to investigate and assess undergraduate agricultural students' levels of critical thinking engagement. We utilized Kelly's (2008) followership model to assess student learning attributes at two universities, Texas A&M University (University A) and the University of the West Indies (University B), using two dimensions of followership: critical thinking and engagement. The research objectives for this study were as follows:

1. to describe the followership type of agricultural students at Texas A&M University and the University of the West Indies,

2. to analyze the critical thinking of agricultural students at Texas A&M University and the University of the West Indies, and

3. to analyze the engagement of agricultural students at Texas A&M University and the University of the West Indies.

Kelly delineates five styles of followership: passive, conformist, alienated, pragmatic, and star. *Passive followers* can be described as those who are not critical thinkers, are unengaged, and are passive with the leader and the organization. This type of follower can be seen in the student who follows directions blindly and engages little in classroom discussion. *Conformist followers* are also not critical thinkers, but they are actively engaged with the leader and the organization (Kelly, 2008). The students who are conformists are very eager to please the instructor by their responsiveness to their questions and their interactions with the instructor, but they do not ask the all-important "why" questions. *Alienated followers* are critical thinkers who act passively with the leader and the organization (Kelly, 2008). Students who fit this role are often very openly critical of the course, instructor, or organization, but do nothing to change the situation besides complain. *Pragmatic followers* are those who are neither critical nor uncritical thinkers and are neither passive nor active within the organization (Kelly, 2008). Followers and students who fall into this category are true fence-sitters who do what they need to do to survive, but do not show initiative with thinking or engagement unless pushed. *Star followers* are those who are critical thinkers and are actively engaged in the organization and with the leader (Kelly, 2008). These students are engaged in class and are not afraid to ask the "why" or "why not" questions.

All types of followers respond best to different types of leaders: dependent, interested, involved, and self-directed. By focusing on the students, our study will provide insight on instructors who are training change agents. Our study will add to the empirical knowledge of followership styles and how this knowledge connects to the education of students in a cross-cultural setting.

Method

The tailored design method for developing and distributing an electronic questionnaire was employed for our study (see Dillman, Smyth, & Christian,

2009). A combined 28-item instrument, including Kelley's (1992) Followership Style Questionnaire and questions related to student's personal characteristics, was used to collect data. The Followership Style Questionnaire uses a seven-point summated Likert scale with anchors: 7 = Almost Always, 5 = Occasionally, and 1 = Rarely (Kelley, 1992). The content validity of the combined instrument was assessed by leadership researchers at University A and University B. The constructs of the Followership Style Questionnaire were calculated ex post facto. Critical thinking earned a reliability coefficient of .94 and engagement .91.

The population of this study was 400 undergraduate students enrolled in agricultural courses at two universities—200 at University A (Texas A&M University and 200 at University B (University of the West Indies. Of the 400 questionnaires distributed, 114 participants from University A and 119 participants from University B responded, yielding a response rate of 58%. Nine responses were deleted due to incomplete information, and the resulting 224 responses were used in descriptive statistical data analysis.

Findings

Students from both institutions represented all five of the followership types as defined by Kelly (2008). There were no statistical differences between the scores of University A and University B, so they were combined for reporting purposes. The majority of students were conformist followers (f = 128, 57%). Pragmatic followers (f = 9, 4%) were the least amount of students (see Table 1). Conformist followers do not think critically, but are engaged with the organization. Students who exhibit the conformist role attend class and are engaged in learning but want very clear guidelines and structure.

Table 1: Students' Levels of Followership (N = 224)

Followership Style	*f*	*%*
Conformist	128	57
Passive	43	19
Alienated	28	13
Star	16	7
Pragmatic	9	4

As a part of the second research objective, the critical thinking of students from both institutions was analyzed. Using the seven-point Likert scale, the mean score of University A was 4.33 with a standard deviation of .72. The question "Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or the group's standards?" earned the highest score from students at University A with a mean of 6.37 and a standard deviation of .66 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Student Critical Thinking at University A

Items	M	SD
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or the group's standards?	6.37	.66
Would your future or current work situation help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?	6.31	.79
Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the professor to do it for you?	4.84	.51
Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the professor's decision rather than just doing what you were told?	4.75	.61
Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the professor tells you, do you personally identify which course activities are most critical for achieving the course's priority goals?	4.16	.84
Do you help the professor or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	3.88	.69
When the professor asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	3.29	.72
Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?	2.51	.53
Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the professor?	1.78	.69
Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the professor's or the universities' goals?	1.28	.49

Note. N = 111, Overall *M* = 4.33, *SD* = .72.

We also analyzed students' critical thinking at University B. The overall mean score for critical thinking was 4.39 with a standard deviation of .79. This result was slightly higher but not statistically different from that of University A. The question "Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or

the group's standards?" (*M* = 6.44, *SD* = .74) also earned the highest score for critical thinking (see Table 3).

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for Student Critical Thinking at University B

Items	M	SD
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the professor's or the group's standards?	6.44	.70
Would your future or current work situation help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?	6.38	.68
Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the professor to do it for you?	4.92	.57
Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the professor's decision rather than just doing what you were told?	4.86	.62
Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the professor tells you, do you personally identify which course activities are most critical for achieving the course's priority goals?	4.24	.83
Do you help the professor or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	3.96	.68
When the professor asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	3.43	.71
Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?	2.65	.62
Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the professor?	1.88	.61
Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the professor's or the universities' goals?	1.33	.49

Note. N = 113, Overall *M* = 4.39, *SD* = .79.

To answer the third research objective, student engagement was examined at University A (see Table 4 on the next page). The mean score for engagement was 5.11 with a standard deviation of .93. The item earning the highest score (*M* = 6.45, *SD* = .73) was "Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?"

