



NOVEMBER 2008

VOLUME ONE, ISSUE ONE

*A refereed, quarterly online  
journal published by the School of  
Business and Management at  
Thomas Edison State College*

INTERNATIONAL LEADERSHIP JOURNAL

## IN THIS ISSUE

### ARTICLES

**The Thing About Metaphors and Leadership** *Ken Parry*

**Reconceptualizing Peace Leadership: The Case of Palestinian-Israeli Relations** *Saliba Sarsar*

**An Instrument to Measure the Impact of Hope in Strategic Plan Implementation** *Bruce Winston,  
Corné Bekker, Karen Cerff, Doug Eames, Martha Helland & Delicia Games*

**An Investigation of Generational Values in the Workplace: Divergence, Convergence and  
Implications for Leadership** *Regina A. Greenwood, Jane Whitney Gibson & Edward F. Murphy, Jr.*

### PEDAGOGY

**Leadership Education: New Challenges, Continuing Issues** *Anthony Middlebrooks & Scott J. Allen*

### INTERVIEW

**Interview with Dr. Ron Riggio** *William Howe*

### ESSAY FROM THE FIELD

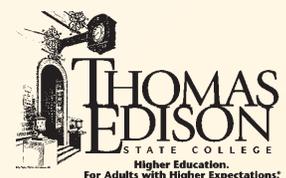
**Selecting Leaders Who Make a Difference** *John F. Manfredi*

### RESEARCH NOTE

**Do Generals Make Good Presidents?** *Michael A. Genovese*

### BOOK REVIEW

**The Power of Unreasonable People** *Rosemary A. Clemens*



101 W. State St.  
Trenton, N.J. 08608  
[www.tesc.edu/ilj](http://www.tesc.edu/ilj)

# *International Leadership Journal*

## Contents

### Volume 1, Issue 1, November 2008

Welcome from the President of Thomas Edison State College <i>Dr. George A. Pruitt</i> .....	2
From the Editor <i>Joseph C. Santora</i> .....	3
<b>ARTICLES</b>	
The Thing about Metaphors and Leadership <i>Ken W. Parry</i> .....	6
Reconceptualizing Peace Leadership: The Case of Palestinian-Israeli Relations <i>Saliba Sarsar</i> .....	24
An Instrument to Measure the Impact of Hope in Strategic Plan Implementation <i>Bruce Winston, Corné Bekker, Karen Cerff, Doug Eames, Martha R. Helland, and Delicia Ganes</i> .....	39
An Investigation of Generational Values in the Workplace: Divergence, Convergence, and Implications for Leadership <i>Regina A. Greenwood, Jane Whitney Gibson, and Edward F. Murphy, Jr.</i> .....	57
<b>PEDAGOGY</b>	
Leadership Education: New Challenges, Continuing Issues <i>Anthony Middlebrooks and Scott J. Allen</i> .....	77
<b>INTERVIEW</b>	
Interview with Dr. Ron Riggio <i>William Howe</i> .....	86
<b>ESSAY FROM THE FIELD</b>	
Selecting Leaders Who Make a Difference <i>John F. Manfredi</i> .....	91
<b>RESEARCH NOTE</b>	
Do Generals Make Good Presidents? <i>Michael A. Genovese</i> .....	95
<b>BOOK REVIEW</b>	
The Power of Unreasonable People <i>Rosemary Clemens</i> .....	100

## **Welcome to *International Leadership Journal* from the President of Thomas Edison State College**

November 2008

It is my pleasure to introduce this inaugural issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, which is sponsored by Thomas Edison State College's School of Business and Management. This new journal provides an important means of promoting and fostering elements that are integral to the practice of leadership and to the mission and purpose of Thomas Edison State College: high quality scholarship; diverse, relevant perspectives on leadership in service to society; theory/research working in tandem with application/practice; and flexible, innovative educational delivery systems that are available to adults wherever they live or work. The journal also emphasizes the School of Business and Management's focus on organizational leadership and on addressing real issues in a rapidly changing, highly complex world.

Thomas Edison State College fully supports initiatives like the *International Leadership Journal* that make well researched information accessible to scholars, educators, and practitioners, as well as to adult students eager to enhance their careers in organizational contexts around the world. The interdisciplinary, international, and interactive focus of the journal is entirely consistent with the College's intention to be inclusive and to support new approaches to scholarship, teaching, practice, and study.

I congratulate Provost William Seaton and School of Business and Management Dean Joseph Santora for conceiving and developing this exciting new journal, and I look forward to its growth and success as a significant contributor to the School, the College, the broad fields of leadership and organization studies, and effective leadership and organizational practices around the world.

Dr. George A. Pruitt

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'George A. Pruitt', with a stylized, cursive script.

President  
Thomas Edison State College

## **From the Editor**

November 2008

Welcome to this inaugural issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, an online, peer-reviewed journal available at no charge to researchers, educators, practicing leaders, consultants, and anyone else interested in exploring leadership and organizational issues. The journal emphasizes international perspectives and “bold new ways of understanding leadership and organizations” that derive from many different disciplines and knowledge domains and that include formal and informal organizations in diverse sectors.

This inaugural issue includes a range of articles, a pedagogy piece, an essay from the field, an interview, a research note, and a book review that includes perspectives from the U.S. and abroad.

The four “Articles” represent considerable variety in terms of content, disciplinary emphasis, methodology, and geography. Parry’s piece, grounded in perspectives from Australia, focuses on leadership and metaphor and suggests new directions for leadership research in the social sciences, the humanities, and the arts. Sarsar’s theoretical article uses the case of Palestinian-Israeli relations to analyze new ways of conceptualizing peace and peace leadership, and it presents a compelling model for ideal types of peace leadership. Winston et al. use research conducted in South Africa and the United States to present a new instrument that measures the impact of hope in strategic planning implementation; they link the concept of hope to theoretical perspectives in leadership and organization studies. Greenwood et al. explore generational values of Generation Y, Generation X, and Baby Boomers, and the implications of those values for leaders, contributing thereby something quite new to situational leadership research and practice.

In our education/development (“Pedagogy”) category, Middlebrooks and Allen argue that leadership education must focus at present on foundational concerns of teaching and learning in order to identify and address specific issues and challenges. Potential contributors to future issues of this journal might do well to explore these foundational concerns (or to offer other concerns) in leadership education programs in international contexts.

In our practice (“Essay from the Field”) category, Manfredi discusses selecting leaders who make a difference. He focuses on six critical factors that predict success. Here too, potential contributors to future issues might seek to apply (or challenge the relevance of) these factors in international contexts.

For our notes (“Research Note”) category, Genovese asks, “Do Generals Make Good Presidents?” and concludes that “being a general is not good preparation for the presidency.” He suggests that his research holds some implications for situational leadership theory/research/practice and for trait approaches to leadership. He also suggests that future research might examine the political leadership of military leaders in other countries.

In our reviews (“Book Review”) category, Clemens looks at *The Power of Unreasonable People: How Social Entrepreneurs Create Markets that Change the World*, a text that uses cases studies from Brazil, Columbia, Egypt, India, England, and the United States. She argues that solutions to major problems today must transcend national and geographic boundaries.

Finally, we offer an interview with noted leadership scholar/educator Ron Riggio, who discusses what leadership studies is, what its roots are, how it has evolved, and where it may be going, as well as some of his work at the Kravis Leadership Institute. Though interviews do not fall strictly within the parameters of our six submission categories, we intend to continue to offer them in future issues and to feature established and innovative leadership scholars, educators, and practitioners from around the world.

Bringing forth this inaugural issue has required the able assistance of a number of very talented people. I want to thank those people who have been integrally involved in conceiving and developing the journal. Bill Howe, Associate Editor, has worked closely and carefully with me throughout the process. Terri Tallon-Hamill, Assistant Dean in our School of Business and Management, and Susan Fischer, Administrative Assistant, were instrumental in honing the issue. Cindy Mooney, Instructional Designer at Thomas Edison State College, who transferred her excellent editorial skills from a previous life in publishing to the journal, gave generously of her free time to provide outstanding assistance on editing final drafts and on determining a format for this and subsequent issues. Jane Ives, our Book Review Editor, came aboard recently to serve admirably in that capacity. Joe Guzzardo, Communications Director at Thomas Edison State College, helped us immensely in developing the journal’s cover and setting up our Web page. Finally, we thank William Seaton, Provost at Thomas Edison State College, who believed in us, gave us the latitude to pursue this academic initiative, and generously supported the journal from its inception.

Again, we welcome you to our new venture in leadership publishing, and we hope you enjoy this inaugural issue. Kindly help us, if you will, by letting colleagues, friends, practicing leaders, and consultants know about us, and please feel free to submit manuscripts or to share your opinions with us about the journal. We seek, as our mission statement says, to be bold, innovative, provocative, and even controversial, but we will need your contributions and your input if we are to fulfill that mission. Someone suggested to us once that readers are analogous to “followers”; if, so we fully intend to empower our

readers/followers, to make them leaders in their own right, and to give them the opportunity to help shape our journal as authors, respondents, and active participants in the creation and interpretation of our shared texts.

Joseph C. Santora

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a large, stylized 'J' and 'S' that are intertwined, followed by a horizontal line extending to the right.

