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From the Editor

February 2022

Welcome to the 41st issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, an online, peer-reviewed journal. I would like to take this opportunity to welcome Paulo Amaral of Católica Lisbon to the editorial board.

This issue contains five articles. In the first article, Liu, Riggio, Reichard, and Walker propose a construct called “everyday leadership”—the behaviors enacted by individuals who, regardless of formal title or authority, influence others to achieve shared objectives for the betterment of the collective—and a measure to assess it. Their results indicated that everyday leadership is a multidimensional construct with good discriminant and convergent/predictive validity.

With prompt communication from leaders being critically important during an exogenic shock, Douglas, Roberts, and Díaz analyzed COVID-19 communications from a sample of leaders in public universities in the U.S. Midwest. They found that leaders who communicated using situational, behavioral, and adaptive leadership were able to effectively communicate messages with clarity, meaning, and empathy that were responsive to the wave of uncertainty and shocks exacerbated by the pandemic.

Keebler’s article provides strategies for leaders to effectively navigate organizations through sustained organizational whitewater, or the turmoil caused by complex and ever-changing environments. These strategies include embracing change; influencing behavioral change and organizational learning; affecting motivation and efficacy; developing organizational climate and social systems; focusing on organizational agility; implementing an effective conflict management system; and providing strategic alignment for sustained change/whitewater.

Asserting that no one traditional leadership framework or model encompasses all the necessary components for the complex and dynamic virtual environment, Lubich, Rawlings, and Menefee discuss the virtual leadership framework offered by the School of Business at Northcentral University, which has emotional intelligence (EI) at its core. They offer recommendations for future research in the field of EI and virtual leadership based on the framework.

Finally, Djofang and Fofack assessed the degree of association between the EI level exhibited by Cameroonian immigrants living in Nicosia, North Cyprus, and their leadership effectiveness (LE), along with assessing its relation to the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The results highlight the importance of EI for both leadership styles and LE.

Please spread the word about *ILJ* to interested academics and practitioners and remember to visit <http://internationalleadershipjournal.com>. Also, feel free to propose a topic and be a guest editor of a special issue by contacting me at jcsantora1@gmail.com.

Joseph C. Santora, EdD
Editor

ARTICLES

Everyday Leadership: The Construct, Its Validation, and Developmental Antecedents*†

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We propose a construct called “everyday leadership” and a measure to assess it. *Everyday leadership* is the behaviors enacted by individuals who, regardless of formal title or authority, influence others to achieve shared objectives for the betterment of the collective. Initial validation of the measure was performed, and its developmental antecedents were explored. The results indicated that everyday leadership is a multidimensional construct with good discriminant and convergent/predictive validity. In a longitudinal dataset, one’s self-motivation to lead at age 17 predicted everyday leadership at age 38 through the serial mediation of affective motivation to lead at age 29 and leader self-views at age 38. Implications for future research and leadership development through everyday experiences are discussed.

Key words: antecedents, construct, everyday leadership, longitudinal, validation

What does leadership look like when the person engaging in leader behavior is not in an identifiable leadership position? What does it look like, at work or in everyday life, when an individual takes on leadership? How do non-leaders engage in leaderlike behaviors in everyday circumstances? These are some of the questions that the present research sought to investigate.

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Leadership has been defined as a social influence process by which an individual influences or leads others to achieve common goals in organizations (Bass & Bass, 2008). Drawing on this definition, the traditional research approach has been leader-centric—focusing on how those individuals identified as leaders, typically by virtue of their role or position, influence others toward goal attainment. For example, in heroic or charismatic models of leadership, there was an assumption that leadership belonged to identified and “elite” leaders (Brown, 2018). A more contemporary approach suggests, however, that leadership can be performed by any member of a collective, regardless of any formal role or designation (Berson et al., 2016; Kegan & Lahey, 2016; Wassenaar & Pearce, 2018). Moreover, although much leadership is conducted in organizational/business settings according to the whole-person approach, which emphasizes the holistic nature of individuals (Lester et al., 2017; Taysum, 2003; Zaidi & Bellak, 2019), a leader as an integrative organism is embedded in a variety of contexts, including the workplace, as well as other daily contexts such as the community, schools, and social organizations. Thus, leadership may occur in everyday settings and develop across multiple domains (Hammond et al., 2017).

In addition, cross-domain theory proposes that the demonstration and development of leadership in one domain has mutual enrichment with that in another distinct domain (McNall et al., 2010; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). In other words, leadership experiences at work may enrich community-based leadership, and vice versa. Based on this, we propose a concept of “everyday leadership” and investigate its validity and antecedents in this study.

Conceptualizing and Constructing Everyday Leadership

The proposal to construct “everyday leadership” stems from the gap between leadership conventions and the emerging phenomenon of everyday leaders. Decades of research on leadership have focused on the emergence and effectiveness of leadership in the workplace (Zhao & Li, 2019), so that people implicitly identify an elite person heading a large company or a department in the organization as a prototypical leader. Yet, we often encounter a leader who is an

ordinary person influencing others proactively in our everyday life, such as a key team player in recreational activities or a grassroots organizer in community initiatives (Riggio et al., 2020). We define *everyday leadership* as behaviors enacted by individuals who, regardless of formal title or authority, influence others to achieve shared objectives for the betterment of the collective. Therefore, we have expanded the traditional notion of leadership a step further, broadening leadership occurrences to any context and enacted by any individual. Our proposed construct of everyday leadership is quite consistent with the whole-person approach (Taysum, 2003) and the positive perspective of enrichment across multiple domains (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006).

The concept of everyday leadership is unique but related to other constructs, such as active citizenship, organizational citizenship behaviors, and informal leadership. Specifically, *active citizenship* refers to proactive behaviors one exhibits that go beyond his or her civic member role for the betterment of the community (Zaff et al., 2010). *Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs)* are those positive behaviors (e.g., helping) one exhibits beyond his or her job role for the accomplishment of organizational goals (LePine et al., 2002). *Informal leadership* generally refers to leadership behaviors that occur without formal title or authority in organizations (Miner, 2013). Compared to these three related constructs, everyday leadership is broader because it may occur in every corner of our daily life, not limited merely to the workplace or community. What's more, everyday leadership emphasizes influencing others, whereas active citizenship and OCBs are actions performed by the individual that do not necessarily involve influencing others. Moreover, everyday leadership may be displayed by both formal and informal leaders, whereas informal leadership mainly occurs in informal organizations (Neubert & Taggar, 2004; Pielstick, 2000). Finally, everyday leadership is consistent with notions of engaged/exemplary followers (Chaleff, 2009; Kelley, 2008; Uhl-Bien, et al., 2014) who may influence other followers, as well as providing upward influence on leaders (Oc & Bashshur, 2013).

Although the notion of everyday leadership has been mentioned in theoretical work (MacGregor, 2013, 2016; Mulhern, 2007), it has not been empirically

investigated. Moreover, these earlier approaches look at everyday leadership as a broad and general construct. For example, Dudley (2010) described *leadership* as the everyday act of improving each other's lives in a TED talk.

Our definition of everyday leadership views the construct as one composed of multiple elements. In addition, we propose that everyday leadership should cover both work domains and nonwork domains, both those in identified leader positions and those in non-leader positions. We began by first including leadership duties in the workplace and leadership and civic engagement in the community (Adler & Goggin, 2005; Reichard, et al., 2011) as core parts of the everyday leadership construct. We then included three dimensions of proactive behaviors: taking charge, voice, and individual innovation, extending these to domains at or outside of work (Parker & Collins, 2010). Examples of proactive behaviors could include persuading people on committees (e.g., parent-teacher associations), organizing events (e.g., fundraisers), influencing decisionmakers (e.g., political organizing), or coordinating activities (e.g., meetups, playdates). Based on the evidence above, we propose that the everyday leadership multifactor construct should consist of five components: (a) *leadership duties at work*, or the performance of behaviors at work that would typically be performed by a designated leader, such as representing a team's position to management; (b) *civic engagement in the community*, such as initiating an activity in the community to improve conditions for others or shape the future; (c) *taking charge at or outside of work*, such as taking charge of a project by representing a team and presenting results at or outside of work; (d) *voice at or outside of work*, which involves having a voice in decision making or agenda setting or communicating views about issues to others at or outside of work; and (e) *individual innovation at or outside of work*, which includes such things as contributing new ideas, setting a new course, or suggesting or implementing improved operating procedures at or outside of work. These five dimensions seemed to capture the broad construct of everyday leadership as we envisioned and defined it. Therefore, our first hypothesis proposed the five-component structure:

Hypothesis 1: Everyday leadership is a multifactor construct that includes leadership duties at work, civic engagement in the community, taking charge at or outside of work, voice at or outside of work, and individual innovation at or outside of work.

Everyday Leadership Construct Validation

After proposing the multifactor construct of everyday leadership, it is necessary to show evidence of its validity. In reviewing the existing literature and related leadership variables, we focused on two variables, transformational leadership and leader role occupancy, as indicators of convergent and discriminant validity.

Transformational leadership is one of the most influential leadership constructs of the past several decades (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Dumdum, et al., 2002). The concept of transformational leadership was first identified by Burns (1978) and later elaborated on by Bass (1985). According to this theory, *transformational leaders* are those who stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes by responding to followers' needs, empowering followers, and integrating followers' goals with those of the larger organization or collective. Transformational leadership is made up of four behavioral components: (a) idealized influence, which means that the leader acts as a role model or behaves; (b) inspirational motivation, which means that the leader inspires followers by creating a vision and using sense-making behaviors; (c) intellectual stimulation, which suggests that the leader encourages creativity and novel ideas, and (d) individualized consideration, whereby the leader serves as a mentor or coach who cares about followers' needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). By understanding the concept and construct of transformational leadership, one realizes that transformational leadership is based on a behavioral rather than a positional approach to leadership; that is, transformational leaders can emerge at any level within or even outside of an organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This feature of transformational leadership shares some similarities with our proposed everyday leadership construct. While our proposed everyday leadership construct includes taking charge, voice, and civic engagement, transformational leadership places more emphasis on creating a meaningful vision, modeling positive leadership behaviors, and considering the

needs of others. These similarities and differences suggest that everyday leadership and transformational leadership are moderately correlated but distinct from each other.

Leader role occupancy is an oft-used indicator of leader emergence and refers to whether people occupy identified positions of leadership in organizations (Arvey et al., 2006). Since it is usually an objective consequence of others' perceptions of an individual's leadership competencies or behaviors, leader role occupancy is more clearly distinguishable from other self-reported facets of leadership (Arvey et al., 2006, 2007). In previous research, leader role occupancy is often used as an outcome variable in work or nonwork settings. For example, Arvey et al. (2006) first explored the genetic and personality determinants of leader role occupancy with a sample from a longitudinal database. Other researchers subsequently investigated the developmental and environmental determinants of leader role occupancy, sampling individuals from ordinary, everyday contexts (Arvey et al., 2007; Daly et al., 2015; Li et al., 2011, 2012; Reichard et al., 2011). In addition, since leader role occupancy is presumably the result of possession of leadership competencies or demonstrated leadership behaviors, individuals who behave proactively in daily life would be more likely to be perceived as "leader-like" (Ilies et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2002). Therefore, we inferred that our proposed everyday leadership construct might be one of these behavioral determinants of leader role occupancy. This would suggest that a relationship between our everyday leadership construct and leader role occupancy would serve as evidence of the predictive validity of the everyday leadership construct. Thus, we proposed a second hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 2: The everyday leadership construct has good discriminant and predictive validity, such that everyday leadership is moderately correlated with transformational leadership and significantly predicts leader role occupancy.

The Developmental Antecedents of Everyday Leadership

Everyday leadership may occur in every aspect of daily life and can be performed by anyone, so it is important to explore its developmental antecedents. What

predicts who will engage in everyday leadership behavior, at work or in the community? It has been suggested that leader development is a continuous process occurring across the lifespan, with developmental stages from birth, through adolescence, and into adulthood (Day, 2000; Day et al., 2014; Riggio & Mumford, 2011). A variety of individual, environmental, and family variables, early in life, can have a positive or negative impact on the manifestation of leadership in later life stages (Liu et al., 2019, 2020; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). Longitudinal studies have suggested that a variety of antecedents, such as extraversion, academic intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and positive family environment in adolescence significantly predict leader emergence and transformational leadership in emerging adulthood (Gottfried et al., 2011; Guerin et al., 2011; Oliver et al., 2011; Reichard et al., 2011). These longitudinal studies inspired us to explore the developmental antecedents of everyday leadership, particularly the role that motivational and self-view factors play in the emergence of everyday leadership in adulthood (Day et al., 2009; Day & Liu, 2019).

We focused more specifically on the role of adolescence in adult everyday leadership behavior. Adolescence is one of most critical stages for leadership development (Erikson, 1968; Murphy, 2011). Liu et al. (2020) labeled *adolescence* as the “experimental exploration stage” in their model of leader development across the lifespan. In this stage, people are developing a sense of who they are by exploring various opportunities provided by the environment and the people around them, such as family members, peers, and others (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Self-motivation can play a crucial role in whether an adolescent will take advantage of an opportunity in their daily lives to practice leadership (Dishman & Ickes, 1981; Dishman et al., 1980;). An adolescent with high self-motivation to lead might strive to take on a leadership position and be motivated to try to perform especially well as a leader. In addition to self-motivation to lead, encouragement from parents may be another motivator for an adolescent to enact leadership behavior and/or seek positions of leadership. Therefore, one’s self-motivation to lead and parental encouragement in leadership may be two of the critical developmental antecedents in adolescence for everyday leadership in adults.

There may be additional developmental antecedents to everyday leadership in adulthood. According to the leader development across the lifespan model (Liu et al., 2020), adolescence is followed by the stage of emerging adulthood (ages 18 to 30) and then middle adulthood (ages 30 to 60). Motivational sources for leadership development in adolescence may influence motivation to lead in emerging adulthood (Gottfried et al., 2011), which may, in turn, affect everyday leadership behavior, as well as leader self-views, in middle adulthood (Liu et al., 2020). Therefore, from a longitudinal perspective, we proposed a third hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 3: One's self-motivation in leadership and parental encouragement to lead during adolescence indirectly predicts everyday leadership in middle adulthood through the serially mediating effects of motivation to lead in emerging adulthood and leader self-views in middle adulthood.

Method

Participants

The Fullerton Longitudinal Study (FLS) furnished the database for this research. The FLS is a contemporary longitudinal investigation that was initiated in 1979 with 130 infants and their families. The present study is based on leadership-related data collected at adolescence (age 17), emerging adulthood (age 29) and middle adulthood (age 38), with the assessments conducted in 1996, 2008, and 2017, respectively. The initial sample of 130 comprised an approximately equal number of male (52%) and female (48%) infants. Participant retention across the course of the investigation has been impressive, with over 80% of the original participants assessed at each assessment wave. For the most recent 38-year assessment, 107 participants (47% female; 91% Caucasian; 70% with children; 63% with a bachelor's degree or higher; 94.5% employed) were surveyed. Additional information about the sample across the course of investigation has been presented in detail elsewhere (e.g., Gottfried et al., 2011; Guerin et al., 2011; Oliver et al., 2011; Reichard et al., 2011).

Measures

The measures used in this study were collected either live (age 17 measures) or via online surveys (adult measures at ages 29 and 38). The time intervals and their accompanying measures were: (a) 38-year variables: everyday leadership, transformational leadership, leader role occupancy, leader self-identity, and leader self-awareness; (b) 29-year variable: affective motivation to lead; and (c) 17-year variables: self-motivation to lead, parental encouragement in leadership, as well as the control variables of extraversion, socioeconomic status, and gender.

Everyday-Leadership-Related Measures in Middle Adulthood. There are five components/measures used in the construct of everyday leadership. Each of these five measures were assessed in participants at age 38.

Leadership Duties at Work. Leadership duties at work were measured by three self-reported items to show the frequency of engagement in leader-role duties in the workplace. Participants were required to complete the online questionnaire. For each of three items describing leadership duties (presented results of a special project to members of the organization; taken charge of a special project; and asked to represent my team's position with our management), participants indicated the frequency that they performed that duty, ranging from 1 (never) through 3 (monthly) to 5 (daily). Responses across the three items were averaged; higher scores indicated more frequent engagement. This questionnaire has previously been used (Reichard et al., 2011). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.82.

Civic Engagement in the Community. Four self-reported items were used to measure civic engagement in the community. Sample items included "engaged in community service or volunteer work" and "taken part in fundraising for charity." Participants rated how often they had performed those behaviors from 1 (never) through 4 (monthly) to 6(daily). Responses across the four items were averaged; higher scores indicated more frequent engagement. The items were developed based on measures used in an earlier study on civic engagement (Adler & Goggin, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.84.

