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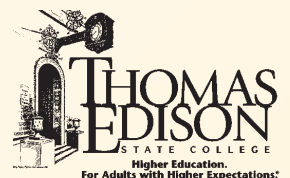
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From the Editor

October 2011

Welcome to this 10th issue of the *International Leadership Journal*. This issue contains three articles, one leadership education and development piece, one research note, and one pedagogy piece.

Two of the articles focus on leadership through the creation of successful teams. Rohm looks at what it takes to develop and motivate virtual cross-cultural teams and finds that trust and relationship building are important themes. Essawi and Tilchin suggest an approach for organizing collaboration in adaptive leadership that results in adaptable teams in which collaboration is stimulated and facilitated to create needed changes within an organization.

In the third article, Ward and Hanson explore gender differences in the transformational leadership styles of school leaders in Singaporean schools to see if there will be an impact on the government's move toward a new education approach that promotes innovation and creativity.

The leadership education and development piece by Shepherd shares the results of an introductory activity on the qualities of good leaders to gauge prior learning in an educational leadership course.

For the research note, Cavelzani reports the results of a case study of the dysfunctional management that results when a leader is emotionally absent, while Ives, DiPillo, and Lynch share the global competencies needed by students and workers to prepare them for today's global marketplace in the final pedagogy piece.

We are currently seeking submissions for the future issues; please see our call for papers on the following page.

Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Santora', with a stylized flourish extending to the right.

Editor

Call for Papers

The International Leadership Journal (ISSN: 1944-7426), an online, peer-reviewed journal, is a publication of the School of Business and Management of Thomas Edison State College, Trenton, New Jersey.

ILJ seeks submissions in the following categories:

- Research
- Practice
- Education/Development
- Reviews
- Notes
- Dialogue

Submissions should be theoretically-based articles that are readable by, and accessible to, a broad audience; that demonstrate rigorous research methods (quantitative or qualitative) while remaining open to readers from both academic and non-academic settings; and that offer original contributions to the development of knowledge in the areas of leadership and organizations. Submissions that include different national, cultural, or international perspectives, that introduce bold new ways of understanding leadership or organizations, and that have implications for leadership practice are especially appreciated. Articles that use interdisciplinary approaches are encouraged, though articles within any of the following disciplines will be considered:

- Leadership theory/research
- Organization theory/research/development
- Business/management
- Psychology
- Social psychology
- Sociology
- Political science

In addition, the journal remains open to bold, innovative research that draws from the humanities, the arts, and the natural sciences that promote new ways of understanding phenomena often associated with leadership and organizations—vision, imagination, symbolic thinking, ambiguity, ethics, creativity, values, culture, and social interaction.

Finally too, the journal encourages research articles that focus on formal organizations in a variety of sectors as the context, but it will also consider articles that focus on informal social networks, social movements, social activism, and other contexts wherein leadership may be demonstrated. Consideration of international contexts and situations is encouraged.

Please see the Web site at www.tesc.edu/5947.php for detailed submission guidelines.

ARTICLES

Cross-Cultural Virtual Team Development and Motivation

Ric Rohm
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Developing virtual, cross-cultural teams can be challenging. The Internet has opened up amazing opportunities for running organizations spread across large geographic areas. Operating virtually, teams can lose communication richness and social presence. This lessening of communication effectiveness affects team development and motivation. Conducting operations cross-culturally compounds the issue. This paper looks at aspects of developing and motivating virtual, cross-cultural teams in light of Sue Freedman's triple challenge of distance, language, and culture. Motivating teams through Bruce W. Tuckman's stages of group development is also examined through the lens of content and process theories of motivation. These are tempered by cultural dimensions of collectivism vs. individualism, power distance, inner- vs. outer-directed, and high- vs. low-context communication. The common theme in all these situations is trust and relationship building.

Keywords: cross-cultural, development, leader, motivation, organization, team, virtual

The tyranny of distance, as Blainey (1966) writes of Australia's history, may be waning with the advent of Internet-enabled communication and data transfer. This, however, does not alleviate the tyranny of language and culture. Freedman (2008) writes that "the triple challenge presented by distance, language, and culture . . ." is something leaders must heed with respect to their cross-cultural and virtual teams (375). Kelley (2009) stresses the need for cross-cultural understanding and global communication training, using the examples of India and the United States. Choy, Ramburuth, and Lee (2010) show that a universalistic approach to cross-cultural management does not work between Chinese, Singaporean, and other ASEAN country employees. They promote managers using a differentiated approach based on the cultures involved. Developing and motivating people takes a lot of work for any leader. It becomes more demanding when the team consists of members from different cultures and even more acute when the team is virtual. A common theme in both cross-

cultural and virtual team development and motivation is *trust and relationship building* (Eom, 2009; Nemiro, Beyerlein, Bradley, & Beyerlein, 2008). Other authors, including Chen, Tjosvold, and Pan (2010); Ochieng and Price (2010); and Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, and Farh (2011) point this out in Korean and Chinese; Kenyan and American; and Chinese and American contexts, respectively. Examining cultural dimensions of individualism vs. collectivism, power distance, and high vs. low context communication, the author explores how a leader can create trust and build relationships in order to motivate teams while accommodating for distance, language, and culture.

Distance: The Beauty of Virtual Teams

Virtual teams help facilitate the often far-flung elements of today's global organizations. The Internet has enabled multiple means of conducting business between people in different geographic locations. Teams can meet synchronously or asynchronously using an array of media with different levels of *richness* and *social presence* (Bradley, 2008). Media richness involves the type of medium used in communication. Whenever one or more of the five senses are removed, richness decreases (Bradley, 2008; Gudykunst & Kim, 2002; Thomas, 2008; Sin, 2010). According to Bradley, "social presence refers to the degree of realness or salience that the technology provides to those in the interaction" (333). Face-to-face communication has the highest richness and social presence. It involves verbal and nonverbal communication, using all five senses. Anything short of this begins to lose both media richness and social presence. Both concepts are related to technology. An e-mail with no audio or visual references is low in richness and social presence. Phone conversations increase richness and social presence by adding tone and inflection. Videoconferences add even more richness and social presence with visual, non-verbal signals. Despite the value of virtual communication, it is important that teams initially meet face-to-face to build relationships and develop norms and roles (Gupta, Bradley, & Yeoh, 2008). Afterward, periodic face-to-face meetings are essential

for maintaining relationships as well as conducting complex tasks requiring a high level of media richness and social presence (Bradley, 2008).

Other important aspects of a team—including virtual ones—are its creation, maintenance, and operation. Teams proceed through a life cycle, first identified by Tuckman (1965). Working for the United States Navy, Tuckman conducted a review of 50 articles on group development to help the Navy better develop teams. He came upon four major stages of group development, (1) *forming* (orientation, testing, and dependence), (2) *storming* (conflict and challenge while developing roles and norms), (3) *norming* (openness, group cohesion, and trust), and (4) *performing* (functional role-relatedness and constructive action). Later, Tuckman and Jensen (1977) added (5) *adjourning* (completion, reflection, and disengagement) as a fifth stage. Without the relationship building that eventually engenders trust, a team cannot function effectively in the performance stage (see Table 1). In an effort to help teams move through the stages of group development and build relationships and trust, Hinrichs, Seiling, and Stavros (2008) offer five C's of *sensemaking* [sic]. The five C's are (a) clarity, (b) connection/coordination, (c) candor, (d) co-creation, and (e) commitment. All five of these elements require communication. Language and culture significantly affect this.

Table 1: Tuckman's Five Stages of Group Development

Stage	Description
Forming	Orientation, testing, dependence
Storming	Resistance to group influence and task requirements
Norming	Openness to other group members
Performing	Constructive action
Adjourning	Disengagement

Note. Adapted from Tuckman (2001).

Language: The Challenge of Cross-Cultural Communication

Numerous authors stress communication and cultural understanding as essential for dealing with cross-cultural interpersonal struggles and team development (Eom, 2009; Freedman, 2008; Jiang, 2010; McNair, Paretti, & Davitt, 2010; Ochieng & Price, 2010; Sin, 2010). To help get through the first three stages in Tuckman's (1965) model and onto performance, one should, if possible, employ people versed in the various cultures and languages of all team members in order to facilitate communication. This can alleviate considerable misunderstanding.

Many organizations conduct international business in English, particularly when dealing with multiple nationalities and languages. Thomas (2008) calls it "the lingua franca of international business" (120). For example, the International Civil Aviation Organization (n.d.) mandates that all "air traffic personnel and pilots are proficient in conducting and comprehending radiotelephony communications in the English language" (1). If foreign languages are used, it is important to have trained linguists who can accurately translate from one language to another. Using two or more linguists can create more accurate translations by comparing their work. Incorrect translation of languages is an obvious problem.

Another more subtle issue deals with communication context. Hall (1976) distinguishes between high- and low-context cultures. High-context (like many non-Western European) cultures put a lot of meaning into the context of their communication. They may speak around topics or in metaphor and expect that you understand their implication based on the context of the conversation or even one's relationship with the other person. High-context culture people can even say *yes* when they mean *no*, expecting that others understand the nuance of the statement. This can be very disconcerting to people from low-context cultures, like many Western Europeans and Americans. Low-context cultures say what they mean in a direct manner. They often have trouble interpreting high-context messages and can offend high-context cultures with their perceived bluntness. Going back to the airline industry, Gladwell (2008) highlights

communication context as well as power distance (described below) as contributing factors to Columbian and South Korean airline crashes in the past few decades.

Communicating with the appropriate level of people is also important, as people can be more hieratic or egalitarian in orientation and their organizations. Power distance is a concept based on the acceptance of different levels of class, caste, or hierarchy in a society (Hofstede, 1980; House, Hanes, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). High power distance cultures (like India) accept stratification. Employees are more likely to be formal with superiors, not question their decisions, and work well in structured bureaucracies. Low power distance countries (like the United States) tend to be more informal in superior-subordinate relationships, value open discussion about decisions, and are more accepting of flatter organizational structures. Thus an American manager would want to ensure he or she is resolving issues with Indian team members by virtual or face-to-face communication with the appropriate level of manager or employee, due to the high power distance culture. Otherwise, the Indian team member might just agree with whatever the American manager says out of deference to his or her authority, rather than giving constructive feedback. This can impede job performance.

Getting to the performance stage of group development and maintaining it relies on effective cross-cultural understanding and communication. Freedman (2008) states

Decisions about when, how, and with whom to implement this new [cross-cultural, virtual] work are best guided by a sophisticated understanding of the cultures across which the work will take place and with established relationships with those who lead in each participating cultures [*sic*] (374).