Editor

## ARTICLES

### The Thing about Metaphors and Leadership

Ken W. Parry  
Bond University

Metaphors help with our sense-making. They can convey meaning in a very efficient way. The essence of leadership also involves sense-making in the minds of followers and of leaders. To the extent that metaphor and leadership have this common purpose, we might be able to conclude that metaphors have a significant role to play in the manifestation of leadership. We could conclude further that metaphors display the characteristics of leadership, and that metaphors are what followers might follow. Perhaps people follow the message inherent within a metaphor as much as they might follow the person who is the "leader." Research into metaphors has illustrated the role of emotion within the sense-making that metaphors provide. The emotive impact of metaphor augments the cognitive impact upon followers. Therefore, metaphors are a valuable tool that people in leadership roles can use. Moreover, people in leadership roles have an obligation to understand the impact they are having on audiences with metaphors and other forms of sense-making that they are undertaking. Several propositions are generated from this examination of theory. Examples set within the Australian business context and within the Australian and U.S. political contexts bring these propositions to life.

**Keywords:** influence, leadership, metaphor, sense-giving, sense-making

Most dictionaries will tell us that a metaphor is a word or phrase applied to an object or action that it does not literally denote in order to imply a resemblance. For example, we might say that someone has the heart of a lion in order to suggest that the person is brave and determined, just as we believe that a lion has those same characteristics. Similarly, if individuals say that their organization is "killing the goose that laid the golden egg," they are drawing upon the metaphors of goose and golden egg from the fable of the same name in order to emphasize the waste that is perceived to be going on. Because this article is about leadership, it is suggested that the lion-hearted metaphor normally reflects leadership, whereas the goose-killing metaphor normally reflects poorly upon leadership.

Metaphor is one of the most commonly used examples of tropes. A trope is the generic term for figures of speech in which a word is used in a nonliteral way. Tropes reflecting similarity include metaphor, analogy, simile, metonymy, and synecdoche. Tropes reflecting dissimilarity include anomaly, irony, and paradox.

Oswick, Keenoy and Grant (2002) have provided an illuminating discussion and elaboration of these terms. *Metaphor* is also the word sometimes used at a macro level to reflect tropes of similarity more generally. It is in this form that metaphor is used in this article.

Metaphors are used frequently in everyday life. For example, the notion of organizational culture is a metaphor. *Culture* is actually a term borrowed from anthropology because organizational scholars could find no other term to articulate quite so effectively what they meant.

In terms relevant to this journal, research into metaphors has been undertaken mainly under the heading of organizational studies, and not specifically within leadership studies. Oswick et al. (2002) have provided us with probably the best integration of contemporary scholarship about the use of metaphors in organizations. However, they were not talking about leadership. Oswick and Montgomery (1999) researched the use of metaphor in an organizational case study, yet "leadership" was not even mentioned. In some research on metaphors, leadership is mentioned, often in passing. In some research into leadership, metaphors have had a role to play, usually in the area of leadership speeches (e.g., Conger, 1991). Until now, however, little attempt has been made to look specifically at the links between metaphors and leadership.

Such links can be hugely illuminating. The next section looks at the common characteristics of leadership and metaphors. The article will then elaborate on how leadership can make maximum use of this rich discursive support. Examples are drawn from the Australian business context and from the Australian and U.S. political contexts to bring these assertions to life. The similar roles played by leadership and metaphors in our lives are also examined. Finally, I will attempt to show the leadership role that metaphors play and posit some conclusions that integrate the role of metaphors with the notions of leader influence and sense-making.

## **Leadership as Sense-Making**

There is a body of literature that has distilled from leadership its very essence. From all the research into leadership, and from all the popular press writing about leadership, some scholars have attempted to generate the overarching component of leadership at its highest level of abstraction.

That beautiful, magical essence has been encapsulated in a number of ways. The resulting explanations say much the same thing. Smircich and Morgan (1982) said that the essence of leadership is the management of meaning. The bottom line of what people do in their leadership roles is to manage the meaning that they give to events around them and to help followers manage the meaning that they make of events. When leaders and followers make sense of events, and of their role within those events, then they are better able to play their part in events. Leaders are able to influence followers in the ways that the leaders intended.

In a similar vein, Bass and Avolio (1994) said that leadership is a transformation. It is a transformation in the hearts and minds of followers so that they move to a higher level of understanding, commitment, and performance. They said that followers perform beyond expectations when that transformation takes place. "Hearts" and "minds" means that the transformation is in the emotional response and the cognitive response that followers experience. They feel better about things and they think more constructively as a result of the leadership that they have experienced. Not only is influence being achieved, but the emotions are positive.

Another example of this essence of leadership is from the work of Parry (1999). Working on the leadership that was demonstrated within local government mergers, he found that the essence of leadership was enhancing the adaptability of leaders and of followers to the uncertainty and turbulence of change. When leaders are more adaptable, they can lead better. When followers can adapt to change, they can follow better. Once again, influence is achieved. Moreover, the emotions are positive because followers can see some personal

benefit from the positive changes that are achieved, rather than feeling apprehension or remorse as a result of personal risk.

Finally, the works of Weick (1995) and Pye (2005) show us that the essence of leadership lies in sense-making. People in leadership roles make sense of the situation they are faced with. In turn, they help convey that sense to followers. As a result of this sense-giving, followers are able to perform better and are emotionally better able to accommodate the leadership that they are experiencing. Sense-giving was originally theorized by Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991) and elaborated by Hill and Levenhagen (1995). According to this conception, the leader makes sense of the confusion and ambiguity and conveys (or gives) that sense to followers. In turn followers make sense of their challenges and expectations, which enables them to achieve the outcomes that are desired. I contend that this idea of "sense-making" is perhaps the best metaphor for leadership. In this case, sense-making is used as the macro phenomenon that represents the sense-making/sense-giving phenomenon.

### **Metaphor as Sense-Making**

What do metaphors have in common with this notion of sense-making? Gareth Morgan (1986) suggested that with metaphors we have a means of improving our capacity for creative yet disciplined thought, which in turn enables us to cope with the complexity of (organizational) life. The visual and symbolic nature of metaphors helps this happen. The metaphor creates a visual image in the mind of the recipient. Research into clinical psychology suggests that people will remember concrete things like goose and egg much more readily than abstract concepts like confusion, debt, and wastage. Consequently, people will picture in their minds, and therefore remember, the metaphor of killing the goose that laid the golden egg much more readily than they will remember the factors that led to a loss of innovation, market-share, and profitability. Leaders are therefore able to influence followers in ways that the leaders intend and desire. Speak in financial management-speak and most audiences will struggle to follow. However, speak in metaphors and people's faces will light up and they will comprehend. They

make sense of the problem that is being faced. Leaders are able to influence followers in the way that they intend and desire.

In the Australian Business Leadership Survey (ABLS; Sarros et al., 2005), managers around Australia were asked to rate their organization and its culture with the help of a questionnaire. At the end of the survey, they were asked to write in a metaphor for their organization. Respondents were then contacted and asked about the responses that they and others supplied. The intent was to find out how metaphors worked within the sense-making that respondents were undergoing. Emotion emerged very quickly as an important component of the sense-making they were experiencing in their organizations. People thought about their organizations and made sense of what was going on around them. They made that sense cognitively. In other words, they thought about the cause and effect linkages and could explain how and why certain things happened.

However, they also made sense emotionally when they talked about the metaphor for their organization. When people thought that their organization was effective and innovative, they could explain why it was so. When they then thought of their organization as a food, they became more emotive. They talked about their "favorite dish" or a "nutritional meal" or a "restaurant" meal. They then became more animated and spoke of emotions linked with joy. They indicated pride, hope, and eagerness. When they talked about organizations that were ineffective and uncreative, they could still explain it quite rationally. Once again, when they thought of a food that was a metaphor for a non-innovative organization, they became animated and emotional. However, they spoke of "slop" and "rotten food" and presented emotions linked with sadness and anger.

Whether creative or uncreative, innovative or non-innovative, the sense-making process was the same, although the emotions were different. Metaphors had the effect of augmenting the cognitive sense-making with an emotional sense-making. Consequently, the sense-making of these respondents became so much more multi-dimensional, so much more complex and effective. They

made sense. They could then articulate that sense and create greater sense in the researcher's mind about what was going on in their organizations.

Metaphors are a common language. When speaking to lawyers, it helps to speak in the esoteric language of lawyers. When speaking to farmers, it is probably best to speak in a different language, and when speaking to a room full of bureaucrats, yet another tongue might be needed. However, when speaking to an audience of *all* these people, one should not speak the language of the lawyer, or of the farmer, or of the bureaucrat, because the message will not be transmitted effectively to two-thirds of the audience. Needless to say, they will not be influenced. To such heterogeneous audiences, a universal language is needed. The visual, symbolic, and invariably emotional language of the metaphor is such a universal language. More people have a better chance of making sense of an argument if this universal language is used.

Michalko (2001) has advised that geniuses think and speak almost entirely with metaphors. All people speak in metaphors, unconsciously if not intentionally, though geniuses seem to do this more frequently. The point is that the greater use of metaphor helps these intelligent people understand the concepts that they are dealing with. Either they think in metaphors because they are intelligent, or they are intelligent because they think in metaphors. Either way, there is a correlation between intellectual capacity—and the sense-making that goes with it—and the use of metaphors. Clearly, the essential role of the metaphor lies with the sense-making that it generates.

### **Metaphor as Leadership**

There is a conclusion to be drawn about the links between leadership, sense-making, and metaphors. If the essence of leadership is sense-making, and if the essential role of metaphors is sense-making, then metaphors must play a strong role within the manifestation and operationalization of leadership.