Taking Charge at or Outside of Work. Three self-reported items were employed to measure taking charge at or outside of work (implemented solutions to pressing problems; instituted new method or procedures that were more effective for a group; and corrected faulty procedures or practices within a group). Participants indicated their experience influencing others for the good of a group at or outside of work, regardless of whether they had a leader title. Participants rated how frequently they had engaged in the behaviors from 1 (never) through 3 (sometimes) to 5 (always). Responses across the three items were averaged; higher scores indicated more frequent engagement. These three items were developed based on a study of proactive behavior (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker & Collins, 2010) and extended to the more general domains (both at or outside of work). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.85.

Voice at or Outside of Work. Three self-reported items were employed to measure voice at or outside of work (communicated your views about issues to others in a group, even if your views differed and others disagree; spoken up and encouraged others in a group to get involved with issues that affect the group; and spoken up with new ideas or changes in procedures). Participants completed the online questionnaire based on their experience influencing others for the good of a group at or outside of work, regardless of whether they held a leader title. Participants rated how frequently they had engaged in the behaviors from 1 (never) through 3 (sometimes) to 5 (always). Responses across the three items were averaged; higher scores indicated more frequent engagement. The items were designed based on earlier work on proactive behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Parker & Collins, 2010) and extended to the general domains of at or outside of work. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.86.

Individual Innovation at or Outside of Work. Three self-reported items were employed to measure individual innovation at or outside of work (promoted and championed ideas to others; investigated and secured funds needed to implement new ideas; and developed adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas). Participants completed the online questionnaire based on their experience influencing others for the good of a group at or outside of work,

regardless of whether they held a leader title. Participants rated how frequently they performed the behaviors from 1 (never) through 3 (sometimes) to 5 (always). Responses across the three items were averaged; higher scores indicated more frequent engagement. These items were developed based on previous studies of proactive behavior and innovation (Parker & Collins, 2010; Scott & Bruce, 1994) and extended to the general domains of at or outside of work. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.82.

Validation-Related Measures. We used a self-reported transformational leadership scale and a measure of leader role occupancy to explore the discriminant and predictive validity of our everyday leadership composite measure. Both variables were assessed at age 38.

Transformational Leadership. Forty self-reported items developed by Reichard et al. (2009) were employed to measure transformational leadership. The transformational leadership measure included the four key dimensions outlined in the theory (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Sample items included "It is extremely important to me that my followers are creative" (intellectual stimulation); "My followers would say that I am very attentive to their individual needs and concerns" (individualized consideration); "I have found that motivating people to do their best is the primary key to success" (inspirational motivation); and "My followers would report that they respect and admire my leadership style" (idealized influence). Participants were instructed to think about times that they had been in a leadership position or role and then rated their agreement with each of the statements, on a seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (disagree strongly) through 4 (neither agree nor disagree) to 7 (agree strongly). Responses across all items were averaged; higher scores indicated endorsement of more transformational leadership. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.81.

Leader Role Occupancy. In this study, leader role occupancy was measured for both work leader role occupancy and nonwork leader role occupancy. On the work leader role occupancy checklist, participants were asked to respond whether they had previously held or currently hold any of six work leadership positions ranging from shift supervisor to president; on the nonwork leader role occupancy checklist,

participants were asked to indicate whether they had previously held or currently hold any of thirteen nonwork leadership positions, such as leader in a community service group, a religious group, or sports organization. Participants were given one point for each community leadership position. The scores for the work leadership positions and the nonwork leadership positions were respectively summed and then averaged. The average score represents the degree of work and nonwork leader role occupancy for each participant. This measurement was used in past leadership research (Reichard et al., 2011).

Leader Self-Views in Middle Adulthood. Leader self-view defines one's self-concept regarding leadership, and it usually indicates the perceptions one holds about his or her own ingenuity, ability, and skills, expressed as the distance/discrepancy between one's current state and one's "possible self as a leader" (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Gardner et al., 2005). Leader self-awareness and leader self-identity are typical indicators of leader self-views (Liu et.al., 2020). In the current study, both indicators were measured on participants at age 38.

Leader Self-Awareness. Four self-reported items were employed to measure leader self-awareness. A sample item is "I am clearly aware of the impact I have on others." The responses were rated on a Likert-type scale from 1 (disagree strongly) through 3 (neither agree nor disagree) to 5 (agree strongly) and averaged across the four items. This scale has been used in past research (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.79.

Leader Self-Identity. Four self-reported items were employed to measure leader self-identity. A sample item is "I see myself as a leader." The same scale of agreement as leader self-awareness was used, and responses across the four items were averaged. The scale was developed by Hiller (2005) and previously used in leader development research (Day & Sin, 2011). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.83.

Motivation to Lead in Emerging Adulthood. *Motivation to lead (MTL)* reflects individual differences in one's willingness and decisions to assume leadership roles and responsibilities. It typically indicates the intensity of effort in leading and persistence as a leader. Developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001), it includes three

motivations to lead: social-normative MTL, affective MTL, and non-calculative MTL. For our purposes, we were only interested in affective MTL since it represents motivation to lead for the pure enjoyment of being in a leadership position. This variable was assessed at age 29.

Affective MTL. Nine self-reported items were employed to measure one's affective MTL. A sample item is "I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others." Agreement was assessed using the same Likert-type scale, from 1 (disagree strongly) through 3 (neither agree nor disagree) to 5 (agree strongly). Responses across the nine items were averaged. This scale has been widely used in research (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Guillén et al., 2015). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the current study was 0.87.

Motivational Sources for Leadership Development in Adolescence. Motivational sources for leadership development in adolescence are divided into internal motivation and external motivation, with indicators of self-motivation in leadership and parental encouragement in leadership. Both measures were assessed at age 17.

Self-Motivation in Leadership. A single item, "How much pressure do you put on yourself to do well in the areas of 'Be a leader'?", was employed to measure self-motivation in leadership. The response scale ranged from 1 (none) through 3 (moderate amount) to 5 (a lot). This item was developed based on past research (Dishman & Ickes, 1981; Dishman et al., 1980).

Parental Encouragement in Leadership. One self-reported item, "How much have you been encouraged to do well in leadership from your mother/father?", was employed to measure parental encouragement in leadership. The same five-point rating scale from 1 (none) through 3 (moderate amount) to 5 (a lot) was used.

Control Variables. To minimize endogeneity bias (Antonakis et al., 2014), we controlled for the effects on the outcome variables of three important constructs. All three control variables were assessed at age 17.

Extraversion. There is substantial evidence that the personality trait of extraversion is related to leader emergence (e.g., Zaccaro et al., 2018). We used

the 12-item extraversion subscale of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), Form S (Costa & McCrae, 1989).

Socioeconomic Status (SES). Prior research has suggested that SES is one key factor influencing leadership emergence and behaviors (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016). Therefore, we controlled for the effects of SES on the outcome variables. In this study, participants' family SES data was computed using the Hollingshead Four Factor Index (Hollingshead, 1975). The assessment includes the two components of parental occupational status and parental education (both parents).

Gender. Additionally, gender differences are often controlled for in leadership studies (Carli & Eagly, 2017). Therefore, we also controlled for the effects of the gender of participant on the outcome variables.

Results

We employed Mplus 8.0 software (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) to perform data analyses. In the validity analyses, correlations, regressions, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were utilized. Structural equation modeling (SEM) with latent variables was used to test the proposed longitudinal model. For the SEM, the statistical significance of the indirect effects was determined using the 95% confidence interval, with 1,000 bootstrapped resamples (MacKinnon et al., 2004).

Descriptive Correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 1, along with the age of participants at each data collection. As shown, all five components of the everyday leadership construct were significantly and moderately to strongly (Cohen, 1988) intercorrelated, with values ranging from 0.25 to 0.74. These results served as the basis for subsequent confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Both transformational leadership and leader role occupancy were significantly correlated (0.31 to 0.56) with each component of the everyday leadership construct, serving as the basis for subsequent validation analysis. In addition, the leader self-view variables were significantly correlated (0.26 to 0.64) with each component of the everyday leadership construct. The motivational source variables were significantly correlated (0.44, 0.36) with affective motivation

to lead. Leader self-view variables were significantly correlated (0.45, 0.63) with affective motivation to lead. All of these significantly positive correlations supported the subsequent SEM analyses.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for all Measures

	Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Leadership Duties at Work (age 38)	2.97	1.10														
2	Civic Engagement in the Community (age 38)	2.34	1.03	.25**													
3	Taking Charge at or Outside of Work (age 38)	3.43	0.83	.57**	.39**												
4	Voice at or Outside of Work (age 38)	3.60	0.79	.53**	.41**	.71**											
5	Individual Innovation at or Outside of Work (age 38)	3.05	0.93	.56**	.48**	.74**	.70**										
6	Transformational Leadership (age 38)	3.90	0.37	.32**	.37**	.48**	.56**	.46**									
7	Leader Role Occupancy (age 38)	2.01	1.40	.43**	.36**	.39**	.39**	.46**	.31**								
8	Leader Self-Awareness (age 38)	3.89	0.44	.29**	.28**	.46**	.46**	.46**	.64**	.35**							
9	Leader Self-Identity (age 38)	3.32	1.10	.52**	.26**	.52**	.50**	.60**	.47**	.40**	.51**						
10	Affective MTL (age 29)	3.39	0.71	.50**	.24**	.50**	.43**	.52**	.42**	.36**	.45**	.63**					
11	Self-Motivation in Leadership (age 17)	3.23	1.33	.19	.16	.17	.20*	.22**	.38**	.26**	.31*	.35**	.44**				
12	Parental Encouragement in Leadership (age 17)	3.77	1.36	.24*	.10	.20*	.27*	.33**	.28**	.22*	.27**	.33**	.36**	.51**			
13	Extraversion (age 17)	57.35	10.23	.14	.12	.07	.16	.12	.30**	.11	.30**	.23*	.30**	.59**	.33**		
14	Socioeconomic Status (age 17)	0.00	1.00	.05	.12	.13	-.05	.13	.01	.17	.18	.11	.19	.01	-.06	.03	
15	Gender	1.47	0.50	-.18	.01	-.15	-.11	-.03	-.02	-.25*	-.17	-.23*	-.16	-.06	-.08	-.06	-.06

Note. *N* = 107; MTL = motivation to lead. **P* < .05; ***P* < .01.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Based on prior research and theory, we conceptualized and constructed the everyday leadership measure, and proposed its five components: leadership duties at work, civic engagement in the community, taking charge at or outside of work, voice at or outside of work, and individual innovation at or outside of work. We conducted a CFA using the sample of 107 FLS participants to examine its multifactor feature. To both investigate the structural validity of the five components and the general construct of everyday leadership; we built a two-order CFA with each item of each component included. The coefficients of each path in the two-order CFA model are shown in Figure 1. Results of the CFA suggested a good fit of the model: $\chi^2 (99, N = 107) = 142.82, p > .001$; RMSEA = 0.066; CFI = 0.955; TLI = 0.946; and SRMR = 0.057. All of the factor loadings (see Figure 1) for the five components of everyday leadership were significant ($p < .01$): leadership duties at work (0.70), civic engagement in the community (0.55), taking charge at or outside of work (0.92), voice at or outside of work (0.92), and individual innovation at or outside of work (0.96). These results supported the multifactor construct of everyday leadership.

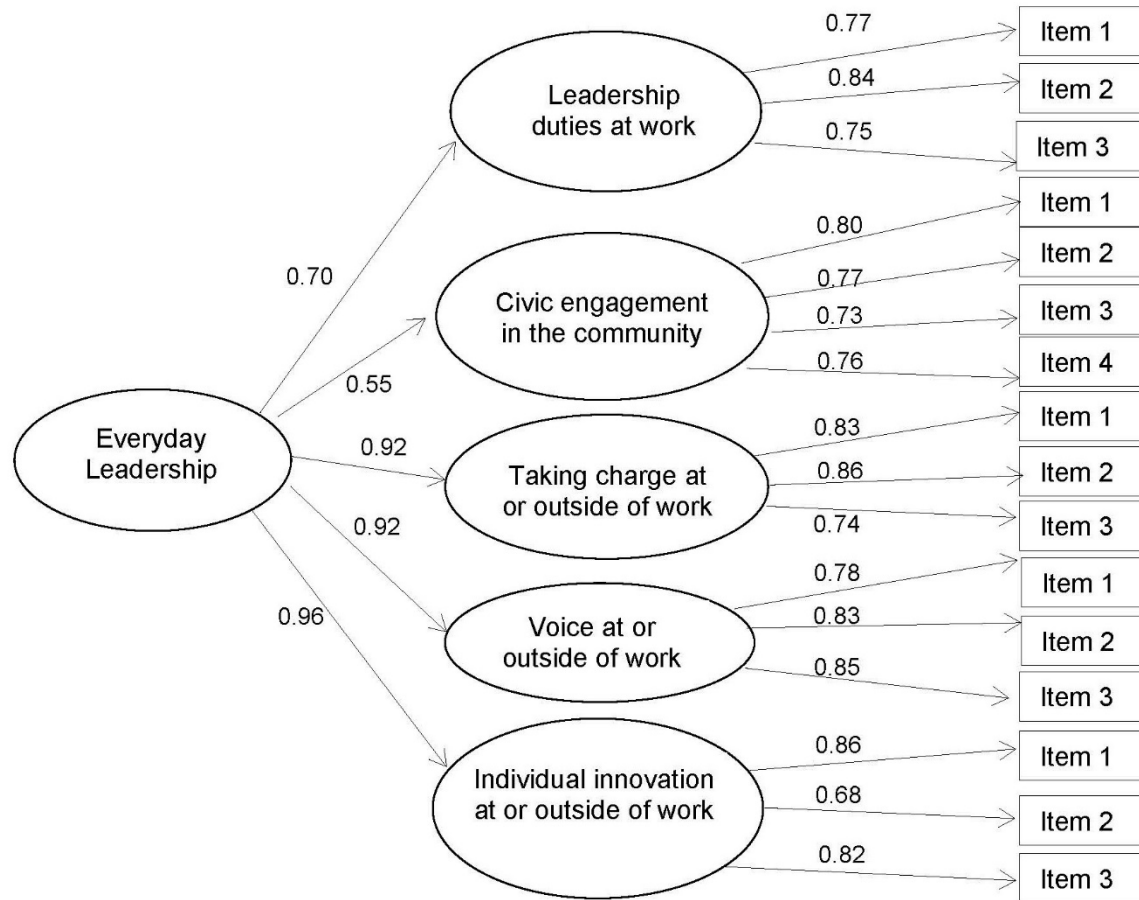


Figure 1. Results of the CFA on everyday leadership construct

Discriminant and Convergent/Predictive Validity

To demonstrate the discriminant validity of the everyday leadership multifactor construct, we proposed that the theoretical structure of everyday leadership is positively related to, but empirically different from, transformational leadership (Reichard et al., 2009). We conducted a regression from the latent construct of everyday leadership to transformational leadership. Results of the regression with the latent variable suggested a good fit of the model: $\chi^2 (114, N = 107) = 151.39$, $p > .001$; RMSEA = 0.056; CFI = 0.963; TLI = 0.956; and SRMR = 0.057. The regression coefficient was significant ($B = 0.62$, 95% CI [0.214, 0.484]). The moderate coefficient shows that everyday leadership is moderately correlated with, but distinct from, the transformational leadership construct and suggests that the everyday leadership multifactor construct has some convergent validity but is also different from (discriminant validity) transformational leadership.

To demonstrate the predictive validity of the everyday leadership multifactor construct, we treated leader role occupancy (Reichard, et al., 2011) as the outcome variable to test the regression from the latent construct of everyday leadership to leader role occupancy after controlling for the effects of extraversion, socioeconomic status, and gender. Results of the regression suggested a good fit of the model: $\chi^2 (162, N = 107) = 243.51, p > .001$; RMSEA = 0.070; CFI = 0.922; TLI = 0.909; and SRMR = .077. The regression coefficient was significant ($B = 0.48$, 95% CI [0.644, 1.398]). The significant coefficient suggests that everyday leadership can predict leader role occupancy, demonstrating predictive validity.

Taken together, these results suggest that the everyday leadership multifactor construct demonstrated good discriminant and predictive validity. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis With Longitudinal Data

To investigate the developmental antecedents of everyday leadership in middle adulthood, we conducted SEM analyses with the longitudinal data across ages 17, 29, and 38. We used the latent variable of everyday leadership as the outcome variable in the SEM analyses. For independent variables, we used the two types of motivational sources at age 17, with self-motivation in leadership as an internal source and parental encouragement in leadership as an external source of motivation. We also included two serial mediators in the SEM analyses: affective motivation to lead at age 29 and the latent variable of leader self-views at age 38, which is composed of leader self-awareness and leader self-identity. After controlling for the effects of extraversion, socioeconomic status, and gender on everyday leadership, the results of the SEM with the latent variable suggested a good fit of the model: $\chi^2 (236, N = 107) = 338.80, p < .001$; RMSEA = 0.065; CFI = 0.914; TLI = 0.904; and SRMR = 0.076. As shown in Figure 3, all of the path coefficients in the model were significant, except for the path from parental encouragement in leadership at age 17 to affective motivation to lead at age 29. All of the path coefficients of the model are shown in Figure 2.