Throughout the stages of group development, and particularly within the performance stage, teams can leverage different theories of motivation to bring out the best productivity and growth in their members.

Culture: Motivating Team Members

Tuckman (1965) also studied group behavior with respect to both relationship (group structure) and task (task activity) behavior. He defines *group structure* as “the pattern of interpersonal relationships; the way people relate to one another . . .” and *task activity* as “the content of interaction related to the task at hand” (Tuckman, 2001, 66). Table 2 shows group member behavior with respect to both relationships and tasks. It is important to cultivate the relationship before attempting the tasks in cross-cultural teams, attending to the areas identified by Tuckman.

Table 2: Tuckman’s Five Stages of Group Development with Respect to Relationship and Task Behavior

Stage	Relationship	Task
Forming	Testing and dependence	Orientation to task
Storming	Intra-group conflict	Emotional response to task demands
Norming	Cohesiveness develop, standards evolve, role adopted	Exchange of interpretations, opinions expressed
Performing	Roles become flexible, structure supports task performance	Activity channeled towards task, solutions emerge
Adjourning	Anxiety and sadness about separation	Self-evaluation

Note. Adapted from Tuckman (2001).

Content and *process* theories of motivation inform leaders how to best motivate team members in these two behavior areas. Content theories include (a) Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs; (b) Alderfer’s (1972) existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG); (c) McClelland’s (1962) learned needs; and (d) Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman’s (1959) motivator-hygiene. Process theories include (a) Adams’s (1963) equity, (b) Vroom’s (1964) expectancy, (c) Skinner’s (1953) reinforcement, and (d) Locke’s (1968) goal setting.

Content Theories of Motivation

Alderfer (1972) condenses Maslow's (1954) classic hierarchy of needs into three levels: (a) existence (similar to Maslow's physiological and safety), (b) relatedness (similar to Maslow's belonging and esteem), and (c) growth (similar to Maslow's esteem and self-actualization). Maslow's satisfaction-progression hypothesis states that one cannot be motivated by items in a higher phase until lower needs are met. Alderfer differs from Maslow in that he states that lower level needs do not have to be met before higher level ones can motivate people. Alderfer offers a frustration-regression hypothesis, which states that if one gets frustrated in getting needs met in one area, then he or she will revert to another area for motivation. Thomas (2008) writes that in Maslow's model, primacy is placed on individual needs. For Americans, this works because individual attainment is increased. However, this may not work well in collectivist societies. Jiacheng, Lu, and Francesco (2010) say that high order needs can motivate intrinsically in different cultures, such as with Chinese employees, who want to conform to and avoid conflict with the group.

Cultures can vary on their level of collectivism vs. individualism (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). Collectivist cultures (like Japan) put the interests of the group above those of the individual. They tend to downplay personal achievement and value group harmony. Chen et al. (2010) find this holds true in both China and Korea. Individualist cultures (like the United States) value personal competition and individual achievement. For a cross-cultural team, Alderfer's (1972) model may be more appropriate. Assessing individual and group needs in different cultures may be more effective than just assuming a hierarchy of needs.

McClelland (1962) focuses on needs for (a) achievement, (b) affiliation, and (c) power. A high desire for achievement can drive people toward success. Thomas (2008) notes that achievement can be defined very differently in diverse cultures. Affiliation is the desire to belong to a group. This can be more prevalent in collectivist cultures (Chen et al., 2010). Power involves a penchant for being in

control. This can work well in individualist cultures, but perhaps not as well in collectivist ones. It might also achieve results within high power distance cultures.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) developed a theory of motivation that involves hygiene and motivator factors, sometime called the two-factor theory. They write that *hygiene factors* are lower level needs. Examples include pay, benefits, safety, and job-contextual issues. Hygiene factors are not motivational per se but can prevent dissatisfaction and thus facilitate a happier employee. *Motivator factors* are higher level needs. Examples include autonomy, responsibility, recognition, and development. Motivator factors are intrinsic and enriching, thus motivational. Cross-culturally, Brislin, MacNab, Worthley, Kabigting, and Zulis (2005) found Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's theory to apply in Japan. Hines (1973) discovered that hygiene factors are just as important as motivators for employee productivity, retention, and motivation in general in the New Zealand cultural context. Hines cautions that one should take culture into account when applying Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's theory. Beyond content, one can look to processes for motivation.

Process Theories of Motivation

Adams's (1963) equity theory states that employees will compare themselves to others with respect to the input they give to work and the outputs or rewards they receive. Imbalance can lead to de-motivation. Inputs include time, effort, education, and commitment to the organization. Outcomes include feelings of meaningfulness, responsibility associated with jobs, promotions, and monetary and non-monetary compensation. Feelings of being under-rewarded can cause employees to be less productive or leave their jobs. Thomas (2008) writes that power distance and individualist/collectivist orientation affect how people perceive equity. Cultures high in power distance will accept inequity. Collectivist cultures may accept inequity because they value harmony and equality over everyone being treated the same.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory involves three elements: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. A person's *expectancy* is that their effort leads to

performance. *Instrumentality* is the idea that a person's performance results in outcomes or rewards. That belief that these outcomes are attractive to or valued by a person is called *valence*. Thus, increased effort should lead to improved performance in order to achieve valued rewards. Thomas (2008) states that this motivation theory is culturally dependent. It assumes that people have control over their own destiny, which is not a universal notion. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) distinguish between *inner-* and *outer-directed* cultures. People having an *inner-directed* view of the world (like the Middle East) believe in fate and Insha'Allah (the will of God). They do not think they can change and, therefore, must accept their circumstances. People with an *outer-directed* view (like the British) believe in their ability to control events or free will. They would be more likely to accept Vroom's expectancy motivation than those with an inner-directed view of the world. Cerimagic (2010) found this to be true among Australian managers working in the United Arab Emirates.

Skinner (1953) promotes a theory of motivation that involves rewarding preferred behavior and punishing unwanted behavior. His reinforcement theory consists of four areas (a) positive reinforcement, (b) negative reinforcement, (c) punishment, and (d) extinction. *Positive reinforcement* involves praise, recognition, and salary increases for wanted behaviors. *Negative reinforcement* is a deterrent that encourages employees to avoid the consequences of unwanted behavior. Punishment is the reprimand, monetary fine, demotion, or suspension that occurs after an undesired behavior. Lastly, extinction is the absence of reinforcement. It typically occurs when positive reinforcement is removed. This motivation theory, like Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, is culturally dependent. Holtbrügge and Mohr (2011) find this to be true within German multinational corporations (MNCs). It again assumes that people have control over their own destiny. People with an outer-directed view of the world would accept reinforcement-type motivation more readily than those with an inner-directed view.

Locke (1968) developed a goal setting theory that involves employees and their supervisors setting specific, challenging goals together. Employees must have

self-efficacy about the goals—they should help develop them. This leads to employees accepting the goals and, thus, their motivation. This supports Hinrichs et al.'s (2008) five C's of sensemaking: (a) clarity, (b) connection/coordination, (c) candor, (d) co-creation, and (e) commitment. They also stress the importance of employee involvement in goal setting. However, collectivism/individualism and power distance can affect how goals are developed and accepted. Individual performance goals will not work as well in a collectivist culture, while group performance goals might not work in an individualistic culture. Participation in goal development may be deterred in a high power distance culture. Thomas (2008) writes that culture determines how goals are developed, and this should be taken into consideration when motivating through goal setting. It is important for leaders and team members to know each other's cultures.

Conclusion

“First take the plank out of your own eye, and then you will see clearly to remove the speck from your brother's eye” (Matt. 7:5, New International Version). Team members must understand their own and others' cultures and remove any obstacles before being able to effectively work together, physically or virtually, across those cultures. A consistent theme in working across distance, language, and culture is building trust and relationships. To do this effectively and motivate team members, one must take into account cultural dimensions, like those addressed in this paper, with some features working better in particular cultures than others.

Mowshowitz (2002) claims that MNCs will supplant sovereign governments as the wielders of power in the 21st century. He writes:

The main goal of business is to make profits, and if competition in the global marketplace requires a company to wrap itself in the flag of each of the countries in which it operates, there can be little doubt that it is prepared to do just that (151).

Whether or not Mowshowitz's predictions come true, it is increasingly evident that MNCs, as well as small and medium-sized organizations, must embrace the expatriation of their operations. Dealing with distance, language, and culture

should move from “tyranny” to standard operating procedure. Understanding how to best communicate and motivate across cultures is critical to this. By comprehending the cultures of the people with whom one works, a leader and team members can successfully navigate the stages of group development, embracing the challenges of distance, language, and culture.

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Transformational Leadership Styles among Leaders in Singapore Schools: A Study of Gender Differences

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This article explores the transformational leadership styles of leaders within Singapore schools with a focus on gender differences to determine implications of a gender balance shift for the MOE's transformation. After a review of transformational leadership literature in education, innovation, and gender, the article introduces the proposed methodology of a survey to be conducted among Singapore public school leaders. Preliminary results of a pilot survey indicate that, while differences are small, female self-reported leadership behaviors are found to be consistently higher than males, and these behaviors are not limited to the traditional "feminine leadership styles" of caring and nurturing. By contrast, follower ratings of leaders' transformational leadership style and innovation measures place males much higher than females. Implications for the transformation agenda for Singapore schools are discussed. The article also identifies where additional research is required to further enhance the findings of the pilot study.

Key words: gender, innovation, schools, transformational leadership

Singapore is a small island nation of 5 million inhabitants with no significant natural resources. Therefore, the challenge for Singapore is to remain competitive and grow its capabilities for future generations. The Singapore government has long recognized this imperative, and has focused on education as its key competitive advantage since its independence 60 years ago. In 2009, speaking at the Ninth World Convention of the International Confederation of Principals, Singapore's Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong explained the nation's emphasis on education. "Given our limited natural resources, our human capital is of paramount importance" (Ming, 2009, 8).

In 1997, Singapore launched the Thinking Schools, Learning Nation education policy framework, with the explicit aim of developing creative, innovative, and lifelong learners who can rise to the challenges of a constantly changing global future (Ng, 2008). This represented a significant shift away from its traditional focus on rote learning and exams and required a fundamental culture change in

order for the new learning principles to become embedded. Kotter (1998) stated that “only through leadership can one truly develop and nurture culture that is adaptive to change” (166); therefore, the successful transformation of the educational system will depend on the ability of Singapore’s school leaders to champion and support the change.

