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From the Editor

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Welcome to this 20th issue of the *International Leadership Journal,* an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains three articles, a practice piece, a research note, a thought piece, and a book review.

In the first article, McIntyre Miller and Harter use the concept of liminality to understand three primary transitions in chieftaincy leadership in postconflict Sierra Leonean communities: increased involvement in community development, increased fairness in dispute settlement, and a challenge to the patrilineal norm of leadership. They find that liminality may provide opportunities to advance communities and leadership in varying situations and stages of change.

Edwards presents a model for assessing otherness development levels among individuals in educational leadership. He notes that the model utilizes innovative ways to promote learning to value differences and proposes practical ways of categorizing and measuring individual otherness development.

Karadağ examines the leadership styles of Turkish university rectors and deans in Turkey's 53 public higher education institutions. He finds that there are several significant differences between the elected rectors, who demonstrate leadership qualities with regard to communication skills and leadership attitudes, and the assigned deans, whose communication skills and leadership attitudes demonstrate managerial qualities.

Kerns offers a practice-oriented framework that focuses on the individual differences of leaders. He notes that the application of the framework allows leaders to leverage his or her unique and relevant profile of individual differences to enhance leader impact. A real-life case study utilizing the framework illustrates the usefulness of its application.

Ziek's research note investigates how female leaders in the securities industry—a traditionally male-dominated industry—use communication to overcome masculine norms. His findings indicate that every female leader interviewed demonstrated an enhanced ability to develop and convey succinct messages that are tailored to the audience—unlike traditional communication models.

In his thought piece, Keebler explores the differences between the constructs of groupthink and learning organizations and emphasizes the detrimental effects of groupthink on an organization. He notes that a key construct of learning organizations is a group's collective identity, which is critical to an organization's growth and success.

Finally, in his review of *War Room,* Puggi explores how the innovative football intellect and surreptitious leadership traits of the New England Patriots coach turned a mediocre team into a football dynasty.

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

Joseph C. Santora, EdD
Editor

ARTICLES

Liminality and Chieftaincy Leadership: Transitioning Community Leadership in Postconflict-Sierra Leone[*]

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Liminality **is a space in-between what was and what will be, and it is often a space for scrutiny and reflection as one moves forward. This article uses the concept of** *liminality* **as a lens to understand three primary transitions in chieftaincy leadership in postconflict Sierra Leonean communities. These shifts are an increased involvement in community development, increased fairness in dispute settlement, and a challenge to the patrilineal norm of leadership. This article aims to better understand these transitions in postconflict chieftaincy leadership, and overall cultural shifts in the community, through a lens of liminality.**

Key words: community, leadership, liminality, post-conflict, Sierra Leone

The world is full of shifts and transitions, only some of which can be predicted. The uncertain times between what was and what will be can cause fear and anxiety. The period between what is known based on the past and what is yet to be known in the future is referred to as *liminality* (Turner, 1992). It is because of this in-between space that change and transitions occur. These changes are often unpredictable and are a result of many diverse experiences. Therefore, liminality is not a process, but a space to hold these experiences so that they can help determine the future (Voegelin, 1974/1990).

It is through this lens of liminality that this article aims to further interpret the dramatic change that occurred in the chieftaincy leadership in postconflict Sierra Leone. Emerging in 2002 from an 11-year civil war, Sierra Leone's transitions appear to demonstrate the results of moving from a liminal space. The concept of

liminality in the transitions of community chieftaincy leaders will be analyzed by reviewing data collected in interviews varying community members of two communities. This article reviews the concept of liminality*;* introduces the case of Sierra Leone; discusses the shifts seen in chieftaincy leadership; and provides an overall discussion and reflection about how these shifts may reflect the concept of a liminal space and its meaning within the context.

The Concept of Liminality

Liminality was a term first seen in anthropology literature to demonstrate the passage from one state of being to another, or when "the past has lost its grip and the future has not yet taken definite shape" (Turner, 1992, 132). In this in-between phase, the outcome appears uncertain and participants may experience dread as well as exhilaration (Turner, 1992).

The word *liminal* derives from Latin and is defined as the space at a border or boundary where one crosses over or through to get to the other side, such as with a gate or doorway. The root is also used in contemporary terms such as *preliminary* (before emerging), *subliminal* (beneath the horizon of consciousness), and *eliminate* (to discard or do away with). When something is liminal, it occupies the space that is in between, similar to what Plato intended by the Greek term *metaxy,* meaning "in between" or "middle ground" (Voegelin, 1974/1990). Although liminality can be troubling, it is inherently a creative state within change.

The concept of liminality has widened from anthropology to other fields and concepts, including systems thinking (Senge, 1990), adult developmental psychology (Kegan, 1982), and organizational change (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). In the last 15 years, liminality has emerged in the literature on leadership (Comfort, Sungu, Johnson, & Dunn, 2001; Horvath & Thomassen, 2008; White & Schullman, 2010).

Liminality and Leadership

The concept of change is essential to the definition of leadership (Rost, 1993). Change, prevalent in Lewin's (1951) model of leadership, fits liminality quite well,

wherein liminality is the fluidity of the space between the unfrozen and the refrozen. This fluidity is truly a boundary crossing, as common norms are challenged and a shift in beliefs, habits, and practices occur. Leaders provide space and time for others to move from what they know toward a vision of a better future, even though this venture will likely entail the uncomfortable, transitory experience of liminality. In this state, leadership is often welcome, as there is hope that the leader will deliver them safely to the other side. Heifetz (1998) refers to this leadership experience as "adaptive leadership."

Leaders do not just help others emerge from a state of liminality, but can also experience liminality themselves. Scholars have investigated the role of crisis and adversity in their own lives (Bennis & Thomas, 2002; Ellenberger, 1968; Erikson, 1963). Specifically with regard to leadership, Islam (2009) writes of "a time of indecision and soul searching which is finalized in the assumption of a new identity" (831). Liminality offers a new lens from which to view and understand leadership and crisis phenomena.

Handy (1994) describes liminality as a time when a person switches from (a) one series of changes along a trajectory to (b) another series of changes, such as taking a new job or launching a new product line—made even tougher when an entirely new linear path with its own liminal challenges is taken. Vaill (1989) states that the reality in which leadership occurs is entirely liminal, or a state of permanent whitewater. The thought that permanence, stability, or arrival on the other side of a change is possible is a misperception; change is actually the substructure of our lives together. Bauman (2007) refers to this as "liquid times."

Perhaps the concept of liminality demonstrates the need for a new leadership disposition that we live in a world of radical uncertainty and no leader can truthfully promise to bring us through (Kołakowski, 2001), but instead we must continue to adapt and change as they and their community grow. In this sense, postconflict Sierra Leone is not permanently transformed once and for all; yet it does appear to have adapted itself through liminality in such a way as to avoid

the dislocation of war. It has arrived on the other side of an acute crisis, but is still working through how the results of this liminal space will manifest itself.

Liminality and Conflict

"Radical uncertainty" might be just the phrase to describe a state of conflict and the period after the cessation of that conflict. Simmel (1908/1955) observed that the ending of conflict "belongs neither to war nor to peace, just as a bridge is different from either bank it connects" (110). In fact, the bridge between the two is the liminal space.

According to Mälksoo (2012), "liminality is commonly regarded as the space of new political beginnings, a potential source of renewal for a community, or even a platform of large-scale societal change" (488). Neumann (2012) agrees, noting that liminality occurs when the "general social categories and narratives for how to do things are suspended in favour of what is supposed to be a temporarily bounded state of exception" (475). The existence of such a state could therefore be applied to understanding episodes of conflict, such as those that occurred in Sierra Leone. Postconflict Sierra Leone, therefore, could be seen as a constitutive moment of emergence.

Specifically with regard to war, Leed (1981) notes that "there is an astonishing congruence between the symbols of *liminality* and the realities of the war experience, and this congruence is not accidental" (23). Though Leed refers to World War I, his observance can be generalized, which is supported by Neumann (2012), who contends that war "is, perhaps, the liminal social activity *par excellence*" (477). Leed concurs that war is inherently liminal, not only for its duration, but immediately afterward. In fact, Leed notes that many find the postconflict milieu disorienting: things obviously change after a war, though it is not only unclear at first what might have changed, but it is also unclear how everyone will assimilate these changes together. In fact, this period can be "the beginning of coming to terms with the experience of a major collapse of the existing order, of healing wounds, and moving on. . . . the road of transition from war to peace is hardly straightforward and fixed" (Mälksoo, 2012, 491).

As the literature suggests, liminality does not end until people determine how to assimilate change. Just because the violence ceases does not mean the people immediately experience peace. Liminality is not a fixed process or prescription; by its nature, liminality is undetermined, unstructured, chaotic, and without a point of reference. It could end well or it could end badly. Mälksoo (2012) notes that how a period of liminality concludes is based on answering "vital sociological questions" such as "Who will be in charge for the 'routinisation' of the extraordinary situations? Who will become the 'carriers' of the new world-view that is eventually institutionalised?" (489). This article contends that leadership has much to contribute to such deliberations.

Methods

This article uses the concept of liminality to further understand the case of leadership in postconflict Sierra Leonean communities. In addition to experimentation, history serves as an excellent reservoir of evidence for understanding leadership; therefore, utilizing liminality can help our understanding of the experience of nations and community. A case study such as this respects the unique, contingent features of a particular time and place within specified coordinates, while at the same time suggesting broader lessons in the abstract. A case study is, in a manner of speaking, an act of harvesting from the past that must balance the factual details on the one hand with a coherent narrative on the other. In this fashion, historians have routinely contributed to leadership studies (Wren, 2012).

Chieftaincy leadership in Sierra Leone has now reached that critical phase as communities are being rebuilt after the war. It is in the vein of this emergence from conflict, after a discernible shape of the future has emerged from the uncertainty, that the concept of liminality can be viewed in order to understand these changes.

The field component of the research referenced in this article was part of a larger study on overall postconflict community development in Sierra Leone (McIntyre Miller, 2010, 2012). The research took place in the summer of 2009

and was a qualitative grounded theory study. Twenty-eight community members (pseudonyms are used throughout this paper) were interviewed from two communities in the northern provinces of Sierra Leone. Initial interviewees were selected based on convenience sampling, and additional interviewees were selected based on both convenience and purposeful sampling to ensure interviewees were demographically representative of their communities. Those interviewed held various roles in their communities, with the majority of participants not holding formal positions of power. In fact, only one interviewee served as a community chief and five others served in other formal community leadership roles. Therefore, the interviews reflected a broad-based understanding of the role community leaders played in postconflict community development.

In addition to interviews, community events and meetings were included in the research analysis. Case studies and analyses were created through transcriptions of digitally recorded interviews, coding, and analysis of observational experiences. Sierra Leone-specific literature, discussed below, was reviewed and added for increased understanding of chieftaincy leadership.

The Case Study of Chieftaincy Leadership in Sierra Leone

Sierra Leone is a relatively small country located on the western coast of Africa, which suffered an 11-year civil conflict ending in 2002. The Revolutionary United Front, a rebel group supported by the former Liberian president Charles Taylor, came into the country from the east and burned villages, raped civilians and/or amputated their limbs, and tried to overtake the historically corrupt and failed government (Abraham, 2001; Keen, 2005). This conflict resulted in the death of approximately 50,000 to 70,000 of the 4.7-million citizens. Of those who survived, an estimated 2.6 million became refugees, and another 1.2 million became internally displaced persons (Carver, 1997; Masin-Peters, 2003; Pham, 2006).

At the end of the conflict, it was clear that much development work would be needed to help the country and its communities move forward. Rebuilding large systems such as roads, electric utilities, education, health care, and plumbing for

running water were just some pieces of the puzzle. At the community level, many people had been forced away from their homes into unfamiliar situations, leaving communities looking very different than they had prior to the war—with respect to both residents and structures. Experiencing unspeakable crimes and violence at home, being forced away from that home, and exposure to new ideas and ways of doing things likely provided the time and experiences of reflection of the liminal space that allowed for shifts in postconflict Sierra Leonean communities.

One of the key postconflict shifts was in the functioning of community leadership. Just like the community members and the community as a whole, leadership was severely affected by the conflict. The community leadership practices before the war would no longer fit the needs of a changed community and therefore needed to shift.

In Sierra Leone, both historically and currently, community leaders are chiefs who are elected for a lifetime of service based on paternal lineage. A loose structure of the chieftaincy system was formalized by British colonialists in order to ease the rule over the communities. The colonialists made the community chiefs the local community representatives to the government and gave them power to levy taxes and head the local court systems (Fanthorpe, 2001, 2003; Jackson, 2005; Keen, 2003, 2005; National Recovery Committee, 2002; Peake, Gormley-Heenan, & Fitzduff, 2004; Richards, Bah, & Vincent, 2004; Sawyer, 2008). These powers were maintained after the country's independence and, among some community chiefs, led to a history of corruption by taking advantage of citizens and monetary funds. In many ways, this corruption led to the alienation of youth, which was seen as one contributing factor in the civil conflict, especially as some alienated youth joined the rebel movement (Jackson, 2005; Keen, 2003, 2005; Peake et al., 2004; Sawyer, 2008; Thomson, 2007).

Therefore, the model of preconflict chieftaincy leadership may not appear to be the best suited for postconflict Sierra Leonean communities. Interestingly, however, despite the prewar problems with some local community chiefs, the chieftaincy structure continued to be the prevailing community leadership

structure after the war. This was largely because people looked to the community leaders to take them safely through times of change and uncertainty.

As Kellerman (2004) notes, "In our eagerness to quell our anxiety, we are more willing than we would be otherwise to go along with leaders who give the appearance of being strong and certain" (23). In Sierra Leone, the community chiefs were seen as familiar, maintaining the cultural norm, and providing a sense of safety and security (Fanthorpe, 2005; King, 2005; Sawyer, 2008; Thomson, 2007). Although many scholars argued for putting new leaders and/or leadership structures in place after the conflict (Fanthorpe, 2005; King, 2005; Richards, 2005; Sawyer, 2008; Thomson, 2007), it was the sense of safety that facilitated the continuance of the chieftaincy system. In fact, one active community woman stated that "if [the chiefs] came back [to the communities], that gave confidence to the people to come back and return to their homes" (Rosaline, personal communication, June 2, 2009).

Various community members mentioned that in many cases, the original chiefs were able to return to their home communities if they had fled. In other cases, new chiefs needed to be elected "by chiefdom electors [who] are chosen by special criteria of one elector per every 20 taxpayers" (Malikie, personal communication, May 26, 2009) to replace those that were killed or had permanently left the community or country.

In analyzing the installation of existing chiefs and the chieftaincy leadership structure, the concept of liminality may be of use. Liminality suggests that existing in a period of both what was and entering the period of what will be provides an opportunity to make changes. Despite the appearance that the old model of leadership was put back in place indiscriminately, in fact, changes were made to the chieftaincy structure to reflect where it had been and where it would need to go in the future to meet the needs of a changing postconflict society. Many of these changes occurred due to the experiences of community members fleeing their communities and being exposed to varying cultures in different parts of the world (Keen, 2003; Richards et al., 2004). The concept of liminality would lead us to believe that this space between influenced the emerging design of the

chieftaincy structure. Experiences around corruption and abuse of power by the chieftaincy leaders led many of the interviewed community members to believe that the continuation of these behaviors would only result in continued and ongoing war. Therefore, the majority of those interviewed believed that if there was to be peace, the chiefs must be held accountable for their actions. In this fashion, the outward structure for authority persisted, providing continuity, but the internal workings of the structure changed so that the chiefs would be held accountable to their communities in new ways.