For the indirect effects in the SEM model, it was found that the indirect effect of self-motivation in leadership at age 17 on everyday leadership at age 38 was significant ($B = 0.25$, 95% CI [0.111, 0.396]). In short, the effect of self-motivation in leadership at age 17 on everyday leadership at age 38 was serially mediated by affective motivation to lead at age 29 and leader self-views at age 38. In contrast to that, the indirect effect of parental encouragement in leadership at age 17 on everyday leadership at age 38 was not significant ($B = 0.03$, 95% CI [-0.136, 0.189]). In short, the effect of parental encouragement in leadership at age 17 on everyday leadership at age 38 was not serially mediated by affective motivation to lead at age 29 and leader self-views at age 38.

The results presented above partly support Hypothesis 3. Specifically, one's self-motivation in leadership during adolescence indirectly predicts everyday leadership in middle adulthood through the serial mediating effects of motivation to lead in emerging adulthood and leader self-views in middle adulthood. But the indirect effect was not applicable to parental encouragement in leadership during adolescence, contrary to what we had predicted.

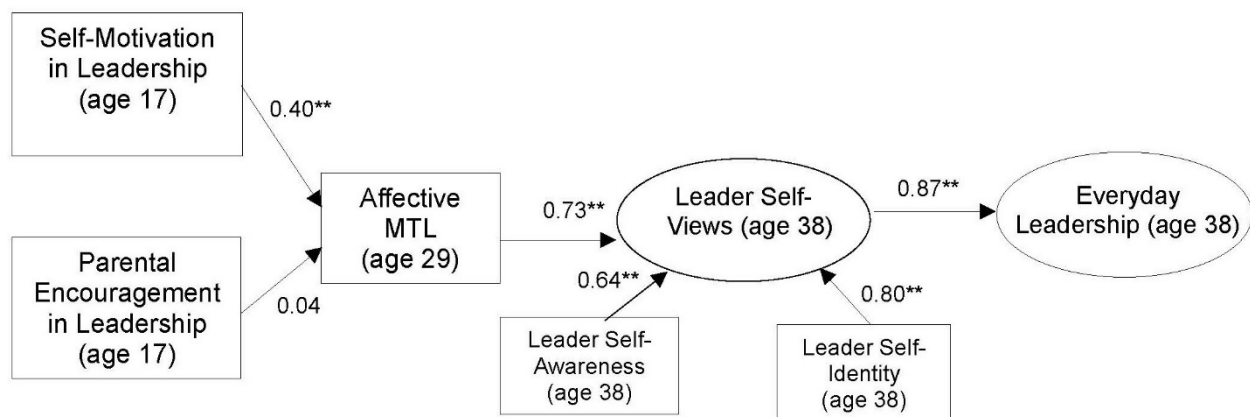


Figure 2. Results of SEM analysis with longitudinal data

Discussion

We proposed a construct of “everyday leadership” to capture when individuals engaged in leadership behaviors, regardless of whether they held a formal leadership position and including both leadership at work and outside of work in the community. This research, and the construct itself, was motivated by our

interest in exploring leadership in a general population. Typically, leadership research begins by identifying some population of leaders (e.g., persons with managerial titles, MBA students, etc.) and focuses exclusively on this subset of the population. We were interested in studying how “regular” people engage in leadership behaviors, regardless of whether they hold a leadership position. In some ways, this is analogous to, but quite different from, studies of leadership potential in a general population of interest (e.g., employees, students, etc.; Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Helsing & Howell, 2014). It may also connect to recent research on followership that emphasizes the role that followers/non-leaders play in enacting or co-constructing leadership (Jaser, 2020; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

The results of the study supported our notion that everyday leadership is a multifactor construct, made up of these components: engaging in leadership duties at work, civic engagement in the community, taking charge at or outside of work, employing voice at or outside of work, and engaging in individual innovation at or outside of work. This five-component construct also demonstrated good discriminant and convergent/predictive validity. In addition, after controlling for the effects of extraversion, SES, and gender on everyday leadership, one's self-motivation in leadership at age 17 indirectly predicted everyday leadership at age 38 through the mediating effects of affective motivation to lead at age 29 and leader self-views at age 38. But we did not find that parental encouragement at age 17 played a role in this model, as we had hypothesized. These longitudinal results, however, do suggest that everyday leadership can begin to form relatively early in life (adolescence, at least), and that it can develop over time, eventually leading to formal leader emergence and endorsement of more positive/effective forms of leadership (e.g., transformational leadership).

Although we are not alone in proposing a construct of everyday leadership (e.g., Buchanan & Kern, 2017; Dudley, 2010), we sought to more clearly define the construct and develop a means to assess it based on relevant leadership literature. To that end, we proposed the five-dimension construct, empirically tested the factor structure, and conducted some initial validation work. We assert that everyday leadership is an interesting construct because it involves social influence

in everyday life that occurs without the power and authority that comes from holding a leadership position. Behaviors such as taking charge, voice, and individual innovation may occur at work, in the home, and in the community as well as in society at large. We further believe that everyday leadership is distinct from the related (and well-researched) constructs of proactive behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, and informal leadership that primarily occur in the workplace (LePine et al., 2002; Miner, 2013; Zaff et al., 2010).

This research also looked at the antecedents to everyday leadership in adulthood. The finding that self-motivation to lead in adolescence was related to everyday leadership in middle adulthood is consistent with previous research that looked at the motivational roots of leadership beginning in childhood (Gottfried et al., 2011). That research found that academic intrinsic motivation from childhood through adolescence significantly predicted affective MTL in emerging adulthood. We added to this line of research by both extending the motivational roots of leadership to later middle adulthood (age 38). In addition, we included the role of leader self-views as a more proximal and malleable mediator between affective MTL and everyday leadership in adulthood.

In addition to our prediction that an individual's affective MTL and self-views about leadership would predict engagement in everyday leadership behaviors, we also explored the role of parental encouragement in leadership during adolescence on adult everyday leadership, but this prediction was not supported. This is inconsistent with past research by Oliver et al. (2011), which found that a supportive family environment in adolescence predicted leadership in adulthood.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This research has several important theoretical contributions to leadership research as well as practical implications for leadership development practice. First, this study enriches the leadership literature, and, to some extent, the growing body of research on followership, by examining how individuals, regardless of whether they are in an identifiable leadership position, engage in leadership behaviors—a construct we labeled “everyday leadership.” Research on leader emergence tells us that some people step up and are either granted or earn formal

leadership positions (e.g., DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Norton et al., 2014). Engaging in everyday leadership behavior may be a precursor to formal leader emergence and a predictor of leadership role occupancy, as our correlational results suggest.

Second, the construct of everyday leadership extends leadership beyond the workplace and examines leaderlike behaviors that occur both at work and in the community and social organizations. We argue that leadership behavior takes place in everyday life and that anyone can engage in everyday leadership. This opens the way for studying more informal types of leadership that can occur in almost any setting, consistent with Hammond et al. (2017).

Third, although others have discussed the notion of everyday leadership (e.g., Buchanan & Kern, 2017; Dudley, 2010; Riggio et al., 2020), there has not been a way to measure it. We constructed and conducted some initial validation of an instrument that can be used for future research on everyday leadership, drawing on theory and the research literature.

Fourth, the everyday leadership construct and our exploration of its developmental antecedents should have implications for both research and practice in leadership development. This study sheds some new light on how individuals may develop leaderlike behaviors in daily life, such as engaging in civic and social activities, being a member of a work team, or being active in a nonprofit or community organization. We also suggest that these everyday experiences can be an effective developer for later leadership in formal roles—consistent with recent work that suggests that the roots of leadership begin during the preschool stage of early life, and consistently evolve and develop over the lifespan (Liu et al., 2020; McCall, 2004; Murphy & Reichard, 2011). Moreover, the notion of everyday leadership suggests that leadership can be developed across multiple domains. According to work–family enrichment theory (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006), leadership development in one domain (e.g., work) can enrich and facilitate one's leadership in another domain (e.g., family).

Lastly, this study has important implications for the betterment of the society in which we live. We suggested that everyday leadership includes leader duties at work, civic engagement in the community, and other proactive behaviors (taking

charge, voice, and individual innovation) in daily life. Success in society depends on the willingness of its members to engage in such everyday leadership behaviors for the benefit of all.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are several limitations to the current research and potential research opportunities for the future. First, the current study was a first trial to empirically explore this novel construct of everyday leadership. We constructed a measure, but only conducted preliminary validation work. Future research could further develop a measure of everyday leadership, perhaps using our scale as a starting point.

Second, we only explored everyday leadership from the leader's own perspective and focused on individual leader development over time. It would be fruitful to examine how others perceive an individual's behavior as demonstrating everyday leadership. It is well established that the best judges of leadership behaviors/disposition are those working for the leader (e.g., others around the leader). In previous leadership research, leader effectiveness was assessed by those who observe and evaluate the leader's behaviors (Fleenor et al., 1996, 2010). Our research focused solely on the everyday leader and data collected from them. It is recommended that future research also include other's perspectives.

Riggio et al. (2020) proposed that everyday leadership may actually be a form of engaged and exemplary followership. As in leader–follower research, it would be interesting to investigate the bidirectional process whereby the followers influence an everyday leader, while the leader asserts their influence on others in the collective. In addition, future studies could investigate everyday leadership at the aggregated team level, even at the organizational level. As such, it may be a different form of evaluating the engagement and motivation of members as a collective—somewhat analogous to measuring leadership potential or members' organizational citizenship behaviors.

In addition, one of the strengths of this study was the exploration of some of the developmental antecedents of everyday leadership, but we only examined the indirect effects of motivational sources and their mechanisms. There exist many potential antecedents, such as intellectual factors, personality, education/training,

and a wide range of activities and experiences at early ages that contribute to the formation of adult leadership, both in its more traditional, formal form, and in its everyday variety.

Finally, we developed the construct of everyday leadership, but the supportive organizational conditions for its effectiveness need to be considered in future research. While we advocate for the importance and implications of everyday leadership, we also admit that the “knighted” leaders with official titles can be threatened by “everyday” leaders at lower organizational levels who effectively lead but don’t have the titles. This phenomenon is particularly prominent within certain cultures (e.g., United States, England). The conflicts between everyday leadership and formal leadership may be addressed organizationally under the auspices of a “culture” change perspective (e.g., everyone can be a leader; Kegan & Lahey, 2016).

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Leadership Strategies Amidst Disruption and Shock: Communication Implications^{*†}

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Leaders' prompt communication about the COVID-19 pandemic was critical to stakeholders' safety and knowledge about the uncertainty of organizational operations. In this study, the communication of various university leaders was analyzed in response to the new decade's deadliest exogenous shock, the spread of the deadly COVID-19 virus. Content analysis of statements from a sample of leaders in public universities contained elements of situational, behavioral, and adaptive leadership. The analysis was conducted to identify leaders' statements detailing contingencies being implemented for the survivability of their universities. Primarily studied were leader statements responding to the intensity and severity of the pandemic, rapid changes affecting the well-being of stakeholders, and essential organizational functioning. The findings of this study showed the need for institutional leaders to deliver prompt responses that quickly move people to action while paying attention to the multitude of stakeholder needs. Leaders communicating in situational, behavioral, and adaptive leadership were found to effectively communicate messages with clarity, meaning, and empathy that were responsive to the wave of uncertainty and shocks exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Key words: adaptive leadership, exogenous shocks, leadership communication, situational leadership

Leadership Strategies for Disruption and Shock: Communication Implications

Disruption and shocks affect organizational leaders' responsiveness to communicating a continuity of care to their organization and constituents. The global COVID-19 pandemic intensified the need for a greater understanding of leadership responses to major disruptions. Pandemic-level exogenous shocks force leaders to swiftly communicate to a multitude of employees, students, and

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other stakeholders, who are undoubtedly concerned about their well-being and the organization's existence (Craven et al., 2020). Exogenous shocks have historically been a focus of crisis management research, specifically to provide leaders with evidence-based information useful to their readiness for contingent and emergent situations (Craven et al., 2020). The circumstances for shocks include events that appear suddenly, entail far-reaching consequences on human conditions, are severe, and create a crisis for aspects of human socialization and civilization (Fligstein & McAdam, 2011).

The COVID-19 pandemic is considered an exogenous shock with serious implications for organizations' continued existence. For leaders, the entropic nature of exogenous shocks calls for rapid adaptive responses beyond leadership in business-as-usual times (Anderson, 2018). Communication crisis management is prevalent in the military, health care, and emergency management industries. Exogenous shocks are not new for leaders, but occurrences of epic and global proportions have so seldom occurred that many do not know how to rapidly respond to such chaos. The key challenge for leaders during an exogenous shock is in deciphering the intensity and the complexities of that shock into accurate and immediate messages. This study addressed the use of existing leadership theories and approaches for leaders as an effective response to exogenous shocks.

Leaders had to swiftly communicate appropriate information to layers of organizational constituents that would keep such groups apprised of an organization's status after the shock. The uncertainty required prompt and adaptive responses from leaders unlike during "business as usual" times (Ahern & Loh, 2020). Precise communication, known to foster resilience in leaders and their organizations when faced with adversity (Ahern & Loh, 2020), has been shown to effectively rally stakeholders to take safety precautions and energize leaders to begin reorganizing work structures, tasks, and the overall design of an organization (Stoller, 2020).

Leaders' responses and strategies were heightened during the COVID-19 pandemic as communication was vital to organizational operations and stakeholder management (Coombs, 2004; Davis & Gardner, 2012; Weiner et al.,

1988). Communicating timely and relevant information is essential for leaders to maintain rapport with stakeholders, as leaders are the source of duty of care and survival during exogenous shocks. Leaders' primary concern is how to sway their stakeholders to the idea that what is being communicated is true, just, and meaningful and not just leadership rhetoric (Davis & Gardner, 2012). Strengthening stakeholder rapport during cataclysmic events promotes the idea that open communication and trust are being forged—key elements of leader–member crisis relationships (Avery et al., 2010). During shocks and disruptions, how leaders publicize care and concern is vital for easing stakeholders' emotional states (Coombs & Holladay, 1996). Leaders who convey genuine sadness about calamity that affects stakeholders' health, socioeconomic status, lifestyle, and general well-being have been evaluated more favorably in public acceptance of the leaders' communication (Madera & Smith, 2009).

Protection of their livelihood is the main lens through which institutional community members and stakeholders evaluate leadership statements about the status and force of the shock. People look for communication that specifically explains any ease to social, health, financial, and wage burdens (Coombs, 2004; Davis & Gardner, 2012; Weiner et al., 1988). Coombs (2004) suggested that situational crisis communication theory (SCCT) is fitting for leaders given the responsibility for publishing intense crisis-related statements because the theory focuses on interlocking past crisis intervention communication with current crisis messaging. Weaving stories of past situations and data into current messaging strengthens the public's perception of a leader's competency to successfully navigate the flux and complexities of the new event (Coombs, 2004). For example, the World Health Organization's (WHO; 2020) leaders used language in early notifications about the spread of COVID-19 to convey how populations around the world recovered from SARS and MERS in the past.

Stakeholders and followers are known to deeply analyze leadership information to identify the origin and ownership of an event (Davis & Gardner, 2012). Attribution theorists like Weiner et al. (1988) proposed that stakeholders will make shrewd judgments about how the shock occurred, the effect on the organization, and the

capabilities (attributes) of leaders to successfully lead the organization through such complexities. Stakeholders will look for who is responsible and who will fix the organization back to some form of past or future normalcy (Davis & Gardner, 2012). Additionally, stakeholders will scrutinize and analyze leaders' communication from past crises to determine how leaders will handle critical issues in a current crisis (Coombs, 2004).

As the disruption and shock around the COVID-19 pandemic evolved from late 2019 to early 2020, leaders in all organizations and industries were faced with vital decisions about organizational operations and communicating with stakeholders. Leaders were faced with rapidly changing events that affected stakeholders and the survival of the organization; many had no prior experience in managing and leading through this magnitude of disruption. While leaders may have previously faced some form of disruption or adversity, the COVID-19 pandemic was extremely different than what most had previously experienced. Research has sought to explain the nature and impact of crises to support organizations and leaders in preparing for; responding to; and overcoming shocks, disruptions, and crises to preserve performance, recover, and prevent decline and failure (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2015). In response to the rapid increase in challenges and threats to organizations, research is needed to better explain how leaders can respond in times of adversity; which can potentially mitigate crises before they arise (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2015). A critical assumption for this research was that leaders of an organization play an important role in organizational crisis communication. Leaders are assumed to be both the internal and external authority in an apex of communication that effectively responds to crisis (Dolan et al., 2006).