In early 2008 the Australian Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, in a session of the Australian Parliament, moved that an apology be made to the Aboriginal people for the Stolen Generations. This speech is yet to be recognized as one of the

great examples of leadership discourse. However, it has been lauded as a good example, the content of which is effectively a course of action that most Australians could and should follow. Within the first 370 words of that speech, he twice mentioned the turning of a "page" in Australia's history and also mentioned the "blemished chapter" in Australia's history. Within the full speech, he mentioned the "page" metaphor four times, and the "chapter" metaphor six times. These metaphors are fairly universal in the English-speaking world. They possibly resonate more strongly with Australians, whose national anthem implores, "... in history's page, let every stage, advance Australia fair." The message is that there are blemished chapters in the story of Australia. However, there are new and hope-filled chapters that have yet to be opened and read. The turning of the page connotes the progress to the future that Australians must make. Hopefully this lead, given to the Australian people by their Prime Minister, will be followed.

### **Metaphors for Leadership**

Over the years I have tried to explain the notion of sense-making to adult audiences. More often than not I was met with polite, but somewhat vacant, expressions. So, instead, I explained sense-making in terms of two metaphors. The reaction was compelling. People suddenly were nodding, and their faces were alive with recognition. They followed what I was saying. Sense-making about sense-making had been achieved. The emotions were positive. I had influenced them in the way that I had intended. The two metaphors were captaincy and schooling.

**Captaincy.** Leadership is captaincy. On the one hand, captaincy involves the bringing together of a team, the members of which have their own skills and roles to play. They depend upon one another, so teamwork is important to the success of the team. They usually face opposition. The captain leads by example, and also looks after the welfare of the team-members. The captain represents the team to the referee and to other external stakeholders. The captain is there to help the team win. Yes, leadership is captaincy.

*Captain* is a rank in the military. The military captain provides for the welfare and morale of the troops, as does the leader. The military captain fights the good fight, as does the leader. The military captain puts her (or his) welfare before that of the troops, as does the leader. Leadership is captaincy.

**Schooling.** Leadership is like schooling. Schooling develops children through childhood and adolescence into adulthood, just as leadership develops followers from dependence to autonomy. Schooling involves conformity and control as well as knowledge and independence. So too should managers who demonstrate leadership. Schooling involves teaching, training, mentoring, developing. So too does leadership. Schooling has hierarchy and structure. So too does leadership. Schooling involves rewards as well as punishments. So too does leadership. The conclusion is that leadership is like schooling. Perhaps leadership is schooling.

**Three Faces of Leadership.** Hatch and her colleagues (2006) have written persuasively about the three faces of leadership—manager, artist, priest. At the one time, leadership is rational, disciplined, organizing, and strategic. It also is curious, imagining, emotive, and artistic. It also is empathic, inspiring, comforting, and transcendent.

We can see that there are several metaphors for leadership. These metaphors help us to make sense of what leadership is and how it works. When people think about the leadership role they are playing, the decision about what behaviors to engage in becomes so much easier. On one day, you could take on the identity of sporting captain as you enact your leadership role. As captain, you might have to get a team together and contest against an opposition in the marketplace. On that same day you might be the schoolteacher, training colleagues in how to do a job and imparting knowledge. On that same day you might be the student, taking direction from an experienced mentor. On that same day, you might have to be the artist, acting out a dramatic role before an audience of executives from a supply company. On that same day, you will be the manager—organizing, planning, and marshalling resources. These are all metaphors for the leadership roles that people take on. These metaphors help us

to make sense of the decisions we have to make and the leadership behaviors that we have to enact.

**Other Metaphors for Leadership.** DePree wrote a book in 1992 called *Leadership Jazz*. Napoli, Whiteley, and Johansen (2005) wrote about "organizational jazz," even though the book was about organizational leadership. Clearly the jazz metaphor for leadership seems to have some legs in the scholarly community. The metaphor of jazz connotes stability and predictability within the progress of the tune, yet has uncertainty and improvisation as key characteristics. Jazz becomes a metaphor for leadership. Some people love it and some people hate it. Such is the leadership that we often experience. To the extent that people in leadership roles are dealing with unpredictability and change, as well as the regular rhythm of organizational life, jazz becomes a metaphor that they might follow in understanding their overall leadership challenge.

Other people, especially in competitive business, use the military metaphor for leadership. Often, the discourse is about "fighting" and "destroying" the opposition, or even the "enemy." People in leadership roles have "weapons" at their disposal. The employees in their organizations are "troops" that they "deploy." Other people use the horticultural metaphor for leadership. They are "growing" an organization and "branching out" and lopping the "deadwood" when they restructure.

There are many metaphors for leadership. There are no correct metaphors, and there is no limited list of metaphors for leadership. The list is probably limitless, because the meaning varies with each situation in which leaders find themselves. These metaphors help leaders with sense-making about what leadership means to them. In turn, the leadership that they display will assist the sense-making that followers need to absorb. However, metaphors are also supportive tools within the leadership that leaders display.

### **Metaphor in Leadership**

Metaphors are also used by leaders as they enact their leadership. Once people in leadership roles have made sense of their leadership roles with the help of

metaphors, they can then use metaphors to help followers make sense of the roles that they play in the task ahead.

I have made mention of the use of metaphor by the Australian Prime Minister in a leadership speech to Parliament. He was also talking to the Australian people. That speech was broadcast on television and on the Internet. It is continually available via YouTube. There are other famous examples of the use of metaphor in leadership discourse. Perhaps the greatest inspirational speech in the English language was the "I Have a Dream" speech by Martin Luther King on August 28, 1963. At least it was the greatest recorded example. His use of metaphor was prodigious, and it was hugely successful.

For example, he said, "Five score years ago, a great American, . . . signed the Emancipation Proclamation . . . . It came as a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity. But one hundred years later, . . . the Negro still is not free." He could have said, "The slaves were officially set free 100 years ago. It was a great day for them. However, many Negroes in the U.S.A effectively are still not free." How much more effective was the use of metaphor about "a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity"? Such language is truly engaging and captivating. Every time I hear that I can see and feel the sensation of freedom.

He said, ". . .we have come to our nation's capital to cash a check. . . the architects of our republic. . . were signing a promissory note to which every American was to fall heir. . . . It is obvious today that America has defaulted on this promissory note insofar as her citizens of color are concerned." He could have said, "We have come here to get what we are entitled to. Our political forebears made a pledge to us. It is obvious today that this pledge has not been honored." Most people would agree that the former, the metaphorical example, is far more powerful leadership than the latter, the non-metaphorical, example.

The metaphor of the check is so powerful, especially to the American people. The metaphor of the defaulted promissory note is something that most people can picture in their mind. The audience, even now, feels the emotion that this powerful language generates. The metaphor is more powerful yet somehow less

confrontational than the non-visual language that we so often hear from people in leadership roles. The leadership of King was a call to action for the American people. It was a call to action for them to follow. Ultimately, the Civil Rights Acts which succeeded this call to action were driven through Congress by President Johnson over the next two years. These are examples of how the metaphor is an important part of leadership. The power of the metaphor gets people to follow the message much more effectively.

Barack Obama spoke to the people of Berlin on July 24, 2008. He was speaking to the people of Europe, and to the people of America. He spoke to Berlin about Berlin. Berlin was the underlying metaphor for the whole speech and for the whole message that day. Berlin was a metaphor for cooperation and trust between former enemies, for a "common humanity." The phrase "Look at Berlin" was repeated 6 times. The other subordinated metaphor was that of the wall. This metaphor was uttered 16 times. The message was about being united, not divided. Walls that divide people were metaphorically torn down in this speech. This speech did not have the volume of metaphors that King usually used. But then again, Obama is a different man. His speeches are powerful, but in their own way. However, metaphors are an important part of the sense-making that he seeks to impart.

There can also be a downside to this phenomenon. Sarah Palin called herself a "pit-bull with lipstick." Subsequently, Barack Obama made a reference to "lipstick on a pig." Palin's metaphor about herself no doubt attempted to be moderately self-deprecating and to convey a message about her courage when faced with a challenge or adversity. It was seen by the audience to be a relatively positive metaphor to use. Obama's metaphor was seen as a play on Palin's comment about herself. Obama's metaphor was not seen by the American people to be an uplifting metaphor. It was seen by many as a crude insult to another U.S. citizen. Metaphors are effective, but should not be used just for the sake of using them. Metaphors should be used within a context that is an inspirational appeal. Their use should be ethical, transcending, positive, and challenging yet achievable. Obama's use of metaphor was seen as self-serving,

ignoble, egotistical, demonizing, condescending, and petty. This example shows that the use of metaphors can accentuate the emotional reaction that followers experience, whether intended or not.

### **Metaphor as Leadership**

People use metaphors often in the leadership messages that they ask people to follow. That idea needs to be taken further to examine how and why people follow metaphors. If the metaphor helps people make sense of an issue, and people then follow that metaphor, then in a sense the metaphor is the leader. Think of the metaphor as leadership.

Recently, Parry and Hansen (2007) explained the argument that people follow stories as much as they follow people in leadership roles. Therefore, the story is leadership as much as the person in the leadership role is a leader.

Leaders are often noted for providing a compelling vision that inspires followers to act to fulfill the vision, often by telling stories. As we have seen, those stories often include metaphors as a sense-making tool. Martin Luther King told the story of America to the American people. They followed the call to action that was embodied within that story. In a sense, people followed the "I have a dream" story more than they followed King. After all, he died in 1968, and after that people could no longer follow the man. Yet many still follow that call to action. They follow that story.

Parry and Hansen (2007) separated the notion of "leader as person" from the notion of leadership as the discourse that represents a leadership vision. They moved on from the knowledge that leaders tell stories to the proposition that stories themselves operate like leaders. People follow the story as much as they follow the storyteller or author, hence the story becomes leadership. Perhaps, in a similar way, when a metaphor has the same sense-making ability as leadership, then perhaps the metaphor is the leader.