Based on the data collected from community member interviews, three significant changes within the chieftaincy leadership structure occurred in postconflict Sierra Leone: (a) increased involvement in community development, (b) increased fairness in dispute settlement, and (c) a challenge to the patrilineal norm of leadership. Each of these three changes, and the understanding of these shifts from the lens of *liminality*, is discussed below.

Increased Involvement in Community Development

The first change seen in the chieftaincy leadership of postconflict Sierra Leone was the increased involvement of the chiefs in community development. Whereas the community chiefs of preconflict Sierra Leone were linked to the issues of corruption, mistreatment, and taking for themselves, the chiefs of postconflict Sierra Leone were seen by the interviewed community members as more committed to their communities and working to move those communities forward through development efforts. According to the community members, these efforts have been made primarily by calling the community together for community meetings and by working with representatives of both the national government and the international community to receive development funds.

Twenty-two of the 28 interviewees made prominent mention of the chief-led meetings, especially those held immediately after the end of the conflict. These meetings focused on creating a sense of peace in the community and helping community members heal from conflict-related trauma. The interviewees felt that these meetings brought the community together and encouraged interaction "to help people to work as one because we have to assist each other" (Suzan,

personal communication, June 4, 2009). The interviewees also believed that these meetings enabled the chiefs to understand the needs of the community and convey those needs to those with resources to assist. "The chief talks with the national government and the international community . . . [and] calls frequent meetings to make plans for the development of the township" (Tenneh, personal communication, June 4, 2009). In this way, the chiefs were not only taking into account what community members needed and wanted in their communities, but they were also finding the necessary resources to help fulfill these needs.

Many of the community needs revealed during these meetings were related to agriculture, construction, and microcredit projects, and the chiefs used this community input to secure necessary and appropriate funding. These projects were often brought into the communities by international organizations and run, with some local support, by these organizations. Zaria (personal communication, June 5, 2009), a community leader, further explained "the chief holds the meeting and gives feedback and they write projects to get money and they get the funds and the people build . . . they come together to get suggestions for development."

In many ways, these meetings were seen as valuable in two ways. First, the meetings made the chief accessible to the community members. Second, the meetings demonstrated a commitment to moving the community forward. Helping communities to develop and build anew was a new phenomenon for the postconflict community chief. Perhaps the reflections and experiences that may have occurred in the liminal space created a sense that the chiefs needed to be held more accountable to their community members and, overall, to a sense of community. Unfortunately, "the native people . . . expect[ed] the chief [would] cook for them and he cannot afford it, so he doesn't call meetings anymore" (Jemi, personal communication, May 26, 2009). For this reason, the local community members stated that the meetings were not held regularly after an initial period right at the cessation of the conflict. Community needs are more directly communicated through a network of elders.

Increased Fairness in Dispute Settlement

The second area of change in the chieftaincy leadership in postconflict Sierra Leone was in the settlement of disputes. Prior to the war, the chiefs played an important role in heading the local court systems. This meant that chiefs were called upon by the community to settle disputes when they arose. It was in this dispute settling that issues of corruption or mistreatment often emerged. The interviewed community members explained that in the past, the chiefs were seen as playing favorites among the disputants or accepting bribes or other forms of payment for the favorable settlement of a dispute. Ishmael (personal communication, May 29, 2009), a community elder, stated that "family disputes . . . brought the war because chiefs were unfair and corrupt; destruction happened."

Upon the cessation of violence and returning the chieftaincy system of community governance, it was clear that the process for settlement of disputes needed to be revisited. Despite the preconflict abuses, over half of the interviewees felt that the chiefs now settled disputes in a fair manner, often engaging in mediation practices. The majority of community members felt that the chiefs made an effort to ensure that disputes were settled fairly because "petty quarrels are like ripples in a pond when you throw a stone in" (Florence, personal communication, June 9, 2009), and the chiefs wanted to maintain peaceful communities. Zaria (personal communication, June 5, 2009), a community activist, believed that the chiefs "build peace between [those involved in a dispute because] the chief is concerned with the welfare of the people." Marion (personal communication, May 26, 2009), another female community leader, stated that

> when people are quarreling, the chief tries to make peace. They get in between debates because they do not want any war in their country again. The chief does a good job to bring the people who ware quarreling together.

In the event that a chief did not settle a dispute in what a disputant perceived to be a fair and just manner, community members could take their cases to the state-run court system created after the conflict for hearing and settlement.

According to the interviewees, these state-run courts were effective in two ways. First, they offered a checks-and-balances-type approach to dispute settlement. If a community member was unsatisfied with the chief's settlement of their dispute, they could take the dispute to the state courts, where the case would be heard and settled by a magistrate. Local participants felt that the new system provided the community with a second chance at fairness should the original decision be seemingly unfair.

It is important to note, however, that the new system was not without its challenges, as it was believed by many interviewees to be quite expensive. In fact, many of the community members who discussed the court system felt as though they could not afford the fees to take their cases to court if they disagreed with the chief's settlement. One woman active in a community group, Rosaline (personal communication, June 2, 2009), stated that "the chiefs tried to . . . intervene with some matters and make compromises so that the people do not have to go to court, because they spend so much money." This is important to note when thinking about accountability; although the system is in place to ensure fair dispute settlement, if it is too expensive for the local people to utilize, then it does not provide the intended checks and balances for which it was created. Perhaps in this case, the experience of liminality may not have provided as much reflection on this issue as others. It would be of interest to examine why some issues were taken up more fully than others after a period of liminality.

The second way that the interviewees saw the new court system as ensuring fairness in dispute resolution among the chiefs was that it served as an incentive for the chiefs to settle disputes fairly. Community members felt that it looked bad for the chief to have his cases go to court, and therefore, he was encouraged to settle these cases as fairly as possible the first time he heard them. Ishmael (personal communication, May 29, 2009), a community elder, demonstrated this point when he said that "chiefs are kept accountable and are fair so that their cases do not go to court and they do not have to go to court as well." As aforementioned, many of the community members were satisfied with the way the postconflict disputes were settled. One community member believed that

"[the chief] tries hard to settle [disputes] well" (Arif, personal communication, June 7, 2009), and another thought "the chief [was] very truthful" (Miatta, personal communication, June 5, 2009) in their dispute settlement.

Therefore, it is clear to see that the chieftaincy role in dispute settlement has changed after the conflict. Chiefs went from solving disputes based on greed and favoritism, and, in effect, neglecting the community, to successfully "interven[ing] . . . mak[ing] compromises . . . and get[ting] people together" (Rosaline, personal communication, June 2, 2009). When thinking about the liminal space, it could be that the opportunity for reflection and scrutinization (Turner, 2011) provided a chance to design a new system of checks and balances and a new sense of commitment to the perception of justice.

A Challenge to the Patrilineal Norm of Leadership

The final shift in chieftaincy leadership after conflict described by interviewees was in the patrilineal nature of the chieftaincy position. For generations, the community chiefs were all male, and many of the leadership roles of the community were held by males. Women were seen as

> subjects of backyard activities, but now they are invited out of the house to help in development. Now they are being included in their rightful places in the community and the society. They are also very involved in politics and decision making. Before this time, the wife had no say in the house; the husband is the end all and be all. Now that approach is gone. Now the women are being relied on. (Banura, personal communication, June 8, 2009)

This was a dramatic shift for many in Sierra Leone. As women had rarely held such important positions in the society, some have struggled to adjust to this idea. In the Northern Province, women were just starting to have an equal role in local organizations, but in the Southern Province, women had already been elected chiefs. The number, however, is still quite small. Of the 149 chiefs in the country, only 14 are female (Kanu, 2013).

Therefore, this third transition in chieftaincy norms is still taking place in Sierra Leone. In reviewing the concept of liminality, it would appear that the while the liminal space of the war provided more complete transformations in the areas of community involvement and dispute resolution, the patrilineal nature of the

preconflict chieftaincy structure still remains somewhat firmly in place. In fact, it raises the question as to what experiences in the liminal space have led those in the Southern Province to form new cultural norms around women in chieftaincy roles that have not formed in the Northern Province. Perhaps this shift was much more dramatic than the other two shifts that occurred as a result of the civil conflict and the uncertain times that followed, which means that the community is not as quick to make the change.

Conclusion

Applying the lens of liminality to the context of Sierra Leone allows one to reflect on how a liminal space, like conflict, can allow for growth, reflection, scrutinization (Turner, 2011), and development in a country and its communities. In this case, the liminal space has potentially led to a transition in the chieftaincy community structures by allowing for increased community development engagement, a fairer settling of disputes, and the beginnings of a shift in the patrilineal norms of the leadership structure.

   The potential scrutinization and shift in norms provided by utilizing the concept of liminality may have provided more than just a shift in the role of the chief as discussed above. It may have allowed us to see a grander shift in the cultural norms and expectations found in Sierra Leonean communities. In fact, there are three distinct cultural shifts that have been occurring as a result of this transition in the chieftaincy leadership. It is these shifts that may be interesting to other communities going through similar periods of perceived liminality.

   First, focusing on liminality may demonstrate that a shift occurred in the transformation of previous injustices. The history of Sierra Leone and its communities are wrought with stories of corruption and mistreatment. Individuals felt powerless and unable to take a role in the betterment of their lives and their communities. Some of the shifts that occurred while existing in this potential liminal space may have provided the opportunity to right many of those wrongs. This is not to say that the communities have rid themselves of all evils and

inequities, but steps have been taken to ensure more inclusion and fairer treatment for all community members.

Second, the leadership structure that emerged from the conflict was one that was more connected and relevant for the needs of the new Sierra Leonean community. Past community leaders were often seen as "Big Men" (Lindstrom, 1981), based on assigned power structures and lineage. While chiefs are still elected based on lineage, these chiefs are now, more than ever, connected to their communities and members. The needs and wants of these community members are being taken under consideration, and leaders are finding new ways to engage in and promote community development. If forced to view this shift from a Western theoretical perspective, one might say that the leadership has begun to have a more transformational approach in these communities. Perhaps the experience of liminality provided an impetus for these changes to occur.

Finally, a shift in chieftaincy leadership allowed for a focus to be placed on moving the community forward and building for a peaceful future rather than maintaining the norms of the past. In the communities studied, the chiefs were seen as making a commitment for the betterment of the community in the long run. Efforts were being made to keep and progress the notions of peace among the community. Many of the community members still bear physical and mental scars from the conflict, so finding a way to move forward was important to many of the interviewees. The chiefs, in many ways, were providing this forward direction for the communities and their members. This transition could also be credited to the liminal space's room for reflection.

Words of Caution

There is an important caveat to this discussion. The majority of community interviewees who were able to speak specifically about chieftaincy leadership were those who were leaders themselves, or in other ways active in the community. Several participants stated that they could not fully describe the chief's actions because they had limited interactions with him or the work he was doing in community development and engagement. In many ways, poorer

community members were less connected with the leaders and the development activities and happenings in their communities.

Also, liminality is not a complete replacement of one reality with another. As seen in Sierra Leone, there are continuities; something persists during phases of disorientation and survives on the other side of change. It should also be noted that a change in a period of liminality is not always for the better, which is why it is probably too soon to declare the experience in Sierra Leone a success. In fact, it may be that there have been trade-offs. One might argue that despite some apparent changes for the better, there is still a long way to go.

In addition, passing through liminality does not mean that the experience of liminality is at an end. Not only will there continue to be a period of adjustment to the changes that are underway, but new and sometimes unforeseen periods of liminality may have to follow, like aftershocks to an earthquake. It stands to reason, however, that having arguably passed through it once, the people of Sierra Leone will have developed a greater capacity for adaptation. It may also be that the improvements made to the chieftaincy structure may help facilitate future shifts to ensure connected and relevant community leadership as the communities emerge from future periods of liminality.

Overall, the intent of this article is to demonstrate that the concept of liminality can be seen within the chieftaincy leadership structure of postconflict Sierra Leone. While the argument is not that this liminal space provided the perfect solution to community leadership problems, it does demonstrate that a dramatic shift is possible and that new cultural norms may be able to develop as a result of this space of reflection and new experiences. The aim of this discussion of liminality in the case of Sierra Leone is to provide some examples of how existing in and emerging from the liminal space might provide opportunities to advance communities and leadership in varying situations and stages of change.

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Otherness Development Model for Assessing Multicultural Competencies for Educational Leadership[*]

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This article presents a model for assessing otherness development levels among individuals in educational leadership. The otherness development model (ODM) emerged from examining certain social theories and humanistic concepts that are intertwined in a pentagonal form—the "3Rs and 2Ss" constructs—that serve as important values for social functionalism. The article proposes practical ways of categorizing and measuring individual otherness development (IOD). The ODM is a significant contribution to otherness leadership, as it utilizes innovative ways to promote learning to value differences. The ODM is also recommended for baseline studies, an institutional readiness index, teaching tolerance, and training and development.

Key words: 3Rs and 2Ss, multicultural, ODM, otherness leadership

Otherness is examined in the literature as the way individuals appreciate "others" who are different. It is different from such socio-cultural thinking as "Africanisation" (Horsthemke, 2004) and "Britishness" and "Westernized" (Colley, 1992; Eley, 1992). The concept of *otherness development* is an individual's ability to develop the ability to influence others based on awareness, appreciation, understanding, and aptitude in other cultures (Edwards, 2009). It reflects a healthy socio-moral disposition and cultural sensitivity during interactions and reactions with "other(s)." Otherness development is based on human nature, people-to-people interactions, and reactions based on differences. Therefore otherness development should be practiced.

Moreover, there are natural differences in appearances, opinions, and cultures. Multicultural competency is also operationalized as the *awareness, knowledge*, and *skills* (AKS) in appreciating the fusion of cultures in any given environment (Castellanos, Gloria, Mayorga, & Salas, 2007). All educational leaders should be able to demonstrate AKS in crusading against divisions, tribalism, political

conflicts, polarization, and stereotyping that negatively impact social interaction. They should also demonstrate understanding and appreciation of diversity, differences, and multiculturalism (Chavez, Guido-DiBrito, & Mallory, 2003; Connerley & Pedersen, 2005). For that matter, educators must promote peace, tolerance, and unity in multicultural societies. Their abilities to perform such functions must also be measurable.

However, the issue presented here is how to assess multicultural competencies among educators. There must be assessment of different stages and levels in the pursuit of multicultural education. The purpose of this article is to present a model for assessing otherness development levels of individuals in educational leadership roles. Further objectives are to (a) highlight certain socio-humanistic concepts that can be intertwined for baseline development of multicultural competencies among leaders, (b) develop a method for calculating individual otherness development (IOD) performance, and (c) encourage interdisciplinary research on harnessing multicultural competencies through the valuing of "others" in educational leadership.