For effective management of an exogenous shock, leaders need to quickly detect potential warning signs and accurately interpret them to be able to mobilize organizational attention and resources (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Leaders then need to communicate to internal and external stakeholders regarding the crisis, its consequences, and the decisions affecting organizational operations (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991). The challenge for leaders is to repair and restore operational disturbances caused by the shock (Kahn et al., 2013), transitioning the

organization from emergency response mode to some form of normalcy (James & Wooten, 2005).

This research focused on critically analyzing a sample of leader responses from the onset of the exogenous shock—the COVID-19 pandemic—and the evolution of the leaders' responses as the pandemic continued. Content analysis was used to discover the leadership theories rooted in the leaders' responses about the COVID-19 organizational impacts to identify how leadership theories may be used for effective crisis management. The main themes and subthemes were also analyzed through content analysis to answer the following questions:

Research Question 1: What leadership theories were present in the statements?

Research Question 2: Which leadership theories were most prominent in the statements?

Research Question 3: What subthemes of the theories were present in the statements?

Research Methods

As a qualitative data analysis technique, a content analysis research design was used in this study. Content analysis in leadership research provides advantages for richer detail, safeguarding greater context information, and potential for grounded theory development (Insch et al., 1997). By analyzing the contents of statements from a sample of public universities in the U.S. Midwest, this study identified and evaluated leadership theories and approaches used in the public communications at the beginning of 2020 and the subsequent statements as the pandemic intensified.

To identify the leadership theories and approaches in official communications, 206 public statements were collected from the universities' websites that were released between January 2020 and March 2020. The statements identified met the criteria determined for this study. The criteria for the statements were focused on the university leaders' statements regarding specific actions taken regarding operational changes and communications with stakeholders about COVID-19. The statements used were only from the president or chancellor's cabinets within the

university; statements from other departments or offices were not used to focus the study on the specific leadership responses. Statements that were specific to an action taken in response to a COVID-19-related disruption were utilized to remain within the scope of the study. The frames used to guide the selection of statements were: COVID-19; changes; operations; and staff; faculty; and students. Using the frames, the statements specific to the identified leader sample and related to a response to stakeholders regarding the COVID-19 disruption were used for the analysis.

Sample

A purposeful sample of leaders at 12 public universities in the U.S. Midwest was used in this research. The universities were chosen given the peculiar nature of higher education institutions as organizations. The universities were selected based on similarities in student population size to hold constant the scope and size of the university, in addition to all of them being public institutions. Each of the universities was represented equally in statements with similar amounts and scopes of the statements. Universities are central to society by providing links between state, market, civil society, and private organizations (Eaton & Stevens, 2020). As mentioned earlier, this study used universities as the sample given the remunerated value of higher education to the survival of global human ecologies (Gaus, 1947). Universities are complex organizations that hold multiple meanings simultaneously as businesses, agents of governments, and philanthropies (Eaton & Stevens, 2020). Universities are increasingly confronted with a multitude of internal and external stakeholder groups, including staff, students, government agencies, employers, and community members. Universities are under pressure to manage relations with stakeholders for long-term survival and face crises and exogenous shocks in the same fashion as other organizational types. Universities are complex systems that interact with a complex environment. With a myriad of diverse stakeholders, multiple missions, and distinct internal cultures, leaders must navigate the loosely coupled systems through effective communication (Orton & Weick, 2011). Given the complexity of universities and the need for leaders to effectively communicate with multiple stakeholders, this sample provides

generalizability across many organization types. The needs, goals, and expectations for leaders are complex during times of normalcy and are further aggravated and accentuated during times of shock, disruption, and crisis.

Data Coding, Analysis, Validity, and Reliability

The leader statements were analyzed in the content analysis method, which is a widely used method in social sciences and leadership studies. *Content analysis* is a research tool used to determine the presence of specific themes and concepts within the text. The process includes the quantification and analysis of the presence, meanings, and relationships of words and concepts. The final phase of the process is to make inferences about the messages within the statements. Reliability especially depends on the coding process. The reliability requires that the different encoders use the same codes in the same text and way (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). For credibility and dependability, Corbin and Strauss's (1996) subjective inter-coder reliability method was used. Two of the three researchers coded the transcripts independently and began to formulate provisional codes and categories. The research team then created a mutual understanding of codes to refine the coding framework. Extracts of data were coded to as many themes/subthemes as relevant. Themes were further refined and reduced by examining coherent patterns in the coded data. For this study, data categories and codes were performed by two researchers working independently of each other. Finally, the codes and the categories were compared using NVivo 12.

The statements were initially coded for leadership theories that were inferred from the messages or communications. After identification through initial coding, leadership theories and approaches were recognized by recording patterns in the technique, content, themes, and subthemes used in the statements. The patterns were identified by grouping similarly worded statements, as well as by the statements with similar information, scope, structure, and messages. Statements were then coded again to refine the major leadership theories and approaches present in statements. The coding identified adaptive leadership, situational leadership, and behavioral theories of leadership present in the statements from

university leadership regarding the pandemic. In some of the statements, all the leadership theories and approaches were present. In these cases, the predominant approach or theory was counted. The researchers independently analyzed the statements and indicated which theory and approach were present. One researcher then compiled the results to determine which theory or approach was predominant in the statements based on the initial analyses.

Adaptive leadership was identified in messages aligning with the definition established by Heifetz et al. (2009) as the “practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive” (14). With adaptive leadership as the main theme, the subthemes of situational challenges, leader behavior, and adaptive work were identified in the statements. *Situational challenges* can be technical, have both a technical and adaptive dimension, and be primarily adaptive (Heifetz et al., 2009). *Leader behaviors in adaptive leadership* were identified as helping others confront difficult challenges and describing the changes that will come from those challenges (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997). *Adaptive work* was identified through the communications as messages intended to help people feel safe as they confronted the changes resulting from the difficult challenges (Heifetz et al., 2009).

Situational leadership was identified in the messages that were flexible by adapting styles to numerous factors in the workplace and focusing on leadership in situations (Blanchard et al., 2013). This leadership approach stresses directive and supportive dimensions with each applied appropriately in the given situation. Situational leadership suggests that the messages will change given the degree to which they need to be directive or supportive to meet the changing needs of the situation (Northouse, 2019). The subthemes of situational leadership were identified in the messages as communications were tailored to the target audiences. These subthemes were telling, selling, participating, and delegating (Blanchard et al., 1993).

Behavioral approaches in leadership identified in the statements were rooted in task-oriented and relationship-oriented approaches. *Behavioral approaches* focus on what the leader does and how they engage in task and relationship behaviors. *Task-oriented behaviors* focus on directives for accomplishing goals and achieving

objectives (Northouse, 2019). *Relationship behaviors* focus on supporting followers in the present situation, aligning more with encouraging participative and empowerment behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011).

Findings

The findings of the content analysis produced widespread numbers across the three leadership approaches and theories (adaptive leadership, situational leadership, and behavioral theories of leadership). Results consisted of 420 descriptions of leadership approaches and styles in the statements.

Leadership Theories and Approaches (Research Question 1)

From the descriptions, three distinct leadership approaches were further categorized into three types of leadership approaches or theories (adaptive, situational, and behavioral). Table 1 shows the frequency of the three leadership approaches/theories and subthemes.

Table 1: Leadership Theories/Approaches in the Universities' Statements Dealing With COVID-19

Leadership Theory/Approach	Frequency	Percentage
Adaptive Leadership Theory	88	21
Situational Challenges	32	
Leader Behavior	19	
Adaptive Work	37	
Situational Leadership Theory	209	50
Telling	102	
Selling	35	
Participating	48	
Delegating	24	
Behavioral Theories of Leadership	123	29
Task-Oriented Behaviors	59	
Relationship Behaviors	64	

Prominent Leadership Theory in Responses to Crisis (Research Question 2)

Situational leadership was the predominant approach, garnering 50% of the descriptions collected from the statements. The leadership responses utilized situational leadership for communications. Situational leadership was highlighted in

the responses as communications updated followers and stakeholders while adapting the messaging to fit the current situation. With situations being unique and significant, the messages shifted and adapted by analyzing followers' needs and formulating the best responses at the time. Leaders should act, be decisive, and adapt decisions and messages to suit the needs of a situation to have greater success in weathering a crisis than those who choose to wait and not act (Boin et al., 2016).

Situational leadership theory focuses on the joint function of leader behavior and situational requirements. The messages should display support as well as use directiveness and monitoring to emphasize task accomplishment and social relationships (Blanchard et al, 2013). The following excerpts from the universities' statements support the findings of situational leadership with a focus on both task accomplishment and supportive social relationships:

- "These events are devastating in that they impact the lives . . . in a very negative way and cut deep into the fabric of supporting our success."
- "I specifically want to express my sincere appreciation to all of the members for your extraordinary efforts to prepare a safe and welcoming environment."
- "I am issuing a presidential directive that no one physically works on our campus unless they are requested to do so by an appropriate supervisor."

Like situational leadership, behavioral approaches were predominant in the statements with 29% of the descriptions connected to the task-oriented and relationship behaviors associated with behavioral leadership theory. In behavioral theory, leader behaviors were considered to be task oriented when the statements highlighted structure and directive messages. The relationship behaviors were identified in the statements that highlighted empowerment, participative leadership, and servant leadership (DeRue et al., 2011). The following excerpts from the statements are indicative of behavioral leadership:

- "With confirmation of COVID-19 cases, we are proactively taking steps immediately to protect the health and well-being of students and employees."

- “As of today, the decision has been made to extend remote instruction through the end of the spring semester. This is in line with nearly every other state institution and will provide clarity on expectations going forward.”
- “I know that some of you may be feeling isolated and some of you may have questions, concerns, and thoughts about your university and our future. And I want you to know that I am here for you.”

Adaptive leadership was also found in 21% of the descriptions. Adaptive leadership is similar to situational leadership in that messages or actions are flexible and adaptive to changing behavior. Adaptive leadership is becoming most important for leaders as the pace of change organizations face is becoming more rapid (Burke & Cooper, 2004). Aligned with contingency theories, the common assumption with adaptive leadership is that the environment supplies the variation to which leaders must adapt, and the variation is exogenous to the leadership process (DeRue, 2011). Adaptive leadership focuses more on a leader's relationship with the contextual environment and how the leader changes in response to interactions with the environment (Glover et al., 2002). Following Heifetz et al.'s (2004) definition of *adaptive leadership*, which stressed that leadership is the “activity of mobilizing people to tackle the toughest problems and do adaptive work necessary to achieve progress” (24), the following excerpts highlight adaptive leadership:

- “Leadership has been working to determine the best path forward to provide services while also prioritizing the health and wellbeing of all.”
- “We understand that this could be especially challenging for different programs. . . . We are prepared to accommodate our students and to find effective and appropriate alternatives.”
- “Senior leaders are thoughtfully working through possible solutions, and we will provide an update to our community tomorrow with next steps.”

Subthemes of Leadership Theories (Research Question 3)

Within the three leadership theories and approaches found in the analysis of the statements, subthemes emerged related to each theory or approach. In situational

leadership, the model developed by Blanchard et al. (1993, 2013) with quadrants identified as telling, selling, participating, and delegating was identified in the statements. The telling quadrant focused on giving instructions, such as “employees whose pay is reduced will very likely be eligible for unemployment compensation. The university has developed a website with detailed information to assist affected employees relevant to unemployment processes.” The selling quadrant focused on explaining decisions made by leaders, such as “as we look to next year the financial uncertainties presented by COVID-19 circumstances have exacerbated the existing financial challenges faced. We must prepare for the economic impact of the pandemic.” The participating quadrant encouraged idea-sharing, such as:

I want to remind you that this is an evolving situation, so I ask that we all be patient, flexible, tolerant, and most importantly kind to one another. We need everyone’s help to beat this virus. We continue to ask for and identify solutions to help our community make meaningful connections and develop a sense of belonging.

The delegating quadrant is where the leader turned decisions over to followers. The following excerpt is indicative of delegating:

I want to thank each and every one of the over 300 members who elected to participate in the reduction of hours through the end of July. Your personal commitment of supporting the university during this time is sincerely appreciated.

The behavioral approach posits that leadership actions occur on a task-oriented level and a relationship level (Northouse, 2019). A leadership response may be more task oriented when focused on being directive and structured (DeRue et al., 2011), as in this excerpt: “If you plan on returning to work on campus, you must email your supervisor to inform them of any recent travels and potentially explore options as appropriate for an alternative work arrangement.” Relationship-level responses focus more on being participative and empowering (DeRue et al., 2011) as in this excerpt: “Please rest assured, we fully understand during this time that your personal well-being and your ability to care for anyone counting on you is critical. We strive to be flexible and responsive to your needs.”

Adaptive leadership is a complex process that includes situational challenges, leader behaviors, and adaptive work (Heifetz et al., 2009). Situational challenges were identified in the statements as technical and adaptive challenges and solely adaptive challenges. This excerpt supports the finding of situational challenges in the statements: “We know these decisions create complicated inconveniences. The many details surrounding these decisions are currently being discussed by the university; more information and direction will be communicated as soon as possible.”

Leader behaviors in adaptive leadership are general prescriptions for helping confront difficult challenges and the changes that will result from them. Leader behaviors should provide direction, protection, orientation, conflict management, and productive norms in their messages or responses (Northouse, 2019), such as: “We are asking supervisors to offer flexibility to employees who are sick, have respiratory issues, or who need to care for family members who are ill.”

Adaptive work is the final subtheme within adaptive leadership. Adaptive work is a communication process between leaders and followers where changes in roles, priorities, and values are confronted (Northouse, 2019), such as in this excerpt: “We will be ready and, importantly, we will have the flexibility in place to make any necessary changes should the situation change. We ask and expect the cooperation of every individual to create a safe campus.”

Table 2 summarizes the leadership theories and approaches along with the subthemes and exemplary excerpts that support the findings.

Table 2: Leadership Theories/Approaches and Subthemes in Statements Dealing With COVID-19

Leadership Theory/ Approach	Subthemes	Exemplary Quotes
Adaptive Leadership Theory	Situational Challenges	"This type of developing situation will no doubt leave you with more questions than answers."
	Leader Behavior	"This is an unprecedented circumstance that is understandable, causing concern and anxiety for each member of our community. We are here to support you."
	Adaptive Work	"Now comes the challenging work to determine the appropriate actions to take next. Our goal is to meet the needs of our students, faculty, and staff who have responsibilities in the community and school, as well as respect those who do not."
Situational Leadership Theory	Telling	"So we can determine the full picture of how we may move forward for next year's budget; I have asked supervisors to perform a budget planning exercise. . . . You need to understand that we must begin collecting this data to inform decisions if necessary."
	Selling	"Thank you for everything all of you are doing as we navigate these uncertain times. This is a difficult situation for all of us. We have been through a number of tough years and resilience remains the key to our success."
	Participating	"I want to applaud everyone's ingenuity, flexibility, and resilience. I cannot thank you enough for all you are doing to care for each other."
	Delegating	"As you are aware, we are still in the middle of a stressful situation, filled with uncertainty and worry. I ask that you support and check on your friends and co-workers regularly."
Behavioral Theories of Leadership	Task-Oriented Behaviors	"Supervisors will have employees report in person only for duties that are necessary to continue operations in this interim period. Exceptions should only be made in rare cases. This directive is for every employee."
	Relationship Behaviors	"I value each one of you and think about you every day. I hope you and your families are both healthy and safe. I want to thank you again for everything you are doing for each other during the disruptions caused by this global pandemic."

In the content analysis of the statements, situational leadership, behavioral leadership approaches, and adaptive leadership were found to be the emergent

and predominant foundations to the leadership messages and communications at the beginning of the COVID-19 disruption. Understanding how these leadership theories and approaches are utilized in statements and communications has implications for follower responses to disruptions and organizations' continued productivity and performance. Implications from the findings are discussed in the following section.

Discussion

Sound communication with both a sense of urgency and concern allowed institutional leaders to convey valuable information in a manner that is situated within constructs of leadership theory. The statements from institutional leaders analyzed in this study were frequent and directive, yet came from a place of care for the well-being of the campus and its community constituents. Given the analyzed communication was from earlier in the COVID-19 pandemic response, one of the broad characteristics that were evident across messages was the level of transparency within these communication efforts.