The transformational leadership style has been identified as most effective at promoting cultural change (Antonakis & House, 2002; Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2008) and innovation (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Waldman & Bass, 1991). Possible gender differences in leadership style are of particular interest in this study because, although secondary school principals are currently predominantly male, with female students outnumbering male students by a ratio of 2:1, the proportion of women leaders will likely increase. Still (1997) observed that, in terms of leadership effectiveness, women leaders have traditionally been viewed as inferior to their male colleagues. However, evidence is emerging that women are more likely to display transformational leadership behaviors (Ayman, Korabik, & Morris, 2009), and are therefore better equipped to affect a culture change in which innovation and lifelong learning are the strategic objectives.

This article presents a preliminary report on a study exploring the transformational leadership styles of leaders within Singapore’s public schools in terms of gender, creativity, and innovation, in order to determine to what extent school leaders display the transformational leadership behaviors necessary to effect the Singapore Ministry of Education’s goal of transforming the education system into one that promotes creativity and innovation.

Literature Review

Transformational Leadership and Innovation

The concept of transformational leadership can trace its origins to Burns (1978), who first conceptualized and described leadership as either transactional or transformational. In transactional leadership, leaders lead through social exchange, offering rewards for productivity, while transformational leadership moves the focus from the needs of the leader to the needs of the follower. The

leader therefore strives to understand the followers' motives and needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The transformational leader is able "to engage the follower in true commitment and involvement in the effort at hand" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, 4), emphasizing longer-term and vision-based motivational processes, thereby motivating the follower to a higher performance than expected (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) refer to this heightened level of motivation and commitment among followers as *extra-role performance*, whereby the follower performs at a level well above routine compliance with organization directives. Podsakoff et al. identified six key behaviors associated with transformational leaders. These are:

1. identifying and articulating a vision, in which the leader identifies new opportunities and inspires others with his or her vision of the future;
2. fostering the acceptance of group goals, wherein the leader promotes teamwork to achieve a common goal;
3. offering individualized support, which involves the leader demonstrating respect and concern for the individual needs and feelings of his or her followers;
4. providing intellectual stimulation, wherein the leader challenges followers to re-examine their assumptions and rethink how to perform their work;
5. providing an appropriate role model, which has to do with the leader behaving consistently and congruently with his or her espoused values; and
6. expecting high performance, which means leaders clearly communicate to followers their expectations for high standards of excellence and performance.

Leithwood (1994) confirms the applicability of transformational leadership to the education leadership context. In addition to the six behaviors identified above, Leithwood added two additional dimensions: strengthening school culture and building collaborative structures. Research has shown that transformational leadership behaviors among school principals are indirectly positively correlated

to teacher job satisfaction, staff turnover, and school performance (Geijsel, Slegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Griffith, 2004; Horn-Turpin, 2009). Horn-Turpin (2009) found that the higher special education teachers rated their leaders as predominantly transformational, the greater their job satisfaction and commitment to their organization were. Griffith (2004) suggests this relationship stems from transformational school leaders involving teachers in planning, problem solving, decision making, and implementing of school programs.

Many theorists support the view that creativity and innovation are closely related (Amabile, 1988; Mumford & Gustafson, 1988; Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002). Amabile (1988) goes on to describe individual creativity as being the building block for organizational innovation. Mumford and Gustafson (1988) note that from an organizational perspective, individual creativity is less important than mobilizing ideas for the development and production of novel, socially valued products or services.

Numerous studies have found transformational leadership to be positively related to innovation (Amabile, 1988; Jung et al., 2003; Mumford & Gustafson, 1988; Sarros, Cooper, Hirst, Donohue, & Funston, 2010; Sarros et al., 2008; Waldman & Bass, 1991). Several studies have also found that transformational leaders can have a positive impact on levels of creativity by engaging employees' personal value systems and encouraging them to think creatively, thereby catering to followers' intrinsic motivation and higher level needs (Jung et al., 2003; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999). Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, and Herron (1996) found that leaders can promote creativity by establishing a work environment that encourages employees to try out different approaches without fear of being punished if the outcomes are negative. Sosik, Kahai, and Avolio (1999) found that, among the six transformational leadership behaviors identified by Podsakoff et al. (1990), providing intellectual stimulation was critical in promoting creativity as leaders challenged followers to engage in "out-of-the-box" thinking. Lee (2008) conducted a study of Singaporean engineers and scientists and found a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and innovation, which she attributes to the transformational behaviors of providing

intellectual stimulation and offering individualized support. This contrasts with a study by Sarros et al. (2008), who also found a positive relationship between innovation and transformational leadership; however, analysis of specific transformational leadership behaviors, found identifying and articulating a vision, and offering individualized support to be the two most significant behaviors influencing innovation. Contrary to Sarros et al.'s expectations, providing intellectual stimulation was found to have no influence.

The empirical evidence in the literature therefore indicates that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and innovation. This paper explores whether this relationship exists among school leaders in Singapore's public schools, and if so, which of the six transformational leadership behaviors has the greatest influence on perceived innovation levels.

Transformational Leadership and Gender

Despite the increasing proportion of women leaders, evidence suggests that doubts still exist about women's leadership skills (Still, 1997). A 1998 study that used the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) to replicate Schein's pivotal 1973 study of gender perceptions in management found that while women's perceptions of women managers were no different than their perceptions of male managers, male managers' perceptions of male and female managers were significantly different (Schein, 1975). Males were less likely to describe female managers as competent, firm, or well informed, and more likely to describe female managers as bitter, deceitful, and easily influenced (Deal & Stevenson, 1998, 298). A later study by Eagly and Karau (2002) presents evidence to suggest that these perceptions still prevail and are the result of role incongruity caused by a mismatch between the expected feminine gender role and that of a leader. These attitudes would suggest it to be more challenging for women to become leaders and achieve success in leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

There is substantial evidence to suggest that males and females are likely to adopt distinctive leadership styles (Appelbaum & Shapiro, 1993; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Rosener, 1990; Trinidad & Normore, 2005). The gender-centered perspective of leadership is the idea that women develop a

feminine style of leadership, characterized by caring and nurturing, while men adopt a masculine style of leadership, characterized as dominating and task oriented. Rosener (1990) equates the feminine style of leadership with transformational leadership, noting that women were more likely to characterize their leadership style as “getting subordinates to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group through concern for a broader goal” (120). Diekmann and Eagly (2000) contend that women are increasingly adopting more masculine characteristics, such as increased risk taking, while not diminishing their feminine characteristics.

The existence of a feminine style of management may potentially favor women managers as the trend in working environments continues toward high-involvement work teams, consensus decision making, and empowerment (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996) found that female leaders rated higher on all transformational leader behaviors compared to males. This was partly supported by Carless (1998), who found that superiors and managers rated female managers as more transformational than male managers. However, subordinates were found to evaluate their female and male managers equally positively.

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) report that female leaders were rated by followers as being more transformational leaders than male leaders. However, Ayman et al. (2009) believe that women who use a transformational leadership style will be evaluated as less effective than their male counterparts who adopt the same style. “When women leaders reported behaving in a more transformational manner, their male subordinates were more likely to devalue their leadership competencies” (869). This was particularly significant for the subscales of providing intellectual stimulation and offering individualized support. Ayman et al. (2009) conclude that transformational leadership is not as effective for women leaders when they have male subordinates. This finding supports the theory of role incongruity (Eagly & Karau, 2002) discussed earlier, and raises doubts about whether Bass and

Avolio's (1994) suggestion that transformational leadership will favor women will hold true in all situations.

Eagly et al. (2003) conclude that the increasing prevalence of transformational leadership presents both advantages and disadvantages for women, with the advantages pertaining to women's relative effectiveness as transformational leaders, offset by disadvantages of prejudice that women experience in certain environments. A meta-study by Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) concludes that women are relatively less effective in leadership roles defined in more masculine terms and more effective in roles defined in less masculine terms. More specifically, the greater the proportion of male leaders and male followers and the more traditionally masculine the environment, the less effective women leaders were rated. In the case of schools, Eagly et al. (1995) found women were relatively more effective as leaders. This is explained by the role of a leader in a school being less specifically masculine, with a greater proportion of female followers and female leaders operating in the work environment. As a consequence, female school leaders can behave competently while reassuring others that they conform to expectations of appropriate female behavior (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

Since gender has been found to impact transformational leadership styles, this study investigates the question of whether a relationship exists between transformational leadership style and the gender of Singaporean school leaders. Linking this with the question on innovation and leadership, a further question is examined regarding the existence of a relationship between gender and perceived levels of innovation as reported by followers.

Method

A study of Singaporean school leaders has been designed to provide insight into whether the increasing trend towards female leaders within Singapore's schools will be a positive influence on the Singapore Ministry of Education's strategic imperative to develop an education system that fosters creativity and innovation. The study has been designed around the questions posed earlier relating to a

possible relationship between the transformational leadership styles of Singaporean school leaders, the level of unit innovation perceived by followers, and the leader's gender.

A selection of school leaders (principals, vice principals, heads of department and subject level heads) and their direct reports were invited to participate in a pilot of the School Leadership and Innovation Survey. In total, 67 survey responses were received, comprising 14 (21%) males and 53 (79%) female followers, reporting on 22 (34%) male and 42 (66%) female leaders. Leadership roles were grouped into two categories, with the roles of principal and vice principal accounting for 35 (55%) of the total leaders, and heads of department and subject level heads accounting for 29 (45%). Females represented 63% of principals and vice principals, compared with 69% of heads of department and subject level heads. Followers were predominantly teachers and administrative staff.

The questionnaire is an adaptation of a survey developed by Sarros et al. (2010). The questionnaire is a composite of two instruments: (a) Transformational Leadership Scale (TLS) Instrument (Podsakoff et al., 1990); and (b) Climate for Innovation Scale (Scott & Bruce, 1994).

The Transformational Leadership Scale by Podsakoff et al. (1990) is used to examine the six transformational factors, namely: identifies and articulates a vision, fosters the acceptance of group goals, offers individualized support, provides intellectual stimulation, provides an appropriate role model, expects high performance, as well as the transactional constructs of contingent reward and contingent punishment behavior. The TLS has been used and validated in previous studies (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Sarros et al., 2008).

A measure of innovation, based on Scott and Bruce's (1994) Climate for Innovation Scale and adapted by Sarros et al. (2010), measures the degree to which an organization is perceived to support and encourage innovation. This is used as a proxy to measure actual innovation, based on previous studies that have found strong predictive relationships between support for innovation and actual innovation (Martins & Terblanche, 2003; Mumford & Gustafson, 1988).

Results and Discussion

The School Leadership and Innovation Survey was administered to a pilot group of Singaporean principals, vice principals, heads of department, subject level heads, and their direct reports. While the full study is yet to be launched, preliminary results from the pilot survey provide some insight into the following research questions:

1. Are there gender differences in the self-reported measures for transformational leadership?
2. Are there differences in followers' assessments of transformational leadership according to the gender of the leader?
3. Are there differences in the followers' perceptions of innovation according to the gender of the leader?