The proposed otherness development model (ODM) is significant as an initiative to bring institutionalized thinking into the praxis of otherness leadership that goes beyond mission statements. The ODM is based on five important concepts conjugated to form "the 3Rs and 2Ss" (see Figure 1 on the next page) within the framework of a social functionalism theory. It is an approach to universal diversity or multicultural aptness.
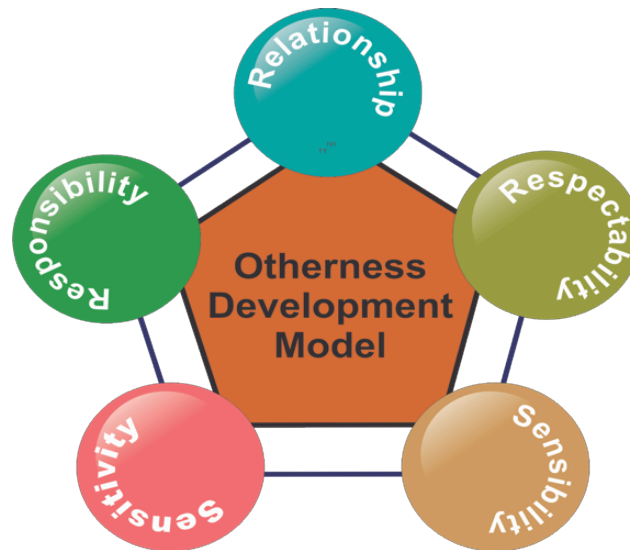
Figure 1. The otherness development model

Conceptual Frameworks

The Social Theory

The philosophical underpinning of social theories is based on the interaction of theory and research on social phenomena. Díez Nicolás (2013) states that the usefulness of a social theory is "its level of generalization, that is, its intention to be a theory whose value is limited to a specific time and place" (9). According to Strawn (2009), "society is a complex nexus of people, organizations, cultures, religions, [and] relationships that influence and impact life. Humans have created theories to give meaning, organization and structure to this complex world" (35). Social functional theory thrives in social systems where relationship is the focal point of human functionalism and system dynamics. Hence, multicultural education, as an example of a social function, entails the social agenda to transmit values and conditions for healthy life in a society.

In a social setting, nature has designed and guaranteed society in such a way for people to have the right to safety while pursuing their dreams. Human beings develop a resistance to discomfort in contention with any social interaction and environmental dynamics (Cote & Nightingale, 2012). Human beings have the tendency to adapt, develop resilience in social turbulence, and strive sensibly for

respectable space. According to the social theory, human beings cope with any "noise," any vulnerability, and turbulence in a social context for survival.

The Concept of Otherness

Otherness has been examined in different forms (Brin, 1994; Colley, 1992; Hausmann, 2004; Lim, 2007; Thapar-Bjorkert, 1999). Colley studies the British and Irish relationship in the context of otherness. Hausmann (2004) writes on otherness portrayed in the American film culture. In this context, otherness competencies imply the expression of understanding, appreciation, and value in terms of preferences and a level of acceptance (Chavez et al., 2003).

   Otherness development is an indication of an individual's socio-moral ability to express positive attitudes in recognition and appreciation of others in a reputable fashion. According to Edwards (2009), otherness development has three areas of competencies: meaning in life, moral reasoning, and multicultural aptitudes. However, a high level of otherness development is typified by the extraordinary ability to influence, relate, and react to differences for a purposeful attraction and sensible dependency.

The Concept of the 3Rs and 2Ss

The ODM is geared toward promoting acceptable behaviors through the recognition of certain humanistic values. These values are the ethos of relationship, respectability, responsibility, sensitivity, and sensibility (the 3Rs and 2Ss) within a multicultural environment.

   Relationship. Studies conducted among educators reveal that relationships matter in all social environments (Durand & Calori, 2006; Lim, 2007). Relationships are about people who want to be part of something or group. Relationships develop as a measure of one's value for others. Ideally, relationships constitute a strategic social network and an expansion of boundaries. Relationships are what trigger influence and power, which is characterized by proof of those who are prepared to follow and build on leader-follower exchange (Northouse, 2012; Yukl, 2010). Many studies on leadership

attest to the fact that leadership is all about relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

Respectability. Human beings naturally attract one another, but the strongest attraction is toward those considered stronger and valued. People will ignore criticisms to achieve respect and a meaningful influence (Yukl, 2010). Respect is achieved by the reciprocation of values; it is the accumulation of courage, accomplishments, loyalty, and dedication to a collective cause. *Respectability* is a construct that emulates a position of acceptance, pride, and discernable socio-moral commitment. Respect contradicts the tradition of class discrimination, social injustices, and prevalent working-class culture, and any endangered culture (Lim, 2007).

Responsibility. Within the framework of ethics lie principles, beliefs, values, virtues, and acceptable socio-moral *responsibility* (Starratt, 2004). According to Starratt, the grammar of responsibility is framed in two major orientations: *ex post facto* (attribution) and *ex ante facto* (appropriation). Attribution is a behavior judged on what is purported to have been done or not done without necessarily considering the mitigating factors. Appropriation is when a person's action or inaction is judged based on "the perspective of expectations of future action" (47). Responsibility is best explained as a behavior toward others that requires doing "what is right," taking care of tasks/people, improvisation, and inventiveness in a moral way. Responsibility under the tutelage of a socio-moral appropriation, and in the context of otherness, is being responsive to*,* being responsive for*,* and being responsive as having contributed to the well-being of a group.

Sensitivity. *Sensitivity* is the ability to conceive what may be acceptable and/or valuable to another person in any given moment. Sensitivity has an element of socio-culture intuition, authenticity, and intentionality. For a person to demonstrate sensitivity, it means that they have intuition for and imaginative thoughts about the possible outcomes of actions or inactions. According to Starratt (2004), one has to imagine the "what if" in an appropriation (*ex ante facto)*. Sensitivity in this context is framed by Goleman's (1998) emotional

intelligence, and socio-moral sensitivity, which is through "preference for others" (Lovett & Jordan, 2010). Thus, a person has to have the self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-motivation to hold a preference for other people. Socially, such a person is said to show empathy and social "adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others" (Goleman, 1998, 27).

Sensibility. On the other hand, *sensibility* is the ability to demonstrate wisdom, prudence, and knowledge in an effort to understand other people. It is that wisdom of knowing "others," appreciating who they are with a foresight of expediency to what might otherwise be different in context. In this case, a person's sensibility is demonstrated in his or her judgment based on ethical and socio-moral situations (Lovett & Jordan, 2010). It is an act of wise behavior that precludes social normative sense of "preferences to others." Sensibility is tempering justice with care whereby both ethos are wrapped in a humanistic threshold. Scott (2008) describes sensibility as having a "sense of *sense,"* as giving a "democratic space," and having the discernment to create a preferred value for others.

Individual Otherness Development (IOD)

IOD Calculation: Total Sum Scores

The competence of otherness, or one's individual otherness development (IOD) can be measured using the total sum score (TSS) of the 3Rs and 2Ss. Influenced by Chavez et al.'s (2003) idea of individual diversity development, the ODM can be used to evaluate IOD at three levels with six distinct stages (see Figure 2 on the next page). First, the TSS is calculated through measurement of all five constructs, each having four questions, and on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 = strongly agree and 1 = strongly disagree). Thus, TSS can be derived using a 20-item questionnaire for both self-assessment and researcher assessment. Thus, the IOD formula could be expressed as $4(R_1+R_2+R_3+S_1+S_2)$, with a maximum score of 100.

Evaluation of IOD Based on TSS

Based on the TSS, a person's IOD can be assessed as being at the basic, intermediary, or mastery stage. At the basic stage, an individual is said to be either Level 1: Unawareness or Level 2: Dualistic. At Level 1: Unawareness, the person is unaware and low in AKS regarding the five competencies ($M < 16.67$). In other words, the person shows a significant lack of AKS in understanding and appreciating "others." At Level 2: Dualistic of the basic stage, a person is able to comprehend the existence of differences, but demonstrates a significant lack of AKS, therefore attains a low score in TSS ($M < 33.33$). At this point, the individual is more interested in summarizing issues or situations into a dichotomy: a dualistic approach or bipartial information.

The intermediary stage follows the same trend of assessment, but incremental increases. At the mastery stage, the individual demonstrates a higher attainment of multicultural competencies and is ready to integrate and facilitate interventions (see Table 1 on the next page for further details).
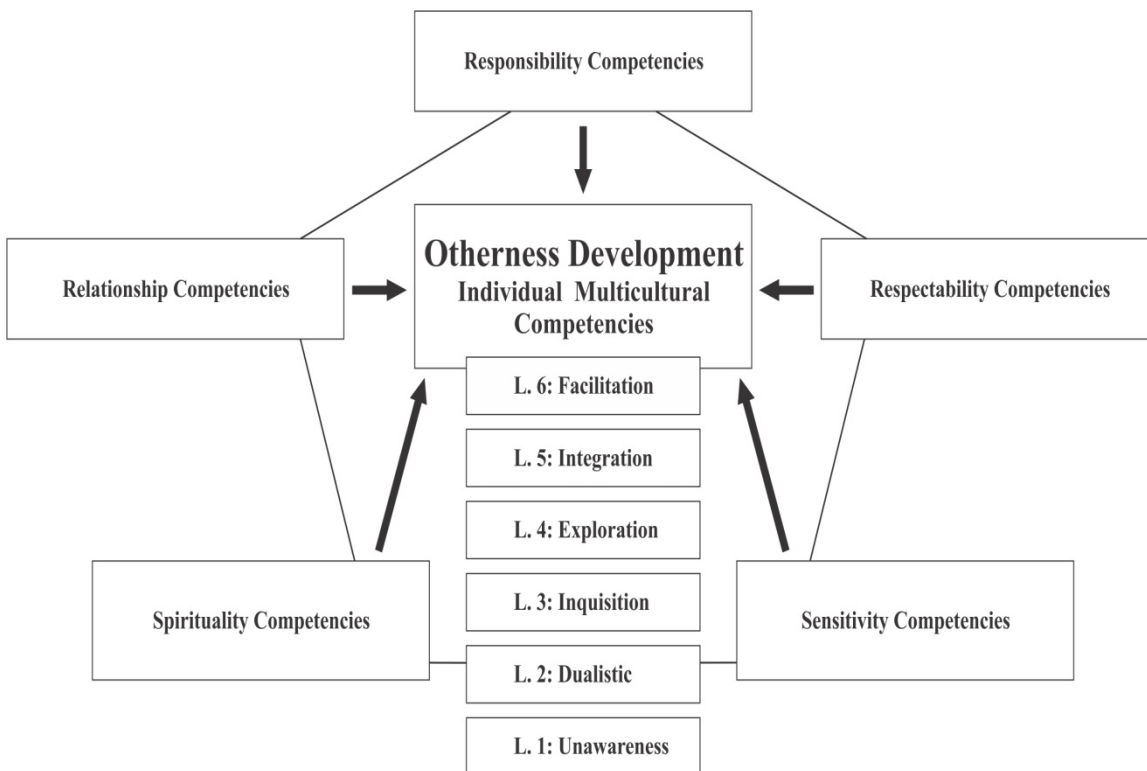

Figure 2. Individual otherness (multicultural) development levels

Table 1: Assessing Stages and Levels of Individual Otherness Development (IOD)

No	Stage	Level	TSS	Description
1		Unawareness	< 16.67.	The individual has developed a very minimal awareness but lacks a comprehension of and appreciation for the multicultural.
2	**Basic**	Dualistic	(between 16.67 and 33.33)	The individual has developed some awareness and knowledge in a simplistic understanding that allows the individual to see two sides of everything multicultural.
3		Inquisition	(between 33.34 and 50.00)	The individual has developed the awareness and knowledge in appreciation but is still curious and questioning the benefit of multicultural.
4	**Intermediary**	Exploration	(between 50.01 and 66.67)	The individual has developed awareness and knowledge in appreciation but is still exploring significant skills in any of the five concepts (3Rs & 2Ss).
5		Integration	(between 66.68 and 83.34)	The individual has developed the AKS that promote integration within multicultural environments.
6	**Mastery**	Facilitation	(between 83.35 and 100.00)	The individual has developed the AKS needed for multicultural competencies to be able to transfer to a social life or organizations. The individual can develop and facilitate programs, structures, and systems to transfer the AKS in the multicultural (otherness).

Conclusion, Implications, and Recommendations

For practical otherness leadership, the ODM is a diagnostic tool for assessing multicultural competencies of an individual. Individuals can start with the basic stage with the potential to reach a mastery stage. Differences are natural; hence,

multiculturalism is part of our social dynamics, and it is leadership that should exemplify socio-moral responsibility and sensitivity (Lovett & Jordan, 2010). Individual leaders can be scored on the five constructs—the 3Rs and 2Ss—to assess their IOD levels. IOD connotes value of preference (Lovett & Jordan, 2010). It can also forecast possible challenges.

An aggregate of TSS from staffs or constituents will inform the institutions about the appreciation of differences. In other words, individuals must learn to value "others" (Chavez et al., 2003) for results in corporate diversity measures. This is a significant step for practical otherness leadership, training and development of people skills, and yet another model for human behavior management.

Implications for Educational Leadership

In education, the transference of knowledge, values, and responsibilities is a social function. Society has diverse opinions, cultures, and situations; "similarly, individuals develop a wide range of multicultural skill levels to use in negotiating these differences" (Chavez et al., 2003, 466). Educational leaders are likely to develop different levels of relationship, responsibility, respectability, sensitivity, and sensibility. By assessing IOD based on the AKS, educational leaders can be helped to develop or to develop others through teaching and professional training and development.

Educational leaders should be interested in developing competencies in relationship building, ethics of responsibility, socio-cultural respectability, socio-moral sensitivity (Lovett & Jordan, 2010), and emotional sensibility (Goleman, 1998). Educational leadership challenges are broadly related to human relations (Kouzes & Posner, 2012); social responsibility in *ex post facto* (attribution) and *ex ante facto* (appropriation); and respect for capital asset in team building, delegation, and negotiation (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Furthermore, educational leadership will thrive in pluralistic, multicultural environments if the confidence and competencies exist to tackle human behaviors, particularly if there is evidence of sensitivity and sensibility to curb abuses. In practice, instructions can be delivered safely and effectively within the

framework of "doing the right thing" and "for the good of the whole." This will affect professionalism in education (Edwards, 2009).

Finally, the ODM should serve as a great resource for professional development. In part, educational leadership is the business of knowledge acquisition and services to promote humanity. The five constructs discussed are paramount in any case related to people. Teachers, faculty members, and school administrators from elementary to higher education institutions must champion otherness. Therefore self-assessment in IOD is encouraged. Reflectively, self-assessment on "preference for others" should be practiced (Lovett & Jordan, 2010).

Recommendations

The following are recommended: (a) IOD should be used in institutions to assess their staff's IOD levels to promote individual otherness development; (b) educators should be able to build the capacity of individuals to initiate awareness, knowledge, and skills in otherness, which are valuable assets for differentiation leadership, policy making, and social dynamics; and (c) educational leadership should involve otherness development through the acquisition of socio-functional aptness in a multicultural environment. This is significant for international education, multicultural socialization, and globalization and democratization of curricula.

The ODM could be used for baseline studies on diversity initiatives that recognize multicultural competencies. Institutional diversity and all-inclusivity should be supported by individual assessment data and training interventions in "learning to value differences." Further collaborative studies should develop questionnaire items for the model with significant interest in critical thinking, comparative research, socio-cultural anthropology, and more importantly, with a global lens. Associational studies between the otherness constructs of the 3Rs and 2Ss and other human development constructs are also suggested.