The findings indicated prominent levels of situational leadership communication coupled with transparency and appreciation, a fitting communication known to resonate with stakeholders (Ahern & Loh, 2020; Davis & Gardner, 2012; Insch et al., 1997). Leader statements acknowledging their navigation of unfamiliar events and situations in the "telling" and "selling" domains were direct and accurately conveyed the seriousness of the COVID-19 event to the public (Blanchard et al., 1993, 2013). Situational communication often focused on the immediacy of COVID-19 pandemic efforts and actions oriented to the beneficiaries of what was being conveyed. In such an undefined time, situational communication was offered to ease uncertainty and ambiguity.

Adaptive leadership communication, with careful attention to direction and protection, was evident in leadership responses. The adaptive leadership communication not only provided insight into institutional challenges because of COVID-19, but situated constituent (staff, faculty, student, and community member) behavioral response as adaptive leadership in action in addressing such challenges.

This finding of adaptive leadership offered a unique evaluation, not only of communication efforts, but of how institutional leaders positioned people and organizations globally as the true actors of leadership in an ever-evolving situation.

Situational leadership emerged most frequently in the leadership statements and institutional responses, undoubtedly resulting from the urgent and contingent nature of the COVID-19 pandemic. Organizational leaders communicating from a situational leadership perspective were able to connect the decisive actions that objectively focused on and honored stakeholder relationships and community safety. Supportive and appreciative tones within leaders' statements provided stakeholder reactions suitable to the variety of perspectives evaluating the leader responses. With more than 50% of included communication containing situational leadership aspects, institutional leaders enacted situational communication styles as they processed the plight and pondered how to strategically communicate to their constituencies (Davis & Gardner, 2012).

Implications

When a shock, crisis, and/or disruption occurs, a successful leader must be decisive and focus on the problem (Grint, 2005). The situation needs to be actively constructed through communication as depicted by the frequency of such findings in this study. Leadership involves the ability to make sense of a phenomenon in a way that is co-constructed by those being led, which is consistent with proactive leadership. A leader must not only consider what the situation is but how it is situated as part of their communications (Grint, 2005). Effective leadership in times of crisis and shock goes beyond delivering the most appropriate and timely response; leaders must appreciate the diverse needs of stakeholders and lead with integrity throughout the entire shock—before, during, and after (Gigliotti & Fortunato, 2017).

The research findings provided evidence of the prominent leadership theories and approaches encountered by leaders in times of adversity and disruption. Situational, behavioral, and adaptive leadership approaches were most prevalent in the leadership decision-making, communication, and behaviors that primarily contributed to how stakeholders perceived leadership strategies and actions. In

their study on behavioral leadership, Martin et al. (2012) noted that no matter the occurrence, a situational element is more impactful to effectiveness than a leader's traits or skills. In other words, a situation tends to decide a leader's behavior and communication mode versus his or her charisma and ability to be transformative. The nature of the situational event creates the space for a leader's behavior, traits, and skills to be aroused, which was prevalent in the findings for this study.

Critics of situational, behavioral, and adaptive leadership theories note the ambiguity in conceptualizing a follower's commitment to the approaches. Hersey and Blanchard (1969), early researchers and authors of the situational leadership model, defined four levels of follower commitment to a leader's situational action as unwilling and unable (Level 1), willing and unable (Level 2), unwilling and able (Level 3), and willing and able (Level 4). The four levels can also be applied to a leader's behavior and adaptability within a situation to draw follower commitment. Though followers' actions were not a part of this research, the findings in the study indicated that the leadership communication and institutional responses offered levels of commitment to be considered by the followers in all three approaches; especially since federal mandates from the crisis required followers to commit to leadership messaging and their safety and well-being. Situational leadership was evident in the greatest number of statements that leaders used to inform and draw commitment from followers, which is fitting for quick responsiveness in pandemic-level occurrences (Thompson & Glasø, 2015). The swift responses to tasks and security of relationships noted in the behavioral and adaptive leadership approaches also proved to be more appropriate than the longevity of time and energy leaders invest in transformational and charismatic leadership modes (Toader & Howe, 2021).

Additionally, complex organizations, such as the universities in this study's sample, are interdependent, and the impact of the exogenous shock demands leaders' attention on all aspects of the organization. While it is often a natural tendency to focus on a unit or department the leader may be associated with or most familiar with, the findings from this study suggest that the disruption from the shock has a cascading impact across all of the units or divisions of the

organization. By adopting an organizational lens, leaders can better contend with the interdependent complexities of exogenous shocks on the organization.

When disruption from exogenous shock happens, stakeholders look to leaders for guidance, hope, and a sense of security. Leaders play an integral role in managing meaning during a crisis or disruption (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991). In the findings of the study, communications were focused on providing the meaning of the situation and status of the organization to the many stakeholders. Stakeholders want to hear from the leaders to feel comfortable and safe as well as be informed of the status of the organization. Leaders hold a great deal of responsibility for the well-being of the organization and the stakeholders during a time when emotions are heightened and expectations are raised, which requires the leader to orient the internal and external stakeholders through communication and then action.

Limitations

Although the present study provides insights into leadership approaches to exogenous shocks in organizations as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, this study contains some limitations due to its scope. The sample used in this study, while complex organizations, was limited to universities. While universities as organizations often encompass many types of organizations, it is still limited to one sector or industry. Using the statements from the organizations also creates limitations as the results represent only a snapshot of what is present at that one time. It is possible that more statements were made that were not available for this study.

Future Research

Continued study may build upon the concepts, claims, and findings from this study. In response to the sample's limitations, the same approach should be used in different organizational sectors to understand the influence of organizational type on leaders' communications and responses to exogenous shocks. Future scholarship may further explore the various exogenous shocks beyond the COVID-19 pandemic to continue to understand how leaders respond and communicate during disruptions and crises. Finally, the perspectives of the stakeholders on the

effectiveness of leaders' communication would also be useful to better understand the impact and effectiveness of leaders during times of disruption.

Conclusion

Humans experiencing adverse and extreme changes that seem instant must process the reality of the change before they can fully accept that something new and negative is drastically changing their lives and lifestyles (Ahern & Loh, 2020). This study aimed to use content analysis to deeply probe leaders' communication and responses to the COVID-19-exogenous shock. The findings in this study indicated that situational, adaptive, and behavioral leadership theories framed the content and context of what the leaders conveyed to their constituencies. The usefulness of the findings is in validating and chronicling the prominent leadership theories in leaders' crisis communication that promote resilience and recovery during exogenous shocks.

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An Approach for Navigating Through Sustained Organizational Whitewater*

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This article provides strategies for leaders to effectively navigate organizations through sustained organizational whitewater. *Organizational whitewater* is defined as turmoil caused by complex and ever-changing environments. Sustained whitewater is currently the landscape for many organizations. To lead in this complex and dynamic environment, certain strategies need to be developed and implemented. These strategies include embracing change; influencing behavioral change and organizational learning; affecting motivation and efficacy; developing organizational climate and social systems; focusing on organizational agility; implementing an effective conflict management system; and, finally, providing strategic alignment for sustained change/whitewater. Effective leaders need to take on the role of organizational change agents to develop well-functioning organizations in a sustained organizational whitewater environment.

Key words: change agent, conflict management systems, organizational agility, organizational climate, organizational whitewater

Vaill (1996) first coined the term *sustained/permanent whitewater* to describe organizations that were going through sustained organizational turmoil caused by complex and ever-changing environments. He described *permanent whitewater* as having five characteristics, stating: “Permanent whitewater conditions are full of surprises. . . . Complex systems tend to produce novel problems. . . . Permanent whitewater conditions feature events that are messy and ill-structured. . . . Whitewater events are often extremely costly. . . . Permanent whitewater conditions raise the problem of recurrence” (10–13). These characteristics are more relevant now than at any point in history due to the rapid and unprecedented advances in technology, emerging markets, and social changes. Vaill’s definition of permanent whitewater represents the sustained churn and turbulence prevalent in contemporary organizational life (Bierema, 2016).

For the purposes of this study, *whitewater* is defined as frequent and disruptive change within organizations that has the potential to adversely affect the

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organization's success. These types of environments are quite different from those that existed just a few decades ago; those environments were traditionally more stable for both business leaders and employees. Employees were known to be loyal to companies by remaining with them for many years, if not their entire careers. Today's environment is quite different, requiring innovative and blended strategies to address the complex nature of sustained whitewater.

Blended Strategy

To develop an organization's ability to effectively navigate sustained whitewater, leaders need to influence organizational behavior, learning, motivation, efficacy, climate, social systems, agility, conflict, and strategic alignment. This may seem like a complex task, but if these areas are effectively addressed or influenced, organizations will reap the benefits of creating a highly agile workforce with the capability of rapidly adapting to changing environments.

Leaders who manage frequent and disruptive change need to develop and implement a blend of seven strategies to be successful: (a) embracing change; (b) influencing behavioral change and organizational learning; (c) affecting motivation and efficacy; (d) developing organizational climate and social systems; (e) focusing on organizational agility; (f) implementing an effective conflict management system; and (g) providing strategic alignment for sustained change/whitewater. These strategies directly address all five of the characteristics noted by Vaill (1996). When effectively implemented in a blended fashion, these strategies can diminish or eliminate the detrimental effects of constant change in an organization. Sustained whitewater should be viewed as an opportunity to develop an agile and effective organization better equipped to navigate through turbulent times.

Embracing Change

Due to advances in technology, emerging markets, and social change, organizational leaders have found the global business environment more challenging and complex than ever. As such, there has been unprecedented leadership churn. Sherman (2014) noted that "leadership churn has been

compared to organizational whitewater. Although periodic leadership change can be good and result in needed innovation, frequent changes in leadership can create instability for the workforce” (156). The emerging global economy has introduced more financial and organizational pressures than at any other time in history. These less stable environments have caused an uneasiness in the workforce, with an increasing number of employees and leaders exhibiting lower levels of organizational commitment than in the past (Cappelli, 2000).

Today’s competitive landscape is one of hypercompetition, which requires a new set of innovative strategies to stabilize the organization and be successful. Hitt et al. (2017) defined *hypercompetition* as “competition that is excessive such that it creates inherent instability and necessitates constant disruptive change for firms in the competitive landscape” (7). Organizations have changed significantly over the past decade, creating workforce pressures and the need to develop new strategies to address growing organizational gaps (Keebler, 2015). As such, organizational leaders should seek to understand the issues and challenges associated with continuous change and pursue blended and innovative methods to embrace change while increasing organizational performance. To successfully navigate the sustained whitewater of today’s business environment, learning cannot be left to prescribed training courses or traditional degree programs. Many traditional school systems have left our current workforce ill prepared for the everchanging environments that currently exist in the global marketplace (Vaill, 1996). Change is inevitable, and organizations must strive to embrace it, or they are destined to fail.

Keebler (2010) stated that “an organization must train its people to accept change as a way of doing business in the twenty-first century. As such, change must be looked upon as a positive, not as something to fear but something to be embraced” (58). Organizational leaders need to provide insight on the need for change to ease their followers’ feelings of fear and resistance. Constant change provides opportunities for individuals to learn and grow, so continuous organizational learning should become a way of being.

By implementing these seven strategies, leaders will become change agents and reshape/transform their organizations into highly adaptable and productive entities that can navigate sustained whitewater. Transformation needs to be viewed as a tool to gain a competitive advantage. Those organizations that successfully develop and implement these strategies will be better equipped to manage through complex and challenging times.

Influencing Behavioral Change and Organizational Learning

In today's extremely turbulent and competitive global marketplace, organizational leaders need to develop strategies to navigate their businesses and effectively manage their staff through these challenging times. One area of focus needs to be guiding or changing the behaviors of the employees, so that they will embrace change as an exciting prospect rather than an encumbrance. French et al. (2005) suggested that learning takes place once behavioral change has occurred or when a new vision and a way of thinking is provided within the organization. In short, a change needs to occur either within the individual or in their environment. Individuals have sophisticated social systems that develop in a variety of ways, which leads to the complexities associated in analyzing and evaluating them.

Bandura (2002) also noted that people have an evolved ability for social learning of knowledge, attitudes, values, and emotions through the social interactions they have within their environments. It can be argued that environment, behavior, and outcome are intertwined with one another. When one aspect is changed, the other two may or may not be affected. Bandura called this concept *triadic reciprocation*. Bandura (2006) noted that reciprocal interplay exists between behavior, cognitive, and environmental influences. In the triadic model, however, these factors influence each other bidirectionally rather than unidirectionally. Bandura (2006) argued that "in human transactions, one cannot speak of 'environment,' 'behavior,' and 'outcomes' as though they were fundamentally different events with distinct features inherent in them" (165). That is, environment, behavior, and outcome are interconnected, and each needs to be considered when developing policies intended to deal with sustained whitewater change.

Affecting Motivation and Efficacy

To guide behavioral change in the workforce, leaders should understand their employees' motivations. *Motivation* "is the inner state that causes an individual to behave in a way that ensures the accomplishment of some goal" (Certo, 2000, 354). As part of the process, intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are key aspects to the accomplishment of a goal. Locke and Latham (2002) suggested that intrinsic motivators are not subconscious and that leaders can provide the motivators that enable followers to perform well. Leaders need to identify their employee motivators to have a high performing team in times of change. Locke and Latham's study "found that specific, difficult goals consistently led to higher performance than urging people to do their best" (706). Providing clear, but challenging, goals is essential to success. However, leaders should safeguard those employees by assigning obtainable goals or milestones.

Leaders have an opportunity to affect workforce efficacy. Workforce cohesion creates a more stable environment, one that can expeditiously address sophisticated issues and in which members contribute ideas of solutions to workplace challenges. Team learning transforms conversational and collective thinking skills so that groups of people can reliably develop intelligence and ability greater than the sum of individual members' talents (Senge et al., 1994).

Yukl (2006) suggested that there is a difference between self-efficacy and collective efficacy. He noted that *individual self-efficacy* "is the belief that that one is competent and capable of attaining difficult task objectives," while *collective efficacy* refers to "the perception of group members that they can accomplish exceptional feats by working together" (253). The constructs of self-efficacy and collective efficacy are very similar, but one refers to individuals and the other refers to groups. One might infer that the two are independent of one another; however, Wang and Lin's (2007) study indicated otherwise. They concluded that "this study demonstrates that self-efficacy has a significant effect on collective efficacy and discussion behaviors" (2263). Based on their study, we can conclude that self-efficacy does affect collective or group efficacy.

Further research into motivation found that individuals tend to be highly motivated when they perceive something will benefit them in some manner or meet their desires. Britt's (2005) research tested a variation of Herzberg's theory and confirmed this notion. He suggested that students performed better in training if they perceived it would benefit them and defined this form of self-interest as *identity-relevance*. He argued that "as expected, the identity-relevance of the cognitive task influenced motivation during the test. Psychology majors were more motivated to do well when they learned that performance on the test was related to their future success as a psychologist" (198). Britt proposed that if individuals perceive they will receive a desired benefit, their motivation will increase. Employees also consider the level of difficulty in reaching the desired outcome. If the difficulty level is too high, then it negatively affects an employee's motivational level. An employee gains the highest level of satisfaction when the goals are clear and obtainable.

Ponton and Carr (1999) noted that "one aspect of the psychology dimension consists of the learner identifying needs that serve as motivational inducements to cogitate learning goals" (273). There seems to be a logical connection between an individual's motivation and the desire for a particular outcome, even if the results are not immediately realized. Leaders need to learn to influence their followers' ability to expand their personal capacity to achieve the results they most desire. and create an organizational environment that encourages all its members to develop themselves toward those individual goals and purposes in accordance with organizational goals.

Developing Organizational Climate and Social Systems

Jaisa et al. (2020) questioned whether organizational leaders can develop mutually beneficial relationships and partnerships based upon trust, respect, and achievement for common goals. This important question highlights the need to assess the critical role that organizational climate plays in the workplace. Burton and Obel (2004) explained that "climate measures trust, conflict, morale, equity of rewards, resistance to change, leader credibility and scapegoating" (135). Each of these elements can directly or indirectly affect the social system of an organization.

In many cases, social systems provide undue stress on individuals to conform to cultural values and ideas that are dominant in their communities and societies, as seen in countries around the globe.

From an organizational perspective, a social system may not foster a positive environment that nurtures organizational growth or learning and can be debilitating in a sustained whitewater environment. A leader should be responsible for meeting the needs the individual as well as the group. This will provide the follower with a sense of well-being and increase the level of trust with the leader and the group. Ellis and Fisher (1994) noted that “a leader who attends to social needs is concerned with promoting a harmonious and pleasant social environment in the group; this requires the leader to be sensitive to the group’s individual members and their interpersonal relationships” (198). Leaders should focus on positively affecting an organization’s social system and develop a harmonious and effective workforce.