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Student Engagement at University A

Items	M	SD
Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?	6.45	.73
When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the professor?	6.09	.89
Do you believe your current personal educational goals are aligned with your university's organizational goals?	5.51	.72
Do you think your enthusiasm will spread to and energize your current peers?	5.44	1.04
Can the professor give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with the highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?	5.34	1.06
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the professor and the course?	5.32	.96
Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond minimum expectations?	5.13	.97
Do you feel you are highly committed and energized by your university, giving them your best ideas and performance?	5.04	1.12
Do you help out other students, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?	4.84	.87
When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?	1.98	.53

Note. N = 111, Overall *M* = 5.11, *SD* = .93.

We also analyzed students' engagement scores from University B (see Table 5 on the next page), and our analyses found a mean score of 5.46 with a standard deviation of .88. Again, this is slightly higher than that of University A, but it was not a statistically significant difference. The highest scoring item again was "Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?" (*M* = 6.41, *SD* = .71).

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for Student Engagement at University B

Items	M	SD
Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?	6.41	.71
When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the professor?	6.13	.91
Do you believe your current personal educational goals are aligned with your university's organizational goals?	5.54	.70
Do you think your enthusiasm will spread to and energize your current peers?	5.47	1.05
Can the professor give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with the highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?	5.36	1.03
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the professor and the course?	5.30	.93
Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond minimum expectations?	5.12	.95
Do you feel you are highly committed and energized by your university, giving them your best ideas and performance?	5.02	1.01
Do you help out other students, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?	4.81	.84
When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?	2.04	.58

Note. N = 113, Overall *M* = 5.46, *SD* = .88.

Conclusion

Students of each followership type can be found at both University A and University B. As Baker (2007) notes, when the stigma of "follower" is dropped from the verbiage of the study, true typologies and actions can be seen. One such observation is that geographic placement in either the United States or the Caribbean did not have an impact on followership type. The diversity of placement on the followership model provides an interesting dynamic between and among the students (followers) as well as the interaction between the students and instructors (leaders). If an instructor has all five types of followers present in class, she or he must work hard to involve critical and uncritical thinkers as well as students with different levels of engagement.

The majority of participants from both universities were conformist followers (*n* = 128, 57%) indicating that students did not think critically, but they were engaged with the faculty and course. These students participate in class and care about course material, but they do not question the thoughts and statements of the instructor. Conformist followers in the classroom often want specific details and rubrics about how to complete their assignments. Critical and/or creative thinking in class and on assignments makes them apprehensive.

Conformity and lack of critical thinking has been identified as a characteristic of the Millennial Generation (Debard, 2004). The larger question also must be asked: What role does K–12 education and No Child Left Behind legislation play to perpetuate the notion that student/instructor exchange of information is unidirectional? The traditional model of education portrays instructors as the imparters of knowledge and students as the recipients (Rosovsky, 1990). From a leadership in the classroom perspective, instructors must learn to enhance students' critical thinking abilities. Northouse (2013) states that a leader's goal is to develop followers into leaders. A person would not be classified as an effective leader if he or she did not exhibit critical thinking skills (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

When combining followership types, we found that 76% of students surveyed are not critical thinkers. This finding is congruent with research on critical thinking capabilities in college students. Casner-Lotto, Barrington, and Wright (2006) note that less than 28% of employers rated U.S. college graduates' critical thinking abilities as *excellent*. The lack of critical thinking capacity and ability in followers is a very large problem for any leader who wants their organization to survive. If Kelley's (1992) findings are indicative of organizations and 80 to 90% of the work is done by followers, it is essential that followers think critically to help move the organization forward (Northouse, 2013).

The mean frequencies of both universities in our study showed that students are self-aware and self-assured in their roles as learners and in creating meaningful change, but they are very uncomfortable with partnering with their professors to achieve class and university goals, a characteristic of many millennial students (Debard, 2004).

Combining the scores for engagement types shows that 64% of the students surveyed are engaged with their instructor and with their university. Overall scores for student engagement at University A were M = 5.41 (SD =.93) and at University B were M = 5.46 (SD =.88). The results indicate that students are occasionally engaged in course content. The rankings of the individual statements for each university are as telling as the mean scores. At both universities, the statement "Do you understand the professor's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?" had the highest mean score, and the statement "When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?" has the lowest mean score. Thus, when the instructor gives clear directions and little critical thinking is needed, students are more likely to be engaged, but when the situation is less guided and more self-discipline is required, students are less likely to be engaged. For this population, these findings provide a conundrum for the leader. By providing clear expectations, students will be more engaged yet use less critical thinking; however, by giving them too much freedom to think critically, their level of engagement diminishes.

Recommendations and Implications

One of the most intriguing findings of this study was the lack of statistical difference between the followership type, critical thinking score, and engagement score between students at universities located in two very different parts of the world. Hofstede's (2011) model would have concluded these students should have scored very differently on these dimensions of followership. We therefore recommend that our study be replicated in different global locations to test the validity of Kelly's (2008) model in a cultural context and to test the followership variable in Hofstede's (2001) model.

Many researchers in leadership education and development have established the need for programs to train students of all ages who have both technical and professional competencies and who can use and identify such knowledge to aid in the change process (Shinn et al., 2009). Increasing critical thinking and engagement is key to fulfilling this need. Before curricula can be established to

accomplish this goal, instructors (leaders) must have a comprehensive picture of their students (followers). This information will influence teaching styles, methods of evaluating learning, and classroom activities and will certainly add to the competence and excellence in leadership education and development. An understanding of more specifics of followership characteristics from this population, as well as the context of education, will help complete the conceptual knowledge base of followership. Infusing Kellerman's (2008) model, which focuses on engagement, with Kelly (2008) and Chaleff's (2009) models would give a more detailed account of the specific behaviors of a follower.