The pilot study would seem to indicate that while male and female school leaders' self-assessments of leadership capabilities are similar, there are differences. Female leaders consistently rated themselves slightly higher than males on most, but not all, transformational behaviors. Furthermore, female self-reported leadership behaviors are not limited to "feminine leadership styles" of caring and nurturing. For example, females rated themselves higher than males for items like "will not settle for second best" and "schedules work to be done."

Reviewing the pilot data on follower assessment of leader behaviors, it is particularly interesting to find a complete contrast with the self-reported data. Whereas female leaders consistently rated themselves higher on transformational leadership measures, the followers' ratings for the male leaders were much higher than those for the females. This also applied to traditional feminine leadership styles, with items such as "develops team attitude and spirit" and "fosters collaboration among work group" presenting a large variance.

Finally, in response to every item, followers reported male leaders as encouraging a greater level of innovation in their work unit than female leaders. Item examples include "increases my willingness to try innovative methods" and "uses leadership methods that are innovative."

The marked differences between self-reported and follower-observed leadership style and innovation may be the result of continued role incongruity, thereby questioning the findings of Eagly and Carli (2003) that role incongruity is less applicable in organizations with greater numbers of female leaders and followers. There may be other factors that explain the difference; for example, female self-assessment responses may be influenced by social desirability, whereby females unconsciously overstate their responses (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Further analysis and a larger sample size is required to fully understand the differences in reported leadership styles and innovation and their implications for Singapore's Thinking Schools, Learning Nation education policy objectives.

Conclusion

This article outlined the objectives of the Singaporean government in terms of transforming the education system to one that fosters creative and innovative lifelong learners. A review of the literature provided support for the view that the transformational leadership style has been identified as most effective at promoting cultural change and is positively associated with innovation. The question of gender is particularly interesting as the number of females in leadership roles in Singaporean schools is likely to increase over time. Based on the literature, the expectation was that females were more likely to exhibit transformational leadership styles, thereby placing the Singaporean education system in a stronger position to support the transformation. The results of the pilot study of Singaporean school leaders identified a discrepancy between leader perceptions and follower perceptions of leadership styles and innovation. This highlights the need for further research to determine whether role incongruity is a factor in the discrepancy between self-reported and follower-reported leadership styles and innovation. These questions will be fully investigated in the forthcoming study.

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Enhancing Leadership through Collaboration

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This article suggests an approach to organizing collaboration in adaptive leadership that involves three steps: separating the principles for organizing collaboration; creating an adaptive organizational structure; and defining the conditions of team formation. The goal of the approach is the achievement of adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration. Adaptability of collaboration is achieved through adjustment to change and change-relevant qualities. Facilitation of collaboration is provided by forming dynamic collaborative teams related to the qualities of participants. Stimulation of intra-team and inter-team collaboration is caused by the interdependence of changes and tasks while making changes. Enhancing adaptive leadership is reached by such organizing collaboration.

Keywords: adaptive leadership, organizing collaboration

A modern organization works in an increasingly complicated, dynamic, and competitive environment. For survival in such an environment of efficient and effective development, it is necessary to make adaptive changes in an organization (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Heifetz, Linsky, & Grashow, 2009). The purpose of making these adaptive changes is to adjust an organization to the dynamics of the outside environment.

A crucial factor of adaptive changes in an organization is adaptive leadership. Adaptive leadership is a process of social influence in which a leader engages and supports staff in preparing for, conducting, and accomplishing adaptive change in an organization to shape outcomes (Chemers, 2002; Heifetz et al., 2009; Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 2003; Kotter, 1996).

Adaptive leadership requires discovering a sound method for producing the change, separating the leadership participants and determining the relationships between them, innovation, aligning people, motivating and inspiring energetic people, and rewarding people who are developing their leader (Heifetz et al., 2009; Hersey, 1985; Kotter, 1996).

The complexity of adaptive changes in an organization requires sharing the power and influence of a leader with leadership participants (Heifetz et al., 2009).

When this is done, leadership is realized through collaboration among leadership participants (Chrislip, 2002; Kanter, 1997; Tapscott & Williams, 2006). The leadership participants, who include an organization leader and a leadership team, make changes through the involvement of staff. Hence, the participants making changes include an organization leader, a leadership team, and staff. The participants making changes serve as collaborative participants in adaptive leadership. Making changes also requires taking into account the qualities of collaborative participants, such as knowledge, skills, and competencies (Goleman, McKee, & Boyatzis, 2002; Jaworski & Scharmer, 2000).

Adaptive leadership requires adaptive collaboration (AC). Adaptability of collaboration is needed to adjust collaboration efforts to the adaptive leadership process. AC is realized by the flexible alteration of the composition and number of collaborative participants and the order of their interactions. Adaptive leadership can be enhanced by organizing collaboration. Such organization should provide adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration among the participants making changes.

This article presents an approach to organizing collaboration. It enhances the adaptive leadership that is necessary to effectively make required changes.

Literature Review

Adaptive leadership is necessary for coping with the adaptive changes of an organization (Heifetz et al., 2009). It is a dynamic, iterative process in which change and uncertainty are assumed to be a natural state. The complexity of this process drives the need for a less directive leadership (Middleton, 2007) and collaboration among leadership participants (Obolensky, 2010). Therefore, adaptive leadership is realized through the collaboration of leadership participants. Hence, effectiveness of adaptive leadership depends on organizing a collaborative process. The approaches, methods, and tools reviewed here are examined relative to different aspects of this process.

According to Kanter et al. (2003), leadership collaboration requires the availability of a dense web of interpersonal connections. However, the use of such web structure in a collaborative process is not concretized.

Rubin (2009) suggests that the tasks of a collaborative leader are to affect the perspective, beliefs, and behaviors of collaborative leadership participants; create the structure and climate of an environment that supports the collaborative relationship; and form a heterogeneous team. However, the need for a leader's personal adaptation is not revealed. Rubin does not offer an approach for the creation of the adaptive structure and climate of an environment that supports such a collaborative relationship. The conditions of forming a heterogeneous team while taking into account the qualities of leadership participants are also not discussed.

Chrislip (2002) emphasizes that a leader should safeguard a collaborative process and facilitate interactions among collaborative leadership participants. However, the conditions for guaranteeing the collaborative process and facilitating interactions are not concretized.

Archer and Cameron (2009) contend that a basic task of any collaborative leader is getting value from the differences of the collaboration participants. According to Heifetz et al. (2009), adaptation relies on diversity. Therefore, leadership diversity creates adaptability. Nevertheless, the adaptive mechanism for getting value from the differences of the collaboration participants is not evident in the above-mentioned works.

Joyce (2007) draws attention to the continuous changes of team member qualities, which is perceived as a need to form a dynamic personal profile. However, the composition, the structure, and the process of forming such a profile are not concretized.

Edmondson, Roberto, and Watkins (2003) suggest a dynamic model for organizing teamwork. According to the model, the composition of a team is stable, and there are situations in which the interests of team members diverge. Researchers have also developed a leadership process for mitigating the

damage from such situations. Nevertheless, the possibility of the adaptation of team composition to dynamic situations is not taken into consideration.

There are works devoted to developing the methods and tools of adaptive collaboration for different knowledge domains (Brusilovsky & Millan, 2007; Demetriadis & Karakostas, 2008; Yu et al., 2008). However, no research is directed toward the development of an approach to adaptive collaboration through adaptive leadership.

The preceding analysis of publications shows that no complex approach exists for organizing collaboration in adaptive leadership. Enhancing adaptive leadership could be achieved by adaptability, facilitation, and stimulation of collaboration. Hence, an approach to organizing collaboration is needed.

Organizing Collaboration in Adaptive Leadership Approach

The concepts, principles, and methods of adaptive leadership (Heifetz et al., 2009) necessitate realizing leadership through collaboration. The goal of the authors' proposed approach in this article is to achieve adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration among the participants who make organization changes.

Organizing collaboration involves the following steps:

- Separate the principles for organizing collaboration.
- Create the adaptive organizational structure.
- Define the conditions of team formation.

Separating the Principles for Organizing Collaboration

Organizing collaboration should be based on suitable principles. The principles serve as necessary and sufficient characteristics of the organizing collaboration process. Consequently, the first step of the approach is to separate the principles for organizing collaboration.

The multitude of principles is divided into two groups: 1. Empowering Collaboration and 2. Fostering Adaptability, Stimulation, and Facilitation of Collaboration.

The “Empowering Collaboration” group includes the following principles: sharing a vision of the goal of making changes; sharing values and responsibility for changes; changing beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors of leadership participants; interpersonal adaptability requiring accommodation of personal purposes, interests, and perspectives; joint discussion but personal responsibility (a joint discussion of a common problem does not exclude personal responsibility for one’s own work); motivation requiring high reward for high performance; trust and informal relationships; mutual interest for collaboration among leadership participants; and promotion of innovations to be able to cope with future adaptive challenges.

The “Fostering Adaptability, Stimulation, and Facilitation of Collaboration” group involves the following principles: a focus on interdependent priority-driven changes that promotes concentration of efforts during adaptive changes; diversity and changeability of collaboration participants’ qualities, which facilitates adjustment to required changes; the full and flexible use of collaboration participants’ qualities, providing the ability to cope with adaptive changes; the facilitation of collaboration for producing desired interactions; and managed interpersonal competition empowering stimulation of collaboration.

Creating the Adaptive Organizational Structure

The functional structure of an organization (functional organizational structure) should provide the ability to make essential changes in the organization. An organization can cope with current and future changes only by coordinating the actions and collaboration of all participants making changes. However, in most cases, a functional organizational structure is a rigid hierarchic structure. Such a structure prevents collaboration. Consequently, a team-based organization (TBO) structure is necessary to make changes. This structure should satisfy the above principles of organizing collaboration. A TBO includes an organization leader, a leadership team, and interdependent work teams for making changes. The leadership team, which includes change managers, manages the organization by making changes. The change managers are selected by the organization leader from different subdivisions of his organization. Every change

manager is responsible for making change and forms a work team of staff members. Therefore, each work team consists of a change manager and staff. The staff of a work team includes employees selected from different subdivisions of an organization who are involved with making a specific change. Hence, the work team is a cross-functional team. The aggregate of the employees realizing all changes constitutes the staff for making changes.

If a change has been made, the corresponding team is disbanded, thereby updating the TBO. The need for a new change requires the formation of a new team and expansion of the TBO structure. Hence, the TBO structure is adaptive. The adaptability of the TBO structure is evidenced by its ability to adjust the number of interdependent teams and composition of the teams to make required changes.