### **Implications**

This article examined the relationship between influence, emotion, sense-making, and the use of metaphor in generating leadership effectiveness. This

relationship was examined from a theoretical perspective, with examples from recent history to illustrate. Once this relationship is summarized, conclusions will be drawn.

Consistent themes through this work are leader influence, emotion, sense-making by followers and the role of metaphors. It is time to attempt to integrate these various constructs into a visual model and a set of theoretical propositions. That model is presented in Figure 1, and the propositions are now explained.

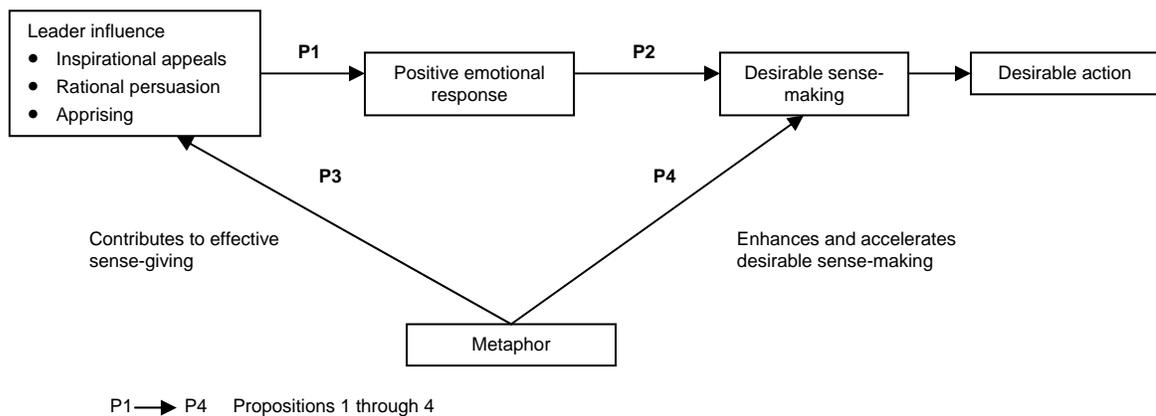


Figure 1. Posited relationship between leader influence, emotion, sense-making, and metaphor

**Proposition 1.** The leader influence tactics that most reflect sense-giving are inspirational appeals, rational persuasion, and apprising. These influence tactics generate positive emotional responses in followers.

Yukl and Tracey (1992) have posited eleven influence tactics that are utilized by leaders. It is not necessary to discuss this full taxonomy here. However, three of these tactics are most relevant to the notion of sense-giving by those in leadership positions. The first influence tactic is inspirational appeals. These are when a leader appeals to values and ideals or seeks to arouse the follower's emotions to gain commitment for a request.

The second influence tactic relevant to sense-giving is rational persuasion. Logical arguments and factual evidence are used to show that a proposal or

request is feasible and relevant for attaining objectives. The third influence tactic is apprising (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). A leader explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit followers personally to help advance their careers.

These influence tactics are most relevant to leader sense-giving, and they generate positive emotions in followers. According to Shaver et al.'s (1987) taxonomy of emotions, the emotions that are generated are love and joy, and occasionally surprise. Inspirational appeals generate desire and passion (emotions associated with love) and enthusiasm (associated with joy). Rational persuasion generates satisfaction (an emotion associated with joy). Apprising generates satisfaction and hope (associated with joy) and sometimes surprise.

**Proposition 2.** Positive emotional responses (predominantly dimensions of love, joy, and surprise) in followers generate desirable sense-making within followers.

The knowledge and sense-giving that has been imparted to followers, augmented by the resultant positive emotions, generates desirable sense-making within followers. Negative emotions will likely generate undesirable sense-making within followers. The rational and inspirational and self-serving nature of the actual message from the leader generates cognitive knowledge in the minds of followers. In addition, the positive emotion also creates affective outcomes in followers that make the learning even more powerful. The sense-making that followers have now acquired will enable them to engage in action that is desired by the leader.

**Proposition 3.** Metaphor contributes to effective sense-giving by leaders. Metaphors help leaders to make sense of the challenges and turbulence that they are dealing with. In turn, this sense-making enables leaders to impart (or give) this sense to followers. More importantly, metaphors will help that sense-giving to occur effectively.

**Proposition 4.** Metaphor enhances and accelerates desirable sense-making in followers.

The sense-making in the minds and hearts of followers is enhanced through the use of metaphor. Leaders make sense of turbulence and change, but just as importantly, followers can make that same sense.

## **Conclusions**

There are three conclusions to draw about these considerations of metaphors in leadership:

First, metaphors perform a similar role to leadership. They perform the sense-making role that several scholars have concluded is the essence of leadership. In effect, metaphors are leadership. Of course, the difference is that leadership is something that people have a choice about. People can make the decision to engage in leadership. They can do it well or they can do it poorly. Metaphors are just there. They are a tool that leadership can use. This point leads to the next conclusion.

Second, people demonstrate more effective leadership by using metaphors. The sense-making of leadership can be enhanced by using a very effective sense-making tool. Of course, there are other sense-making tools that people can use in their leadership roles, but this work is just concerned with metaphors.

Third, when people consciously build the use of metaphors into their discourse, they are being more effective leaders. People should recognize that metaphors are an important part of the colloquial language that they use all the time. Therefore, the role modeling that is displayed with the unconscious use of metaphors will have a leadership effect upon followers whether or not this outcome is intended. As a result, all people have the choice to consciously build metaphors into their discourse. Indeed, we all have an obligation to be aware of the impact we are having upon other people via the discourse that we engage in.

## **Future Research Directions**

These conclusions suggest some opportunities for scholars to research leadership via the vehicle of metaphor. These opportunities are in the spirit of Howe's (1996) call for the emancipation of leadership through the lens of the

humanities, free from the traditional constraints of psychology and business studies. Gardner and Avolio (1998) provided one example of researching leadership with the dramaturgical methodology. By using Burke's dramatic pentad, they examined the phenomenon of charismatic leadership. Sinha and Jackson (2006) took this opportunity a step further by examining leader identification through the dramaturgical lens.

Striegel and Higgins (1999) gave further insight into how leadership can be learned from an examination of the cinematic genre of dramaturgy. Their book was called *Movies for Leaders*. The research process might well be called movies as leaders. Such a process might examine the leadership that is displayed by the cinematic mode of communication. However, the logical extension of this line of research might be called "Leadership as Cinema." Rather than examining what we can learn from cinema, we take the perspective that leadership is in effect a kind of performing art such as cinema.

Similarly, we could adopt the metaphor that leadership is poetry, or that leadership is song. Just as poetry provides a coherent form of sense-making, and conveys powerful emotive messages to readers in order to change their cognition, emotion, and behavior, so too does leadership. Just as the British rock band The Who galvanized the emotions and anger of a generation with their warning to "meet the new boss; same as the old boss; won't get fooled again ... no, no!," so too can leadership galvanize a following around a neatly worded and framed challenge. The research prospects provided by this dramaturgical methodological opportunity are endless. Being able to examine leadership in terms of these performing and aesthetic metaphors opens the opportunity for abundant, original, and interesting research.

## References

- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Conger, J. A. (1991). Inspiring others: The language of leadership. *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(1), 31-45.

- DePree, M. (1992). *Leadership jazz*. New York: Dell Publishing.
- Gardner, W. L., & Avolio, B. J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 32-58.
- Gioia, D., & Chittipeddi, K. (1991). Sensemaking and sensegiving in strategic change initiation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 12(6), 433-448.
- Hatch, M. J., Kostera, M., & Kozminski, A. K. (2006). The three faces of leadership: Manager, artist, priest. *Organizational Dynamics*, 35(1), 49-68.
- Hill, R. C., & Levenhagen, M. (1995). Metaphors and mental models: Sense making and sense-giving in innovative and entrepreneurial activities. *Journal of Management*, 21(6), 1057-1074.
- Howe, W. (1996). Leadership vistas: From the constraints of the behavioral sciences to emancipation through the humanities. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(2), 32-69.
- Morgan, G. (1986). *Images of Organization*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Michalko, M. (2001). *Cracking creativity: The secrets of creative genius for business and beyond*. Berkeley, CA: Ten Speed Press.
- Napoli, D., Whiteley, A. M., & Johansen, K. S. (2005). *Organizational jazz: Extraordinary performance through extraordinary leadership*. Sydney: e-ContentManagement.
- Oswick, C., & Montgomery, J. (1999). Images of an organization: The use of metaphor in a multinational company. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(6), 501-523.
- Oswick, C., Keenoy, T., & Grant, D. (2002). Metaphors and analogical reasoning in organization theory: beyond orthodoxy. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(2), 294-303.

Parry, K. (1999). Enhancing adaptability: Leadership strategies to accommodate change in local government settings. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(2): 134-156.

Parry, K. W., & Hansen, H. (2007). The organizational story as leadership. *Leadership*, 3(3), 281-300.

Pye, A. (2005). Leadership and organizing: Sense-making in action. *Leadership*, 1(1), 31-50.

Sarros, J., Gray, J., Densten, I., Parry, K., Hartican, A., & Cooper, B. (2005). *The Australian Business Leadership Survey #3: Leadership, organizational culture, and innovation of Australian enterprises*. Melbourne: Monash University.

Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'Conner, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: Further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1061-1086.