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Communication Skills and Attitudes of Turkish University Rectors and Deans as They Relate to Leadership Performance[*]

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The purpose of this quantitative, descriptive study was to examine the leadership styles of Turkish university rectors and deans in Turkey's 53 public higher education institutions. The Fiedler (1967) Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale was used to measure leadership style. Significant differences were found to exist between leadership styles of rectors and deans on all measured traits. Rectors, who are elected to their positions by faculty, scored significantly higher in leadership style than did deans, who are assigned to their positions by the Turkish Council of Higher Education.

Key words: leadership, rector, Turkish university

Leadership is a basic human, social, and universal fact and a necessity when and where people live and act together in groups, organizations, and communities. There are "almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974, 259). Multiple studies have also been conducted examining the connection between management/leadership styles and cultures (e.g., House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997). House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002) developed a theoretical framework based upon the proposition that "the attributes and entities that distinguish a given culture from other cultures are predictive of the practices of organizations and leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted, acceptable, and effective in that culture" (8).

Ardichvili and Kuchinke's (2002) cross-cultural study of leadership styles and cultural values among more than 4,000 employees from Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Germany, and the United States resulted in findings congruent with the theoretical model developed by House et al. (2002). Applying Bass and Avolio's (1990) leadership framework and Hofstede's (1980) model of

culture, Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) found that "compared to Germany and the [United States], the four former USSR countries differed primarily by much lower levels of Power Distance, higher levels of Masculinity and much longer planning horizons" (99).

Leaders Versus Administrators

Understanding the concept of an *administrator* or *manager,* as distinguished from a *leader,* is fundamental for an analysis of administration (Karadağ, 2009). An *administrator* or *manager* realizes the goals of an organization by utilizing orders, directives, instructions, and decrees within the structures and procedures of an organization (DeMoulin, 1996; Esmay, 2006). A *leader* stimulates the creative powers of individuals and helps them maximize their potentials (Spigener, 2009; Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009; Zepke, 2007).

Mintzberg (1989) found that managers and administrators are similar in their work intensity, variety, brevity, and discontinuity of activities. For him, both categories of employees are action oriented and uncomfortable with introspective conduct. An administrator who is also a leader employs human and material resources by considering not only the aims and needs of the workers, but also the goals of the organization (Korkut, 1992). One aspect of leadership is being task-oriented, with the predominant focus on structural concerns such as planning, organizing, and staffing (Allen, 1995; Cockburn-Wootten, Holmes, & Simpson, 2008; Munter, 1999, Tutar & Yılmaz, 2002). Another aspect of leadership is centered on human relations and the essential communication characteristics needed for success in this regard (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

According to Bennis (2003), while a leader may have widely varying characteristics, such as being organized/disorganized, young/old, or male/female, all leaders have some common components. A basic component of leadership is the ability to be a visionary (Hanna, 2003). Leaders have a sense of future and the ability to overcome challenges inherent in achieving their goals (Bass, 1998). Another component of leadership is the feeling of passion, which serves to inspire others (Bennis, 2003). Bennis identifies a third component as

honesty, which is reflected in a leader's integrity, maturity, and core knowledge. Two additional components of leadership cited by Bennis are curiosity and risk-taking. A true leader is seen as curious about everything, desirous of learning as much as possible about a given situation, and willing to take risks. Rather than being demoralized by failures, a leader is seen as accepting mistakes and learning from them (Bennis, 2003; Stogdill, 1948; Yukl, 2002).

While the terms *leader* and *administrator* have some common aspects, there are also some significant differences. Whereas administrators deal with, and strive to simplify, complex issues, leaders strive to realize the changes and transformations necessary for stability and competition (Kotter, 1990; Şişman, Turan, & Acat, 2003; Yalçın, 1994). The right to manage others comes from a superior authority, while the right to lead is given by those who choose to follow (Werner, 1993). Although managers and leaders both work for organizations, leaders, according to Zaleznik (1999), can never belong to the organization.

Senge (1990) posits that contemporary leaders' roles are notably different from those of the charismatic leaders of the past. Today's leaders are seen as "designers, teachers, and stewards. These roles require new skills: the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking" (9). Bass and Avolio (1990), in contrast, believe that charisma is one of the four essential facets of transformational leadership (the other three are inspiration, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation).

Although leadership and management may overlap in many respects, they often collide. There are very good administrators who do not have the characteristics of a leader, and there are leaders who do not have the characteristics of an administrator (Bennis, 2003; Corson, 2000; Spigener, 2009). According to Kayıkçı (1999), administrators do the work properly, and leaders do the right work. Though many leadership characteristics may be considered innate, they can also be developed through education, as can managerial skills (Corson, 2000; Garih, 2000; Marx, 2006).

Table 1: Differences Between Leaders and Administrators/Managers

Leaders	Managers
• Involve others and project positive attitudes. • Motivate individuals regarding the subjects of possibility, willingness, and necessity. • Form goals and vision through the development of moral values. • Prefer developing enthusiasm, taking risks, and keeping opportunities and rewards high. • Pay attention to the thoughts and feelings of others first, then their actions, through empathy and instinct. • Try to understand what events and situations mean to people. • Support an opinion at length and take independent action when necessary. • Influence others through the use of strong emotional terms such as *integrate* and *hate.*	• Have a tendency to adopt impersonal, managerial goals. • Regard their profession as a process in which they make decisions and develop strategies in order to integrate human and material resources. • Use flexible tactics such as agreement, negotiation, reward, and punishment. • Tolerate daily routines in order to maintain their positions. • Seek to maintain the status quo, which hinders their ability to take risks. • Deal with others according to decision processes and the roles they play in developing events. • Use indirect communication with subordinates and place an emphasis on obeying the rules. • Focus on how events and circumstances develop.

The Role of Communication in Leadership

Administrators carry out organizational activities by communicating to superiors and subordinates (Sparks & Schenk, 2006). Much of the communication in organizations is focused on influencing employees' thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors (Childers, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1990; Zorn, 2002). When employees accept or identify with the principles and/or goals of the organization, they are more apt to work effectively and efficiently to realize these goals (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003). Their level of acceptance is dependent upon the persuasiveness of the communication process (McPhee & Zaug, 2001; Peruzzo, 2009). Communication also serves as a vehicle for unification and coordination (Ashcraft, Kuhn, & Cooren, 2009; Hoy & Miskel, 2005). Interaction and communication that foster employees' acceptance of organizational goals play a significant role in preserving the individuals' psychological integrity and balance

(Tutar & Yılmaz, 2002).

According to Eren (2004), organizations gain dynamism through interaction and communication. *Dynamism* refers to the effective participation of individuals in the education and research processes. Administrators have been considered by many researchers as the most significant component in generating a sense of dynamism within an organization (Curran, Deacon, & Fleet, 2005; Gelmon, White, Carlson, & Norman, 2000; Moore, 2000; Odewahn & Spritzer, 1976).

Evolving Leadership Styles in Higher Education

Just as the role of corporate leadership has shifted in the past century from one of autocracy to democracy, similar changes have occurred in higher education. While earlier educational research showed little concern for behavioral dimensions, a growing appreciation for the role of the employee has produced leaders who are more sensitive to the human condition and its impact upon productivity (McKee, 1991; Neumann & Neumann, 1999). This has led to a growing emphasis on transformational leadership, in which motivational tools are used to build a sense of trust within the community and to empower others (Martinez, 2002).

Kezar, Carducci, and Contreras-McGavin (2006) support the notion of collaborative leadership, breaking down divisional and departmental barriers and developing cross-disciplinary structures. In a quantitative, exploratory study assessing academic leadership preparation and interest, Cassie, Sowers, and Rowe (2007) surveyed 99 social work educators and administrators. The most important leadership skills identified by the respondents were, in rank order, decision making, relationship building, public relations, interpersonal communication, conflict management, team building, public speaking, and program advocacy.

Administrative Structure in Turkish Universities

In 1933, under the leadership of President Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the first president of Turkey, Turkish higher education began its transformation from the

vestiges of the Ottoman Empire to a model patterned after a Western European system. From that time until 1946, there was significant growth in research activities and in the quality of higher education overall. New laws were passed in 1962 to assure greater autonomy on the part of individual institutions. This resulted in an increase in the number of institutions, a decrease in enrollment, and rising dropout rates. By 1981, only 17 of every 100 students graduated (Doğramacı, 2007).

The 1981 Law on Higher Education was a major force in the restructuring and standardization of Turkey's system of higher education. In 1981, there were 19 state universities (Dogramacı, 2007). In 2015, there were 186 universities and two higher institutes of technology (YÖK, 2015). The percentage of the population of tertiary age enrolled in tertiary education increased to 69.4 percent in 2012 from 4 percent in 1965 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012).

The Council of Higher Education, which is composed of 22 members, serves as the governing body for all institutions of higher education in Turkey (Mizikaci, 2006). All members serve four-year terms.
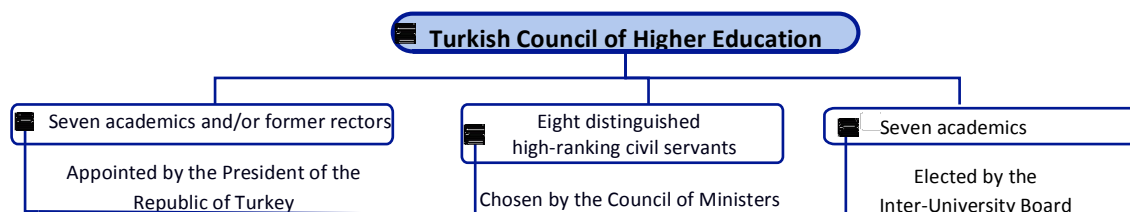

Figure 1. Hierarchy of Turkish higher education administration. Adapted from "Üniversiteler [Universities]" by YÖK, 1981.

Each institution of higher education has a rector and three deans who serve as its administrative unit. Whereas the rector is selected based on faculty nominations, the three deans are assigned by the Council of Higher Education, bypassing faculty input.
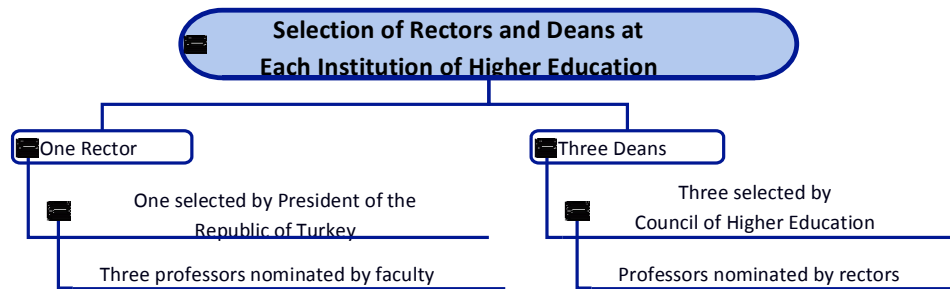
Figure 2. Selection of rectors and deans of Turkish higher education. Adapted from "Üniversiteler [Universities]" by YÖK, 1981.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare the leadership styles of the administrators (rectors and deans) in Turkish universities. Turkish university administrators are representatives of a consent-based legal system in a democratic country. These leaders obtain approval of the governed by effectively communicating a vision of the organization's future. Administrator attitudes play a significant role in the development of organizations. Leaders who are supportive, helpful, relaxed, compatible, and self-confident can demonstrate acceptable performance by not only increasing the success of the organization, but also by developing the university.

Methods

The research study was descriptive in nature (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). In his study about situational leadership, Fiedler (1972) separates leaders and situations into different classes and identifies the kinds of situations suitable for each type of leadership. The situations in situational leadership have been identified in three main components, which are leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. The Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale was used to identify the leadership style in Fiedler's situational leadership model and the most suitable leadership style for each type of situation were determined through statistical analyses. Using Fiedler's (1967) LPC Scale as its basis, I created a 16-question survey to collect data on the leadership and communication characteristics of Turkish university administrators. The sample

population of 102 consisted of elected rectors and assigned deans from the 53 public universities in Turkey. Sample respondents were evenly divided between rectors (51) and deans (51). Eighty-seven participants were male, and 15 were female. Ages ranged from 39 to 68 years.

Data Collection

The data were collected via e-mail. Participants were asked to identify an individual they would least like to work with, and then rate that person using eight pairs of descriptive adjectives, scaled from high to low. The survey instrument was designed using Fiedler's (1967) LPC Scale. Fiedler's contingency model was the first to measure the connection between a leader's personality and his or her ability to control a situation as a predictor of leadership performance. A person achieving a high score on the LPC was seen as being motivated primarily by interpersonal relationships, and might be described as pleasant, loyal, warm, kind, and efficient. In contrast, an individual scoring low on the LPC was believed to be more task oriented and could be described as unpleasant, backbiting, cold, unkind, and inefficient (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987).

The LPC is composed of 16 opposite traits. The lowest possible score is 16, and the highest possible score is 128. Values below 64 are considered to be low LPC and values above 73 are considered to be high LPC (Northcraft & Neale, 1994). The manager's preference to work with that person increases as the scores rise. Therefore, a manager having high LPC describes the person he would like least to work with in relatively positive terms.

A manager with low LPC describes the person he would like least to work with negative personal qualities. High LPC leaders have close and positive relationships with their workers, and low LPC leaders have an authoritarian managerial style. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were found to be .89 for scale.

Data Analysis

In this research study, demographic variables were grouped, and data were analyzed using an eight-point Likert scale. The minimum score for each question

was 1, while the maximum score was 8. Participants' demographic and status characteristics were expressed with frequency (*f*) and percentage (*%*) values. Reviews were expressed using the mean (*M*), and standard deviation (*SD*) scores were calculated. The parametric analysis techniques used normal distribution function data. The responses of the rectors and deans were compared with the application of an independent group *t*-test.

Results

Table 2 displays the assessment results regarding the communication skills of rectors (elected) and deans (assigned) at Turkish universities. Frequency refers to countable data, mean and standard deviation refers to measurable data and *t*-test results, and LPC scores are included to determine if there is a significance difference between the communication skills and leadership attitudes of rectors and deans.

Table 2: Communication Skills of Rectors and Deans Holding Posts at Turkish Universities

Sub-Dimensions	Rector (Elected)		Dean (Assigned)		*t*	Sub-Dimensions
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Friendly	4.00	1.63	3.11	1.71	2.65	Unfriendly
Close	6.13	1.38	4.09	1.79	6.42	Distant
Sincere	5.45	1.65	3.03	1.69	7.27	Insincere
Cooperative	5.33	1.50	3.27	1.89	6.06	Uncooperative
Interesting	5.37	1.18	4.25	1.83	3.66	Boring
Effective	6.00	1.29	4.52	2.04	4.34	Ineffective
Cheerful	5.49	1.48	3.98	1.72	4.73	Gloomy
Open	5.29	1.36	3.50	2.18	4.95	Guarded
TOTAL	43.07	6.20	29.80	9.00	8.66	TOTAL

*$p < 0.05$

   As seen in Table 2, the mean score of the rectors' communication skills was 43.07 with a standard deviation of 6.20 for the eight communication sub-dimensions (friendly/unfriendly, close/distant, sincere/insincere, cooperative/ uncooperative, interesting/boring, effective/ineffective, cheerful/gloomy, and open/guarded). The mean score of the deans' communication skills was 29.80 with a standard deviation of 8.66.