The adaptive TBO specifies the participants of collaboration for making a change. The collaborative participants include an organization leader, members of the leadership team, and employees involved with making such a change. Consequently, the following types of collaborative interactions occur within an adaptive TBO:

- between an organization leader and change managers,
- among the change managers,
- between the change managers and the employees of work teams,
- intra-team interactions among the employees, and
- inter-team interactions among the employees.

Defining the Conditions of Team Formation

According to the proposed adaptive organizational structure, change managers should form the dynamic, interdependent work teams that make changes. The goal of forming these dynamic teams is to stimulate and facilitate collaborative interactions. Formation of the dynamic team is based on the principles for organizing collaboration, including the full and flexible use and the diversity and changeability of collaboration participants' qualities. The full and flexible use of

collaboration participants' qualities signifies the availability of a required multitude of qualities and the ability to use it dynamically in order to make various changes.

Consequently, a necessary condition of coping with change is

- A.** A multitude of qualities of collaboration participants equal to or in excess of change-relevant qualities (the different qualities necessary to cope with a change)

According to the principle of diversity and changeability of collaboration participants' qualities, the team members should have diverse qualities. Hence, the conditions for forming a team capable of coping with change are

- B.** Heterogeneity of the team relative to the qualities of its members. This creates a synergy as a result of the diversity of the team members' qualities and promotes collaborative interactions among team members.
- C.** Maximal mutual supplementation of team members' qualities. It facilitates two-way collaborative interactions among the team members.
- D.** Personal compatibility. It provides the ability for collaborative work due to consistent personal qualities.

Furthermore, a change manager should possess the qualities that team members do not have. Hence, a change manager should take into account the following condition

- E.** Qualities of the change manager to be as different as possible from the combined qualities of the team members. During collaboration, it provides an extension of the manager's strengths by compensating for his or her lacking qualities with the qualities of team members.

Example: Change-relevant qualities of change c_1 are $\langle q_1, q_2, q_3, q_5, q_6, q_7, q_8, q_9 \rangle$.

Qualities of the change manager m are $\langle q_8, q_9 \rangle$. The candidates (together with their personal qualities) for the work team are:

$$W_1 \langle q_2, q_3 \rangle \quad W_2 \langle q_1, q_3 \rangle \quad W_3 \langle q_1, q_5 \rangle \quad W_4 \langle q_6, q_7 \rangle$$

$$W_5 \langle q_8, q_9 \rangle \quad W_6 \langle q_7, q_9 \rangle \quad W_7 \langle q_9, q_{10}, q_{11} \rangle$$

According to conditions A–D, employees w_1 , w_3 , and w_4 should be selected for the work team responsible for implementing change c_1 . Their cumulative qualities $\langle q_1, q_2, q_3, q_5, q_6, q_7 \rangle$ combined with qualities of the change manager $\langle q_8, q_9 \rangle$ are equal to change-relevant qualities. If, however, the aggregate of qualities of the team members alone had satisfied condition A, the team could be self-managed and function without a manager.

Every team needs to cope with a single change or some changes. Members of a work team are selected by a change manager from different organizational divisions according to the conditions A–D. As described above, the defined conditions create synergy due to the diversity of qualities of team members, facilitate collaboration, and may serve as a means of forming dynamic collaborative teams.

Developing the Process of Organizing Collaboration

The process of organizing collaboration should engender the collaborative relationship and provide for the adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration. Organizing collaboration includes the use of the principles of organizing collaboration, the shaping of collaboration according to the adaptive TBO structure, and forming collaborative teams. Flexible use of the those principles provides a favorable climate for collaboration and produces adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaborative interactions.

The adaptive TBO structure allows for collaboration at both the organization and work team levels. Organization of collaboration between a leader of an organization and change managers, and also among the change managers, is developed at the organization level. Organizing intra-team and inter-team collaboration among the employees, and also between the change managers and the employees of work teams, is developed at the work team level.

The goal of forming adaptive collaborative teams is the facilitation and stimulation of AC. It consists of a dynamic choice of collaborative participants for coping with changes based on the above-mentioned conditions of team formation. According to the approach, the following collaborative teams are

formed: a leadership team for realizing adaptive leadership and work teams for conducting changes.

Forming a leadership team is based on the conditions **B–D** of forming a team, which facilitates collaboration among members (change managers) of the leadership team. Change managers form work teams for conducting interrelated changes. Every team needs to cope with a single change. Employees of a work team are selected from different organizational divisions according to the conditions **A–D** of forming a team. The change manager of a team is chosen from a leadership team according to conditions **A** and **E**.

The interdependence of making changes stimulates inter-team collaboration among change managers and among employees. Indeed, a work team cannot cope with a change independently as making the change depends on the results of changes made by other work teams. It forces work teams to collaborate despite a competitive environment. Hence, a structure of changes engenders adaptive collaboration. Moreover, every change manager seeks collaboration to see the entire dynamic picture of changes being made. This is necessary for career progress.

Analogously, the interdependence of tasks needed to implement a change stimulates intra-team collaboration of employees.

Conclusion

The authors propose a complex approach to organizing collaboration in adaptive leadership approach, which provides for the adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration. Collaboration is consistent with adaptive leadership for making required organizational changes effectively. The approach involves three steps: separating the principles for organizing collaboration, creating the adaptive organizational structure, and defining the conditions of team formation.

The principles for organizing collaboration are the necessary and sufficient characteristics of AC, and can be used to develop the remaining steps of the approach. The adaptive organizational structure is represented by a team-based organization structure; its adaptability is illustrated by its ability to adjust to

required changes with the number and composition of interdependent teams. The conditions of team formation are defined based on the need to provide the facilitation of collaboration and the full and flexible use of collaboration participants' qualities. These conditions make it possible to form a leadership team and work teams capable of coping with changes.

The process developed for organizing collaboration engenders the collaborative relationship and provides for the adaptability, stimulation, and facilitation of collaboration. The adaptability of collaboration is achieved through adjustment to change and change-relevant qualities. Stimulation of intra- and inter-team collaboration is caused by the interdependence of changes and tasks for making those changes. Collaboration is facilitated by forming dynamic collaborative teams heterogeneous relative to the qualities of collaboration participants.

Future research will be directed toward development of a tool for organizing collaboration in adaptive leadership.

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LEADERSHIP EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The “Franken-Leader” Activity: Students’ Impressions of the Primary Characteristics of Good Leaders

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In the author’s “Franken-leader” activity, small groups of students are asked to discuss personal anecdotes about their favorite leaders, brainstorm a list of qualities and characteristics that made these leaders effective, and synthesize the list into three categories that capture all the traits into a summary of good leadership. The whole class then makes a class summary of the three top qualities of a significant leader. In doing this activity with students for nine years, the author found that all classes decided upon the same three foundational traits over and over again: vision, relationships, and character. In addition to reviewing the directions for completing the “Franken-leader” activity, this article also discusses student interpretations of vision, relationships, and character.

Key words: educational activity, leadership development, leadership traits

Since 2002, I have been teaching courses for the School of Educational Leadership with Indiana Wesleyan University. Because of my decade-long experience as a school principal and central office administrator, one of the courses I instruct is educational leadership. In an effort to gauge prior learning about the subject, I always open the class with an activity I call “Franken-leader,” after Mary Shelley’s well-known 1818 Gothic novel *Frankenstein*. As readers probably know, the Frankenstein monster was pieced together from multiple corpses and re-animated by electricity.

The “Franken-leader” activity asks groups of three to four students to discuss their favorite personal anecdotes about good leaders who have made an impact in their lives, to brainstorm a list of qualities and characteristics that made the leader effective, and to synthesize the brainstormed list into three categories that capture all the traits into a summary of good leadership. Finally, I ask the whole class to use the lists to make a class summary of the three top qualities of a significant leader. Like the Frankenstein monster, this introductory “Franken-

leader” is pieced together from the best practices of successful leaders known by my students and animated by my students’ passion for and about these personal anecdotes and influences.

Sadly, since my goal was instruction and not research, I have not kept the precise data on this activity through the years. I cannot, for example, write exactly how many students have participated in this learning event, nor can I recreate with perfect accuracy their initial lists. What is interesting about this activity, however, is that the categories the students eventually identify as a class are almost always exactly the same. The three categories that seem to arise again and again are vision, relationships, and character.

Vision and the Focused Direction of Leadership

Vision, as my students have developed the term, refers to direction. People want their leaders to know where they are going, and they want their leaders to know how they are going to get there. In addition, people want to know their role in the leader’s vision. Finally, they want their leaders to actually start moving in that direction through action and reinforcement. In other words—according to my students—leaders are doers. They don’t just talk about vision; they go there.

My students expressed frustration with primarily two types of leaders, those who talk but accomplish nothing and those who frantically whirl about with no unified sense of direction. Both concerns are clearly connected to vision. With the first, there is a lack of commitment to the stated vision, and with the second, there is simply no vision. Both problems are very damaging to the organizations where they are apparent.

In the specific field in which this learning activity was completed, public education, schools that were led by principals who possessed a vision but were not capable of implementing it were often overwhelmed by a sense of apathy. Because the leader did not care enough about the vision to enact it, his or her subordinates did not either. Just as the leader wandered about accomplishing little, the teachers, disconnected from each other and from the school as a whole, were similarly unfocused and less competent.

In schools led by principals who had no vision, another type of problem was evident; their teachers suffered from burnout, overwhelmed like a child in an ice cream shop, unable to focus on one educational “flavor-of-the-week” and instead trying them all briefly and unsuccessfully. In these schools, teachers were again disconnected to each other and to the total school environment, but in this instance, the disconnectedness was caused by each teacher trying his or her own remedies, independently and individually seeking solutions to comprehensive problems.

This issue of leadership and vision, so accurately described by my students, has been powerfully supported by recent research. An extensive five-part study by Halevy, Berson, and Galinsky (2011) reaches the following four powerful findings. First, group members prefer a visionary leader over more representative types of leaders. Second, in a crisis, the endorsement of a visionary leader repairs the damaged mood of group members, while the endorsement of other types of leaders actually damages group mood. Third, the visionary leader’s emphasis on a group’s future was more influential in mobilizing involvement by group members, but a leadership message that focused on group members’ shared identity did not motivate them to collective action. Fourth, visionary leaders were simply evaluated as more effective in their ability to motivate individuals to improve and to achieve desired group outcomes. This study also determined that vision is most necessary during crisis, a finding that is especially valuable to school leaders in an era of increasing oversight and decreasing funding.