Sinha, P. N., & Jackson, B. (2006). A Burkean inquiry into leader-follower identification motives. *Culture and Organization*, 12(3), 233-247.

Smircich, L., & Morgan, G. (1982). Leadership as the management of meaning. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18, 257-273.

Striegel, C., & Higgins, S. (1999). *Movies for leaders: Management lessons from four all-time great films*. Spokane, Washington: Cowles Publishing.

Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yukl, G., & Tracey, B. (1992). Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 525-535.

Ken Parry (PhD, Monash University) is Professor of Leadership and Director of the *Centre for Leadership Studies* at Bond University, Gold Coast, 4229, Australia. Dr. Parry can be reached at [kparry@bond.edu.au](mailto:kparry@bond.edu.au)

## **Reconceptualizing Peace Leadership: The Case of Palestinian-Israeli Relations**

**Saliba Sarsar  
Monmouth University**

**This article analyzes key concepts for conceptualizing and re-conceptualizing peace and peace leadership. It advances peace actualization as a term that integrates and supersedes the moderate elements of peacemaking and peace building. It calls for synchronizing the plans and actions of peacemakers and peace builders, balancing principles and pragmatism, and advancing the important work of grassroots peace organizations as viable ways to enhance relations between Israel and the Palestinians and end their protracted conflict. What Palestinian, Israeli, and American leaders can do to advance peace is presented, mainly by cohering their values, attitudes, and behaviors in support of peace, an essential ingredient of both peace leadership and wise policy.**

***Key words:* Palestinian-Israeli relations, peace actualization, peace leadership**

In our complex, interdependent, twenty-first century world where the hope and vision for peace are ever present, the actualization of peace seems constantly out of reach. Instead, a culture of violence—expressed by fear, distrust, terrorism, and wars—is pervasive. The challenge of peace is not properly met and the development of a peace culture is delayed not only because of serious issues or contention over them, but also due to a crisis of leadership at all levels of society.

This condition exists locally, nationally, and internationally. The Middle East is no exception, specifically in regard to Palestinian-Israeli relations, a subject of great professional and personal interest to me, as it is to millions around the world.

Are Israel and the Palestinians ready for peace and for sustaining a culture of peace? Can they afford to do so when substantial commitment, energy, and resources have gone into defense and wars the past six decades? Do they have the leadership, intention, and capability necessary for peacemaking and peace building? What about Palestinian hardliners who argue that any withdrawal from Palestinian lands is just a beginning and that all the land “occupied” by Israel is Palestinian, and what about Israeli settlers who vow never to submit to any further withdrawal from the West Bank and East Jerusalem? Will Israeli

leadership from any quarter take reasoned and responsible risks for peace and remove 250,000 Jewish settlers from the West Bank? What about East Jerusalem? In short, how does one surmount harsh, jagged realities in an ecologically stretched environment with too many people soaked in exclusiveness, hatred, suspicion, and violence? There are numerous questions, the answers of which can only be discovered through reason and humaneness.

This article presents possible national policies that Israeli, Palestinian, and American leaders can pursue. First, the ideal types of peace leadership, mainly peacemaking and peace building, will be analyzed. The concept of peace actualization is advanced, which joins aspects of middle-line peacemaking and peace building, as a way to move leaders toward moderate action and balancing of principles and pragmatism. Second, Palestinian-Israeli relations are examined, with special attention given not only to past mistakes and missed opportunities, but also national community actions. Finally, the American role is explored and an argument is made for an evenhanded approach for resolving the Palestinian-Israeli conflict, which coheres well with responsible leadership and wise policy.

### **Types of Peace Leaders: A Theoretical Analysis<sup>1</sup>**

There is an urgent need to develop responsive and responsible leaders who are willing to adopt and practice a culture of peace, one that does not define peace as cessation of hostility only, but also as the implementation of peace agreements and the advancement of social justice; one that does not depend on power and realpolitik, but on values that promote the common good; and one that does not reduce security and stability, but also expands cooperation and opportunities. This requires a paradigm shift, as shown in Table 1 (on the next page), which can be generated and sustained through intentional thinking and behaviors, all directed toward peace, mainly in vision, resources, personal commitment, institutional empowerment, meaningful education and programs, and partnerships. The main goal is to properly align values and perceptions on

one hand with attitudes and preference on the other in order to influence actions for producing peace, not war.

**Table 1  
Paradigm Shift Toward Peace**

	<b>Conflict/War Paradigm</b>	<b>Peace Paradigm</b>
		
<b>Values/Perception</b>	Fear of “the other” Helplessness / Hopelessness / Despair	Understanding Hope / Empowerment
<b>Attitudes/Preference</b>	Power Military security Militarism	Ethical restraints / Legal safeguards Human security Non-militarization / Defensive defense
<b>Behaviors/Performance</b>	Exclusion/Negation Narrow self- / party interest Unilateralism Objectification / Dehumanization Superficial negotiations	Inclusion / Acceptance Collective interest, “Common good” Bilateralism / Multilateralism Subjectification / Humanization Substantive negotiations
<b>Product</b>	Occupation Violence Victims / victimizers Peripheral issues Negative peace = Cessation of hostility Reduction of security and stability Rejection of the other’s words and values Limitations on cooperation and opportunities	Liberation / Freedom Non-violent resistance / Diplomacy Reconciliators Core issues Positive peace = Social justice Enhancement of security and stability Proliferation of the other’s words and values Expansion of cooperation and opportunities

Historically, there has been a variety of peace leaders. These are usually divided into two categories: peacemakers and peace builders (Sarsar, 2005). Although working within a similar environment, each group has followed “a different set of values and modus operandi, based on interest and ideological predilections, policy parameters or principles, power positions, locus of activities, and reservoirs of resources” (Sarsar, 2005, 70). Top-down peacemakers, who usually draw on instruments of power and coercion, include government officials, military strategists, and diplomats. Bottom-up peace builders, who usually have influence on the mind and hearts of others through ideas and work in small communities, include artists, doctors, journalists, and teachers.

While peacemakers concern themselves with the termination of hostilities and the initial phases of post-conflict periods, peace builders’ actions target peace promotion for the longer term. (See Table 1 on previous page.)

Focusing on leadership perception, preference, and performance, we can divide each group of peace leaders into the three types: hard-line, soft-line, and middle-line, as shown in Table 2 (next page). Based on Snyder and Diesing (1977, 297-310), hard-line leaders display limited empathy toward their counterparts. They view conciliation as a weakness and press for concessions. They perceive others as engaged in an unlimited pursuit of power. Soft-line leaders empathize more with adversaries and stress the adversaries’ cost in backing down. They shun conflicts and stress conciliation over coercion. They fear that conflict might be exaggerated by mutual misperception. Middle-line leaders balance security and power issues but are also sensitive to the legitimacy of their adversaries’ demands. While they recognize the presence of conflict, they are willing to define self-interest in minimal terms so as to minimize conflict.

In contrast, hard-line peace builders express themselves through proactive work at the individual and group levels to influence the public agenda in communities or countries for the benefit of their own people or cause. They hold

**Table 2: Ideal Types of Peace Leadership**

<b>H A R D L I N E R S</b>	<b>PEACEMAKERS</b>	<b>PEACE ACTUALIZERS</b>	<b>H A R D L I N E R S</b>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Display limited empathy toward counterparts in adversary nations</li> <li>• Believe that adversary leaders submit as a consequence of firmness</li> <li>• View conciliation as a weakness and press for concessions</li> <li>• Perceive nations as engaged in an unlimited pursuit of power</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be proactive to influence public agenda in both states for the benefit of own people or cause</li> <li>• Hold partisan perceptions of peace and peace building and mobilize constituencies accordingly</li> <li>• Seek equality, parity, and symmetry to serve own interests</li> <li>• Prefer retributive over distributive justice</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Combine positional and transformational leadership qualities</li> <li>• Embody vision and strategy for peace</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Influence public agenda for peace on both sides of divide for the common benefit of both peoples</li> <li>• Be firm in demanding distributive justice and its equitable application on both sides</li> <li>• Promote and uphold independence from parochial or political interests of either side</li> <li>• Emphasize shared interests and insist on equality, parity, and symmetry to sustain benefits</li> </ul>
<b>M I D D L E L I N E R S</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are sensitive both to the security dilemma and to power and resolve factors</li> <li>• Are suspicious about opponent’s aggressive tendencies but see legitimacy in demands</li> <li>• Move cautiously toward détente but without yielding any vital interests</li> <li>• Recognize existence of unavoidable conflict but are willing to define self-interest in minimal terms in order to minimize conflict</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Embrace shared concept of history, moderate action, and collaborative work</li> <li>• Advance a “conflict partnership approach,” based on realistic principles of behavior and communication</li> <li>• Shun and go beyond violence to end dehumanization and oppression</li> <li>• Initiate and sustain education for coexistence and peace</li> </ul>	<b>M I D D L E L I N E R S</b>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Empathize with adversary nations and stress the adversaries’ cost in backing down</li> <li>• Are willing to decouple consequences of immediate conflict from potential conflicts</li> <li>• View coercion as answered by coercion but conciliatory gestures can generate mutual efforts to compromise</li> <li>• Regard conflicts as natural among nations which might be exaggerated by mutual misperception</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Engage proactively in reforming administrative, educational, economic, financial, and/or legal infrastructures in support of empowerment and democracy</li> </ul>		<b>S O F T L I N E R S</b>
		Copyright © 2008 by Saliba Sarsar	<b>PEACE BUILDERS</b>	

partisan perceptions of peace and peace building and mobilize their constituencies accordingly. Equality, parity, and symmetry are sought to serve their own interests or are undertaken to meet their “own terms.” They prefer retributive over distributive justice or administering punishment for evil deeds over allocating collective goods. Those leaders who possess soft-line tendencies are truly interested in peace building through educational, environmental, health, and similar initiatives, and wish that such efforts would eventually further joint action and mutual benefit. Equality, parity, and symmetry between them and their opponents are not prerequisite. They seek minimal demands from their opponents or promote the “live and let live” attitude, believing that compromise and conciliation will lead to peace with justice. They prefer distributive to retributive justice. Middle-line peace builders work at the individual and group levels to influence the public agenda for peace on both sides of the divide and for the common benefit of both peoples. They are firm in demanding distributive justice and its equitable application on both sides. Independence from parochial or political interests of either side is promoted and upheld. Being aware of the dynamics of influence and power, they emphasize shared interests and insist on equality, parity, and symmetry between the contending parties in order to sustain beneficial relations.