The results of *t*-tests indicate a significant difference in communication skills between rectors and deans regarding their leadership performances in the eight sub-dimensions and their overall opinions. There was a significant difference at the level of 0.05, which favored the rectors on every sub-scale.

Table 3: Leadership Attitudes of Rectors and Deans Holding Posts at Turkish Universities

Sub-Dimensions	Rector (Elected)		Dean (Assigned)		*t*	Sub-Dimensions
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Pleasant	4.43	1.78	3.11	1.55	3.96	Unpleasant
Accepting	5.94	1.44	3.76	1.98	6.32	Rejecting
Helpful	5.45	2.11	3.45	1.80	5.13	Disappointing
Ambitious	6.50	1.88	4.68	2.11	4.60	Non-ambitious
Relaxed	5.66	2.06	3.72	2.44	4.33	Tense
Supportive	4.43	1.65	3.15	1.44	4.14	Hostile
Agreeable	5.74	1.57	3.56	2.10	5.90	Disagreeable
Confident	5.88	1.33	4.60	2.20	3.53	Unconfident
TOTAL	44.05	7.21	30.07	8.39	9.02	TOTAL

*p < 0.05

As seen in Table 3, the mean score of the rectors was 44.05 with a standard deviation of 7.21 for the eight leadership attitude sub-dimensions (pleasant/unpleasant, accepting/rejecting, helpful/disappointing, ambitious/non-ambitious, relaxed/tense, supportive/hostile, agreeable/disagreeable, confident/ unconfident) concerning the leadership attitudes. On the other hand, the mean score of the deans' leadership attitudes was 30.07 with a standard deviation of 8.39.

When the *t*-test was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between the leadership performances of the rectors and the deans in the eight sub-dimensions, there was a significant difference since the value was set at 0.05.

Table 4: Results of the Leadership and Management Attitudes of Rectors and Deans Holding Posts at Turkish Universities

Post	f	M	SD	t	LCP	Quality
Rector (Elected)	51	87.13	11.14	9.21	> 73	Leader
Dean (Assigned)	51	59.88	16.14		< 73	Administrator

*$p < 0.05$

As seen in Table 4, while the rectors' mean score was 87.13 and standard deviation was 11.14, the deans' mean score was 59.88 with a standard deviation of 16.14, according to LPC scale.

The rectors' mean score, which was greater than 73 on the LPC scale, is an indication of leadership qualities, while the deans' mean score, which was less than 73 on the LPC scale, is an indication of managerial qualities. The *t*-test revealed a significant difference between the leadership and managerial skills of rectors and deans, with the value set at 0.05.

Findings indicate that the elected rectors of the Turkish universities show more effective communication and leadership skills than the assigned deans. In this study, the dimensions of heightened leadership competencies included the following characteristics: pleasant, accepting, helpful, ambitious, relaxed, supportive, agreeable, and confident. The rectors were more optimistic than were the deans in every sub-dimension, as well as in the eight communication sub-dimensions. University rectors in Turkey acquire their positions through an elective process. The elected rectors, in turn, appoint the deans. Rectors, by exhibiting greater optimism and more effective use of their communication and leadership skills, are reflective of a return to democracy in Turkey universities.

Conclusion

Ongoing advancement in higher education is highly dependent upon the communication and leadership qualities of its administration. In the future, democratic elections of deans in Turkish universities may generate stronger, more effective leaders who have greater support from their constituents. In the interim, leadership in-service training for today's deans may increase their effectiveness (Bedeian, 2002; Birnbaum, 1992; Bright & Richards, 2001).

The results of the research study indicate several significant differences between the elected rectors and assigned deans at Turkish public universities.

- The rectors show leadership qualities and are effective, cooperative, and cheerful, and open in their communication skills. However, deans have uncooperative, ineffective, and boring communication skills more aligned with managerial qualities.
- While the rectors show helpful, supportive, ambitious, and confident leadership attitudes, the deans have a rejecting, non-ambitious, tense, hostile, and unconfident managerial profile.
- Based on the LPC scores, the rectors demonstrate leadership qualities with regard to communication skills and leadership attitudes. On the other hand, the deans' communication skills and leadership attitudes demonstrate managerial qualities.

The findings of the present research reflect Fiedler's (1972) situational approach to leadership. The administrators should demonstrate the leadership behaviors. In this situation, Fiedler's situational leadership model can be defined as an interactive model that takes into consideration the individual properties. This model was verified through the studies conducted on a variety of samples such as groups, administrative boards, managers in different levels and administrators of military task forces. Fiedler (1967, 1972) notes that the effectiveness of the leader is dependent on his or her environment—some leaders can be effective in an environment or organization, while others may not. In the present research study, the deans are the work-motivated leaders and are mostly interested in the work that needs to be handled. These kinds of leaders are the ones who give orders and are not interested in the thoughts or opinions of the subordinates. Rather, they are more focused on handling the work as soon as possible. On the other hand, the rectors, who have democratically been chosen, are relationship oriented and are quite opposite from the deans. These kinds of leaders put an emphasis on relations with other people. They emphasize supportive issues such as the collaboration of the workers and friendship. The work-oriented leader appears to be the authoritarian one, just as the relationship-

oriented leader appears to be the democratic one. Further qualitative studies could provide Turkish higher education with further insight into their leadership.

The LPC score has been interpreted as an indicator of a leader's motivational strengths. Overall, Fiedler's (1967) theory represents an ambitious and laudable effort to build a powerful contingency theory of leadership. Although interest has waned, the model demonstrates that a combination of situational and individual characteristics contribute to the leadership phenomenon. Fiedler's contingency model was the first, and, to date, the longest-lasting attempt to answer the question regarding what particular leadership style to use in what given situation (Hoy & Miskel, 2005).

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PRACTICE

Individual Differences: A Core Leadership Dimension[*]

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After a brief review of relevant literature, a practice-oriented framework is offered that focuses on the individual differences of leaders. The application of this framework is intended to help leverage a leader's unique and relevant profile of individual differences. The value of leveraging individual differences is discussed, and an application of the framework is presented. Some challenges presented by this approach to practitioners and researchers are also reviewed. This approach provides a way to develop and manage an individual difference-making profile to enhance leadership impact.

Key words: impacts, individual difference-making framework, individual differences, leader uniqueness, leadership

The investigation of how an individual's uniqueness may impact behavior and performance represents the scientific study of individual differences within the field of differential psychology (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012; Chernyshenko, Stark, & Drasgow, 2011). Two key determinants of individual differences are heredity and the environment. These two domains interact to impact the development and expression of individual differences. Over the years, when being studied and reviewed, major individual differences have been grouped into factors such as personality, cognitive abilities, and values. Traditionally, various factors have been investigated separately, but in practice, they are interconnected (Ackerman & Heggerstad, 1997; Webb & Lubinski, 2007). In the context of leadership and workplace performance, the analysis of individual differences typically focuses on a person's disposition, basic tendencies, and capabilities.

Ackerman and Humphreys (1990) offer ways to categorize individual differences by distinguishing between *intraindividual differences* (differences in a specific attribute or factor over time within the same individual) and *interindividual*

differences (differences between individuals). Practitioners and researchers can benefit from understanding these distinctions. Leadership development, for instance, is concerned with changes within an individual over time, or intraindividual differences (Muir, 2014). Alternatively, the study and practice of personnel selection focuses more on interindividual differences (Ryan & Sackett, 2012). Interindividual differences are frequently pooled and analyzed to generate data such as group norms.

Generally, the examination of individual differences has expanded beyond interindividual differences, with intraindividual differences receiving additional attention (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007). For example, Fleeson and Gallagher (2009) and Fleeson (2007, 2011) identify considerable within-person variability in behaviors associated with facets of personality. Judge, Simon, Hurst, and Kelley (2014) also encourage looking at intrapersonal aspects of individual differences since behavior at work seems to demonstrate both stability and variation within individuals. An individual's working self-concept or identity seems to be connected to a dynamic and multifaceted self-structure that likely influences behavioral variability (Anderson & Chen, 2002; Dinh & Lord, 2012; Lord & Brown, 2004; Walsh & Gordon, 2008).

The study of individual differences and leadership effectiveness spans more than a century (Terman, 1904). The earlier work looking to find the characteristics that separated effective from ineffective leaders yielded equivocal outcomes (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011). Recent investigations have called into question the need for a single or general trait of leadership that is robust across all settings (Fleeson, 2001, 2007; Judge et al., 2014; Larsson & Vinberg, 2010; Leikas, Lönnqvist, & Verkasalo, 2012). It appears that the interplay between leaders and situations is more variable than static (Kerns, in press; Klimoski, 2013).

With a few exceptions (Hoffman et al., 2011), the literature regarding individual differences and leadership lacks coherent frameworks to help systematically investigate the relation between individual characteristics and successful leadership. The practitioner is offered a rather fragmented selection of

conceptual frameworks (e.g., Bass, 1990; Day & Zaccaro, 2007; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000) to help identify individual differences. However, there is a paucity of practical frameworks and tools to help leaders conceptualize and operationalize their individual differences as a unique pool of personal resources.

The importance of the role that individual differences, especially the intrapersonal aspects, plays in managerial leadership has become increasingly apparent to the author through his consultations with organizational leaders, teaching of leadership to MBA students, and applied research relating to leadership effectiveness. It would be beneficial for practitioners to leverage their unique pattern of individual differences to enhance their effectiveness. Using a practice-oriented framework to look at within-leader uniqueness across relevant individual difference factors such as personality, behavioral preferences, and values can enhance managerial leader effectiveness. This approach contributes to our understanding of individual differences as they relate to leadership and adds to the evidence that individual differences influence leadership effectiveness (Antonakis et al., 2012; Hoffman et al., 2011; Judge & Long, 2012; While the debate comparing and contrasting management and leadership has been ongoing for more than 30 years, in this article, the term *managerial leadership* is used as a synonym for management and/or leadership.).

Practice-Oriented Framework

A practice-oriented framework that addresses individual differences will most likely contribute to enhancing organizational leaders' effectiveness. To this end, a framework addressing individual differences is offered below. As a threshold, when developing and applying frameworks and tools to enhance leadership excellence and organizational effectiveness, Kerns (in press) and Kerns and Ko (2014a) use the following set of criteria. Each framework and tool must:

- add value to an organization,
- have face validity for practitioners,
- be relevant to practitioners' daily work,

- be evidence-based in practice and/or research,

- be practical to implement in an organizational operating environment, and

- be coachable/teachable.

Consistent with the above criteria, the author has developed an integrated managerial leadership system.[1] Embedded within this system is an individual difference-making framework that distinguishes five phases. This individual difference-making framework has been applied in many settings, including work organizations, executive education classrooms, and applied research projects (Kerns & Ko, 2014b). The model draws from and is conceptually tied to relevant literature, including the work previously noted. The framework is practitioner friendly and conceptually connected to the study of individual differences and leadership. (This approach is in keeping with Locke's (2007) and Locke and Cooper's (2000) assertions that qualitative data obtained through various accessible sources, such as field observations, interviews, and other less quantitative methods of investigation, can legitimize an approach that is based on the synthesis and integration of real-world facts.)

The five phases illuminated in the framework are (a) recognizing individual differences and leader uniqueness; (b) targeting and assessing individual difference factors; (c) clarifying and crafting an individual difference-making profile; (d) integrating, adapting, and optimizing; (e) and monitoring and measuring impacts (see Figure 1). Each of the five phases are briefly reviewed on the next page.

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[1]This system of managerial leadership strives to provide practitioners, applied researchers, and teachers with an integrated approach to viewing and understanding leadership. The system brings together several streams of leadership study and research that have been offered over the past 100 years. A core dimension in this model relates to a leader's individual differences. As part of this dimension, a better understanding of managerial leader individual difference-making profiles can help advance the practice, study, and teaching of leadership. It is beyond the scope of the current presentation to review and discuss the other dimensions of this system.

Phase I	→	Phase II	→	Phase III	→	Phase IV	→	Phase V
Recognizing Individual Differences and Leader Uniqueness		Targeting and Assessing Individual Difference Factors		Clarifying and Crafting an Individual Difference-Making Profile		Integrating, Adapting, and Optimizing		Monitoring and Measuring Impacts
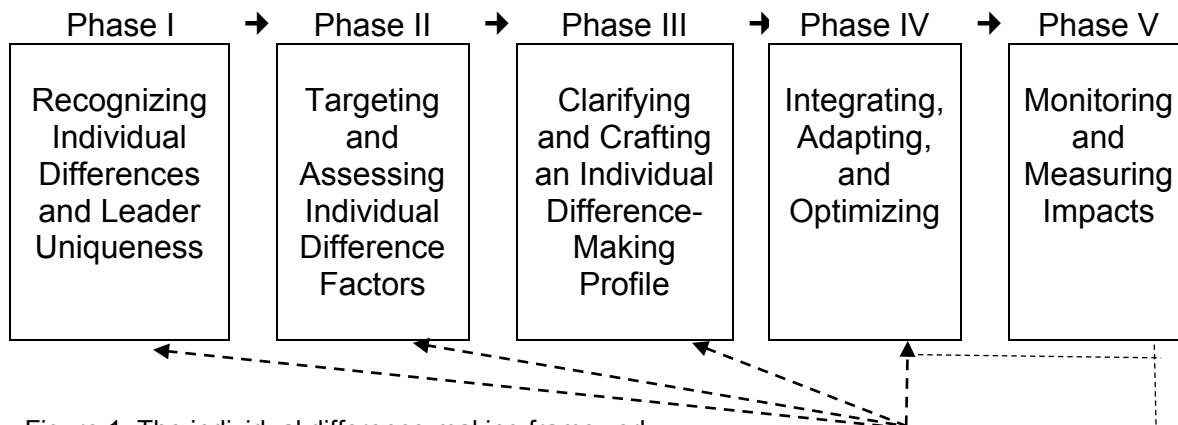
Figure 1. The individual difference-making framework
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Individual Difference-Making Framework

Phase I: Recognizing Individual Differences and Leader Uniqueness.
Helping the individual leader recognize and appreciate individual differences and how they relate to his or her uniqueness as a leader represents the first phase in the framework. Topics covered during this phase include (a) an understanding that there is no complete leader profile, (b) discovering a leader's pattern of relevant individual differences, and (c) a leader's authenticity.

Initially, it is important that leaders understand that there is no complete ideal leader profile that fits all situations. Rather than attempting to emulate a mythical ideal leader profile, leaders should focus on their uniqueness as a leader, learning more about who they are in relation to a set of relevant individual difference factors. Finally, authenticity is important for attaining success as a leader. *Authenticity* reflects a congruence between the leader's core identity (including elements of his individual difference-making profile) and how others see the leader's behavior. *Authenticity* also relates to how much a leader perceives that he expresses his core identity at work. Growing evidence suggesting incongruence between one's core identity and one's behavior at work, and/or incongruence between how one sees him- or herself at work and how others see him or her can adversely impact one's well-being and performance (Cable & Kay, 2012; Meister, Jehn, & Thatcher, 2014; Swann, Johnson, & Bossom, 2009). It seems that the alignment of a leader's self-views with the perceptions of others is important for an individual's increased

confidence and ability to control his surroundings (Swann, Rentfrow, & Guinn, 2003). Helping leaders recognize the importance of authenticity at work and striving for congruence between their self-perceptions and the perceptions of others concerning their unique pattern of individual difference factors is accomplished during this initial phase.