While less recent, Rouche, Baker, and Rose (1989) reach similar conclusions and attempt to provide a leadership roadmap for developing, sharing, and implementing a vision in a comprehensive study of 256 exemplary community college presidents. Through extensive interviewing, surveying, and analysis of organizational data, these researchers determined that visionary leaders are future oriented, connect planned actions to the established vision, influence others to see their own roles in enacting the vision over time, and take risks that challenge the status quo in favor of the vision.

Relationships and the Servant Heart of a Leader

In addition to the leader's establishment and pursuit of the right vision, people also want their leader to engage them in a meaningful, deep, and individual way. Most workers have had a supervisor who refused to interact with his or her subordinates—the “e-mail cowboy” who barks orders and reprimands from a distance, afraid to correct anyone in person, or the principal who always stayed in his or her office, refusing to come out to “rub shoulders” with teachers, support staff, or students. These leaders are ineffective at best and simply cannot last.

My students, when discussing the leader who most touched their lives for the better, spoke passionately about the person who took the time to get to know them and then noticed something special about them that inspired them to work more diligently toward the leader's vision.

One student in particular became emotional talking about the experienced teacher who took him into a private office and stated plainly:

Of all the students I've had in my career, you are in the top two in talent and potential. The other one is a high-powered attorney at the most prestigious law firm in downtown Indianapolis. What are you going to do with this gift? What challenges will you set for yourself to achieve?

That student took those words to heart, first becoming an award-winning classroom teacher, then taking on the challenge of being a skilled principal in a difficult environment. Later, he served as an effective curriculum leader and, after earning his doctorate, a college education professor, preparing the next generation of similarly amazing teachers. All because a leader in his life developed a relationship with him, saw something wonderful, and dared him to be better.

A fascinating article provides research support for this view that is held so deeply by my students. What is the impact of a teacher who leads his or her class by developing strong relationships with the individual students? In a meta-analysis of 1,000 studies involving 355,325 students from 1948 to 2004, Cornelius-White (2007) finds that positive student-teacher relationships show an above average effect when compared to other educational innovations. When teachers exhibit the powerful emotions of empathy and warmth toward students

and when teachers provide encouragement for students in a personalized manner, the impact on student achievement is greater than the average for all other educational approaches combined. Clearly, when leaders care about their team members, good things result.

The word *relationships* captures, of course, the idea of genuine care that the leader shows for his or her subordinates, but it also includes the vital quality of communication. My students determined that there was simply no such thing as too much communication. Good leaders, in their eyes, were constantly looking for ways to share their message and to involve everyone. Conversely, my students identified the poor leaders in their lives as uncommunicative, protective of information, too insecure to share challenging data, and unavailable for conversation. They recounted stories about initiatives that were implemented without enough prior information or without any professional development. These initiatives always failed and were quickly jettisoned once the leader left or was replaced. In their frequently repeated opinion, the three most important qualities for any leader are “communication, communication, and communication.”

Again, research strongly supports the views of my students. Flauto (1999), in a study of 151 employees in nine organizations, evaluates the communication abilities of their immediate supervisors. He found that all aspects of leadership were impacted by the leader’s ability to communicate competently. Regardless of leadership style, whether transactional or transformational, all leaders who were perceived to be effective by their workers were highly rated as communicators. One 30-year veteran of the underground coal mines of southeast Ohio put it best when he stated, “Jim’s the best what we call bosses. When he says it, you know what he means. And he knows what you means [*sic*]. He don’t tell you nothing that ain’t [*sic*]” (Flauto, 1999, 87). The ability to communicate well is a clear prerequisite for successful leadership.

Character and the Necessary Foundation of Trust

Character, according to my students, was ultimately foundational for the other two primary traits of leadership. Character and its principal partners, integrity and

ethical behavior, are needed to build trust between a leader and his or her followers. My students talked about leaders they did not trust, those who were self-interested, conniving, and manipulative, and about those who were trustworthy, honest to a fault, courageous in conflict, and always dependable. Obviously, one can guess which group was considered better. Year after year, my students become wistful telling the class about the principal who stood up for them in a fight with an angry and unreasonable parent, refusing to back down or to compromise shared school values. Conversely, their anger was still apparent for wishy-washy leaders who always took the easy road when challenges came their way or sacrificed the good of the school for immediate gain or personal reward. People want a leader who stands strong during the most violent storms, and my students associated this ability with character.

Often, my students refer to a coach or marching band director from their schooldays, commenting that he or she was tough and demanding but could always be counted upon to have the individual's and team's/band's best interests in mind. These leaders never cajoled for personal or selfish reasons, but always to inspire the young football players or percussionists to capture the vision of team victory and strive for greater performance. Recent research supports the basis of this frequently repeated anecdote by evaluating trust relationships between good coaches and their players. Dirks (2000) examines the relationship between the trust players have for their coach and the success of the team in NCAA basketball, exploring the assumption that a team's trust in its leader or coach has a significant effect on that team's performance. By using survey and archival data from a sample of men's college basketball teams, the researcher found support for this commonly held belief. Indeed, trust in the coach as a leader can be a determinant of team performance.

Of course, my students were willing to admit that they were aware of seemingly successful leaders who lacked honesty and integrity. Often on this point, the conversation would veer toward the political, and students would laugh about this president or that governor who dabbled in vice but otherwise had a successful career as a public official. They always seem to return to the following two

opinions, though, about these morally flawed but talented men. First, they would ask, “What could he have accomplished if it weren’t for his peccadilloes, and what would his legacy be if we didn’t just remember him for his moral failings?” Second, they would say:

Isn’t this activity about the best leaders, those that challenged us to do reach our highest potential? Obviously, these other leaders we’re talking about may be good, but no one will ever refer to them as “great” or “the best.” They didn’t even reach their own potential.

According to my students, it is unquestionable that the best leaders inspire their followers through their influential integrity and character.

Does current research reinforce this opinion? Dirks and Ferrin’s (2002) extensive meta-analysis would categorically support the position that trust is essential in effective leadership. A review of 106 independent samples that included 27,103 individuals found that trust in leadership resulted in greater job satisfaction, lower turnover, and increased commitment to the leader’s decisions. Other beneficial effects of trust in leadership include organizational commitment and a greater acceptance of interactive and other types of employment-related justice.

The Big 3 and the Intentional Development of Leaders

These three concepts—vision, relationships, and character—became the foundation, then, for the remainder of my course in educational leadership. My students learned to evaluate all thoughts, work through all case studies, measure all discussion responses, and begin to develop their own leadership philosophy through the lens of vision, relationships, and character. The repeatedly identified “Big 3” has become the intentional focus of my effort to develop the very best kind of school leader, one who influences and inspires others to achieve their best on behalf of the students, and it all started with “Franken-leader,” the activity I use to get my future principals and superintendents to think deeply about what has worked for the leaders in their own lives.

These foundations for developing leaders is especially valuable to the students; in other words, ownership of the course material is very high because the

students generate the concepts themselves through personal reflection, idea synthesis, and concept evaluation. Since the students generate the overall topics of the course—vision, relationships, and character—they believe in them more, understand the need to apply these concepts in their own leadership development, and pursue tasks to identify and improve upon the areas of perceived self-deficiency.

In this personalized way, the best educational outcome has been realized—a course in educational leadership has actually produced improved educational leaders.

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RESEARCH NOTE

When the Leader Is Absent: A Case Study

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The paper examines the correlation between dysfunctional management and a leader's personality disorders. Specifically, it focuses on situations in which a leader is "emotionally absent." Though the leader is physically there, he is not able to take care of the staff needs and problems. The workgroup is then found to act regressively with negative business and ethical consequences. A case study of a mental health center in Italy provides an example of dysfunctional management caused by absent leadership. The objective of the consultant has been to understand and assess the way the center's staff was managed by the new leader, the leadership style, and the relational dynamics between the new leader and the workgroup. Psychoanalytic participant observation of the staff meetings and qualitative interviews with the leader and the employees were conducted to analyze the case.

Key words: absenteeism, disorders, dysfunctional management, leadership personality

There are many research models of effective leaders. Some say that leaders "are born," while others state that leaders "are made." Many approaches describe the behaviors and psychological competencies that can be learned and developed in order to become a good leader (e.g., Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004).

However, there are situations when a leader's personality, conflicts, and disorders negatively affect an organization. For example, narcissistic, obsessive, paranoid, histrionic, schizoid, or passive-aggressive personalities may lead to an ineffective management of the task and employees (Kernberg, 1993, 2000). These situations may be called *dysfunctional management*.

The aim of this paper is to examine the relationship between a leader's personality and dysfunctional organization from a psychoanalytic perspective. A case study will be also presented.

The leader and the workgroup are always interacting, mutually influencing each other in either an effective or dysfunctional way. The effective relationship is

usually based on identification with the task or with a specific professional group (Rice, 1965). The confidence in, admiration of, and obedience for the leader also determine a functional group alliance (Freud, 1921/1989d).

Nevertheless, the leader's personality—in particular, his/her personality disorders and conflicts—may unconsciously arouse emotional dynamics and negative actions in the workgroup that compromise business goals. For example, narcissistic and histrionic personalities in the workgroup usually arouse idealization and dependence processes based on libidinal drives. Narcissistic leaders usually attract young practitioners who admire leaders for their supposed knowledge, expertise, and power. But, when the students grow up, the narcissistic leader usually feels envy and behaves destructively.

Paranoid, obsessive, and passive-aggressive personalities provoke unconscious aggressive reactions from employees. In these cases, there is usually a tendency to negatively transform the creativity and energy of efficient employees into a passive-aggressive obedience and servile adulation, along with devaluation of the members who don't admire the leader.

If the reactions are moderate, these conflicts may be tolerated and controlled by the job commitment and by the task (Bion, 1961), but when the intensity is high, tensions explode into regressive and dysfunctional behaviors: for example, disruptive envy and sabotage among colleagues, absenteeism, delays, mistakes, rude interactions with customers or suppliers, illness, turnover, sexual and other harassment. The regressive behaviors waste a lot of impetus for business.

According to Freud (1915/1989a; 1915/1989b; 1920/1989c), everyone has their own difficulties and problems, such as unconscious historical conflicts with parental authority, but for business, it can be far worse and less tolerable when it is the leader who is not self-conscious and is unable to properly self-manage. Like the father in a family (Lacan, 1966), the leader is indeed a reference point for the group and should have responsibility at both personal and social levels.