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PEDAGOGY

Experiential Learning in Leadership: A Leadership Development Simulation Exercise[*]

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The aim of this pedagogy piece is to provide an experiential learning activity that fits within the curriculum of a leadership course. The activity is a one-on-one role-playing exercise in which participants are assessed on the following generic competencies: people management, planning and organization, and customer focus. Students are divided into participants, role players, and assessors. Participants assume the role of an area sales manager, while role players assume the role of a branch employee. Assessors evaluate and provide feedback to participants. Through a realistic process and using different perspectives, students have the chance to face, consider, and assess different leadership competencies, especially as they relate to leadership development in sales or marketing operations. This pedagogy piece contains the necessary information to conduct the exercise as it is described. Potential challenges and practical considerations are also noted.

Key words: experiential learning, leadership competencies, leadership development, simulation

Educators have long advocated the use of more innovative forms of learning, such as experiential learning (Kolb, 2014). Experience-based learning has become a major component of many university curricula, especially in business schools. Even so, the curricula of many business schools continue to be dominated more by traditional lecture-based approaches (Good, 2014). Moreover, while the number of leadership texts has expanded rapidly, the availability of leadership simulation and experiential learning materials is still, to an extent, limited.

Several studies (e.g., Gentry & Sparks, 2012; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009) have examined the qualities required to be able to lead effectively in organizations. This issue has been examined through various lenses, including leadership personality traits, behaviors, and competencies. For the simulation exercise presented here, the authors use the competency-based perspective of leadership, as well as methods used for leadership competency development. A *simulation exercise* is an activity resembling an organizational situation in which participants are presented complex stimuli and expected to display complex overt behavior. Assessors observe the behavior and rate the participants' effectiveness on one or more performance dimensions (Thornton & Mueller-Hanson, 2004).

This simulation exercise is a one-on-one role-playing exercise in which participants are assessed on the following competencies: people management, planning and organization, and customer focus. It simulates a situation in a sales and marketing work environment in which participants have the opportunity to consider, practice, and develop different leadership competencies. Additionally, based on the implementation of this leadership activity with three groups of MBA students at the Eastern Macedonia and Thrace Institute of Technology in Greece, the authors present findings, challenges, and suggestions for further improvement.

Although there is no actual Nuovo Espresso (the coffee company presented in the simulation), the issues presented in the exercise are similar to struggles of existing coffee companies. The simulation exercise was also designed to highlight the challenges faced by many service-oriented companies. The retail coffee shop industry was selected because the industry's issues can be easily understood by the role-play participants. The authors' provision of this experiential learning activity may contribute to leadership assessment and development, as it is highly reflective of the business world in which current and future leaders operate.

This pedagogy piece is conventionally structured in three sections. First, the literature review discusses the competency-based approach of leadership and examines how simulation games are used within that perspective. The second

section describes the nature, as well as the facilitation of the exercise. Finally, the authors present some findings and practical issues to improve the effectiveness of the exercise.

Literature Review

The Competency Perspective of Leadership

Within an increasingly changing world of business affected by widespread economic, political, and social trends (Yukl, 2006), understanding the type of competencies needed and how they can be effectively developed is of great interest to organizational stakeholders. Leaders and managers need to understand the competencies they should possess and develop in order to perform their roles effectively and be prepared for future challenges and promotions (Kraut, Pedigo, McKenna, & Dunnette, 1989). Organizations need to understand the type of competencies managers should possess in order to reach selection and promotion decisions, as well as guide training and development initiatives (Day, 2000). Due to the established role of competency identification and development with respect to performance, it is not surprising that this field has received a lot of attention from researchers and practitioners in leadership and human resource management (e.g., Dubois & Rothwell, 2004).

Competency research and applications emerged in 1970 with the aim of understanding the talents of leaders or employees who are effective (Boyatzis, 2011). A *competency* is defined as "an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation" (Spencer & Spencer, 1993, 9). *Competencies* have also been defined as capabilities or abilities that consist of distinct, yet related behaviors (Boyatzis, 2008). These behaviors are manifestations of intent (Boyatzis, 2011). For example, behaviors such as asking customers questions to resolve complaints or appear interested in their problems reflect the intent to focus on customer needs.

Several studies (e.g., Jokinen, 2005; Katz, 1974) have examined the types of leadership competencies needed to perform effectively. Early studies focused on

the technical, human, and conceptual skills of effective administrators (Katz, 1974). These three skills were seen as more malleable than traits, and they were also related to the level each person held in the organization. Since then, a number of concepts and instruments have been developed to measure leadership styles or competencies (e.g., the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Bass & Avolio, 1990; the Leadership Competency Inventory, PSUCaPE, 2007, as cited in Hyung Joon, Ji Hoon, Donahue, & Woodley, 2010). Hyung Joon et al. (2010) conducted exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses with a sample of 323 managers in the health care industry, and their results supported a four-factor leadership scale—the Leadership Competency Inventory (LCI)—consisting of supervisory skills, organizational leadership, personal mastery, and resource management. Each factor included a number of competencies. For example, supervisory skills encompass interpersonal relationship building and conflict management; organizational leadership includes strategic thinking and planning as well as leading change; personal mastery includes communication and self-responsibility; and resource management includes technical competence and computer literacy.