While the middle-liners in both peacemaking and peace building groups are often in the minority or “swimming upstream,” the hard-liners become entrenched as the vocal majority and the soft-liners turn voiceless as the silent majority. Overall, the peacemakers’ top-down approach carries some legitimacy but usually lacks sustenance from below. The peace builders’ bottom-up approach embodies the commitment but lacks the empowerment, the multiple issue orientation, the financial and organizational stability, and the funding needed for national action, which is often deficient or dependent on external sources. An integrated perspective is critical for engendering common strategies for peace.

### **Peace Actualization<sup>1</sup>**

Proposed is a theoretical but practically possible, central, safe space where both middle-line peacemakers and peace builders can become peace actualizers.

Peace actualizing leaders embody not only the vision and strategy for peace, but also have direct or indirect positional leadership anchoring and transformational leadership qualities to make a real difference. They tend to embrace a shared concept of history, moderate action, and collaborative work with the other to achieve positive peace.

Having such a space alters attitudes and reshapes values toward conflict management and peace, expands positive identifications, enables trust to grow, reduces domestic constraints on positional leaders and governmental strictures on citizens, and provides support from a larger peace coalition or movement, thus guaranteeing legitimacy for peace. It also helps in transforming individuals and communities, both emotionally and structurally, for social justice. The deeper leaders and people engage in peace actualization, the further they move from the abyss of dehumanization, victimization, and death and the closer they approach mutual acceptance, healing, and hope.

### **The Palestinian-Israeli Context**

The ongoing changes in the political landscapes of Israel and the Palestinian community, whatever their causes or ramifications, will not resolve the Palestinian-Israeli conflict unless Israelis and Palestinians realize that neither extremism and violence nor occupation and domination spell peace. Peace comes to both peoples through good will, intentional peace actions, and compromise.

It took Jewish leaders 51 years from the First Zionist Congress in Basel in 1897 to secure a state in historic Palestine. Jewish immigration and land settlement, the Holocaust, the war of independence, Arab reactions—all set the groundwork for statehood and for perceptions of threat from the “Arab enemy.” Over six decades later, Israel has not overcome being a nation at war. Even with few episodes of border tranquility, security and social justice remain elusive. A psychology of distrust and fear pervade the land. Israeli national security policy is determined by survival calculations and “peace through strength.” Ideological and religious splits characterize Israeli reality. Arab citizens of Israel generally

are subjected to unequal treatment, and most Palestinians in East Jerusalem, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip feel stranded behind military occupation checkpoints and walls.

Palestinians, like Jews before them, have longed for national self-determination and independence for decades. British policies during the first half of the twentieth century (i.e., unfulfilled promises, the Balfour Declaration, and the British Mandate), Israel's creation and the 1948 War, the June 1967 War and Israeli military occupation of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, Palestinian diaspora in Arab states and elsewhere, Intifada I and II and Israeli reactions to them—all have complicated or distanced Palestinians from realizing their national goals. Palestinian experiences have produced and are producing markings in their lives, which are mostly perceived and commemorated in negative terms: Nakbah (catastrophe), dispossession, exile, political disenfranchisement, marginality, exclusion, oppression, refugee camps, domination, crossing points, harassment, imprisonment, and death. Regardless, Palestinians have fiercely clung to their past and their memory of home or imagined home. They have developed deep roots, with Palestine considered as a real place, not just a state of mind or utopia. For them, remembering Palestine constitutes not only a cultural and political imperative, but also a moral obligation.

### **Missed Opportunities for Peace**

Countless national and international efforts have attempted to work through the competing Palestinian and Israeli identities, memories, and positions in order to resolve the Palestinian-Israeli conflict peacefully. The Oslo accords (1993); Wye River accord (1998); Camp David meeting (2000); Taba negotiations between Palestinian and Israeli delegations (2001); George Mitchell's proposal (2001); George Tenet's plan (2001); United Nations Resolution 1397, which affirmed a vision of a region where Palestine and Israel would live side by side within secure and recognized borders (2002); the Saudi peace proposal adopted unanimously by the Arab League (2002); the "roadmap" for peace adopted by the Quartet (2003); and the Geneva Accord (2003) between moderate Palestinian and Israeli

leaders—all have taken forward steps for peace, but recurrent backward steps prolong the agony and tragedy. Psychological barriers, religious dogmas, ideological extremism, territorial imperatives, national interests, and security concerns continue to block opportunities for finding an acceptable solution to the majority in both national communities.

The Israeli Jewish experience—of feeling encircled, of being subjected to violence and wars, of struggling for survival—has led the Israeli Jewish community in its formative years to have a monolithic image of self (both personal and collective) and the “other.” As new realities—both positive and negative—emerged (for example, continuous absorption of immigrants, Anwar Sadat’s visit to Jerusalem, Oslo accords, Intifada I and II, changes in Israeli socioeconomic structure), the monolithic image began to disintegrate. One wonders if Israeli Jews are able to meet the challenge of peace.

While the Palestinians are at a different stage in their national existence and suffer in similar ways, the same may be said of them. Regardless of the multiple layers or bundles of identities (Arabism, Islam, Palestine) they possess, they appear to be all united by a common goal: self-determination and statehood. This monolithic image disintegrates, however, as thoughts of the “Israeli enemy,” the practical realities of state borders, and the Right of Return become part of the equation. One wonders if Palestinians are able to overcome their past and chart the future.

Historically, both Israeli and Palestinian leaders are largely responsible for sustaining conflict. Although many speak of peace, few practice it or are sincere about it. Decisions have been based on expediency and on narrow self, party, or national interests. Peace-building approaches have been neglected, thus diminishing the common good of both national communities. In emphasizing security and violence, strategies have endangered others through insecurity and counter-violence, fueling passions that lead to communal guilt, collective punishment, and revenge rather than due process and distributive justice.

Each of the Palestinian and Israeli populations has either become proponent of the party line or has dutifully followed, often out of fear, psychological numbing

or social acculturation. Some have chosen to emigrate or go into self-imposed exile. Those able to do so have engaged in the public peace process or in community-based and functional arenas. Their motivation is to hasten peace and to set a solid foundation for peace once a peace treaty is signed. Still others have become extreme, espousing maximal demands and carrying out aggressive actions.

While there are legitimate, serious differences between both national communities over such issues as Jerusalem, Israeli security, Israeli settlements, Palestinian refugees, Palestinian statehood, borders, and fresh water resources, many excuses and actions have been used to justify positions and policies. Jewish Israelis cite aggressive Arab attitudes, Arab demographic advantage, and Muslim extremism, and Palestinians list Western imperialism, exclusionary Zionism, and Israeli militaristic expansionism and occupation. Israelis rush to create one *fait accompli* after another without genuinely envisioning a State of Palestine as a legitimate neighbor, and Palestinians are stuck in redressing past injustices without genuinely envisioning a future with Israel in it.

World powers—principally England, the United Nations, and the United States—have tried over the years to settle the Palestinian-Israeli zero-sum game but their influence and interests have resulted in less, not more accommodation, between the two contending parties. Today, the United States is highly sought as an ally and friend by both sides, with Israelis demanding more and more support and Palestinians demanding more balance, fairness, and justice.

Serious peacemaking initiatives in Arab-Israeli history, of which the Question of Palestine has always been central, and Palestinian-Israeli relations have been few and have occurred only at the highest levels. Successes have occurred when those involved have been willing to move from a hard-line or a soft-line toward the middle. Prime examples include Anwar Sadat's rapprochement with Israel between 1977 and 1981, the Oslo Peace Accords of September 1993, and the Israel-Jordan Peace Treaty of October 1994. Failure has resulted from leaders' reluctance to seize the historic moment and compromise, such as during the Camp David Summit of July 2000.

## **National Community Actions**

The path of peace can be traversed neither by principles alone nor by pragmatism alone. What is necessary is “a marriage of convictions based on universal moral principles and realistic assessments born of a serious evaluation of politics as the art of the possible....In order to be a genuine force for good in the world, serious principles must be combined with a sober assessment of what can and cannot be accomplished and what in fact will improve the lives of millions of ordinary people” (Ibish & Sarsar, 2006, 1).

Both Palestinians and Israelis have to realize that they are neighbors forever. The sooner they start on their shared destiny, the closer they will be to a more hopeful future. The more they near the center, the more likely they are to succeed.

The Palestinian leadership—internal or external to the West Bank and the Gaza Strip—is dominated by Fatah, the Palestinians’ largest secular party, but is split into several groupings, ranging from the hard-line traditionalists, moderates, and independents to grassroots radicals and security professionals. A strong competition to Fatah comes from Hamas, the Islamic Resistance Movement, which is entrenched in the Gaza Strip.