Mok and Au-Yeung (2002) defined *organizational climate* as “a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior” (130). These properties have been shown to affect individual growth as well as organizational growth. A research study by Väänänen et al. (2004) suggested that there is a link between the climate of an organization and employee absenteeism. The authors noted that earlier research on the same topic indicated that the lack of job autonomy was related to increased health problems and absenteeism. Absenteeism adds to the turmoil in a complex whitewater environment. According to Väänänen et al., “unfair managerial procedures and poor organizational climate have been found to result in several negative consequences” (426). Burton and Obel’s (2004) theory on organizational climate suggested that a negative climate may affect the health of employees, noting that organizations with a low level of trust create an atmosphere of anxiety for their employees. Organizations should try incorporating facets of a positive organizational climate into their strategic vision. This will provide a shared goal and address the characteristics of organizational climate.

Van der Vegt et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between team learning and team turnover. They concluded that employee turnover had a destructive effect on a team, which, in turn, affected the team's performance. Their analysis further suggested that regardless of the investment organizations make in training and educating individual team members, team learning—and subsequently, performance—function best when team members work together over time with little or no team member turnover. Employee turnover is a very real concern when organizations are going through sustained organizational whitewater.

In a whitewater environment, both the social and cultural aspects of conflict must be mediated. Costantino and Merchant (1996) explained that “organizational responses to conflict do not occur separate and apart from the organizational ‘culture’ or the attitudes, practices, and beliefs of the system and its members” (7). Organizations should seek to make their work environment desirable to a variety of cultures. As such, leaders need to develop a collective identity within their groups.

Focusing on Organizational Agility

Developing an organization that is agile and responsive is key to success in a sustained whitewater environment. Harraf et al. (2015) stated:

Organizational agility is considered a core competency, competitive advantage, and differentiator that requires strategic thinking, an innovative mindset, exploitation of change and an unrelenting need to be adaptable and proactive. Agility thus becomes a business imperative for survival rather than choice. (675)

Leadership has opportunities to stimulate new ideas and innovation through the workforce socialization process. Filstad (2004) supported the effectiveness of role modeling in socialization and argued that socialization is similar to assimilation, suggesting that *socialization* is “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills to assume an organizational role” (396). Filstad's qualitative study found that the earlier role modeling was offered to new employees the greater the positive effect upon the personal characteristics of expectations, experience, self-confidence, and competitive instinct.

Filstad (2004) also found that the greatest effect of role modeling occurred when it was offered to employees during the first four to six weeks on the job. In line with

Bandura's (1986) description of vicarious experiences, including role models, Filstad stated that "newcomers also turn to non-interpersonal sources, such as written material, vicarious observations and experimentation" (397–398). However, research has also found that newcomers emulate only those traits and characteristics they perceive as beneficial to their needs and interests. Leaders can help develop the workforce by affected what employees perceive as beneficial. Senge et al. (1994) asserted that "team learning is transforming conversational and collective thinking skills, so that groups of people can reliably develop intelligence and ability greater than the sum of individual members' talents" (6). This philosophy has the potential to increase productivity and employee morale within an organization. In part, leaders can create a dynamic work environment that is desirable to a chaotic setting.

Leaders may evoke change in organizational cultures through a variety of ways, such as setting a new vision, hiring new employees who fit the new cultural assumptions, and training and educating leaders on defining and implementing a new value system (Kramer, 2007). As such, organizational leaders should review the current cultural assumptions, then assess and redefine them to meet their strategic vision or mission. Effective leadership has an important responsibility to provide a stimulating work environment, one that supports new member acculturation.

Implementing an Effective Conflict Management System

In a sustained whitewater environment, there are times of conflict due to the fast pace of change. As such, an effective conflict management system is essential to an organization's success. Some leaders seemingly disregard the sustainability of a positive relationship through effective conflict management systems, therefore, the continuous tension that the workforce perceives will continue to be counterproductive to the organization. Costantino and Merchant (1996) explained that "measuring the effectiveness of conflict management involves looking at the results of dispute resolution efforts, the durability of the resolutions, and the impact on relationships" (10). This type of analysis can be of great benefit to an organization.

Power plays a critical part in a conflict resolution and negotiation process. Deutsch et al. (2006) suggested that a fundamental dynamic within a conflict

resolution system is the unwillingness of those that have power to share it with others. This unwillingness to share power or treat others as equals may cause or inflame tensions in the workforce, as “failing to deal with others sensitively as human beings prone to human reactions can be disastrous for a negotiation” (Fisher & Ury, 1991, 19). It is important for leaders to understand conflict and negotiation processes and philosophies to be effective leaders in a sustained whitewater environment. Leaders and followers must value each other’s roles within the shared vision and common goals that drive their business relationship.

Power sharing does require the more powerful to see the benefit in power sharing. Costantino and Merchant (1996) defined this type of viewpoint as *interest based* and explained that “actually participating in interest-based alternatives to dispute resolution often leads to the deepest understanding on the part of organizational participants that they have and want a choice in the manner in which conflict will be resolved” (230). When the powerful understand that personal benefits exist in power sharing, they will be more inclined to buy into the philosophy. Deutsch et al. (2006) suggested that an organization’s climate and social structure influence power sharing, providing either a positive or negative perception to individuals on the value of power sharing. Deutsch et al. argued that an organization that values an empowerment philosophy is more inclined to power share, noting that “sustainable resolutions to conflict require progression from unbalanced power relations between the parties to relatively balanced relations” (134). The goal of an organization should be to balance these power relations to reduce conflict within their businesses.

The leadership of an organization is key to its cultural development. Developing leaders is a necessary and prudent step that will reduce conflict and enhance the productivity and effectiveness of the organization. Deutsch et al. (2006) stated that “cultural difference regarding power not only is the source of much cross-cultural misunderstanding and conflict, but it also significantly affects how individuals from different cultures respond to conflicts with others in high and low power” (131). Lack of trust can increase conflict within an organization, as such trust can be considered a critical component to any relationship. Knowing this, leaders must

also realize its frailty. A leader can build trust by valuing all employees individually; listening to their concerns; and addressing issues that are of importance to them. Leaders need to assess their effectiveness and seek to provide the type of work environment that is desirable to their workforce, which will further reduce conflict. Fisher and Ury (1991) stated it plainly: "Like it or not, you are a negotiator. Negotiation is a fact of life" (27). Though we would all love to have less conflict in our lives—both personal and professional—we cannot help but become involved in disputes based upon the very nature of conflict. Nevertheless, leaders must seek to become conflict resolution experts.

Providing Strategic Alignment for Sustained Change/Whitewater

An organization's strategic design has enormous impact on work relationships, activities, and the resources available to leaders within many industries. Businesses that want to succeed in today's atmosphere of global competition cannot continue to work without the benefits provided by a well-thought-out strategic plan. Keebler (2020) suggested that leaders need to develop environments that are flexible and effective and that enrich their experience while not diminishing the intellectual growth of their staff. They should seek to reinforce the organization's vision and mission to help the group bonding process. These measures will help build trust and, hopefully, increase their followers' commitment.

In developing a strategic design for an organization, areas such as gap analysis and sustained organizational change need to be addressed. These areas affect work relationships, activities, as well as the resources available to organizational leaders. Thompson (1967/2010) stated that "the basic function of administration appears to be co-alignment, not merely of people (in coalitions) but of institutionalized action—of technology and task environment into a viable domain, and of organizational design and structure appropriate to it" (157). Businesses that want to succeed in today's competitive global economy need to address the gaps that exist within their organizations. Part of the challenge of diagnosing and then eliminating gaps is encouraging others (throughout all levels of an organization) to realize that those gaps truly exist. Block (2000) cautioned those who desire to enact a hardline expert role that they may correct a problem without teaching the

organization how to do similar work as further problems arise. Thus, a collaborative posture is encouraged for organizational diagnosis and sustained change.

In a period of sustained change, employees need to learn how to be flexible and rapidly adapt to change. Easterby-Smith et al. (2006) argued that evaluative enquiry is a critical element in creating a learning environment. They identified seven key areas that leaders must emphasize to change their organizational culture: (a) asking questions; (b) identifying and challenging values, beliefs, and assumptions; (c) reflection; (d) dialogue; (e) collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data; (f) action planning; and (g) implementation. By providing an environment that fosters these concepts, an organizational leader has the opportunity to realize the advantages that a learning environment provides. Merriam et al. (2007) stated:

A number of key points about organizational learning are present . . . first, it is individuals who do the learning, but in service to the organization, so that the organization can adapt and develop in response to the environment. (43)

As such, individuals should be recognized as critical elements of an organization's success. Management has the responsibility to lead the followers through this learning process, so they may understand the value of the decisions being made and ultimately support or reject the action (Ponton & Carr, 1999).

Today's organizations have employees with very different values and backgrounds. As such, there are inherent differences that add to the complexities of developing effective communication within organizations. An organization should seek to use these differences as a competitive advantage and communicate a shared vision that employees at all levels will embrace. A shared vision is one that reaches and motivates the employee base. A clear vision promotes a sense of community and builds a shared image and value that can effect change in its broadest sense. When employees feel valued, they tend to be more receptive to change. Yukl (2006) suggested that "leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (7). For an organization to successfully meet its

strategic goals, a shared vision is essential, especially within a sustained organizational whitewater environment.

Peterson et al.'s (2000) research study assessed *collective efficacy* (a group's judgment of their ability to perform a particular task) and some dimensions of *shared mental models* (models of the group structure, process, and task that members hold in common) in student groups working on semester-long research projects. They found that the development of shared mental models provides for group and organizational growth. Peterson et al. stated:

What these different concepts hold in common is the idea that group members typically have some sort of organized knowledge structures relating to various aspects of the group's situation, such as their task, their interaction process, their environment and their fellow group members. The development of shared understanding on these matters helps group members to predict future actions and work together in a coordinated way. (302)

The researchers discovered that that collective efficacy and shared mental models were predictors of performance for groups, and they were positively correlated. Further, a longitudinal relationship existed between efficacy and shared mental models; that is, higher efficacy leads to more shared mental models.

Conclusions and Recommendations

An effective approach for navigating through sustained organizational whitewater needs to be incorporated into a business's strategic plan. Businesses are finding that sustained whitewater is the current organizational landscape in this competitive global environment. To lead in this complex and dynamic environment, the strategies discussed in this research need to be developed and implemented. These strategies are navigating behavioral change; promoting organizational learning; understanding individual and collective motivations and the efficacy of one's team; developing a positive and dynamic organizational climate and social system; providing focus on an organization's agility; implementing an effective conflict management system; and finally, providing strategic alignment for sustained change/whitewater.

Kee and Newcomer (2008) suggested that a critical function of leadership is to create a change-centric organization. This type of culture can comfortably adapt

to complex change situations. Changing an organization's culture involves good leadership, employee involvement, and patience. This is a route that leaders should take to stabilize their organization through rough whitewater challenges.

Gilley et al. (2002) noted that "in the role of organizational change agent, HRD professionals exercise the greatest influence on an organization's operations and outcome" (193). Employees with high self-efficacy should be brought into the organization and strategically placed throughout the business to help build collective efficacy. Organizations need to break away from practices of the past and insert processes that require higher levels of employee involvement. The processes need to provide added complexities that requires employees to think in a manner that will help them navigate these troubled waters to gain real and sustained advantages. Organizations need to value their employees as well as their ideas and embrace the creative tension that accompanies a sustained whitewater environment. Organizational leaders should seek to create an organization that fosters inquiry and dialogue, making it safe for people to openly share and take risks. Additionally, leaders should embrace creative tension as a source of energy and renewal for greater organizational effectiveness in a turbulent whitewater environment (Rowden, 2001).

As discussed, there are seven areas of leadership that need to be effectively addressed to avoid the negative aspects of this dynamic environment. As such, no single method will be effective due to the complex nature of a sustained organizational whitewater environment, so leaders need to be dynamic and flexible to effectively respond to rapid environmental changes in their organizations. Wheelen et al. (2015) asserted that "strategic management has now evolved to the point that its primary value is in helping an organization operate successfully in a dynamic, complex environment" (12). In today's chaotic environment, achieving this goal may seem challenging, however the types of strategies outlined in this research should be implemented and aligned with an organization's goals. An organization's strategic plan should be adaptive and somewhat flexible within a whitewater and chaotic environment, but stable enough to provide overall guidance toward the main goals of the organization. Organizational leaders should

try to understand and implement the systems and policies that help their workforce learn, adapt, and innovate.

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Emotional Intelligence and Virtual Leadership: A Framework and Pathway Forward*

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Asserting that no one traditional leadership framework or model encompasses all the necessary components for the complex, dynamic, and ever-changing virtual environment, the School of Business at Northcentral University (NCU) created a virtual leadership framework. The framework, which is published on the Center for the Advancement of Virtual Organizations (CAVO) website, has emotional intelligence (EI) at its core (Rawlings et al., 2020). In this article, we describe the virtual leadership framework offered by the NCU School of Business and offer recommendations for future research in the field of EI and virtual leadership based on the framework.

Key words: emotional intelligence, framework, virtual leadership

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, organizations around the world adopted virtual work and education practices to successfully operate in the face of governmental mitigation strategies implemented to prevent the spread of the virus and safeguard the public. Virtual organizations are made up of individuals or teams working from different physical locations, generally enjoying some degree of autonomy, with technology serving to enable their productivity (McCann & Kohntopp, 2019). Well before the unprecedented events surrounding the pandemic, there were organizations that thrived in the virtual workplace.

One such organization, Northcentral University (NCU), has been a leader in the virtual workplace for more than two decades. As a leader in the virtual workplace, NCU was uniquely positioned to support organizations forced to shift from the physical workplace to work from home due to the pandemic. NCU developed the Center for the Advancement of Virtual Organizations (CAVO) to support diverse industry professionals in all areas of virtual work. Recognizing the need to establish a framework, Rawlings et al. (2020) developed the virtual leadership framework (see Figure 1).

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Traditional leadership and management frameworks and models do not always apply to the virtual environment (Hooijberg et al., 1997; McCann & Kohntopp, 2019). While each of the frameworks may hold some element of applicability in virtual organizations, no one framework or model encompasses all the necessary components for the complex and dynamic virtual environment. For example, existing frameworks do not take into consideration the complexities of communication, relationship-building, and knowledge-sharing through existing and emerging technologies (Gross, 2018).

No single framework infuses the importance of emotional intelligence (EI) in the virtual environment throughout each facet. EI has been identified by a large body of research as a key driver of leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1998; Pitts et al., 2012; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). In a physical environment, leaders not only hear what workers have to say, but have the advantage of reading facial cues and body language, helping them to observe, monitor, and respond to workers' emotions. Leaders with high EI are more likely to pick up on the feelings of others (Pitts et al., 2012) and when needed, adapt their communication for better understanding.

Researchers suggest that leaders with high EI are competent in perceiving and managing emotions (Mayer et al., 2000), which is challenging in the virtual setting due to the loss of visual cues in body language and other, often subtle, emotional nuances. Leaders must have a heightened awareness of virtual workers' emotions, paying close attention to communications as well as silences for indications of potential issues or concerns. Maintaining a close watch on the emotional welfare of workers is a vital leadership role amplified in the virtual environment (Hunsaker & Hunsaker, 2008; Pitts et al., 2012).

EI is at the center of the virtual leadership framework developed by Rawlings et al. (2020). While researchers have published a great deal regarding the relationship between EI and effective leadership in a traditional work environment, very little of the current literature addresses the role EI plays in a virtual leadership environment. The centrality of EI within the framework of virtual leadership necessitates broader inquiry in this particular area.

The purpose of this article is to highlight the need for additional research into the relationship between EI and effective leadership in virtual work. We begin with a literature review providing a brief discussion of literature relating to EI and leadership, virtual leadership, and EI in the virtual workplace. The literature review is followed by an overview of the virtual leadership framework provided by NCU's School of Business. Recommendations for future research are also provided.

Literature Review

EI and Leadership

First introduced as a concept by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990, EI was proposed as a new intelligence (Mayer et al., 2016). Based on the findings of research in the areas of emotion, intelligence, cognition, and psychotherapy, Mayer et al. (2016) suggested that some people had a greater intelligence about emotions than others. Described by Cherniss and Roche (2020) as “the ability to perceive, understand, and manage our own emotions and those of others” (46), EI was popularized in the business community after Daniel Goleman published his 1995 bestselling book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, which has been translated into 40 languages and has more than five million copies in print worldwide.

Researchers have identified EI as a key factor in leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1998; Pitts et al., 2012; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Studies have established that EI accounts for approximately 23% of the variability in the performance of leaders (Cherniss & Roche, 2020). Baesu (2018) argued that leaders with superior EI are in harmony with members of their organization, thereby cultivating loyalty, and that leadership based on EI creates optimistic energy based on trust. However, Cherniss and Roche (2020) asserted that considerable time and effort are required to make modest gains in EI and that leaders are not thoroughly utilizing the EI they already have to meet challenges and opportunities.