Researchers (e.g., Gentry & Sparks, 2012; Jokinen, 2005; Thach & Thompson, 2007) have also explored the significance of leadership competencies across organizations and cultures. The extant literature indicates that there is a critical set of common leadership competencies, irrespective of the type of organization—for-profit or nonprofit, private or public (Hyung Joon et al., 2010; Thach & Thompson, 2007). However, the universality of leadership competencies across cultures appears somewhat more complex. Competency validation studies in many countries demonstrate that the important competencies tend to be common (Wolff, 2007). Gentry and Sparks (2012) examined whether managers universally endorse certain leadership competencies as critical for success (supporting the convergence approach) or if the effectiveness of these competencies was dependent on cultural dimensions (supporting divergence). In their study of 9,942 managers in 40 countries, they found that the competencies of change management, resourcefulness, and

building and mentoring relationships were cross-culturally endorsed, while the competency of balancing personal life and work was not as globally valued. Although the divergence approach should not be ignored (e.g., the competency of diversity management is likely to vary across cultures), Gentry and Sparks' (2012) study further supports the presence of cross-national convergence with respect to the endorsement of essential leadership competencies.

Leadership Development and Simulation Exercises

Recent approaches to leadership development challenge the notion that individuals are born as leaders and instead focus on methods to develop individuals' capacities to perform leadership roles (e.g., Day & Zaccaro, 2004). These methods vary from traditional training programs to experiential activities targeting competency development or even spiritual growth (Kark, 2011). A comprehensive study based on 162 studies of management training programs found that many of these methods were effective in terms of different criteria, such as the participants' reactions, learning, behavioral change, and measurable organizational results (Arthur, Bennett, Edens, & Bell, 2003).

The increased use of simulation exercises has been notable in both universities and businesses. In universities, management professors have created and used more team-oriented activities and simulation-based training during classes (Salas, Wildman, & Piccolo, 2009; Zantow, Knowlton, & Sharp, 2005). Large multinational companies and consulting firms operate development centers, which consist of a concentrated program of exercises, tests, and interviews designed to identify managers' development needs and provide counseling for their careers. Development centers offer participants the opportunity to examine and understand the competencies they require in the present and the future and help participants plan their own self-directed learning programs (Armstrong, 2009). Because simulated behavior predicts actual behavior, development centers offer opportunities for competencies to be observed in practice. Simulations of various kinds are therefore important features of education and leadership/management development programs (Armstrong, 2009).

Simulation exercises inform and educate learners on the complexities of business practice, and they are an effective way to develop decision-making and leadership skills (Salas et al., 2009; Wood, Beckmann, & Birney, 2009). However, the positive impact of these experiences is sometimes only assumed to be positive rather than empirically validated (Quigley, 2013). Additionally, more research is needed on the impact of individual-level factors (e.g., personality or attitude toward feedback) upon the performance and engagement of participants in the simulation exercise (Quigley, 2013; Salas et al., 2009).

The Nature and Facilitation of the Simulation Exercise

As mentioned above, the simulation exercise is a one-on-one simulation of a development center. The exercise focuses on a specific experience of an area sales manager for Nuovo Espresso, a virtual coffeehouse chain, in the region of Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, Greece. Nuovo Espresso's human resource management executives are using development centers to prepare lower-level managers (store supervisors) for mid-level managerial positions (area sales managers). To this end, after identifying important leadership-related competencies through competency-based job analysis, they have developed a scenario between the development center participant, who acts as the area sales area manager, and a role player, who acts as his or her subordinate. An assessor evaluates the participant, during and after the exercise. This particular exercise requires intense interaction, offering the assessors the chance to observe the behavior of the person being assessed.

The exercise occurs in three phases: preparation/setup, simulation process, and debriefing. Each phase will be discussed along with the participant material (see Appendix 1). The timing of the exercise is somewhat flexible. Typically, the exercise takes about one hour. The simulation process lasts for approximately 40 minutes, and the debriefing takes about 15 to 20 minutes.

To set up the exercise, the facilitator needs to consider the participants, place, and preparation of materials. Initially, groups of three participants are formed through a random drawing. In each group, one person acts as the development

center participant (area sales manager), another as the role player (company branch employee), and the third as the assessor. The role players and the assessors simulate the roles of Nuovo Espresso human resources executives in the development center. Therefore, the exercise requires a minimum of three participants, while the maximum number is based on facilities and facilitators availability. Usually, if there is space availability, a facilitator can handle up to 30 participants (10 groups). If the participants exceed this number, a simultaneous session can be run with a second facilitator.

While the preparation/setup and debriefing phases should be run in a large room, each group requires a separate room, or at least a separate space, equipped with one exercise station for each group during the simulation phase. An exercise station consists of three chairs and a desk for all the members of the group. If possible, every group in the room should have the proposed layout: the role player sits opposite the development center participant, and the assessor sits diagonally behind the development center participant. The aim is for the assessor to have visual contact with both the participant and role player, but not to influence the development center participant.

Participants will need to receive several handouts. Creating folders for each participant is the easiest way of dealing with the handouts. The development center participant folder should include the following handouts: Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso (see Appendix 1). The role player's folder should include the following handouts: Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso (see Appendix 1) and Guidelines for Role Players (see Appendix 2). Finally, the assessor's folder should include the following handouts: Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso (see Appendix 1) and Assessment Guidelines (see Appendix 3). To save time, facilitators should provide the handouts to role players and assessors prior to the event. The participants do not receive the material until the simulation.

The timing of the simulation process is as follows: 5 minutes for the introduction to the exercise, 15 minutes for individual preparation, and 20 minutes for the one-on-one conversation. The facilitator should start the simulation process by

saying: "This is a one-on-one exercise designed to assess how you cooperate with another person in order to resolve a problem in the work environment. You have been given complete guidelines that you can follow as I read them aloud." The facilitator should then read the introduction section in the Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso (see Appendix 1) and ask if there are any questions. Questions should be answered without revealing any information that might favor some of the participants or indicate the way the exercise must be approached. The participants should be reminded that they have 15 minutes to read the remaining of the guidelines and prepare themselves for the exercise. After 20 minutes, the exercise must stop. The assessors should then be given some time to complete their evaluations.