Phase II: Targeting and Assessing Individual Difference Factors. Based on a review of potential individual difference factors that affect a leader's performance, a relevant and appropriate set of factors is identified. Typically, a list of individual difference factors is presented to and discussed with the individual leader to determine which areas to assess and what assessment approach is most appropriate. Situational dynamics, especially surrounding the leader's current position, are reviewed to help in targeting factors. While there are a variety of factors to consider, the individual difference factors of personality, behavioral preferences (e.g., conflict management style), and character strengths are consistently included in the leader's assessment protocol. Assessment of the leader's individual difference factors, including a debriefing to clarify how the findings highlight the leader's uniqueness, is the final step in Phase II.

Phase III: Clarifying and Crafting an Individual Difference-Making Profile. After the assessments of Phase II are complete, a concise document, the individual difference-making profile, is crafted that references each factor assessed and includes one to five key actions and/or observations associated with each factor for the leader to consider utilizing in Phase IV. The individual difference-making profile is a behavior-oriented index of key actions and observations of what a leader can do to effectively utilize his or her unique individual differences identified during Phase II.

Phase IV: Integrating, Adapting, and Optimizing. The leader's individual difference-making profile is integrated into his or her current job description based on how the various factors relate to the leader's current work. As part of this process, an overall observation is made regarding how well the leader's individual difference-making profile matches the leader's current position, his or her boss's style and preferences, and the organization's operating environment.

Also, in an effort to optimize individual difference factors, the leader is asked to discuss how the actions and observations contained in his or her individual difference-making profile have impacted his or her performance in the past and present and how he or she expects them to affect his or her future effectiveness (Kerns, 2012). Special attention is given to excessive usage or underutilization of the individual difference-making factors and how they impact the leader's performance (Kaiser & Kaplan, 2005).

   Phase V: Monitoring and Measuring Impacts. In the last phase of the framework, the impact of the leader's individual difference-making profile on four key areas is considered. First, the leader is evaluated on how well he or she is performing in his or her current position (i.e., individual effectiveness). Second, the leader's contribution to the overall organization's goals and key results is reviewed, including the alignment between individual performance targets and organizational results. Third, the leader's perceived level of authenticity is considered, with particular attention given to how well his or her work is aligned with his or her core identity, including elements within the individual difference-making profile. Finally, the leader is asked to establish a brief career track plan that indicates key milestones and allows for regular monitoring of how well he or she is doing in maintaining a positive trajectory toward his or her career goals and aspirations.

The Value of Leveraging Individual Differences

The process of systematically helping a leader leverage his or her individual differences offers considerable benefits. Targeted individual difference factors should reflect potential areas of strength for a leader. Since applying one's strengths enhances engagement, one would expect leaders who apply their individual difference-making profiles to be more engaged in their work, which may likely foster engagement in others (Kerns, 2014b). Wiley (2010) convincingly connects an engaged workforce with leadership practices that enhance high performance in organizational settings. Using strategic employee surveys, Wiley shows the synergistic effect of performance excellence and employee

engagement. Robertson and Cooper (2011) also report clear links between well-being/happiness and engagement. Fieldwork and applied research in organizations facilitating managerial leaders in the application of their individual difference-making profiles support the connection between executing elements in their profiles and engagement (Kerns, 2014a).

Translating the recent research findings regarding the importance of intraindividual differences into practice is beneficial to practitioners (Judge et al., 2014). Giving more attention to the intraindividual differences of leaders will likely help executive coaches, mentors, and leaders focus more on a leader's potentially unique strengths as indexed in their individual difference-making profile. Another closely associated benefit to the increased focus on within-leader variability across key individual difference factors and situational circumstances is the increased awareness that there is no single universally complete leader profile. The recent work regarding intraindividual variability across situational contexts supports the perspective that a leader's individual difference-making profile is likely dynamically connected to situations (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Fleeson, 2007; Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009). This perspective offers hope and encouragement, especially to emerging leaders, that their unique pattern of individual differences can be matched with a complementary operating organizational environment. This connection between leader uniqueness, situational context, and effectiveness helps extend a leader's perspective and aspirations beyond the idea of emulating a nonexistent complete or perfect heroic leader profile.

The concept of *authenticity* applied to leadership is of growing interest to researchers and practitioners (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; George, 2003; George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007; Ibarra, 2015). The degree of alignment between a leader's "true self" or core identity and an organization's core identity likely impacts a leader's level of authenticity at work (Toor & Ofori, 2009; van den Bosch & Taris, 2013, 2014). A leader who is able to optimize his or her individual difference-making profile will also likely enhance his or her

authenticity as a leader. Recognizing one's set of relevant individual difference factors adds another piece to the puzzle relating to "who I am as leader."

Successfully managing one's individual difference-making profile can likely positively impact leader effectiveness. When leaders are able to optimize and integrate their uniqueness into the practice of leadership, they likely boost engagement and enhance their authenticity. Executives who have applied the approach offered in this article have observed improved performance and enhanced well-being for themselves and others (Kerns & Ko, 2010). While further support is needed, this is a promising prospect if leaders can enhance their effectiveness and that of others by developing and managing their individual difference-making profile.

Applying the Framework

To illustrate and assist in putting the five-phase framework into practice, the following real-life case is offered in the context of an executive coaching program by the author. William (an alias for confidentiality) is the president of an industrial manufacturing division within a large global organization. He has eight key reports, and he reports to the CEO of international industrial products. What follows is the application of the five-phase framework using an executive coaching approach to William's situation. This program was embedded in a broader strategic consulting program with William's entire division.

Phase I: Recognizing Individual Differences and Uniqueness. The executive coach oriented William to the overall five-phase approach and highlighted a number of key points and benefits that this process offered him.

- William would have increased awareness of the role individual differences play in leadership effectiveness and how each leader brings a unique pattern of factors to his or her leadership role. To orient William to the topic of leadership individual differences, he was presented with a list of key factors that are commonly used to study individual differences and leadership. The list included such factors as personality; values;

intelligence (cognitive ability); experience; and a number of behavioral preferences, including conflict management style.

- William was presented with the idea that research and practice have shown that there is no one complete or perfect leader profile. To reinforce this perspective, William engaged in an exchange about behavioral characteristics that he thought characterized most successful leaders. He and the executive coach then discussed situations where these attributes were effective and ineffective to underscore the connection between situational dynamics and leader effectiveness.

- The executive coach stressed the concept of learning to leverage and optimize your own unique pattern of individual difference-making factors. This is in contrast to having William strive to emulate some prescribed set of attributes or individual difference factors.

- In keeping with the recent and evolving literature on implicit leadership theories, William was asked to describe what he thought was an effective leader profile (Burnette, Pollack, & Hoyt, 2010; Keller, 1999; Shondrick, Dinh & Lord, 2010). This interaction served as a springboard for further conversation about learning to recognize and leverage one's unique pattern of relevant individual differences.

- The executive coach reviewed the concept of authenticity and how it impacts well-being and performance with William, emphasizing the relationship between knowing his core identity, including his individual difference-making profile, and acting in alignment with his "true self." William and the executive coach also discussed the importance of having congruence between one's core identity and one's organization's core identity (Harquall & Brickson, 2012; Ravasi & Phillips, 2011).

- The executive coach stressed the idea of striving to be one's personal best, which includes leveraging one's unique pattern of individual differences across a set of relevant factors (Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, & Quinn, 2005).

After reviewing the five phases, William was probed for his level of commitment for completing this process. His commitment level was high, and he was especially interested in linking this process to his individual effectiveness across the diverse set of situations he normally faced in his current leadership role.

Phase II: Targeting and Assessing Individual Difference Factors. William was asked to complete an Individual Differences–Leadership Factors Checklist, which included prioritizing the factors based on his perception of their relevance and importance to him as a leader. He also discussed his self-report observations from his assessment of how well he believes his "true self" is projected in his leadership; i.e., his self-perception of his leadership authenticity. In addition to the factors targeted for assessment as a result of William's review, the executive coach selected several factors that he typically uses as part of his individual difference-making assessment protocol for executive coaching clients. (While it is beyond the scope of this article to detail the professional assessment approach utilized in this evaluation, it is helpful to indicate that the Workplace Big Five Profile (Howard & Howard, 2001), the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (Thomas & Kilmann, 2007) and the VIA Strengths Inventory (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; see also www.viastrengths.org) were used as part of the assessment of individual difference factors that were appropriate and relevant to William's situation.)

Phase III: Clarifying and Crafting an Individual Difference-Making Profile. Upon completing Phase II, the executive coach prepared a list of key actions and observations gleaned from the assessments to review with William. As is typical, William had a variety of questions concerning some of the key actions and observations listed during this one-on-one review. For example, he was interested in knowing what was meant by "being discerning with your honesty," since one of his core character strengths is honesty. This question evoked a lengthy discussion about people's readiness to hear certain feedback and how it is sometimes best to withhold honest feedback until a more appropriate time.

In consultation with the executive coach, William identified a number of individual difference-making factors to include on his profile, and his difference-making profile was created. His top-five items were as follows:

1. Provide constructive honest feedback to key reports and withhold untimely observations proactively (relates to character strength of honesty gleaned from the VIA Strengths Inventory; Peterson & Seligman, 2004).

2. Continue to monitor extroverted behavior of strategically walking around to ensure that you are not overusing or employing this behavior in unfocused ways (relates to extraversion gleaned from the Workplace Big Five Profile; Howard & Howard, 2001).

3. Balance the tendency to compete and force your way with strategic accommodations in conflict situations. Use your competitive/forcing conflict mode to uphold and espouse organizational core values (relates to forcing/competing versus accommodating behavioral conflict preference gleaned from the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument; Thomas & Kilmann, 2007).

4. Keep projecting and practicing "just-right" levels of positivity across the organization (relates to positivity and optimism gleaned from the Workplace Big Five Profile; Howard & Howard, 2001).

5. Coach key reports to strive to align words with actions (relates to character strength of integrity and interest in others as measured by the VIA Strengths Inventory; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; and the Workplace Big Five Profile; Howard & Howard, 2001).

To complete this phase, these five items were combined with seven additional factors to form William's individual difference-making profile. This behavior-oriented index of actions and observations was displayed on a single page and used in Phase IV to help William leverage his individual difference-making profile.

Phase IV: Integrating, Adapting, and Optimizing. As part of a performance-management system, William and all other employees in his division had previously prepared a performance-based job description. This tool specified the

key results, key actions, people skills, and technical skills for which each employee was held accountable (Kerns, 2001).

As part of Phase IV, William integrated a number of his individual difference-making factors into the performance-based job description he had previously prepared. These adjustments were intended to help drive key results. For example, he added two additional items to his job description: "proactively point out occasions when employees act in alignment with core values" and "be discerning in providing honest direct feedback." These two action areas in particular helped strengthen William's actions associated with his key goal of increasing the number of happier high-performers in his division. After making these adjustments, he observed that his current position offered ample opportunities for him to execute elements of his individual difference-making profile.

William observed that the operating environment of his organization fit well with his profile and that his unique factors fit well with his boss's style and preferences. He did disclose, however, that his boss tended to be more critical and less positive and optimistic than he. Consequently, William needed to modulate his expression of positive perspectives, especially in situations where there was a need to have quantitative data to support a decision or recommendation. During the course of this executive coaching program, William indeed needed to adapt his behavioral tendency to be overly optimistic, especially when it related to considering longer-term strategic decisions. He found that these types of situations were best served when he projected positivity and optimism based on his consideration of appropriate business analytics.

Phase V: Monitoring and Measuring Impacts. William regularly monitored his performance relating to achieving the key results documented on his performance-based job description. Over the course of a one-year period, he made several behavioral adaptations through consultations with his boss and independently with his executive coach. As part of the organization's larger performance management system, William was held accountable for his

individual performance goals and those organizational goals aligned with his position.

In addition, William, as part of the executive coaching program, identified and worked toward achieving specific career goals and milestones. Annually, he assessed gaps between his projected positive career trajectory and his actual experience. As an ambitious and achievement-oriented executive, he consistently accomplished his career milestones, including meeting his targets for promotion and placement on strategic projects.

Some Challenging Issues

Leveraging managerial leaders' individual differences to enhance their effectiveness is not without challenges. To date, very little attention has been given to assessing and profiling individual difference-making factors among managerial leaders. Assessment approaches are needed for executives to identify and clarify their individual difference-making profiles. In addition to being psychometrically sound, these tools must present individual differences in ways that have face validity for business practitioners. Assessment tools that help index individual difference-making factors will likely advance practice and applied research relating to leveraging these unique factors to enhance effectiveness. Kerns and Ko (2014b) are currently exploring more integrated and practitioner-friendly approaches to helping leaders recognize and assess leadership-related individual differences.

Closely connected to the assessment issue is the need for a coherent conceptualization of individual differences related to leadership. Conceptual clarity would help guide managerial leaders' efforts to profile their unique sets of difference-making factors. Hoffman et al. (2011) remind us of how the study of individual characteristics of leaders has advanced in a relatively unsystematic way, leaving us with numerous unintegrated conceptual frameworks that broadly address the individual differences–leadership topic. Currently, there is a gap between researcher and practitioner on this topic. The current research described in this article attempts to provide a practitioner-oriented framework to

help bridge the gap between research and practice relating to leadership and individual differences.

Both researchers and practitioners are also challenged to more fully address the connection of leader individual differences to situational context (Kerns, in press; Liden & Antonakis, 2009). It would be useful to explore how various individual differences match specific operating environments. It is clear from fieldwork and executive coaching that individual difference factors seem to vary in impact across different organizational settings. This also highlights the need for a better understanding of how leader flexibility impacts effectiveness across situations. Applied researchers, as well as practitioners, are challenged to extend the work being done on leader flexibility (Bond, Flaxman, & Bunce, 2008; Bond, Lloyd, & Guenole, 2013; Good & Sharma, 2010; Kashdan & Rottenberg, 2010; White & Shullman, 2010) to find practical and useful ways to assess and manage this factor in workplace settings. Kerns and Ko (2014b) are currently collecting data from C-level executives to shed light on how managerial leaders view the role of behavioral flexibility in the execution of their responsibilities.

A mindset shift is also needed that moves the focus from thinking about leader individual differences as an interindividual phenomenon to a perspective that more fully considers the intraindividual aspects of leadership. This shift in focus will likely help shed more light on the uniqueness of individual leaders rather than seeing individual differences that fall outside of normative ranges as a measurement error. Especially in the context of executive coaching, having leaders focus on unique individual difference-making factors offers hope that they can leverage their unique differences for enhanced impact in a coaching or self-development context. This is in contrast to approaches that espouse a finite and defined set of individual factors that predict leadership success. Looking at leader individual differences from an intraindividual perspective will likely help provide positive focus on a leader's uniqueness rather than on whether the leader matches a specific prescribed profile.

Practitioners and applied researchers are also challenged to connect the concept of the individual difference-making profile to other streams of research

and leadership constructs. Linking leader individual difference-making profiles to managerial leadership engagement, best possible self-practices, and leader authenticity seems especially appropriate and useful. Wollard (2011), for example, offers evidence that disengagement has significant economic and psychological costs for individuals and organizations and calls for managerial leaders to explore a better understanding of the process and dynamics surrounding disengagement. It seems that helping managerial leaders apply their individual difference-making profiles at work may enhance their engagement levels and help them serve as positive role models for engagement.