Virtual Leadership

Avolio et al. (2000) established the term *e-leadership* and set forth recommendations for developing a research agenda based on a framework of adaptive structure theory, asserting that organizational structures, such as leadership, may be transformed as the result of interaction with advanced information technology (AIT). In the two decades since that seminal work, e-leadership has not flourished as a theory in leadership research (Contreras et al., 2020). However, there is a growing body of literature relating to leadership in a virtual workplace.

Study in this field is complicated by a lack of standardization in terminology. Several terms are used seemingly interchangeably in reference to leadership in the virtual work environment, including, but not limited to: virtual leadership, e-leadership, remote leadership, and digital leadership. Regardless of the terminology used, scholars and researchers agree that traditional leadership practices associated with a face-to-face workplace do not necessarily meet the unique dynamics and challenges of leading virtually (Gross, 2018; McCann & Kohntopp, 2019; Roy, 2012; Van Wart et al., 2019). For example, Roy (2012) argued that effective leadership in a virtual environment required leaders with technical and leadership skills who were also skilled in building relationships and defusing frustration. Van Wart et al. (2019) set forth six competencies that a virtual leader should seek to master: (a) communication skills, (b) social skills, (c) team-building skills, (d) change management skills, (e) technological skills, and (f) trustworthiness. Gross (2018) sought to connect characteristics of leadership styles with the effectiveness of virtual teams through a proposed theoretical model. These works serve as examples of ongoing efforts to bridge the knowledge gaps for effective leadership in the virtual workplace.

EI in the Virtual Workplace

In contrast to the rapidly growing body of work relating to virtual leadership, there is a paucity of recent peer-reviewed work exploring the relationship between EI and leadership in a virtual work environment. Alward and Phelps (2019) published a qualitative phenomenological study conducted to form an understanding of the

leadership traits needed to effectively lead virtual teams in higher education. EI was identified as a major theme among leaders of virtual teams and noted as the most important competency for virtual leaders (Alward & Phelps, 2019). Quisenberry (2018) also published qualitative phenomenological findings from a study to understand the potential for EI to improve project success for virtual teams, in which EI was perceived to have contributed to the success of projects by virtual team members (Quisenberry, 2018).

Earlier research by Nauman et al. (2006) explored the relationship between the challenges of virtual project management (VPM) and EI, proposing a multitiered association. The association was validated by the data collected, and Nauman et al. (2006) concluded that EI is critical to counteracting the challenges in VPM, thereby enhancing effective VPM. Similarly, through empirical research carried out through the lens of social cognitive theory (SCT), Joe et al. (2014) concluded that EI facilitated effective communication among virtual team members, resulting in positive outcomes for team planning.

Virtual Leadership Framework

NCU's School of Business put forth a framework for virtual leadership (detailed on the CAVO website) to fill a perceived void in virtual leadership (Rawlings et al., 2020). The framework is included in master's-level coursework within the School of Business's Management of Virtual Organizations program. The CAVO framework drew from several existing models with varying levels of applicability to leadership in the virtual environment. Researchers have shown that people-oriented leadership models are more effective in the virtual environment (Gross, 2018; Riquelme, 2013; Zander et al., 2012). On that basis, elements of Bass et al. (2003) full-range leadership model and Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) situational model were useful in constructing the virtual leadership framework. The leaderplex framework by Hooijberg et al. (1997), which was adapted by Carte et al. (2006) for the virtual environment, was also considered in the formation of the CAVO virtual leadership framework. However, the leaderplex framework is focused on leader

behavior and style and does not address information and communication technologies, engagement, or continuous improvement.

The CAVO virtual leadership framework is intended to be adaptable for leaders in various organizations and industries. Described as a pronged approach, the CAVO virtual leadership framework includes five elements: (a) communication, (b) engagement, (c) accountability, (d) human capital, and (e) continuous improvement. As shown in Figure 1, EI is at the hub of these five elements.



Figure 1. Virtual leadership framework

Note. Adapted from *Center for the Advancement of Virtual Organizations*, by M. Rawlings et al., 2020, Northcentral University.

Recommendations for Future Research

The deeply interwoven nature of EI in leadership in a virtual workplace suggested by the CAVO virtual leadership framework compels a greater understanding of EI in this unique setting. Additional studies are warranted to discern effective methods of measuring or assessing EI for leaders and members of virtual teams. Furthermore, research into methods for developing or enhancing the EI of virtual leaders and team members is recommended. The advancement of techniques for

effectively utilizing EI in the virtual workplace is also an area that would benefit from further investigation.

Research should also be undertaken to understand the role that EI plays within each of the elements of the CAVO virtual leadership framework. One area of particular interest would include communication and the sub-element of conflict mitigation. As Roy (2012) argued, diffusing frustration is a skill required by effective leaders in a virtual environment. An understanding of the relationship between the leaders' and team members' EI and any associated impact on diffusing frustration and resolving conflict within a virtual team would be particularly useful.

The relationship between EI and engagement is another area recommended for further study. The sub-element of building trust coincides with the trustworthiness competency that Van Wart et al. (2019) included in the list of skills a virtual leader should master. Understanding the importance of EI in relation to establishing trust in a virtual environment would therefore be of interest.

Conclusion

The virtual leadership framework (Rawlings et al., 2020) was put forth by NCU's School of Business and promulgated on the CAVO website to fill a perceived void and offer an adaptable framework to provide support for and aid leaders in various industries or organizations to achieve the best outcomes. The centrality of EI in the virtual leadership framework necessitates greater inquiry into the role and relationship that EI plays in each of the five elements of the framework within the unique environment of the virtual workplace.

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Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness: Evidence From Cameroonian Immigrants in Nicosia*†

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The aim of this study was to assess the degree of association between the emotional intelligence (EI) level exhibited by Cameroonian immigrants living in Nicosia, North Cyprus, and their leadership effectiveness (LE). We measured EI with the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT), also known as the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), and leadership styles and leadership outcomes with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x short). We assumed that the relationship between EI and LE was mediated by leadership style. The results showed that EI is positively and significantly associated with transformational leadership (TFL). We also found that EI has a positive and insignificant correlation with transactional leadership (TSL) and a negative and insignificant correlation with laissez-faire leadership (LFL). TSL and TFL are both positively and significantly associated with LE, while LFL has a negative and insignificant correlation with LE. Furthermore, we found that EI is positively and significantly associated with LE. Finally, we examined EI as a predictor of LE and found that it has a positive and significant impact on LE. The results highlight the importance of EI for leadership style and leadership effectiveness. Organizations should pay equal importance to the intelligence quotient (IQ) and the EI of their prospective employees, especially if those employees are called to occupy leadership positions. We also recommend the inclusion of EI modules in the training of leaders at school and at work.

Key words: emotional intelligence, international migration, leadership, leadership effectiveness, leadership styles

Background of the Study

Traditionally, the dominant paradigm in organizational literature has been cognitive orientation (Ilgen & Klein, 1989). Emotions have been ignored in organizations because they were considered controversial. Furthermore, people were dissuaded from expressing them in organizational settings. Emotions stopped being a taboo topic in organizations and began to rise as a field of study with the seminal works

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of pioneers like Hochschild (1983), Sutton and Rafaeli (1988), and their colleagues in the field of emotional labor (Ashkanasy et al., 2002). In the wake of those studies, Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1995), with his bestselling book *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, brought emotional intelligence (EI) to the attention of the research community and the mainstream public respectively (Olakitan, 2014).

The interest in emotional intelligence (EI) has been growing fast in organizational behavior, and especially leadership, literature (AlDosiry et al., 2016; Alfaouri & Tahat, 2020; Benabou et al., 2019; Obomanu, 2018; Rahman et al., 2012; Reshetnikov et al., 2020). This focus is because the process of leadership is emotional in essence, both from leaders' and the followers' points of view (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002). Goleman (1998) went even further, arguing that EI is a most—*sine qua non*—for leadership. Despite this statement, EI can be considered as one of the most disputed concepts in organizational behavior (Smollan & Parry, 2011). In fact, EI is controversial among researchers because there is no commonly accepted definition, model, or measure of EI (Ayiro, 2014).

Furthermore, empirical findings on the relationship between EI and leadership are not conclusive. Some studies have revealed EI to be a key factor determining leadership emergence (Reshetnikov et al., 2020; Voola et al., 2004) as well as leadership effectiveness (Alfaouri & Tahat, 2020; Obomanu, 2018). However, other studies found no relationship between EI and leadership (Waples & Connelly, 2008). Locke (2005) even argued that no matter its definition, the concept of EI leads to nothing more than inflating the literature of cognitive intelligence and personality.

Statement of the Problem

This study contributes to the ongoing debate on EI level and leadership effectiveness (LE) by focusing on a select population of immigrants. The population of the study was the registered members of the Cameroonian

Community¹ in Nicosia (CCN), North Cyprus. The focus on immigrants was justified by two main reasons. First, international migration, and especially African migration to Europe, has become one of the most popular topics in media and political institutions (Fofack & Akendung, 2020). Second, one can assume that people who leave their homes and travel thousands of kilometers to settle down in a new environment with a different culture, language, climate, and economic system need to exhibit a certain level of interpersonal skills to facilitate their integration into the host community and achieve the goals for which they migrated. The problem addressed by this research was to assess the relationship between immigrants' EI level and the effectiveness of their leadership.

Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to evaluate the degree of association between the EI level exhibited by Cameroonian immigrants living in Nicosia and the effectiveness of their leadership. Based on Ayiro (2014), it was assumed that the relationship between EI and LE is mediated by leadership style. Thus, this study examined:

- the degree of association between the EI level exhibited by Cameroonian immigrants and their leadership styles, and
- the degree of association between the leadership styles of Cameroonian immigrants and the effectiveness of their leadership.

Research Question

The central research question was as follows: What is the correlation between EI and LE? In line with Ayiro (2014), this central research question was reformulated as follows:

- What is the correlation between EI and leadership style?
- What is the correlation between leadership style and LE?

¹The Cameroonian Community in Nicosia is an association that was created in December 2013 to bring together the Cameroonian immigrants (students and/or workers) living in Nicosia, North Cyprus, and defend their interests. All the Cameroonians living in North Cyprus can join the association, provided they pay a yearly registration fee (€10 in 2020) and respect the constitution of the association.

Research Hypotheses

In assessing the association between EI and leadership effectiveness, the first and main hypothesis of this study was as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is no positive and significant correlation between EI level and leadership effectiveness.

This main hypothesis led to the following subsequent hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: There is no positive and significant correlation between EI level and leadership style.

Hypothesis 3: There is no positive and significant correlation between leadership style and leadership effectiveness.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the empirical literature on EI and leadership by examining the relationship between those two concepts in an immigrant population. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to study the correlation between EI and leadership in such a context. The study also contributes to the understanding of international migration as well as the integration of immigrants in their host community.

Literature Review

Theories of Emotional Intelligence

As Olakitan (2014) explained, EI is a concept that arose from the evolution of intelligence testing. In this evolution, Thorndike (1920) revealed that there are many types of intelligence, including *social intelligence*, which is the ability to get along with other people. The concept of social intelligence gained popularity when Gardner (1983) acknowledged in his theory of intelligence that interpersonal and intrapersonal are the two types of personal intelligence. Put together, these conceptions of social intelligence evolved over time and gave birth to EI. Although EI has its roots in relatively old concepts like social intelligence, George (2000) suggested that it offered a better understanding of the intrinsic dynamic and intertwined nature of emotions and thinking than those older concepts. Following

this point of view, Mir and Abbasi (2012) argued that while EI is a form of social intelligence, it has an incremental value above other forms and is a key factor in determining behavior.

The breakthrough of EI in the research community came from two articles. First, Mayer et al. (1990) strove to understand why some people are better than others in reading emotions. Second, Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed the first model of EI. In the wake of those studies, Goleman's (1995) bestseller brought EI to the attention of the mainstream public. However, there is no consensus in the research community on the definition of EI. Researchers provided different definitions in line with their conception of EI. For instance, Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined *EI* as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (189).

Bar-On (1997) proposed another definition in which EI was "an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures" (14). For Goleman (1998), EI was "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (317). Finally, George (2000) summarized the definition given by Mayer and Salovey (1997), explaining that "emotional intelligence taps into the extent to which people's cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed" (1033–1034).

As Kerr et al. (2006) noted, the main EI models include the Trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) of Salovey et al. (1995), the Emotion-Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) of Bar-On (1997), the Emotional Quotient Map (EQ-MAP) of Cooper and Sawaf (1997), the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) of Goleman (1998), the Self-Report EI Test (SREIT) or Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) of Schutte et al. (1998), the Multifactor EI Scale (MEIS) of Mayer et al. (1999), the EI Test (MSCEIT) of Mayer et al. (2000), the Swinburne EI Test (SUEIT) or Genos EI Assessment (GEIA) of Palmer et al. (2001), and the Workgroup EI Profile (WEIP) of Jordan et al. (2002). Among those measures of EI, this study uses the SREIT

or AES developed by Schutte et al. (1998) based on the original EI model of Salovey and Mayer (1990). As Rahman et al. (2012) described, the AES is a self-report instrument that allows individuals to measure the perception they have of their own EI. Composed of 33 items, it measures EI on four branches: perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, and utilization of emotions.

Perception of Emotions. *Perception of emotions* refers to the attention someone pays to the emotional signals depicted by others or objects. It also captures the ability to accurately identify the moods and emotions expressed by others as well as the feelings depicted by objects, colors, and their combinations (Mayer et al., 2004). Those who are good in perceiving own emotions could have an advantage when it comes to assessing the emotions of others.

Managing Own Emotions. *Managing own emotions* refers to the extent to which a person takes his or her emotions apart and evaluates whether they are positive or negative (Mayer et al., 2004). This branch captures a person's ability to sustain positive moods and avoid negative moods (Rahman et al., 2012). People with high skills in this branch could be emotionally more stable because they are able to regulate their feelings and keep emotional control of the situation at hand.

Managing Others' Emotions. *Managing others' emotions* captures a person's ability to manage—regulate, contain, modify, and annihilate—the reactions of other people (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A person with high skills in this branch could identify the emotional roots of others' behaviors, alter the emotions responsible for a particular behavior, and modify that behavior (Rahman et al., 2012).

Utilization of Emotions. *Utilization of emotions* refers to the ability to appeal to suitable feelings and emotions to inform or improve reasoning, problem solving, decision making, and some other cognitive activities (Mayer et al., 2004). This branch of EI could be why George (2000) declared that EI captures the extent to which people use their emotions to enhance their cognitive skills and ability to cognitively manage those emotions.

Theories of Leadership

Many scholars have proposed definitions of leadership. Despite their differences, those definitions use two common characteristics—exertion of influence and setting of direction—to describe leadership. For instance, Robbins and Judge (2009) defined *leadership* as “the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals” (419).

The theoretical history of leadership is made of a wide range of complementary and sometimes competing theories. As Gosling et al. (2003) explained, the schools of thought evolved over time, starting with the great man theory. Based upon that theory, scholars developed the trait theory of leadership. After that, the theoretical framework of leadership evolved rapidly, and new approaches (behaviorist theory, situational leadership, contingency theory, and transactional and transformational leaderships) were proposed.

Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1995) focused on three broad categories of leadership behavior, namely: transformational leadership (TFL), transactional leadership (TSL), and laissez-faire leadership (LFL). They developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x-short) used in this study.

Transformational Leadership. Robbins and Judge (2009) defined *transformational leaders* as “leaders who inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests and who are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers” (453). The MLQ 5x-short uses five dimensions to measure TFL, but this has not always been the case. As Yukl (2010) mentioned, the original theory proposed by Bass (1985) included three dimensions of TFL: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. In a first revision of the theory, Bass and Avolio (1990) included inspirational motivation among the dimensions of TFL. In a second revision, Bass and Avolio (1997) introduced a distinction between idealized influence behavior and idealized influence attributions.

Transactional Leadership. *Transactional leaders* are “leaders who guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements” (Robbins & Judge, 2009, 453). The MLQ 5x-short captures the two dimensions of TSL: contingent reward and active management by exception.

Laissez-Faire Leadership. As Yukl (2010) explained, this category of leadership was included in the revised versions of Bass's (1985) original theory. Yukl also argued that because this type of leader does not show any concern for production, nor for task, LFL better describes the absence of leadership than a distinct leadership category. In the MLQ 5x-short, this disputed category has only one dimension: passive management by exception.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

The interest in EI is growing fast in organizational behavior (Rahman et al., 2012), and especially in leadership, literature. Such a focus is because the process of leadership is emotional in essence, from both leaders' and followers' points of view (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002). Furthermore, many studies reveal that EI is a good predictor of leadership emergence (Bennis, 1989; Goleman, 1995) and effectiveness (Goleman, 1998; Obomanu, 2018).