The debriefing begins with an overview of the exercise and the assessed competencies. The facilitator can ask some of the assessors for feedback concerning the conclusions that were drawn and the evaluation process, such as their views on the relevant difficulty of evaluating in a real-time simulation. This is a great way for the facilitator to pinpoint the necessity of extensive assessor training. The role players can also participate and express their own arguments about the assessment of the participants. In practice, different views between assessors and role players may demonstrate different kinds of assessment styles such as "strict and dedicated" and "soft." The level of readiness the assessors and participants should have for the exercise can also be discussed. Next, the participants can be asked about what they have learned from the process and if there is anything they would have done differently. The facilitator can conclude with a brief discussion regarding the effectiveness of using similar simulations for leadership development, pinpointing the fact that leadership development is about self-development (Hart & Waisman, 2005).

Discussion

This simulation exercise has been tested three times using different groups of MBA students at the Eastern Macedonia and Thrace Institute of Technology in Greece, and it generally received strongly favorable evaluation comments.

Students reported that this experiential activity allowed them to self-reflect and expand their understanding of leadership competencies and leadership development. Finally, apart from the educational dimension for the students, it was also reported to be an enjoyable activity. Based on the utilization of the exercise, four important challenges for further considerations are suggested:

- *The Importance of Feedback.* During the setup phase, the facilitator should discuss the importance of giving and receiving positive and negative feedback in assessments, in order to prepare students for the final phase of the exercise.

- *The Impact of the Exercise.* MBA and other management educational programs often attempt to develop students through simulations and experiential activities over much shorter time frames, yet little is known about whether this approach works in developing leadership efficacy. Thus, in order to maximize students' motivation and leadership development skills, the exercise could also be linked to a follow-up reflection paper or be integrated in a personal leadership development plan or development log/diary.

- *Cultural Fit.* The exercise uses Greek references for names and locations. These can be adapted for a better fit in different contexts or environments. For example, in the exercise, the area sales manager is responsible for a region of approximately 608,000 inhabitants, and each virtual coffeehouse chain store is located in a small city in the region. This could easily change to a description in which all stores are located in a large American city. Moreover, the behavioral indices used in the study have been developed to fit a specific European cultural content. Potential facilitators of the exercise should carefully examine the proposed negative and positive behaviors and make relevant modifications if needed.

- *Suitable Environment.* As Good (2014) points out, it is very important to have facilities that allow groups to mirror a company's environment as much as possible. For example, the simulation may be particularly well received if the university's interview rooms are used. Due to logistical

issues such as sharing facilities, it is important that those interested in creating a similar project schedule in advance to ensure that facilities are available when needed.

Conclusion

The leadership role in today's business environment can present a multitude of challenges. This pedagogy piece provides an experiential learning activity appropriate for a leadership course. The nature and facilitation of the simulation exercise are discussed, supported by sufficient information to conduct it as described. Finally, student feedback and potential challenges are presented based on the implementation of this leadership activity with three groups of MBA students. The simulation environment provides a realistic, less abstract, and more concrete environment in which leadership competencies can be developed. Therefore, leadership educators should consider further utilizing these kinds of simulation exercises to enhance the learning experience and create added value in their courses.

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Appendix 1: Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso

Introduction

In this exercise, you will act as Mr./Ms. Mikelis, the area sales manager of a region of a coffee company. You have 15 minutes to read the following instructions and prepare for the meeting that will follow. At the end of the preparation time, you will meet a role player acting as an employee who works at one of the branches of your region. You will have 20 minutes to discuss and settle certain issues that are described in the following pages. It is possible that you are not accustomed to the exact role you are asked to play. Therefore, instead of trying to "play" a role, act as naturally as you can. Try to say and do the things you would do if you were facing a similar situation in real life. The following information offers you the opportunity to prepare properly and thus, you should read it carefully.

Summary

Nuovo Espresso is the subsidiary of an Italian coffee company, which is involved with the import of coffee beans and coffee and beverage production, all of which are available at the subsidiaries of the company throughout Greece. You manage all operations and sales in the five coffeehouses in the prefecture of Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, each one located in the following cities: Kavala, Drama, Komotini, Xanthi, and Alexandroupoli. The company has a longstanding history in the industry; however, the Alexandroupoli coffeehouse just opened three weeks ago. The operating hours of the coffeehouses are from 7:00 AM to 11:00 PM. In the Alexandroupoli location, six people are currently working full time. Two of these employees have been appointed shift supervisors. The company strategy is particularly customer oriented, since it not only focuses on the preparation and service of "original quality Italian coffee," but also on the creation of a friendly and warm environment in the coffeehouses. After all, this element is the company's competitive advantage.

Briefing

You have just been hired as the area sales manager of the Eastern Macedonia and Thrace and you are responsible for the operation and sales of the coffeehouses of Kavala, Drama, Komotini, Xanthi, and Alexandroupoli. The Alexandroupoli coffeehouse has only been open for three weeks, and its success is challenging for the company due to the dominant position of a competitive well-known coffee shop chain for the past two years in the city, which is a popular destination for locals. The Alexandroupoli coffeehouse is at a less favorable location in the center of the city than its competitor; therefore, product quality and, more importantly, service quality, need to be of the highest level.

However, three days ago, you received a complaint letter from a female customer regarding a long delay in service and, in her opinion, the rudeness displayed by the shift manager of the shop, Mr./Ms. Stamatiou during a confrontation. In order to resolve the issue, you have sent the employee an e-mail request to schedule a meeting. This meeting will occur at the end of your preparation time.