The work of Roberts et al. (2005) concerning the development of one's best possible self, combined with the emerging research on authenticity at work, is relevant to the current effort. The current work relating to a leader's individual difference-making profile can likely be extended to more fully explore the connection it has to the emerging best possible self and authenticity literature (Sherman, Nave, & Funder, 2012; Toor & Ofori, 2009; van den Bosch & Taris, 2013, 2014; White & Shullman, 2010). Viewing individual difference-making profiles as a resource that helps leaders project their best possible self and true core identity (i.e., authentic self) seems important and worthy of future exploration.

Addressing the challenges of assessment, conceptual clarity, situational context, and other areas as noted will advance the development of leader individual difference-making profiles and related work. As more attention is given to this area, additional challenges for practitioners and opportunities for applied researchers will be forthcoming. This promising field of study can likely help leverage leader individual differences for enhanced individual, organizational, and career impacts.

Conclusion

The development and application of frameworks and tools to help managerial leaders leverage their individual differences will be beneficial to individuals, groups, and organizations. Using a systematic approach to help leaders focus on

their uniqueness, including their individual difference-making profile, will likely contribute to enhancing their positive impacts on key outcomes. As this work progresses, there will be a need for practical assessment approaches supported by conceptual clarity that will include a better understanding of how situations and specific individual difference factors interact to influence results. Leader flexibility is a factor that is worthy of further investigation and is likely important to leader effectiveness across diverse organizational situations. Leveraging the leadership core dimension of individual differences to help leaders positively impact their personal and organizational effectiveness is a laudable and important endeavor.

The specific framework offered here helps bridge the gap between theoretical formulation, empirical research, and practice. It is important that academic perspectives and practitioners' work find ways to come together to enhance leadership effectiveness. The work to bridge research with practice is important to help reduce the base rate of managerial leadership ineffectiveness and/or incompetence. Alarmingly, studies indicate that ineffective managerial leadership exceeds 50 percent across organizational settings, yet annual spending on formal training and development for leaders is about $14 billion (Gentry & Chappelow, 2009; Hogan, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2011; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013). Managerial leader effectiveness can be enhanced by offering practitioners practice-oriented frameworks and tools based on evidence gleaned from practice and/or research. The current article offers a framework and application example to help managerial leaders develop and apply an individual difference-making profile. This process will help leaders acquire a better understanding of who they are in relation to a set of relevant leadership individual difference factors. This, in turn, will likely contribute to their effectiveness as a leader.

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RESEARCH NOTE

Female Leaders, Communication, and the Securities Industry[*]

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The aim of this research note was to investigate how female leaders in the securities industry use communication to overcome masculine norms. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with female leaders in the industry to investigate how they use communication to not only survive in the securities industry, but also to thrive in it. Two specific, yet interrelated, findings were identified. Every female leader interviewed demonstrated an enhanced ability to develop and convey succinct messages that are tailored to the audience. Irrefutably, all 11 of the female leaders interviewed for the current project have adopted the same unique communication competency—one that is unlike traditional communication models. The research findings make a twofold contribution to the literature. First, they explore the consequences of gender in everyday work-life interactions. Second, they illuminate how certain women have handled institutionalized structures within the industry to reach the top of their profession.

Key words: communication, competency, female leaders, interaction, securities

The issues surrounding gender are a defining feature of the postmodern world, as they transcend many aspects of human behavior. As in other aspects of the built-up human world, the role of gender is a topic of interest for organizational scholars. This interest has grown significantly over the past 50 years as women's status in corporate America has improved, albeit slowly (Carli & Eagly, 2001). For instance, more women are assuming leadership positions within all types of organizations (Jacobson, Palus, & Bowling, 2010), yet these positions are not often in the executive suite (Buckalew, Konstantinopoulos, Russell, & El-Sherbini, 2012). This lack of representation certainly hinders research in the area of women as organizational leaders, as it is often focused on the glass ceiling (Lämsä & Sintonen, 2001).

Women are underrepresented as leaders in the securities industry (i.e., securities firms, banks, and asset management companies). In many ways, the

securities industry stands alone because of its profound impact on the world's economy. But the securities industry is also atypical because of a tightly held secret—there is an outright gender bias that exists within many securities organizations. As Roth (2004b) explains, gender discrimination produces different results for similarly qualified men and women. So even though the industry is vastly different from many others, there has been scant academic attention given to women who have risen to the top of the securities industry (Roth, 2004a, 2004b, 2006).

Communication is not only the backbone of male-dominated ideologies; it is also the means to hegemony (Mumby, 1993). Given that communication is a fundamental aspect of leadership, and male and female leaders have been found to have different communicative styles (Kabacoff, 1998; Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007), it is only right to wonder about the communicative practices of female leaders in the securities industry. Indeed, we can presuppose that female leaders have used communication as a tool to fulfill their corporate climb. However, there is no communication research in the context of the securities industry, let alone how it has been used successfully by certain female leaders. The purpose of this research note is to explore communication as a possible factor for overcoming masculine norms and the rise to prominence of female leaders in the security industry.

Literature Review

More than 60 years ago, while studying the advantages of participative management and democratic leadership, Argyris (1953, 1955) initiated a very interesting discussion about leadership competencies. He found that during budgeting, and particularly cost-cutting times, there were several important necessary characteristics for an effective leader, including communication. From that point, many researchers began to study the role of communication in leadership. These studies cover myriad contexts, methods, and theoretical approaches. One of the most popular areas of study centers on the differences between male and female leaders. Moreover, most studies on female leader

communication are nestled within feminist theory, which falls under critical theory. Here, organizations are a context for the struggle between competing systems that are based on dominant ideologies (Mumby, 1993). The reason for this perspective is that even though some modest gains have been made, women are still suppressed by gender bias. Feminist theory provides a framework for studying how women become leaders in traditionally male-dominated industries such as the securities industry (Turco, 2010).

The securities industry is a notoriously results-oriented culture. It is often likened to a big men's club (Roth, 2004a). According to Roth (2006), women entered the financial industry in the mid-1970s and immediately faced blatant discrimination. These women pioneers were forced to take lower-paying administrative positions such as a secretary or clerk, as well as to assume the role of sex object. Beyond this, the high-commitment work system of the industry punished the work-life balance of the new employees (Osterman, 1994). Thus, the industry created and maintained a culture based on male norms (Blair-Loy, 1999).

Against great odds, some groundbreaking women produced a "market feminism" that aligned with feminist ideals in the 1970s and 1980s (Fisher, 2012). They worked to deconstruct many of the structures that suppressed women. Indeed, since the entrance of women into the securities industry, the number of female leaders has steadily increased. According to Vasquez (2011), within the top 50 commercial banks in 2010, 17% of the executive positions were held by women, a 5% increase from 2004. As the overall number of women in this industry has decreased over the past decade, this means that those women in leadership positions have successfully negotiated a notoriously male-dominated industry. What makes the rise of female leaders in this industry even more impressive is that outright discrimination against women remains prominent. In the early 2000s, women were winning class-action lawsuits for discrimination against major financial institutions such as Citigroup's Smith Barney (now part of Morgan Stanley), Merrill Lynch, and Morgan Stanley. Therefore, even though

some strides have been made by women in the past 40 years, the securities industry still remains firmly rooted in male ideals and gender inequity.

Though there are many means of advancing in the securities industry, such as the possession of specialized skills and tokenism (Roth, 2004a), there has never been a discussion of the role communication plays in how women have risen through the industry. Communication is one way to overcome fixed representations (Mumby, 1996), but there is very little known about how female leaders in the securities industry use communication to overcome the dominant ideology. Thus, the feminist perspective provides a way to research the male-dominated and controlled context of the securities industry. To that end, the research question in this brief note is:

Research Question: How do women female leaders in the security industry use communication to overcome masculine norms?

Answers to the research question will provide women with a better understanding of the importance of communication in the securities industry. Mentor programs for female leaders in the securities industry are almost nonexistent, or if they do exist, they are in their nascent stages. Therefore, this research will offer female leaders, and women striving to be leaders, an outlet in which to speak about personal experiences and problems in an industry that values secrecy.

Method

Semi-structured interviews were used to unearth the communication practices of female leaders in this study. While a randomized response technique (e.g., Fidler & Kleinknecht, 1977) is optimal when dealing with sensitive information, the current study followed a qualitative path used in the limited previous studies of female leaders in the securities industry (Roth, 2004a, 2004b, 2006; Luyendijk, 2011; Turco, 2010). The researcher built a rapport with the leaders and employed the snowball technique to identify potential subjects.

In total, 11 female leaders from Fortune 500 companies, with an average of 20 years in the securities industry, participated in the study. Each leader holds

the position of managing director or above and was responsible for 20 to more than 1,500 employees in departments ranging from operations to capital markets to position trading. The interview protocol, which averaged approximately 40 minutes per subject, included five touring questions.

- What is your background?
- What do you do?
- Describe one positive and negative thing about your work.
- How do you define communication?
- Give one example of communication in your everyday work life.

The confidentiality of respondents was ensured in two ways, The recordings were stored on a password-protected hard drive, and the audio and text files generated for the study were identified by code and pseudonyms so that the actual names and places associated with the interviews were effectively disguised.

  After the interviews were transcribed, the data was coded for a variety of communicative information, including the natural grounds of communication, the types of communicative moves used, and the instruments employed during communication. The interviews also elicited each leader's personal definition of communication, what they found difficult about communication, what they felt defined effective communication, and how they used communication during interactions. The idea was to uncover how each leader used communication in her organizational life and the importance of communication in her ability to thrive in the securities industry.

Results

Two specific, yet interrelated, findings were identified. First, every leader interviewed demonstrated an enhanced ability to develop and convey succinct messages that are tailored to the audience. These leaders recognized that institutionalized communication approaches do not account for a balance between audience and message. Second, these leaders have adapted their communication competencies in a way that enables them to overcome certain

pitfalls within male-dominated industries and consequently, rise to the top of their professions.

Tailoring Message to Audience

Too often, communication is viewed as a sender-oriented behavior, wherein individuals create messages they believe clearly convey their ideas so that others can understand them. However, the female leaders in this study have adopted a receiver-oriented model that emphasizes the needs of the audience. In their view, communication is about the audience first. For example, when asked to describe the most important factor of communication, the leaders interviewed gave answers such as:

- "tailoring to the audience,"
- "above all else, consider what the audience needs to know," and
- "I am centered and focused on being in the moment . . . so I plan and think about who I am communicating with, what their situation is, what is going on with them."

These female leaders actively work to know and understand their audiences, particularly when they interact with men. Each leader explained that before an encounter, she asks herself a series of questions about the audience, such as its background, the pressures encountering its members, and the major desired outcomes of that encounter.

   The importance of this finding lies in how the receiver-oriented model is juxtaposed to the sender-oriented model. The receiver-oriented model is based on audience factors and not the leader's predispositions or beliefs about how the communication should be conveyed. This allows leaders to make allowances and adjustments based on the audience's frame of reference. As one leader stated, "I understand male DNA . . . so I work to tailor communication to that understanding." The most senior interviewee offered the most telling response: "Knowledge of each person's background is important, particularly when you are in this type of environment . . . where there is such a difference between the genders."

Direct Communication

The receiver-oriented model does not mean that the leaders interviewed have abandoned the instrumental aspects of communication, i.e., communication as a way to transmit intended meaning accurately and effectively. After determining the audience's needs, these leaders succinctly package content so that it enables the accomplishment of tasks related to their goals. For example, when asked what leaders should do when communicating, the interviewees advised the following:

- "Never take up too much time communicating, but always get your point across."
- "Brevity is key."
- "Reduce it to its simplest [form]."
- "If something is going to take longer than a screen, the e-mail is too long."

This finding is important. These female leaders are balancing the audience's needs with their own need to transmit information. In the end, any messages relating to essential department and organizational activities are communicated directly and succinctly.

The leaders interviewed for this study have adopted the same unique communication competency. What is more interesting about their shared approach is that they understand the importance of communication as a tool for management in general and their success in particular. Some of the statements that emerged from questions about the leader's overall individual style support this:

- "I have developed a unique style of communication that is 100-percent me. But I had to train myself."
- "I never 'wing' it; instead, my messages and stories are believable because of practice, practice, practice."

Finally, there are the words of a managing director from one of the larger U.S. commercial banks, who stated: "It is very important to train ourselves to know what you are going to say. Be prepared."

Discussion

According to Flax (1987), the study of gender relations entails at least two levels of analysis: (a) gender as a thought construct or category that helps us to make sense out of particular social worlds and histories and (b) gender as a social relation that enters into and partially constitutes all other social relations and activities. Here, gender is viewed as the way in which the social world of the securities industry is constructed. Typically, the world does not play out in the favor of females. Yet women who rise to be leaders use communication to shape the social world in a way that breaks constructed norms; moreover, they break them to a degree that they not only survive in the industry, but thrive in it.

As Canary and Hause (1993) explain, research has produced an inconsistent picture of gender differences in leadership communication. It typically investigates how "language creates gendered relationships" (Buzzanell, 1994, 342), but it can also be used to break ideologies. These leaders have developed a type of communication competency—one that is based on delicately balancing both the needs of the receiver and the needs of the sender. A skill of this nature is generally considered to be feminine; therefore, these women are succeeding because of, not in spite of, their difference (Rosener, 1990). In other words, these leaders do not ask how they can communicate more like men, but instead seek to exploit their differences, which has been beneficial to them in their rise through a gender-biased industry.

As Kanungo and Misra (1992) explain, *competency* is the ability to deal with uncertainty in the environment and is transferable across a wide array of situations. *Communication competency* is the expertise and proficiency in crafting communication (i.e., speeches, appearances, letters, partnerships, and plans; Ziek, 2014). Thus, many researchers have attempted to describe the communication competencies that leaders need to capitalize on opportunities within any environment. This literature discusses how communication is a skill that can be developed and honed to benefit leaders and organizations. The work on communication competencies offers typologies of successful leadership skills

that are transferrable across a wide array of situations. It also suggests ways of improving leadership communication competency.

Barge and Hirokawa (1989) believe that trait, style, situational, and functional leadership approaches pose barriers to increasing the understanding of the relationship between leadership and group performance. Therefore, they propose an alternative conceptualization of leadership based on communication competencies. Their approach is based on three general assumptions about leadership: (a) leadership involves action that assists a group in goal achievement; (b) the exercise of leadership occurs through interaction and communication; and (c) communication skills, or competencies, represent the principal means by which individuals exercise leadership. Their approach hypothesizes that the performance of situational communication competencies (nature of the task, group climate, and/or role relationships) and goals communication competencies (task or relational) is related to group performance. Their approach provides a categorization of various communication competencies that allow leadership to be an effective medium between the situation and the organizing process of the group.

Using industry examples, theory, and interviews as a basis, Griffith (2002) proposes a model of communication competency for international relationship development. For him, communication competency encompasses three broad dimensions: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. *Cognitive* refers to the ability to ascertain meaning from verbal and nonverbal language, *affective* relates to an individual's emotional tendencies in relation to communication, and *behavioral* denotes an individual's flexibility and resourcefulness in reacting to encounters (see also Kim, 1991). This competency-based performance system is meant to provide skill development in these areas, which Griffith argues will increase leader's effectiveness in building and maintaining fruitful international business relationships.