To investigate the relationship between EI and LE, Benabou et al. (2019) collected data from 112 managers of ENIE, the largest Algerian electronics company. They measured EI with the EQ-i and LE with the Leadership Behavior Inventory (LBI) scale. The study revealed that EI had a positive and significant impact on leadership effectiveness. Alfaouri and Tahat (2020) came to the same conclusion after studying a sample of 115 managers/supervisors from three Jordanian telecommunications companies.

Goleman (1995, 1998) studied 188 large companies to investigate which of three interpersonal capabilities—cognitive skills, competencies related to EI, and technical skills—drove higher performance. The studies revealed that EI was twice as important as cognitive and technical skills for leadership, no matter the level of the leader in the organization's hierarchy. Goleman (1995, 1998) argued that technical and cognitive skills act like "threshold capabilities" (Goleman, 1998, 82) or entry requirements for leaders, while EI is the key determinant of their effectiveness.

Because the relationship between EI and LE is mediated by leadership style (Ayiro, 2014), many studies have investigated the link between EI and leadership styles (Olakitan, 2014; Rahman et al., 2012; Stanescu & Cicei, 2012;). Rahman et al. (2012) studied the behavior of 225 MBA students in Bangladesh using the

MLQ and the AES questionnaires. They found a strong correlation between EI and TFL and a weak correlation between EI and TSL.

Stanescu and Cicei (2012) studied 101 Romanian public managers using the MLQ and Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i. They found that EI correlated positively and significantly with TFL, positively but not significantly with TSL, and negatively and significantly with LFL. Olakitan (2014) worked with a sample of 232 Nigerian leaders using the MLQ and the Emotional Competency Profiler and found that EI was positively and significantly associated with TSL. The author also found a joint effect of all the dimensions of TFL on EI.

Method

Instruments

The data for this study were collected using a structured questionnaire administered online. The items were posted on <https://www.freeonlinesurveys.com>, and the link was shared in the official WhatsApp group of the CCN. The first part of this anonymous questionnaire consisted of four items that helped us collect demographic data such as gender, age, level of education, and years of experience as a leader.

The second part of the questionnaire helped us assess the EI of the respondents using the SREIT or AES. As described by Rahman et al. (2012), the AES is a self-report instrument allowing individuals to measure the perception they have of their own EI. It is composed of 33 items measured on a five-point Likert scale. The EI score of each respondent is calculated by summing all 33 items after reverse coding the items (5, 28, and 33) that are negative in their formulation. The scores range from 33 to 165, with lower scores indicating less EI. This instrument has been used in many EI studies (Carmelli & Josman, 2006; Saklofske et al., 2007) and is known to have high internal consistency (Schutte et al., 1998). The AES measures EI on four branches: perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, and utilization of emotions.

- Perception of emotions (PE) is assessed with nine items (5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, and 32). For example, Item 18 reads as follows: “By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.”
- Managing own emotions (ME) is also measured with nine items (2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, and 31). Item 21 is: “I have control over my emotions.”
- Managing others’ emotions (MOE) is captured by eight items (1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, and 30). Item 30 says: “I help other people feel better when they are down.”
- Utilization of emotion (UE) is evaluated with six items (6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27). Item 7 declares: “When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.”

The last part of the questionnaire measured both leadership styles and leadership outcomes using the MLQ 5x-short. This popular instrument in leadership research contains 45 items that measure three leadership styles (TFL, TSL, and LFL) and three leadership outcomes (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) on a five-point Likert scale.

- Transformational leadership (TFL) is captured by 19 items (6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, and 36). Item 6 is: “I talk about my most important values and beliefs.”
- Transactional leadership (TSL) is measured with eight items (3, 5, 7, 12, 17, 20, 28, and 33). Item 12 says: “I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.”
- Laissez-faire leadership (LFL) is also assessed with eight items (1, 4, 11, 16, 22, 24, 27, and 35). Item 24 states: “I keep track of all mistakes.”

As for the three leadership outcomes measured by the MLQ 5x-short, they were put together to form LE. This concept is measured with nine items (37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, and 45). Item 45 is: “I lead a group that is effective.”

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of the 159 Cameroonians who were official members of the CCN from December 2013 to October 2020. The focus on immigrants is justified by two main reasons: First, international migration, and especially African migration to Europe, has become one of the most popular topics

in media and political institutions (Fofack & Akendung, 2020). Second, it is assumed that people who leave their homes and travel thousands of kilometers to settle down in a new environment with a different culture, language, climate, and economic system need to exhibit a certain level of interpersonal skills to facilitate their integration in the host community and achieve the goals for which they migrated.

The questionnaire used in this study was posted on the Internet (<https://www.freeonlinesurveys.com>), and the link was shared in the WhatsApp group of the CCN. A sample of 135 members successfully answered all 82 items posted, leading to a respondent rate of 85%.

Reliability Tests

The data collected was analyzed with the IBM Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS), Version 22. Reliability tests, descriptive statistics, correlation, and linear regression were used for the analyses. The internal consistency of the 33 items accounting for EI was tested using Cronbach's alpha. The results presented in Table 1 show that the internal consistency of the items was good since the Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.857$) was greater than 0.7. The reliability of the four branches of EI was also tested. The results show that the internal consistency of the items included in PE ($\alpha = 0.719$) and that of those included in UE ($\alpha = 0.733$) were good while the Cronbach's alpha was acceptable for both ME ($\alpha = 0.624$) and MOE ($\alpha = 0.606$) because they were greater than 0.6 and each variable was composed of fewer than 10 items (Itani et al., 2017).

Table 1: Reliability Statistics for EI

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
EI	0.857	33
PE	0.719	10
ME	0.624	8
MOE	0.606	8
UE	0.733	6

The reliability of both leadership styles and LE was also tested (see Table 2). Those results indicated that the Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = 0.790$ for TFL, $\alpha = 0.6$ for TSL, $\alpha = 0.693$ for LFL, and $\alpha = 0.765$ for LE. Thus, the internal consistency of

the items included in TFL and that of those included in LE were good while the reliability of both TSL and LFL were acceptable since they were greater than 0.6 and each variable is composed of fewer than 10 items (Itani et al., 2017).

Table 2: Reliability Statistics for Leadership

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
TFL	0.790	19
TSL	0.6	8
LFL	0.693	8
LE	0.765	9

Results and Discussions

Descriptive Statistics

The first part of the questionnaire used in this study allowed us to collect demographic data for the sample. Those data show that the sample consisted of 61 (45.18%) female respondents and 74 (54.82%) male respondents. Of the 135 respondents, 37% (50) were 25 years old or less; 22.2% (30) of them were between 26 and 30 years old; 28.1% (38) were between 31 and 35 years old; 5.9% (8) were between 36 and 40 years old; and 6.7% (9) were over 40 years old (see Table 3). Overall, it appears that 87.4% of the sample were 35 years old or younger.

Table 3: Distribution of Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
25 years or less	50	37.0%
26–30 years	30	22.2%
31–35 years	38	28.1%
36–40 years	8	5.9%
Over 40 years	9	6.7%
Total	135	100%

Table 4 shows the distribution of education level in our sample. The highest level of education attained by 5.2% (7) of the respondents was secondary school; 43% (58) of them had a bachelor's degree or had taken some undergraduate courses; 43.7% (59) had a master's degree or had taken some master's-level courses; and 8.1% (11) had a PhD degree or had taken some PhD courses. Overall, our sample

was highly educated, as 51.8% of the respondents had at least taken some master's-level courses.

Table 4: Distribution of Education

Education	Frequency	Percent
Secondary	7	5.2%
Bachelor's	58	43.0%
Master's	59	43.7%
PhD	11	8.1%
Total	135	100%

Table 5 shows the distribution of experience in the sample. Of the 135 respondents, 60% (81) of the respondents had less than two years of experience in a leadership position; 25.2% (34) of them had two to five years of experience; 5.9% (8) had six to ten years of experience; and 8.9% (12) had more than ten years of experience in leadership. Most of our sample had less than two years of leadership experience.

Table 5: Distribution of Experience

Experience	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2 years	81	60.0%
2–5 years	34	25.2%
6–10 years	8	5.9%
More than 10 years	12	8.9%
Total	135	100%

After analyzing the demographic characteristics of our sample, particular attention was paid to their EI scores. Table 6 shows that the average EI score of our sample of migrants was 125.96 ($SD = 12.706$), which is quite high since EI scores range from 33 to 165. We argue that migrants need such a high level of EI to facilitate their integration into the host culture, language, climate, and economic system. However, such a high mean score is not unusual in the literature, AlDosiry et al. (2016) also used the AES to measure the EI score of 218 automobile sales professionals in Kuwait and found a mean score of 135.47 ($SD = 12.07$). In our study, the minimum EI score was 61 and the maximum was 151. The mode and the median EI scores were 128 and 127 respectively.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for EI

Emotional Intelligence	
Mean	125.96
Median	127.00
Mode	128
SD	12.706
Minimum	61
Maximum	151

Table 7 reports the distribution of EI score in our sample. Only 3 respondents (2.22%) had an EI score below 100; 86 (63.71%) had an EI score between 100 and 129; and 46 (34.07%) had an EI score above 130.

Table 7: Distribution of EI

EI	Frequency	Percent
0–60	0	0%
61–99	3	2.22%
100–129	86	63.71%
130–165	46	34.07%
Total	135	100%

Correlation Analysis

Based on Ayiro's (2014) findings, it was assumed that the relationship between EI and LE is mediated by leadership style. Thus, Table 8 reports the correlation coefficients between EI and leadership styles. The table reveals that EI was positively and significantly associated with TFL ($r = 0.166$, $p < 0.01$). EI had a positive and insignificant correlation with TSL ($r = 0.024$, $p > 0.05$). As for LFL, it was negatively associated with EI ($r = -0.063$, $p > 0.05$). These findings are in line with Rahman et al. (2012) and Stanescu and Ciceci (2012), who found that EI had a strong positive correlation with TFL and a weak correlation with TSL. They are also in line with Mir and Abbasi (2012) and Ayiro (2014), who found that EI positively and significantly associated with TFL.

Finally, our findings allow us to reject Hypothesis 2 in the case of TFL and conclude that there is a positive and significant correlation between EI and TFL. However, the hypothesis cannot be rejected in the case of TSL and that of LFL.

Table 8: Correlation Coefficients Between EI and Leadership Styles

	EI	TSL	TFL	LFL
EI	1			
TSL	0.024	1		
TFL	0.166**	0.533**	1	
LFL	-0.063	0.313**	-0.052	1

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

After analyzing the correlation between EI and leadership styles, we analyzed the correlation between leadership styles and LE and reported the results in Table 9. The table shows that TSL ($r = 0.327$, $p < 0.01$) and TFL ($r = 0.607$, $p < 0.01$) were both positively and significantly associated with LE, while LFL ($r = -0.089$, $p > 0.05$) had a negative and insignificant correlation with LE. We also found that the correlation coefficient was higher in the case of TFL than that of TSL. These findings allowed us to reject Hypothesis 3 in the cases of TFL and TSL and conclude that there is a positive and significant correlation between TFL and LE as well as between TSL and LE.

Table 9: Correlation Coefficients Between Leadership Styles and LE

	LFL	TSL	TFL	LE
LFL	1			
TSL	0.313**	1		
TFL	-0.052	0.533**	1	
LE	-0.089	0.327**	0.607**	1

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

On the assumption that EI affects LE through leadership style, we analyzed the direct effect of EI on LE. We computed the correlation coefficient between the two concepts. Table 10 shows that the EI score of Cameroonian migrants was positively and significantly associated with the effectiveness of their leadership ($r = 0.373$, $p < 0.01$). This finding was supported by Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), Kerr et al. (2006), and Smollan and Parry (2011). The finding also allowed us to reject Hypothesis 1 and conclude that there is a positive and significant correlation between EI and LE.

Table 10: Correlation Coefficients Between EI and LE

	EI	LE
EI	1	
LE	0.373**	1

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

We took the analysis a step further and analyzed the correlation between the branches of EI and LE. The results presented in Table 11 show that each of the four branches of EI has a positive and significant correlation with LE.

Table 11: Correlation Coefficients Between the Branches of EI and LE

	LE	PE	ME	MOE	UE
LE	1				
PE	0.354**	1			
ME	0.300**	0.362**	1		
MOE	0.336**	0.511**	0.564**	1	
UE	0.161*	0.592**	0.412**	0.567**	1

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

The results of the correlation analysis led us to carry out some further analysis to find out if EI is a good predictor of LE. We therefore moved to regression analysis.

Regression Analysis

We took EI as the sole predictor of LE and ran a first model. The results reported in Table 12 show that the model is globally satisfactory ($F = 21.530$, $p < 0.05$ and $R^2 = 0.139$). We also found that the EI score of Cameroonian migrants had a positive and significant impact on the effectiveness of their leadership ($r = 0.161$, $p < 0.01$, $SD = 0.035$). This is in line with the literature (Goleman, 1998; Obomanu, 2018), which advocates EI as a good predictor of LE.

Table 12: Regression Analysis

	Model 1		Model 2	
	β	SE	β	SE
Constant	13.617**	4.391	17.337**	4.569
EI	0.161**	0.035	0.171**	0.035
Age			-0.513	0.515
Education			-1.414*	0.644
Experience			0.720	0.636
F	21.530**		7.739**	
R^2	0.139		0.192	

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$.

In a second model, we took EI as predictor of LE but added three control variables: age, education, and experience. Put together, those variables significantly predicted LE ($F = 7.739$, $p < 0.01$ and $R^2 = 0.192$). We found that EI still had a positive and significant impact on LE ($r = 0.171$, $p < 0.01$, $SD = 0.035$). We also found that age had a negative and insignificant impact on LE ($r = -0.513$, $p > 0.05$, $SD = 0.515$).

As for the impact of education, it was found to be negative and significant ($r = -1.414$, $p < 0.05$, $SD = 0.644$). This finding is supported by empirical observation, as many effective leaders like Steve Jobs, Bill Gates, Mark Zuckerberg, Jack Ma, or Winston Churchill are not highly educated. The second model also revealed that experience had a positive and insignificant impact on LE ($r = 0.720$, $p > 0.05$, $SD = 0.636$). Such a finding is intuitive, as experienced leaders draw some valuable lessons from their past that help them improve their effectiveness.

Conclusion

Main Findings

The aim of this study was to assess the degree of association between the EI level exhibited by Cameroonian migrants living in Nicosia, North Cyprus, and their LE. Thus, EI was measured with the SREIT while leadership styles and leadership outcomes were measured with the MLQ 5x-short. The average EI score of our sample was 125.96 ($SD = 12.706$), which is quite high since EI scores range from 33 to 165. We argue that migrants need such a high level of EI to facilitate their integration into the host culture, language, climate, and economic system.

We assumed, based on Ayiro (2014), that the relationship between EI and LE was mediated by leadership style and found that EI was positively and significantly associated with TFL ($r = 0.166$, $p < 0.01$). The correlation analysis also showed that TSL ($r = 0.327$, $p < 0.01$) and TFL ($r = 0.607$, $p < 0.01$) were both positively and significantly associated with LE. It was also found that the correlation coefficient is higher in the case of TFL than that of TSL.

We computed the correlation coefficient between EI and LE and found that the former is positively and significantly associated with the latter ($r = 0.373$, $p < 0.01$). We took the analysis a step further and analyzed the correlation between the branches of EI and LE and found that each of the four branches of EI had a positive and significant correlation with LE. Finally, we took EI as the predictor of LE and found that the EI score of Cameroonian immigrants had a positive and significant impact on their LE, even after controlling for age, education, and experience.

Implications

In line with previous studies, our results highlight the importance of EI for leadership style (Bennis, 1989; Goleman, 1995) and LE (Goleman, 1998; Obomanu, 2018). Organizations should therefore stop ignoring emotions or dissuading people from expressing them at work. Furthermore, organizations should pay equal importance to the intelligence quotient (IQ) and the EI of their prospective employees, especially if those employees are called to occupy leadership positions. Finally, we recommend the inclusion of EI modules in the training of leaders at school (business administration programs) as well as at work (career development programs).

Our results also show that migrants need a high level of EI to facilitate their integration and achieve their goals in the host country. Future migrants should therefore pay more attention to the way they perceive and handle their emotions and the emotions of others. For organizations working with migrants such as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) or ShelterBox, we also recommend the implementation of EI training programs.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is the size and composition of its sample. The questionnaire was meant to be administered face to face to a bigger sample of African immigrants living in Nicosia, but the COVID-19 pandemic did not allow us to proceed as planned. We had to post our questionnaire online and share the link with our target population but unlike Cameroonians, other sub-Saharan African communities did not have an official organization to whom the questionnaire could

have been sent. Future studies should therefore pay attention to the cross-national or cross-cultural dimension of the relationship between EI and LE.

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