E-mail to Mr./Ms. Stamatiou

Good Afternoon,

Due to a complaint letter I have received from a customer, I would like to schedule a meeting as soon as possible. The aforementioned letter is attached.

Respectfully,
Mr./Ms. Mikelis
Area Sales Manager
Nuovo Espresso
Eastern Macedonia and Thrace

Complaint Letter of Ms. Alexandri

To: Alexandroupoli Shop Administration

Dear Sir/Madam,

I hereby would like to express my complete dissatisfaction regarding the service I received three days ago at the Alexandroupoli shop. I am aware of Nuovo Espresso's successful course, since I had the opportunity to be your customer at another city of Greece. I appreciate the company because of the authenticity of the Italian coffee and the service speed. The day before yesterday, I came to the shop, and not only did I have to wait for 20 minutes in line to be serviced, but I was also reprimanded by one of your employees regarding my "impatience" (the nametag included the name "Stamatiou"). Since your shop is relatively new in our city, I believe it is necessary to start training your employees with a basic knowledge of Italian, so they know what "espresso" means. Moreover, you should instruct them that they are not the only "only ones trying to do their jobs." We customers are employees as well, and we have a 10-minute break in which the only thing we want is to drink a quick and tasty cup of coffee.

Respectfully,

Niki Alexandri

Mr./Ms. Stamatiou's Reply E-mail

Mr./Ms. Mikelis

I will be at your disposal on Thursday, whenever it is convenient for you after my shift ends at 4:00 PM. In advance, I would like to describe to you in detail how the incident occurred that morning.

It was around 10:30 in the morning, and I had just received a call from a neighboring office for a big order and while I was assisting customers in line, the cup supplier arrived, who signaled to me to hurry the delivery acceptance since he had parked illegally and was blocking the traffic on the street. At the time, the

shop had around 8 to10 people waiting, and my coworker was serving them as fast as she could. However, the aforementioned customer was displeased from the moment she stepped into the shop, as she did not expect to find such a long queue. At some point, she started saying loudly that she had been waiting for a long time and that she found it unacceptable. In the tension of the moment and since I did not want to further extend the discomfort to other customers, I told her that if she wanted her coffee, she had no other choice but to wait.

In anticipation of our meeting,

Mr./Ms. Stamatiou

Shift Manager

Nuovo Espresso

Alexandroupoli Shop

Appendix 2: Guidelines for Role Players

Introduction

This exercise is designed to assess how a participant can cooperate with another person in order to resolve a problem with the following competencies:

- people management,
- planning and organization, and
- customer focus.

During the exercise, you are asked to assume the role of Mr./Ms. Stamatiou, employee of the Nuovo Espresso coffeehouse location in Alexandroupoli. Nuovo Espresso is the subsidiary of an Italian coffee company, which is involved with the import of coffee beans and coffee and beverage production, all of which are available at the subsidiaries of the company throughout Greece. The company has five coffeehouse locations in the prefecture of Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, which are located in the cities of Kavala, Drama, Komotini, Xanthi, and Alexandoupoli. Soon you will attend a meeting with a participant who will play the role of the area sales manager for Eastern Macedonia and Thrace.

You will have 15 minutes to prepare for this exercise. Then you will attend a 20-minute meeting with the participant. It is the participant's responsibility to direct the meeting and discuss the various issues with you. As a role player, you will not be evaluated. During the meeting, try to incorporate all of the goals described in the following summary. For more information regarding how the exercise should be approached, you should familiarize yourself with the Guidelines for Participants—Nuovo Espresso.

Summary

You are Mr./Ms. Stamatiou, an employee at the Alexandroupoli location of Nuovo Espresso, and you are a shift manager. The coffeehouse opened three weeks ago and employs six full-time employees. Three days ago, the following incident occurred:

At 10.30 in the morning in a shop full of customers, you are one of two employees serving, as a third employee is on a leave of absence. Usually, this

does not create a long wait for customers. However, at that moment, the phone rings, and it is the head manager of the big accounting firm opposite your shop. He informs you that he would like to make a large delivery order for 12:00 PM. At the same time, the coffee cup supplier arrives at the shop and a customer starts complaining loudly. Amid the confusion and the pressure you face, you ask her in an intense way to wait. Three days later, you receive an e-mail from the area sales manager, Mr./Ms. Mikelis, who informs you that they have received an electronic letter of complaint from this customer, which he/she has attached, and invites you to a meeting.

Your goals for the meeting are the following:

- Express the facts and stress that you have done everything within your power to fulfill all the other tasks quickly and return to serving customers.

- Ask for clear instructions about the way you should handle these types of situations (ask for an official priority list of what should be fulfilled first: a telephone order, a delivery, or a customer at the shop).

- Elicit the actions your manager is willing to take to resolve these situations (e.g., determine the location's rush hours and have an employee work two part-time shifts, hire an additional part-time employee, demand that all suppliers deliver orders very early in the morning or when there is less workload).

- Ask what your manager's intentions are regarding the confrontation with the customer and if you need to take action (e.g., call the customer personally and apologize).

Tips

As a role player, you will not be assessed during this exercise. However your presence is important, since your behavior will elicit the participant's assessed behaviors. Make the most of the preparation time to:

- become acquainted with the information you have been given,

- identify the main points of the meeting and define the tactic you will follow, and

- prepare questions that you can ask in case the participant gets stuck or the exercise requires more effective management. If, for example, the participant is stressed or hesitant to propose a solution, you can recite the incident from the beginning and inquire about any of the goals of the meeting. If the participant becomes significantly hostile, you can use an expression such as "I did not know that the meeting was about passing judgment, but facing the problem."

During the exercise, you should obey the following guidelines:

- Operate according to the rules of the exercise, but be ready to think independently. Preparation is important, but don't be surprised if something unexpected occurs. Use your judgment without altering the nature of the exercise.