To reach business goals and enhance employee performance, a leader must be aware of how his/her own personality works (Cavelzani & Esposito, 2010; Minolli, 2009). It means knowing one's own unconscious desires and

expectations concerning others and oneself, the ways in which one reacts to frustrations and stressors, and one's sadistic and aggressive traits. A leader must also have emotional stability and emotional intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) to be able to resist any aggressive and seductive libidinal reactions and projections coming from his/her workgroup. So the leader must recognize his/her own aggressive, sadistic, and libidinal components and effectively direct them into the managing activity (Kernberg, 1998). In a leadership position, being self-conscious is a matter of ethical social responsibility (Cavelzani, 2009; Esposito, 2009).

Unrecognized and unresolved personality conflicts and disorders amplify work difficulties, provoking regressive and aggressive functioning in the workgroup (Anzieu, 1986; Kaës, 2002). In this way, the dysfunctional management results in a "neurotic organization" (Kets de Vries, 1984, 2001) and in an "organizational violence" (Williams, 1993, 1994).

This paper focuses on situations in which a leader is absent or, more specifically, when a leader is "emotionally absent." The following case study provides an example of dysfunctional management caused by absent leadership.

Absent Leadership

According to the contemporary theories on complex dynamic living systems, from the microcellular level to the individual and group levels, each living system is continuously involved in the complex process of maintaining its own existence and coherence, and, at the same time, each living system is busy self-developing and expanding to new levels of complexity (Sander, 2002; Tronick, 1998). A business can also be considered a living system, with a much more complex level of organization than that of the individual.

Working aims to satisfy needs at multiple motivational levels, from the basic one (making money to buy food and pay for the mortgage), to the group affiliation need, the self-realization need, and the need for power and success. All of these needs can be considered as the expression of the wider tendency to maintain

oneself and to self-develop. In terms of business, to maintain oneself basically means being profitable.

Nevertheless, the living and development processes are not easy. Much effort is required to deal with external obligations, structural limits, and, for humans, to deal with fear of change. Many employees—as well as leaders—often suffer pressure, performance anxiety, and innovation challenges. For business, the difficulties and limits can be costs; the search for customers; marketing competition, especially with China, India, and Eastern Europe; the construction of a good reputation; investment uncertainty; future ambiguity; local laws; unexpected events and industrial accidents (such as the recent BP incident); and new environmental protection directives. All these difficulties arouse emotional tensions in the business members, from the general manager to the local leaders and employees. So, as leaders with personality disorders, absent leaders are unable to cope with all these difficulties and can even activate unconscious regressive, aggressive, and chaotic dynamics in the workgroup, leading the business to a breakdown in the business.

Though physically present, a leader can be “emotionally absent.” For example when a leader is incapable of providing clear targets and objectives, the employees waste time doing useless and laborious operations, or they get bored and consume time in Internet surfing or chatting. Or, the absent leader may not be able to sustain employee motivation. For example, in the hospitality industry, it is crucial to properly motivate the cleaners, porters, and call center operators to avoid regressive and ineffective behaviors (i.e., rooms not well cleaned, rude customer service, frustration). Or further, the absent leader may be not able to organize the team according to the congruence between members’ personalities and jobs. A leader can also be absent when he/she neglects or is not able to recognize group problems and needs.

An absent leader may be not able to stimulate constructive dialogues and effective competitions among team members, avoiding disruptive envy and mobbing. He/she may also lack the attention needed to resolve overload job conditions that risk to lead to errors and job stress.

From a psychoanalytic perspective, absent leadership provokes employee confusion, indecision, chaos, frustration, and aggression. Kernberg (1998) indicates that the most serious problem for the business is when the workgroup behaves in a regressive (dysfunctional) way, and the absent leader is not “emotionally present” to help them to reorganize themselves based on their work goals. In this way, the absent leader creates chaos and weakens the business.

Kernberg (1998) also argues that if the business is almost stable, or if the goods have a secure market, the problems can remain latent, even for many years. But when economical crisis or social changes happen, the absent leadership creates a breakdown of the business.

From this contemporary psychoanalytic perspective, absent leadership happens when a leader is not able to sustain and maintain the existence, effective functional coherence, and development of the business. Instead, without being aware of it, he/she colludes with the difficulties of reality and fears for change and development. By comparison, an effective leader is able, for example, to convert competition anxiety into creativity and innovation, while an absent leader transforms it into depressive envy and paranoid closure.

Absent leadership can happen when the leader becomes a leader without the necessary experience, capability, or interest (i.e., taking over the family business, or because of political power).

Dysfunctional leadership can also be caused also by different personality disorders, such as the schizoid personality (who usually communicates only with a small part of the workgroup, neglecting all other members), or the narcissistic personality (who can be more interested in the prestige of a status than an actual commitment). A narcissistic leader who just pretends to do something usually displays an inability to cope with commitments, the tendency to escape from making decisions, and a growing isolation of a business’s departments and workgroups. Consequently, the business becomes weak.

In all these cases, the dysfunctional management caused by absent leadership risks a breakdown in the business operation.

Case Study

The following case derives from a hospital general manager's request for a human resources consultant. He assumed there was a problem with the management of interns by the mental health center's new leader.

The objective of the consultant, a counselor with a psychoanalytic background, has been to understand and assess the way the mental health center staff was managed by the new leader, his leadership style, and the relational dynamics between the new leader and the workgroup. To do so, the participant psychoanalytic observation technique (Bion, 1961; Kernberg, 1998) was adapted to assess workgroup dynamics during meetings with the mental health center interns and the leader. In addition, qualitative open-question interviews with the mental health center leader and interns were conducted to assess job satisfaction and working conditions.

Mental Health Center Background

Ten years ago, a well-known and highly respected hospital located in the center of Rome opened a mental health center to treat people with anxiety and depression. The center's administration and staff included a lead psychoanalyst, or leader, and four psychologists serving as unpaid interns. The center's leader supervised the interns, whom he met with on a weekly basis to help them solve difficulties with patients and offer clinical suggestions based on his years of experience. Despite their busy schedules, the interns were required to prepare weekly written reports about their patients for that session with the lead psychologist. The four psychologists felt comfortable, supported, and generally happy with their training.

The mental health center has grown enormously. It has become well known in Rome and abroad as a well-organized, professionally run mental health center for psychological treatment. Three years ago, the administrative leader of the center retired. The human resources department of the hospital recruited and hired Dr. Mario Rossi¹ a well-known external psychiatrist, as the new

¹ Name changed

administrative leader and chief psychiatrist for the mental health center. The new mental health center leader was given a part-time (three days a week) contract because he had other professional commitments at the university and his private practice.

To handle the increased patient load, Dr. Rossi doubled the number of staff psychologists in training (interns) from four to eight. In order to provide a more thorough treatment service, Dr. Rossi added a second group of eight cognitive psychologists. There were then 16 psychologists in training, evenly split between psychoanalytic and cognitive psychologists.

Dr. Rossi's many commitments forced him to schedule supervisory meetings with the 16 interns approximately once every two weeks. The meetings became very tense because the scheduled time was insufficient for all 16 psychologists to discuss their problems with patients. An added problem focused on internal professional philosophies about treatment plans proposed by the two very different sets of psychologists. It was often almost impossible to reach a common understanding or compromise on treatment plans for patients.

Some interns voiced complaints that the supervisory meetings were useless because Dr. Rossi had limited time to help them with the problems affecting their most difficult patients. As a result, only five interns still attend Dr. Rossi's biweekly sessions. The other interns argued that they are tired of doing pro bono work without receiving the learning insights necessary for their training, and argue that their requirements of their regular, paying jobs prevent them from leaving their offices to attend supervisory meetings at the mental health center.

Recently, the hospital general manager held two meetings with the full mental health center staff, including Dr. Rossi, other medical doctors, and psychologists, to discuss the drastic reduction (50%) in the number of the patients applying for mental treatment. The mental health center is, indeed, unexpectedly losing money and the level of service has diminished considerably—it now takes more than six months for a patient to receive a consultation with a psychologist, despite the increase in the number of psychologists in service. In addition, many

patients have even quit their treatments, complaining about the recent low quality of service.

Conclusion

This case is an example of dysfunctional management caused by absent leadership. Though the leader is physically there, he can be considered emotionally absent because he is unable to take care of his staff. Since the workgroup is composed of practitioners who are still in training, they need much more support and guidance in their practice than those who have been working for years. Working with patients is indeed a very complex activity requiring high vigilance and supervision, and, at the same time, it's also an extraordinarily dyadic experience involving multifaceted emotions and affecting the actions of both parties. The interns are important "human resources" who need special care and guidance by their leader to be able to help the patients to the highest level possible. In this vignette, the leader seems to be too busy to properly supervise the staff. There is not enough time to deal with the interns' questions and difficulties.

In addition, the leader seems to be unaware of what is happening with his staff. He lacks empathy to recognize the interns' needs and complaints. In the interviews, the workgroup basically complained of stress, worry, and confusion ("I don't know what to do with this patient"), as well as neglect by the supervisor ("he seems uninterested in us" and "he doesn't have time for everyone"). Regarding the supervisory meetings, many interns expressed disappointment ("I don't attend the meetings because they always end with discord between different theoretical approaches; we need to learn how to do things in practice with our patients" and "I will change hospitals; here, I'm wasting time without learning or being paid").

Indeed, the consultant's observation during the supervisory meetings found severe lacks in the leader's guidance of the group; much time was wasted talking about irrelevant topics (i.e., comments on films, personal political experiences, and abstract communication) instead of dedicating time to analyzing and solving

clinical problems or helping the interns reflect on their counter transference of emotions with their patients. The leader was also often found to be incapable of guiding the dialogue between the different theoretical approaches, ending the meetings in ineffective quarrels.

The leader's method of conducting the meetings shows much evidence of the exhibition needs and narcissistic traits of the leader. He seems much more interested in the prestige of the position than in a real commitment. At the same time, the intern group displays regressive and dysfunctional behaviors, such as increasing absenteeism, chaotic insecurity, escape tendencies, lost of motivation, passive-aggressive submission, and fear (Anzieu, 1986; Kaës, 2002, 2006). As a direct consequence, there is an increase of errors and bad practice in taking care of the patients, who prefer to go to other hospitals.

In conclusion, a leader's personality disorders, can impact a workgroup. Specifically, absent leadership leads to dysfunctional management and negatively affects the workgroup, the entire organization, and, finally, its business goals. An absent leader doesn't guide a group in daily activities, sustain the motivation to work, or help maintain the organization's effectiveness, innovation, and competitive nature. Without being conscious of it, the absent leader amplifies job problems by fostering the regressive dysfunctional behaviors of the workgroup. In doing so, he/she leads the enterprise to a business breakdown.