Mai and Akerson (2003) take a slightly different approach to communication competency. They contend that leaders with proficiency in playing a set of specific communication roles can shape employees behavior, encourage a

workplace characterized by social trust, and develop an organization that is flexible and quick to take advantage of opportunity. The goal-driven model defines each communication role by the service it renders to the organization. The roles include the leader as community developer, navigator, and renewal champion. Mai and Akerson also believe that each role can be learned by leaders at all levels from the CEO to the ad hoc team leader. To aid this development, they offer audits for assessing strengths and weaknesses as well as guidelines for personal development.

In an attempt to describe more basic tips, Booher (2007) illustrates 10 strategies every leader needs to know to be a good communicator:

- Is it correct?
- Is it complete? Is it clear?
- Is it purposefully unclear?
- Is it consistent?
- Are you credible?
- Are you concerned and connected?
- Is it current?
- Does your communication make you look competent?
- Is it circular?

According to Booher, each of these is a practical strategy for successfully getting through to people despite feelings and situations. The point of Booher's work is to provide a guide for leaders; she explains that mastering these 10 strategies will help leaders navigate today's tenuous environment.

Finally, Ruben's (2005) Leadership Competencies Score Inventory (LCSI) is a scorecard that provides the major themes in leadership communication: credibility and charisma; influence and persuasion; interpersonal and group orientation; listening, attention, and question-asking; public speaking; written and visual presentation and debate; diversity and intercultural orientation; and role modeling. In the scorecard, each theme is accompanied by Likert scales to help individuals assess their leadership communication competency. The overall point

is that the scorecard "functions as a helpful tool for planning, developing, and implementing a leader's development" (3).

These competency models show a wide variety of ways that leaders can communicate effectively, all of which can be used assess strengths and weaknesses. This study is an extension of the research on leadership communication competency. It shows that communication competency can be context specific (i.e., Ziek, 2011; Ziek & Smulowitz, 2012). There is no unitary set of values and assumptions that dominates leadership communication—it truly has many alternatives (Clarke, 2014). The alternative here is how leaders can develop competencies tailored to the needs of an explicit and finite environment. Moreover, because leadership communication is the primary building block for organizational relationships and, therefore, culture, differences can have a lasting impact on members' behavior within an organization. In the case of the female leaders in this study, we learn that their tactics can produce stronger and more meaningful relationships with their coworkers. Consequently, organizational culture relative to these leaders will move from a hierarchy or market-based culture to a more open, humble, accountable, and personally responsible one.

An obvious limitation to this study is its sample size. However, this limitation is balanced by two important factors. One, there are not many female leaders in the securities industry, and those female leaders who participated in the study were managing directors and other senior level leaders, which further limits their cohort. In other words, leader can mean many things and include many titles, but a managing director has both assigned responsibilities and emergent assumed responsibility for a company, organization, or corporate division. Second, the guarded nature of the women in this industry makes it extremely difficult to get them to share their personal experiences and self-reflections out of fear of communication leaks, which can lead to serious repercussions.

Conclusion

The securities industry is based on a male ideology of commitment to power and influence. This system of ideas has hindered the ascension of women to top

leadership positions. Although great strides have been made by many women in recent times, the number of female leaders is still strikingly limited. This means that those that women who currently hold certain positions have a certain set of skills required to succeed. One important question remains: What are those skills? The current study investigated one of the possible factors—communication—and found that female leaders in the positions of managing director and other senior level leadership positions have developed a specific type of communication competency. Every leader interviewed demonstrates an enhanced ability to develop and convey succinct messages that are tailored to the audience. These female leaders also recognize that institutionalized communication approaches often do not consider communication as a balance between audience and message. Clearly, increasing the sample size will add to our understanding of this phenomenon. That said, this study offers one way that women in the securities industry can not only survive, but flourish.

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that could otherwise assist an organization in responding to environmental changes.

Learning organizations that encourage and use the collective identity of their group members are essential to an organization's growth and success and are a key construct of learning organizations. In contrast to groupthink, learning organizations establish those constructs that foster a learning environment. Employees are encouraged to provide ideas that challenge the status quo. Senge (2006) argues that a learning organization must provide an environment that fosters inquiry and dialogue that makes it safe for people to openly share their ideas and take risks.

Overview of Groupthink

Groupthink, as previously mentioned, refers to the negative consequences that occur when significant pressures to conform to group norms exist. Janis (1972), who coined the term, identified the phenomenon as an excessive form of concurrence-seeking among members of high prestige, tightly knit groups. According to Janis, groupthink is "a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members' strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action" (p. 9). Groupthink is most likely to occur when a group is cohesive, when it is insulated from outside opinions, and when the leader is directive and makes his or her opinions known.

Janis (1972) identified eight symptoms of groupthink that are grouped into three categories. The first category, an overestimation of the group, includes two symptoms: (a) an illusion of invulnerability and (b) a belief in the inherent morality of the group. The second category, closed-mindedness, includes two symptoms: (a) collective rationalization and (b) stereotyped views of outgroups. The third category, pressures toward uniformity, includes four symptoms: (a) self-censorship,

and developing them for the enrichment of the organization. When individuals feel that they do not have a safe environment to share their ideas, they are less likely to provide constructive input. Janis (1982) mirrors Ellis and Fisher's thoughts. However, Janis goes further and defines *groupthink* as a social psychology concept that develops as a group's strong desire to reach an agreement, along with its need to obtain a group consensus, overrides the group's ability to make the most appropriate decisions.

In stark contrast, a learning organization philosophy is quite different than that of groupthink. When discussing learning organizations, Rowden (2001) states: "They foster inquiry and dialogue, making it safe for people to share openly and take risks. They embrace creative tension as a source of energy and renewal" (12). In a learning organizational environment, employees are encouraged to provide ideas that challenge the status quo, whereas groupthink stifles creativity. Individuals with different backgrounds, experiences, and ideas may provide for greater organizational success if a safe environment to share their ideas exists. The changing nature of organizations requires leaders to develop models that transform their businesses into learning organizations. Such organizational transformations require the establishment of learning cultures (Teare & Dealtry, 1998). Teare and Dealtry argue that "learning effectiveness is dependent on the environment for learning and the efforts of organizational leaders and managers in creating, sustaining, and encouraging the appropriate conditions for learning" (50). Therefore, we can posit that leaders who allow groupthink to permeate the culture of the organization may in turn hinder organizational change. Turner and Pratkanis (1998) note that *groupthink* remains an elusive concept that is often defined as "both collective avoidance and collective optimism" (212). Using the social identity maintenance (SIM) perspective, Turner and Pratkanis argue that groupthink is a way for groups to protect their collective identity. Therefore, under the SIM concept, groupthink is a process that ensures concurrence and acceptance among members. Some may view Turner and Pratkanis's perspective as limited, thereby understating the detrimental impact of groupthink to organizations. Though group collective identity is a key construct for learning

organizations, those organizations must also provide for a safe environment to share ideas. If a group has a collective identity that holds the constructs of a learning organization, there may be less of a problem. However, when groups use coercion and inhibit growth and development, it cannot be seen as a productive construct to employ within an organization.

The ill effects of groupthink cannot be any clearer than those realized in the *Columbia* space shuttle disaster of February 1, 2003, when *Columbia* disintegrated over Texas and Louisiana as it reentered Earth's atmosphere, killing all seven crew members. The investigation and report by the Columbia Accident Investigation Board (2003) cites the culture at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), best described as a groupthink culture, as a major contributor in the *Columbia* explosion, equaling that of the foam insulation that struck and damaged the wing during the launch. In its report, the board presents "its view that NASA s organizational culture had as much to do with this accident as foam did" (12). The board suggests that the shuttle disaster may have been avoided if the organizational behaviors of NASA were aligned with those of a learning organization. The board notes the need for NASA to embrace a learning organization construct, stating:

> The Board concludes that NASA s current organization does not provide
> effective checks and balances, does not have an independent safety program,
> and has not demonstrated the characteristics of a learning organization.
> Chapter 7 provides recommendations for adjustments in organizational culture.
> (12)

Through experimental research, O'Leary and Pangemanan (2007) found that while group work enhances teamwork, it may not be an effective means of producing the optimal decision in all subject matter areas, especially complex areas such as ethical decision making. Specifically, the researchers found that individuals displayed stronger tendencies to take extreme actions in cases of unethical behavior (i.e., whistleblowing), whereas groups displayed stronger tendencies to take safer, more neutral actions.

In conclusion, organizational leaders must try to avoid the phenomenon known as groupthink. The detrimental effects of groupthink may cause organizational

leaders to make inappropriate or uninformed decisions. Whyman and Ginnett (2005) argue that those of us in the United States may be more susceptible to the groupthink phenomenon. They argue that the democratic mindset of "the majority rules" may be engrained in our psyche. Whyman and Ginnett believe this mindset may lead Americans to become more accepting of group decisions based upon the majority's declaration and that those in the minority may use that democratic principle to rationalize their lack of pushback. Many people find engaging in conflict uncomfortable. Some individuals would rather avoid disagreements than say something that may draw them into a conflict. Whyman and Ginnett note that leaders can help their organizations avoid groupthink by acting in a proactive manner. The researchers suggest that leaders should engage employees and ask probing questions to understand their true positions. This does not have to be done in a forceful way, but may be done in a considerate and understanding way in order to make each employee feel comfortable within a learning environment. Organizational leaders should seek to create a learning organization, one that fosters inquiry and dialogue, making it safe for people to share openly and take risks. Additionally, leaders should embrace creative tension as a source of energy and renewal for greater organizational effectiveness (Rowden, 2001).

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league, the book leaves no stone unturned. These stories provide a detailed illustration of why sound organizational leadership is a prerequisite for success in any field. For example, Belichick explains the importance of "coordinating the message" (p. 37) to his staff so that everyone not only speaks the same language, but also understands the defining characteristics that constitute a "Patriot-type player" (p. 38). As a result, the entire organization, from top to bottom, will always be on the same page when identifying the type of players they want on the field representing their franchise.

Along with coordinating the message, Belichick's message to his staff also focuses on the importance of accountability and respect. The phrase "Do your job" (p. 39) is of paramount importance in the Patriots' locker room. For Belichick, this means that every player and coach needs to be reliable and perform his role to the best of his ability in order to experience success on game day. This simple three-word mantra speaks volumes to the entire organization and leaves no room for error. There is no gray area when it comes to doing your job. When everyone does his job to the best of his ability, the team functions as one cohesive unit, and this often leads to positive outcomes. A disciplined and systematic approach to leadership is a defining characteristic of the Patriot Way.

In addition to well-articulated messages that define the organization's mission, Holley also provides the reader with a tangible example of how far the Patriots are willing to go to live out their mission of winning the right way. Holley recalls a time when Belichick was willing to cut a talented veteran player named Lawyer Milloy because his brash personality did not represent the culture the Patriots were trying to build. Even though Milloy was one of the team's better players, his attitude did not align with the "Patriot Way," and, as a result, he became expendable. Although this may appear to be a harsh decision, it exemplifies the type of discipline and accountability to which the entire organization is held. No single player is bigger than the organization itself. This is an important lesson that can be applied to any organization. Leaders must make difficult decisions that prioritize the well-being and culture of the organization over the individual talents of any one person.

league, Holley orchestrates the perfect balance between Bill Belichick's innovative football intellect and his surreptitious leadership traits that only a few in his inner circle have the privilege to experience firsthand. Belichick's leadership and command of his program begins instantaneously through the implementation of a rigorous, but flexible, drafting system that took over a decade to create; surrounding himself with a plethora of front-office power and wit; meticulously building a faster and stronger team; and most importantly, having luck on his side with the selection of Tom Brady—"the best and luckiest pick of Belichick's first draft class in 2000" (34).

Nonetheless, Holley often comes across as an apologist rather than an unbiased journalist. The "Spygate" cheating incident is nonchalantly portrayed, offering only watered-down facts relating to the $500,000 maximum fine to Belichick, the $250,000 fine to the New England Patriots bankrolled by a billionaire owner, and the loss of a 2008 first-round pick from the superstar-studded defending American Football Conference (AFC) champions. Then, taking a page out of the football guru's playbook, he calls a pre-snap audible that would make Tom Brady blush by using "Spygate" as a rallying cry for the Patriots' 2007 season. He suggests that a few midseason blowouts, combined with record-breaking regular-season stats, will prove to the football nation that previous Super Bowl victories were won because of elite talent and Nostradamus-like game plans.

Belichick ranks as one of the greatest coaches and leaders in the history of the NFL. According to John Kotter, as quoted by Rao (2006), "leaders establish the vision for the future and set the strategy for getting there; they cause change. They motivate and inspire others to go in the right direction and they, along with everyone else, sacrifice to get there" (12) Whether in business; academia; politics; or, in this case, sports, leadership exists in all shapes and forms, and so does its definition. For example, Drucker (1996) says that "the only definition of a leader is someone who has followers" (xii). According to Maxwell (2007), "the true measure of leadership is influence—nothing more, nothing less" (11). Finally, Cribbin (1981) believes that "leadership is an influence process that

enable managers to get their people to do willingly what must be done, do well what ought to be done" (13). From the moment Belichick took over as the head coach of the Cleveland Browns, he had a vision. Holley writes:

> The easiest part of the plan was that the architect knew what he wanted. He told Mike Lombardi, his player personnel director, that he envisioned a big, strong, fast team that was capable of performing in any weather. He wanted a team that wouldn't be distracted by playing at least ten Rust Belt games each season. . . . He wanted a team that could answer the no-nonsense, gladiatorial style of the Steelers one week and then go to Houston, another divisional rival, a week later and not be confused by the unusual formations. (2)

When Belichick took over as the head coach for the Patriots, Holley notes that "many people in the organization, from players to coaches to scouts, wouldn't be able to adjust to the cultural makeover, either. For many of them, the problem would be simple: They believed in things that Belichick didn't" (24). Like many great leaders before him, Belichick relentlessly tries to perfect his craft while constantly molding and adapting his personnel to the ever-changing industry standard. He has the undeniable ability to lead and influence his players and coaches to buy into his team-first mindset. Whether it was starting a younger linebacker, Ted Bruschi, over an aging, fan-favorite veteran or cutting starting players after a Super Bowl win because their production was on a decline, Belichick believes that all personnel are shareholders with a specific, yet important, job to perform.

In addition to his on-the-field accomplishments, Belichick influenced and developed seven NFL head coaches: Romeo Crennel, Eric Mangini, Josh McDaniels, Nick Saban, Jim Schwartz, Bill O'Brien, and Al Groh. He also mentored five NFL general managers: Thomas Dimitroff, Scott Pioli, Ozzie Newsome, Mike Tannenbaum, and Phil Savage.

Although Belichick delivers monotone and deliberately vague answers during press conferences, his leadership traits are on full display every week during the NFL season. With a résumé that boasts 3 Super Bowl victories, 11 division titles, and a 72-percent winning percentage in the regular season, his success on the field is a tribute to the leadership he instills behind the scenes. A successful leader creates a vision, empowers his staff to offer advice and make decisions,

evaluates and implements changes to stay ahead of the competition, and motivates everyone around him to perform at their highest potential. Bill Belichick's success on and off the field confirms that he is one of the greatest coaches and leaders in the history of the NFL.

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