- Give the participant the opportunity to express himself or herself. If the participant offers persuasive arguments, take them into serious consideration and direct the discussion accordingly. In order to offer the participant the opportunity to demonstrate his or her competencies, you have to be ready to challenge him or her, always within the reasonable limits, and ask him or her to support his or her views.

You should avoid the following behaviors:

- **Being extremely provocative.** If the participant has offered you persuasive arguments, you have to find ways to compromise. Whatever the outcome of the exercise is, do not settle before the first half of the meeting (e.g., before the first 10 minutes, since the meeting is scheduled to last 20 minutes). However, if the participant does not offer persuasive suggestions, do not feel obligated to change your approach. The participant has to earn your cooperation.

- **Talking more than the participant.** As a role player, you have to allow the participant to talk for at least 50% of the meeting, if not more. The more you talk, the fewer possibilities the participant has to show his or her abilities.

- **Not talking at all.** Talking too much, not talking, or talking too little will not allow the participant to demonstrate what he or she can do.

- **Being hostile.** During the exercises, it is possible to feel sadness or frustration, due to the participant's conduct, behavior, or attitude. Remember, it is just a role-playing game.

Appendix 3: Assessment Guidelines

Brief Instructions for the Assessors

This exercise is designed to assess how a participant can cooperate with another person in order to resolve a problem with the following competencies:

- people management,
- planning and organization, and
- customer focus.

Corresponding definitions and behavioral indices are provided in the assessment forms. You must familiarize yourselves with the Guidelines for Participants— Nuovo Espresso. Emphasis should be given to the study of behavioral indices, so that you are able to observe the participant's behavior during the course of the exercise. Generally, it is crucial to keep detailed notes (legible note taking is required). For the assessment, you may wish to follow the well-known ORCE (observe, record, classify, and evaluate) methodology.

- *Observation* involves everything that is said and done while focusing on the facts and not their interpretation (e.g., Interpretation: "Anna was angered by the response of her employee"; fact: "Anna raised the volume of her voice and stopped the formalities").

- *Recording* involves everything said and done (or not done) by the participant; it can also include *how* they were done. Speech, body language, external influences, and inertia should be recorded. At this point, only facts should be recorded (judgments will be recorded during a later phase).[2]

- *Classification* involves reviewing one's notes and deciding which competency is covered by each attitude, as well as the classification as "positive" or "negative" behavior. The draft notes are transferred to the assessment forms.

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[2]Observation and recording are carried out simultaneously, during the exercise.

- *Evaluation* involves the overall score of the evaluation/assessment form/document. The baseline is to define the level of improvement the participants need in order to execute the task effectively.[3]

Assessment Forms

Participant's name:

Assessor's name:

Assessor's notes:

Evaluation/Assessment Scale

1   Inexistent competency or negative indications
2   Need for development
3   Competent but need for further development
4   Very competent
5   Extremely competent

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[3]Classification and evaluation can be done during the exercise, if you have time, or after the exercise has ended.

People Management

Competency definition: Regardless of the situation, the participant creates the appropriate conditions for high job performance. He or she defines a clear direction, fairly and effectively distributes responsibilities and tasks, and provides the appropriate means to fulfill goals. He or she encourages others to assume increased responsibilities as well as the responsibility of their decisions and actions, in order to provide them with the opportunity to evolve.

Negative Behavior	1	2	3	4	5	Positive Behavior
Intensively reprimands the employee in an indelicate manner.						States dissatisfaction in a polite manner.
Does not make the effort to see the situation from the employee's viewpoint.						Asks the employee to explain the facts from his or her viewpoint.
Does not propose a clear line of action of how the employee should have handled the situation.						Coaches or provides clear guidelines about how the employee should handle similar situations.
Considers the incident disappointing. Does not use it as an opportunity to improve her team.						Prompted by the incident, finds the opportunity to stress the company's policy, the positive characteristics of the employee, as well as those that require improvement.
Does not recognize the pressure this particular job design entails.						Recognizes the challenges of this particular job design and accepts suggestions from the employees.
Evidence from the notes:						

Planning and Organization

Competency definition: The participant defines and sorts the tasks and responsibilities in order to appropriately manage the available time and resources. He or she sets deadlines based on the time each task requires and the interactive relationship between tasks. Moreover, he or she finds alternative courses of action in case data or situations change.

Negative Behavior	1	2	3	4	5	Positive Behavior
Accepts that the tasks have to be done in chronological order, first in, first out.						Evaluates the tasks that have to be done as a combination of importance and speed.
Does not suggest alternative courses of action.						Suggests several solutions for the best organization of the job (e.g., an employee working two part-time shifts, changing delivery times for supplies).
Fails to rank the tasks that need to be done regarding the incident.						Explains the order the tasks have to be done.
Does not set time limits for tasks.						Sets time limits for tasks.
Evidence from the notes:						

Customer Focus

Competency definition: The participant is willing to create strong and durable/lasting relationships with customers. He or she is driven by the desire to understand and satisfy the needs of customers, surpassing their expectations when given the opportunity. This competency involves both external and internal customers.

Negative Behavior	1	2	3	4	5	Positive Behavior
Cannot comprehend the situation from the customer's viewpoint.						Understands the situation from the customer's viewpoint, e.g., intends to apologize for the problems that have occurred.
Blames the customer for the discomfort and inability to understand the workload.						Expresses genuine concern that the provided service failed to meet the customer's expectations and states that he or she will take care of it personally, in order to resolve the confrontation.
Hesitates consider the customer's complaint.						Personally examines the customer's complaint and understands her feelings regarding the situation.
Does reply to the customer's complaint immediately.						Initiates action to promptly restore the relationship with the customer.
Evidence from the notes:						

bombing that killed 3 people and injured 264 others. Until that moment, no one had realized how unsafe they were at a major event such as the Boston Marathon.