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PEDAGOGY

The Roadmaps to Global Leadership

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Global competencies and the leadership that promotes them are the gateways to future intercultural and cross-communicative interchanges between nations in education and the business community. This article explains and identifies the essential global competencies that leaders and professionals must include in their toolkits. The 12 pathways mentioned in this article provide the tools and foundation to successfully communicate and work as a global citizen, along with examples from the domestic and global marketplaces. Illustrations and models of innovative global programs on the university level are also highlighted.

Key words: career-focused learning plans, cross-cultural initiatives, global competencies, global leadership skills, globalization, leadership preparedness

Changing student and professional demographics; student, faculty, and professional initiatives; and global affairs have been catalysts for defining, developing, and managing global competencies and the leadership skills that craft them. Promoting programs that develop skills such as these will ensure necessary knowledge acquisition and interest by students and professionals, leading to challenging and successful global careers.

At every level of education, global competency—the knowledge students must be able to use in order to function successfully in today’s globalized world—equates with the ability to think, speak, understand, and work in a foreign language, as well as the acquisition of knowledge about global systems, world history, geography, and other global issues such as health, economics, and world cultures (Zhao, 2010).

In order to understand global competencies, a student/professional must desire to become a global citizen and must recognize the interconnectedness of one's actions with those who live in other countries. Additionally, students/professionals must be open to and actively involved with other cultural practices by effecting positive global exchange through a commitment to action, such as exchange programs, internships, research projects, and community service (Streitwieser & Light, 2010).

On a larger scale, global training literature, both in education and in business, must emphasize lifelong learning and include a curriculum designed to build on global competency using leadership tools. Nationwide, many states are adopting student learning plans (SLPs), which support college and career readiness skills. Since there is a need for innovative practices to support students as they transition into college and careers, SLPs are coincidentally a head start in the creation of global awareness and a necessary step toward enabling students to prepare for lifelong careers in a global economy. In fact, research shows SLPs are most effective when they are connected to immediate action steps that move students along a pathway geared toward achieving their goals (Rennie Center for Educational Research and Policy, 2011).

Nearly one-half of all states (23 plus the District of Columbia) require students to develop career-focused learning plans. Eighteen states have laws that mandate that development. The process begins as early as Grades 7 and 8 in some states, with some initiating plans in Grade 6 and earlier. (Tennessee is piloting these plans in Grades 1, 4 and 6 as part of their Race to the Top Initiative.) In many cases, they are four- or five-year plans (Rennie Center for Educational Research and Policy, 2011).

SLP implementation is also gaining support from researchers studying the impact of long-term career planning activities on students' transition to post-secondary life. Many public school systems, as well as higher education institutions (e.g., Northeastern University, Northwestern University, and University of California at Santa Barbara), are currently offering global studies certificates and/or focusing on global academic programs that include

experiences for students designed to broaden their perspectives on foreign affairs.

Identifying and Developing Global Competencies

The challenge for leadership is in providing these global competency skills—defined as the ability to think, speak, understand, and work in a foreign language and the acquisition of political, social, and economic knowledge—that will enable students to navigate cross-cultural settings, to succeed in domestic and study abroad programs and global internships, and to flourish in cross-cultural communication inside and outside their classrooms. As noted in the 2011 Rennie Center for Educational Research and Policy brief, these types of skills enable workers to adapt to a dynamic, global economic marketplace where continuous innovative solutions are the keys to financial and business trends.

Global competencies and the leadership that promotes them demand that students/professionals be prepared for college and/or career. This preparedness can be measured by four internationally benchmarked competencies (U.S. Department of Education, 2009)—each a part of the common core of skills:

- Commitment to learning: achievement, motivation, school engagement, and reading for pleasure
- Positive values: responsibility, integrity, caring, honesty, and equality
- Social competencies: planning and decision making, interpersonal and cultural competence, and resistance skills
- Positive identity: positive view of personal future, personal power, and sense of purpose (Pittman, 2010)

Failure to meet these standards increases the likelihood that students will not be prepared to assume responsibilities as global citizens. Yet, one study notes only 30% of American high school seniors are college ready, and only 23% of high school graduates taking the ACT in 2009 scored as college ready in all four core subjects—math, science, English language arts, and languages (Pittman, 2010). Additionally, the same study indicates that among high school graduates, 60% are not work ready due to gross deficiencies in common core skills, such as

hope and well-being (positive identity) and student engagement (commitment to learning). Furthermore, many employers are not equipped to train students in 21st-century skills, and minority youth have difficulty finding jobs during and after high school because they lack readiness skills. At the college level, as many as 25% of all first-year college students at four-year colleges do not return for a second year; nationally, among American students, only 25% of fifth- through twelfth-graders are hopeful, engaged, and thriving (Pittman, 2010). In contrast, Zhao (2010) notes that Singapore and Finland lead the world in educational competence and achievement (as reported by the U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

Among the essential global competencies that leaders must include in their toolkits are foreign language proficiencies and a deep understanding of other cultures, along with a global perspective and sense of global citizenship. Students also need to be aware that societal issues are often global in scope and that they should learn “to care about people in distant places” (Zhao, 2010, 426). Zhao reminds us that global citizens need “to understand the nature of global economic integration, to appreciate the interconnectedness and interdependence of people, to respect and protect cultural diversity, to fight for social justice for all, and to protect planet earth” (426).

Global Citizenship Is Personal

Our new business reality is a mixture of not only expanding globalization, but also rapid technological advances and a departure from comfortable and familiar industrial-era career paths. Tomorrow's students will enter a landscape for which there is no relief map, as it will not have existed before. Further, that business landscape will continue to shift beneath students' feet as the pace of change increases exponentially. Resilience and adaptability, therefore, can be added to the fundamental skills for preparedness. Global competency programs will need to teach those skills.

A further consideration is the increasingly real challenge of bridging cultural chasms. Out in the real world, we are designed to survive and our natural survival mechanisms often fly in the face of these values. How can we reconcile

our willingness to learn with our natural resistance? Global competency programs will need to teach those skills.

Our industrial economy allowed for a straightforward educational checklist to achieve employment: Get good grades to get into a good college to get a good job with good benefits. The new economy demands different capabilities: self-awareness, resilience, dynamic application of personal talent, and articulation of one's contribution. In the absence of established checklists, the successful careerist will identify opportunity on the fly, overcome obstacles independently, redirect efforts as needed, and be clear with others about what their own and their collective impact is. Global competency programs will need to teach those skills.

If core skills are fundamental to preparedness, any global competency program must include the building and practice of these skills. Indeed, success in any career will require not only the common core skills of commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity but also well-honed skill in managing one's own personal resilience, motivation and engagement in the face of shifting goals.

Leadership Preparedness

In order to serve student needs, educators must know and understand the international dimensions of their subject matter and teach students to analyze primary sources from around the world. This also means that all educators must become instructors of global competencies. When the educational community appreciates and shares multiple points of view and helps students recognize stereotyping, their commitment assists students in becoming responsible citizens of the world and of their own communities (Zhao, 2010).

In this regard, classroom pedagogy matters, particularly in terms of instructor and student teamwork. Educators and students must become accustomed to working with different people and develop shared attitudes about work and creativity. What also matters are interactive instructional models with discussion-based sessions—a format preferable to lecture-based presentations. Instruction

based on the development of global competency skills, when successfully implemented, will result in increased student ability to succeed in academic and community activities and in college transitions (Pittman, 2010).

How will educational administrative leaders accommodate those needs? And, what does this mean for leadership in educational environments focused on global awareness programs? For the purposes of this research, it means that leadership in colleges and universities must be supportive, as well as cognizant of, instructional techniques and strategies that are geared toward interaction and student engagement in the classroom.

Global Internships and Programs

Academic programs that develop and teach global competency skills challenge students to view themselves as members of a global marketplace and a world community. Specifically, one national program serves as example of pedagogical pathways by which students and professionals navigate across cultural barriers and move toward a better understanding of their roles as global citizens.

University students should also acquire skill sets that enable them to participate in domestic and global internships. One such program is offered by Grameen Bank—one of the largest international networks of microcredit organizations for the poor—founded by author Dr. Muhammad Yunus, who shared the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize with the bank. The Thunderbird and Grameen Global NGO Student Internship programs in Bangladesh provide graduate and undergraduate students with valuable, hands-on experience in microfinance, poverty reduction, and development opportunities. There are several academic institutions in the United States that participate with the Grameen NGO Internship program.

In the past, the interns have accomplished several critical tasks, including:

- adapting the microfinance model to address the poorest sector of society: beggars;
- restructuring the lending products to improve cash flow for struggling individuals;

- assessing the effects of the current financial crisis on microfinancing opportunities;
- improving the operations and accounting manuals used to train partner organizations in the work of microfinance; and
- participating in a financial audit of the Grameen Bank and a feasibility study of producing solar panels in Bangladesh.

On a broader scale, students acquire cross-cultural communication skills, the ability to adapt to new environments, and an understanding of global business practices in other countries.

Breakthrough Strategies: The Roadmap for Global Leadership and Cross-Cultural Understandings

The following 13 items are skills that students will acquire by participation in a global competency program. These skills, which fall into two categories—social networking and leadership—have been determined through experiences working with students in cross-cultural programs. They are also guidelines for educational institutions that design and/or create such programs. In either case, program outcomes should include the ability to:

Social Networking

1. Create new cultural opportunities and develop alliances and partnerships.
2. Be familiar with and employ social media tools and progressive technologies such as Facebook.
3. Use technologies such as Twitter, Blackboard, Moodle, and Telplace across the global marketplace to perform business transactions.
4. Create shared innovations through one-on-one partnerships.
5. Construct cross-cultural understanding through social, mission-driven actions.
6. Assist students, faculty, and the community in reinventing the world through modern and original social innovations, initiatives, and strategies.

7. Produce engaged citizens, students, and faculty by solving universal issues.
8. Influence social, political, and academic networks by crafting strong procedures so that social entrepreneurs can contribute to information and experiences.

Leadership

9. Develop and direct worldwide programs and courses.
10. Establish international entrepreneurship and universal management skills.
11. Foster charitable initiatives.
12. Establish merit by investing time and capital for the disadvantaged or those who have meager revenue.
13. Sustain worldwide leadership through specialized education, workshops, and continuous training.

As educators, businesspeople, and the community encourage successful participation and completion of these pathways, today's young people will learn to move from individual endeavors toward collaborative, community-based partnerships in schools, in domestic and global internships, and in interactions within the multicultural environment of today's global world. Social entrepreneurship, as we have seen in the Grameen Global NGO Student Internship program in Bangladesh, is an illustration of one of the many programs that represent the power and hope of the next generation—their leadership is the key to the development and sustainability of scalable business and educational communities.

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