Despite his broken leg and the fact that he had been in the hospital bed for a week, Menino arose from his wheelchair to show his strength to the community. He was determined to prevail and recover. Discharging himself from the hospital against his physicians' orders, he was on the scene as soon as possible to oversee the chaos. From that moment on, he was in charge, and from his wheelchair, he directed his staff and other city officials, checking on victims and providing comfort to their families. He personally visited victims in various hospitals. Although the city was in a state of lockdown as the police searched for the two bombers, the mayor insisted on roaming the streets to comfort his citizens during this difficult time. Menino was committed to helping the citizens of his city and was not going to let anything get in his way.

At the interfaith service on April 18, 2013, the mayor, who normally used a wheelchair, surprised everyone when he rose from his wheelchair and walked to the podium to deliver his speech. Once again, Menino proved that his leadership knew no bounds. His love for his city and its people gave him the strength and courage to stand on his own two feet, despite his medical condition, to comfort the citizens of Boston during this tragedy. He was a man of strength and determination who led his city through one of the most difficult times in its history.

A Leader from the Start

Menino was born and raised in the Hyde Park neighborhood of Boston. He graduated from Boston's Catholic Memorial High School. He was a good

bombing. The world was about to witness the actions of a man so committed to his city that he left his sickbed and rushed to the scene against the advice of his doctors. Nurses fitted him with a brace and catheter—nothing could keep him away from his Bostonians. Amid the horror of broken bodies and mayhem, ambulances, and police, Menino told his beloved citizens that under duress, the real essence of what made Boston vibrant, courageous, and compassionate was not the devastating blow it had received, but the strength it had exhibited to overcome a tragedy (Menino, 12).

What followed the initial jolt to the city's lifeblood was a weeklong search for justice that ended with a city sheltering in place, by the mayor's order. The mayor, who was already well-loved by the citizenry of Boston, had now become their hero. He said at the time that what people perceived as generous was just his commitment to the service to which he had devoted his life. He later remarked that the city had been great on that day. Rather, it was he who had done a superb job as its leader (Menino, 18). He even established the One Fund Boston to provide funding for those in need. The fund raised more than $75 million.

Boston Proud, Boston Strong

Menino's roots were simple. He championed the plight of immigrants and filled the city's potholes with equal attention because of his Italian background. Concerned with the city's neighborhoods, he won a seat on the city council. Unlike a previous mayor, Kevin White, who used the office to forward his ambitions for governor and president, Menino aspired to nothing more than to be mayor of the city in which he was born and raised. Whereas White claimed to be the "downtown mayor" amid skyscrapers and a new look to Faneuil Hall, Menino spent his time making sure the neighborhoods were safe and clean and people were happy. He eventually became president of the city council, and when Bill Clinton appointed Raymond Flynn U.S. Ambassador to the Vatican, Flynn asked Menino to become the acting mayor. Menino subsequently ran for the mayorship himself and won the election. This began an unprecedented period of urban

renewal the likes of which the city of Boston had never seen. He started with the neighborhood schools, long the subject of "forced bussing" in the 1970s during the height of the Judge Garrity and Louise Day Hicks days.

Menino believed that all children had the right to the same education, regardless of race or religious background, so that its benefits would serve the entire community (Menino, 71). By hiring appropriate leadership and desegregating the schools, he took a big step in addressing the racial issues that plagued them. He implemented policies and procedures to improve schooling for all of the city's children, and he paved the way for Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System (MCAS) testing as an accountability measure for schools to ensure students were prepared graduation and even allowed charter schools to start up as alternatives to public schooling. The city schools were headed for major reform.

In conjunction with school reform and dismayed by young people being shot and killed as a result of violence on the city streets, he hired a new police commissioner and cleaned up the mismanagement of the police force. A strategic plan was developed, the implementation of which brought crime down, reduced the fear of crime, and improved the quality of life in the neighborhoods. As a civil servant, Menino was tough on gangs, the unions, and drugs.

At one point during his tenure, the mayor needed to run the city without federal monies. It was one of his biggest challenges as mayor. To answer that challenge, he brokered a deal that merged Boston City Hospital and the University Hospital into Boston Medical Center by issuing an ultimatum to the city council to approve his proposal. The council voted to approve the merger based on his show of force and no-nonsense politics. Menino was determined that none of his citizens, including the poor, homeless, children, elderly, and uninsured, would be without appropriate health care while he was mayor. In fact, he thought of it as the most important thing he would do as mayor of the city (Menino, 181).

He tackled the Big Dig project, a megamillion dollar reconstruction project in Boston that revamped the expressways to allow for a smoother traffic flow, and the creation of the convention center in South Boston and Gillette Stadium with

equal fervor. He even opposed New England Patriots owner Robert Kraft's offer to pay $200 million of his own money to build a new stadium for his team in South Boston. Instead, he opted to develop the Seaport District with the help of MassChallenge, which prompted the Manhattan Institute, a conservative think tank, to state that he had not only accomplished the rebirth of the city, but that he refashioned it into a new city (Menino, 221).

His vision for the city was far from grandiose, and instead was as humble as his roots. His legacy was the creation of jobs, a better school system, community policing, and health care (Menino, 223–224). The *New York Times* reported that he had presided over one of the most successful urban renaissance stories in modern American history (Menino, 221).

Sadly, the mayor the city called "the urban mechanic" passed away from cancer in October of 2014 as unobtrusively as he had led his life. Yet he is remembered for his robust spirit, his astute guidance, and his unwavering faith in the people of Boston, *his* city.

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