Leading necessitates making hard and sometimes unpopular policy choices. Internally, it means finding trustworthy leaders at all levels of society who are able to unite, heal the Palestinians, and move them along from a stateless to nation-state status. Leadership implies building institutional, political, financial, legal, and environmental infrastructures; empowering citizens and respecting their basic civil rights; opening up the economy; and transforming education for peace in the twenty-first century. Good governance will go a long way to enhance peace, a good society, and the future, which also involves persuading or compelling extremists, Muslim and otherwise, to follow a nonviolent path of national struggle. There must not be two separate armies and countless militias or a state within a state: “One Palestine, One National Guard.”

Externally, leading involves negotiating with the State of Israel over very tough issues. The more that Palestinians insist on peace with justice, but are open to

creative negotiations and compromise, the faster they will have self-determination and independence. Moreover, leading necessitates opting for a defensive defense and for neutrality in foreign policy. The former would emphasize military forces and weapons that are clearly non-threatening to other states. It would create an environment where defense has supremacy over offense, where repelling an aggressor is possible, and where war is less likely to happen. The latter implies that the state commits itself never to engage in any future conflict and, in case of war, be prepared to forcibly keep its neutrality, security, and independence.

Good governance, defensive defense, and neutrality are necessary and right. While good governance would help Palestinians to enhance their well-being and secure their rights, defensive defense and neutrality would relieve them of the burden of military preparedness, thus refocusing their energies on civilian affairs. These policies would also assure and safeguard Palestine's neighbors, specifically Jordan and Israel, and conversely signal to Palestine's neighbors and others the Palestinian intention and course of action.

With regard to Israel, security and peace must have a better balance. Needed is enlightened leadership that sees beyond tomorrow and is capable of designing and implementing policies that assure Israel's viability and accommodate Palestinian moderate aspirations. Israel, like other countries, is entitled to security for its citizens, but continued occupation and frequent creation of facts on the ground will only result in more polarization and destabilization.

Israel will benefit tremendously from facilitating the establishment of a State of Palestine and from supporting its democratic development and economic growth. A democratic, prosperous, and secure Palestine and a democratic, prosperous, and secure Israel have a strong potential to coexist in peace and to point the Middle East in a constructive direction.

Palestinian and Israeli leaders would do well to learn from Palestinian and Israeli non-governmental organizations and initiatives involved in the public peace process. Most noteworthy are those groups that are symmetrical in membership and activities and that advocate for non-violence, cooperation,

cross-cultural relations, dialogue as a means of conflict resolution, and humanitarian values in both national communities. Among them are the Israel/Palestine Center for Research and Information (IPCRI); Peace Research Institute in the Middle East (PRIME); Neve Shalom/Wahat al-Salaam or Oasis of Peace; One Voice; and People's Voice Initiative. Their agendas and work contribute to peace leadership and creation.<sup>2</sup>

### **The American Role**

As a superpower, with considerable historic, economic, and strategic interests to protect and with democracy and freedom to promote, the United States can do much to influence the policies and actions of other countries. It must become proactive in assisting both Palestinians and Israelis to "get to yes" (Fisher & Ury, 1981) by taking appropriate and responsible risks for peace.

Resolving the Palestinian-Israeli conflict fulfills both ethical and practical necessities. American leaders have everything to gain by championing Palestinian-Israeli peace. Through the vision of a two-state solution and active participation, such action will fulfill American commitment to Israel's security and keep the American promise, made by President George W. Bush, of creating a State of Palestine. This can benefit American involvement in the Middle East, freeing up the United States to address other hot world spots (for example, Iran, North Korea, China) and win the war on terrorism.

In addition to the normal diplomatic gestures, American leaders are advised to appoint a well-known American as special envoy to the Middle East. With assistance from a team of Middle East experts (Jewish, Christian, and Muslim) and in coordination with all relevant parties (for example, Arab world, European Union, Russia, and United Nations), the envoy will be empowered not only to restart the stalled peace negotiations, but also to apply all necessary positive and negative pressures on both Palestinians and Israelis to negotiate in good faith and implement their agreements.

American leaders must overcome their fear of criticizing both Palestinians and Israelis when criticism is deserved. The United States must hold both sides

accountable. Requiring Palestinians to create good governance and to maintain law, order, and security, and requiring Israelis to stop Israeli settlement building and expansion on the West Bank and in Jerusalem will establish balance and symmetry. American leaders must overcome their fear of depoliticizing Palestinian-Israeli relations, that is, making a clear commitment to promote peace regardless of the American election cycle or who rules in the White House or Congress.

If an even-handed approach is pursued by the United States toward Israel and the Palestinians, countries and nongovernmental organizations will surely contribute to peacemaking and peace building. Many are already doing so under dangerous conditions; many more will be engaged in peacetime.

## **Conclusion**

We have an obligation to rethink our concept of peace and peace leadership. We must escape the grip of either-or mentality and move beyond the physical and psychological borders. While we can undertake many initiatives, the creation of a new peace leadership, a new culture of peace, and a new peace movement that would shun violence and end dehumanization and repression is *de rigueur*. Real peace comes our way when we intentionally prepare for it.

## **Endnotes**

<sup>1</sup>These sections are partially excerpted from but expand on arguments made in my earlier published article (Sarsar, 2005).

<sup>2</sup>For information on each of these peace building organizations or initiatives, see <http://www.ipcri.org/> for IPCRI; <http://vispo.com/PRIME/> for PRIME; <http://www.nswas.com/> for Neve Shalom/Wahat al-Salaam/Oasis of Peace; <http://www.onevoicemovement.org/> for One Voice; and <http://www.cmep.org/documents/peoplesvoice.htm> for People's Voice Initiative.

## References

Fisher, R. & Ury, W. (1981). *Getting to yes: Negotiating agreement without giving in*. New York: Penguin Books.

Ibish, H. & Sarsar, S. eds. (2006). *Principles and pragmatism: Key documents from the American task force on Palestine*. Washington, D.C.: American Task Force on Palestine.

Sarsar, S. (2005). From conflict protraction to peace actualization in Palestinian-Israeli relations. *Peace and Conflict Studies* 12 (2), 69-87.

Snyder, G. H. & Diesing, P. (1977). *Conflict Among Nations*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Saliba Sarsar (Ph.D., Rutgers) is Professor of Political Science and Associate Vice President for Academic Program Initiatives at Monmouth University. Dr. Sarsar is a scholar and frequent commentator on Middle East affairs. His research interests and writings focus on Palestinian-Israeli relations, Jerusalem, and peace building. In April 1993, he was featured in *The New York Times*, "His Mission: Finding Why People Fight—A Witness to Mideast Conflict Turns to Dialogue and Peace." He can be reached at [sarsar@monmouth.edu](mailto:sarsar@monmouth.edu).

## **An Instrument to Measure the Impact of Hope in Strategic Plan Implementation**

**Bruce E. Winston  
Corné Bekker  
Regent University**

**Karen Cerff  
Consultant**

**Doug Eames  
Selah Leadership Solutions**

**Martha R. Helland  
Citi**

**Delicia Garnes  
Long Island University**

**This research study presents a 13-item instrument to measure the level of hope in employees relative to their belief in the positive outcome of strategic plans. The single-factor scale has a Cronbach alpha of .912. The premise of the research is that people may be unwilling to invest time and effort into the implementation of strategic plans if they do not have hope/faith in the success of the plans. Theoretical support comes from Vroom's expectancy theory, means efficacy theory, Porter's value chain, and Snyder's hope theory. The practical application of this study lies in the notion that it may be beneficial for leaders to understand the level of employees' hope in the success of strategic plans before implementing those plans.**

**Key words:** hope, South Africa, theory, United States

Luthans and Avolio (2003) make the bold statement that: "the force multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope" (253). Building on this comment, Helland and Winston's (2005) conceptual study of hope as it relates to leadership implies that more work is needed to fully understand and use the concept of hope in leadership. This current study presents an instrument to measure the level of employees' hope in strategic plan implementation and posits that leaders may want to spend more time developing the followers' hope in order to increase the likelihood of success in the implementation of strategic plans. To achieve this purpose, this study investigated the notion of hope in more detail than Helland and Winston's conceptual article did and developed an instrument that other researchers might

find useful in continuing the research of hope as a factor in strategic plan implementation.

During a trip to South Africa and subsequent presentations of seminars on leadership and strategic planning by three of this study's researchers an interesting phenomenon emerged. The three researchers noted during conversations with seminar attendees and observation of South African organizations attempting to implement strategic plans that many of the plans seemed to fail. Reviews of the strategic plans seemed to indicate that the failure was not due to poor planning or insufficient resources but to a sense of apathy and lack of hope among the organizational citizens charged with implementing the strategies.

This observation is supported by Tangri (2004), who maintains that one of two reasons why strategic plans fail is that the planners do not take into account the human element. However, Tangri does not operationally define *human element*, other than the notion that people don't mind change—they mind being changed. But successful strategic plan implementation involves more than overcoming passive resistance to change, it requires active involvement on the part of all organization members. When implementing a strategic plan people are called upon to commit and expend personal energy and effort toward the successful implementation of the plan. Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) has paramount value when used in concert with the more recent concept of the value chain (Porter, 1998) and with Snyder's (1994) concept of hope. This theoretical combination may contribute to the understanding of why people do, or do not, invest the requisite energy and effort into the implementation of a strategic plan.

Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) implies that people are motivated to act if three elements—expectancy, instrumentality, and valence—combine in such a way as to make the goal worth the effort. Tied to Vroom's notion of expectancy is Snyder's (1994) belief that hope represents a person's expectation of goal attainment. Shorey and Snyder (2004) relate high-hope to effective leadership in that people who possess high-hope have clear, well-articulated goals and can envision paths to accomplishing these goals. However, followers usually do not

develop their own goals or envision the paths to accomplish the goals as implied in Vroom's expectancy theory (1964); instead they are often given the task of implementing the strategies developed by the leaders. This means that followers have to adopt the leaders' goals and rewards. The literature has not addressed this topic of how or why followers invest time and effort into accomplishing the leader's goals. This article presents the role of hope in followers committing time and effort to the implementation of the strategic plan and suggests that leaders may want to spend more time developing the hope of followers in order to increase the likelihood of success in the implementation of strategic plans.

For purposes of this study, Fry's (2003) definition of hope/faith will be used to operationally define hope: "[h]ope is a desire with expectation of fulfillment. Faith adds certainty to hope. It is a firm belief in something for which there is no proof. Faith is more than merely wishing for something. It is based on values, attitudes, and behaviors that demonstrate absolute certainty and trust that what is desired and expected will come to pass" (713). Fry's notion of hope/faith incorporates elements of Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), Porter's use of "unseen" systems undergirding value generation, and Snyder's implication that hope includes both agency (ability and intention) and pathways (means) for achieving goals.

On a subsequent trip to South Africa three of the researchers collected data from leadership seminar attendees that provided insights about the attendees' attitudes toward expending energy in the completion of strategic plans. In addition, the researchers added two sample groups from the United States. The theoretical sections that follow develop and present the items that were included in the survey.

### **Vroom's Expectancy Theory**

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory states that a person's motivation to expend energy and effort is a product of three elements: (a) expectancy—the link between effort and completion of the task, (b) instrumentality—the link between the accomplishment of the task and the receipt of a reward, and (c) valence—the link between getting the reward and satisfaction from the reward. Snyder,

Cheavers, and Sympson (1997) posited that hope represents a person's expectation of goal attainment, which ties to Vroom's notion of expectancy. This is supported by Snyder and Shorey's (2004) belief that high-hope people have clear, well-articulated goals and can envision paths to accomplishing the goal. Hope further plays a role in Vroom's notion of instrumentality in that the person performing the task has hope that he or she will actually get the reward. While instrumentality is similar to expectancy, i.e., both refer to gaining the reward, the notion of instrumentality has to do with the probability of receipt. For example, if two people have the same goal of a promotion but only one can receive the promotion, both may have expectancy that achieving the assigned goals may lead to the promotion but both realize only one will receive the promotion. Both people have a 50% probability of receiving the reward (instrumentality) even if both achieve the assigned goals (expectancy). Hope plays a role in causing the person to have willpower (agency) as well as way power (pathways) as presented by Snyder, Irving, and Anderson (1991). Vroom's concept of valence includes the notion of hope—the person has hope of the personal satisfaction that derives from the reward that comes from attaining the goal (expectancy) and receiving the reward (instrumentality).

Since expectancy theory focuses on the perceived likelihood of success, reward achievement, and satisfaction with the reward, the following instrument-items seem to contribute to understanding the overall level of hope in individual followers:

- What level of hope did you have that the project or idea would be successful?
- What level of hope did you have that when the project was completed your efforts would be recognized?
- What level of satisfaction did you expect from completing the project/idea?
- What level of satisfaction did you actually get from completing the project?

## **Means Efficacy and Porter's Value Chain**

Means efficacy, according to Eden (2001), is the person's self-efficacy moderated by the resources available to the person. For example, an employee may have sufficient self-efficacy to know that he/she can produce a desired outcome in one setting because of the availability of needed resources and/or support but lacks sufficient self-efficacy in a different environment when sufficient resources and/or support are lacking. Hope may include the cognitive evaluation on the part of the employee as to whether or not he/she believes that sufficient resources and support systems will in fact be available for the successful completion of the assigned task. This notion of hope and support systems coupled with the concept of means efficacy may tie to Porter's (1998) value chain concept and provide a link between Hope Theory and strategic planning/implementation.

### **Value Chain**

Porter's (1998) value chain concept implies that competitive success occurs when the strategic activities of the firm—(a) inbound logistics, (b) operations, (c) outbound logistics, (d) marketing/sales, and (e) service—are supported by the "hidden" support services of (a) procurement, (b) technology development, (c) human resource management, and (d) firm infrastructure. The support services are invisible to many of the front line employees yet the front line employees need to have faith that the support services will be sufficient to insure the success of strategic efforts. Porter commented that the support services may be modified given specific industries, but regardless of modification, the support services have to exist in some form and be sufficient to insure success in the implementation of strategic plans.

The relevance of Porter's value chain to this study lies in the individual's faith in the support systems. If the individual believes that the support systems will work and work as presented to the individual then the individual should have more means efficacy relative to his or her belief that energy and effort expended toward the completion of the task will result in success.

Since the value chain support system concept relative to hope refers to the person's belief in the successful functioning of behind-the-scenes activities, the following additional instrument-items should help us understand the means efficacy of hope:

- What level of faith did you have in the other people in the organization/family doing their share of the work?
- What level of faith did you have in the organization/family providing the necessary resources of time, money, and materials to complete the project or idea?
- Other people in the organization/family did not do what they said they would do.
- The plan to complete the project/idea was clearly presented to me.
- What level of faith did you have in your leader to coordinate and lead you and/or your group to complete the project/idea?
- What level of faith did you have in the organization/family's systems to provide the resources (the resources were available but you could not get them)?
- I believe that what my leader says will happen just as he/she says it will.

### **Hope Theory**

While this article opened with a definition of hope as belief in good things to come, Snyder, Irving, and Anderson (1991) defined hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (287). Agency and pathways later came to be described as willpower and way power. High-hope people demonstrate the willpower to accomplish a goal and believe they have the means to determine how to accomplish a goal including identifying alternative courses of action for goal attainment when faced with barriers and obstacles along the way.

According to Snyder (2000), hopeful thinking manifests itself in adulthood as a state as well as a disposition. State hope can be influenced by external factors and either increase or decrease depending upon circumstances. A person with a high dispositional hope level seems to more easily recover from disappointment or failed goal pursuit efforts while the person with low dispositional hope may not. However, dispositional hope levels are learned and therefore can be changed through efforts directed at developing higher agency and pathway thinking. The central tenet of hope theory is that the catalyst for future action is goal directed thinking (Snyder, 2002). There are distinct differences in how people approach goal pursuit depending upon their hope orientation. High-hope people pursue goals with “affective zest” whereas low hope people demonstrate “affective lethargy” as they pursue goals (Snyder, 2002, 252). High-hope people seem more able to employ emotional feedback diagnostically to determine more successful goal attainment strategies in the future. Low-hope people experience greater levels of self doubt that represses future action (Snyder, 1999; Michael, 2000; Snyder, 2002).

Furthermore, high-hope people seem to establish positive relationships with others and “often work toward common goals” (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 1997, 114). When engaged in group goal attainment efforts “high-hopers serve to make the group not only more productive but also, perhaps equally important, an interpersonally enjoyable arena” (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 115). High-hope individuals focus their efforts not only on individual goal attainment but collective goal attainment. They hope not in isolation but in relation to others as they look toward the future (Helland & Winston, 2005). Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivasta (1997) further explain:

When people hope, their stance is not only that reality is open, but that it is continually becoming. Rather than trying to concretize and force the realization of a preconceived future, by hoping people prepare the way for possible futures to emerge. In this sense, hoping can be seen as a deeply creative process, one which requires steadfast patience and the

willingness to accept uncertainty as the open future is explored and molded into a compelling image of possibility (12).

It is this aspect of hope, the ability to perceive a positive future in the face of uncertainty and yet in spite of these uncertainties construct pathways people can embrace, that seems particularly relevant for leaders engaged in successful strategic plan implementation efforts.

From hope theory as it relates to the implementation of strategic plans the following additional questions/items would seem pertinent to understanding hope theory's contribution to hope in strategic plan implementation.

- While I worked on the project/idea I felt tired all the time. (reverse worded)
- While I worked on the project I complained about the project/idea to other people who worked on the project/idea. (reverse worded)
- While I worked on the project/idea I put every bit of my energy into the project—just as if it was my project/idea alone.
- While I worked on the project other people complained to me about the project/idea. (reverse worded)
- Would you want to work on the same project/idea again?
- I want to work on other projects/ideas with my leader.
- I have hope in the future of my organization/family.

### **Questions/Comments Derived from the Theoretical Concepts**

Table 1 contains the questions/items that were derived from the concepts and shows the item numbers and sequence of presentation in the instrument developed in this study. Four of the items were reverse worded. The reverse items formed their own factor due to the weak negative loadings and the authors removed the four items from the final factor analysis. The participants received the following instructions on the instrument and were asked to rate their reaction on a scale from 0 - 10:

Think of a project in the recent past in your work or home in which you were asked to help implement a new idea or strategy – a new project of

some sort. For each of the items below circle the number that most closely indicates your level of agreement, hope, effort, or commitment to the project. In the response items “-0-“means none and “10” means complete or total. The other numbers are equal measures between “-0-“and “10.” (See Table 1 on next page.)

## **Research Studies Testing the Instrument to Measure Hope in the Implementation of Strategic Plans**

In an effort to see if there is merit in the consideration and study of hope as a factor in the implementation of strategic plans, the authors conducted one research study in South Africa and two research studies in the U.S. (one study tested the instrument with faculty at Long Island, New York, and Brooklyn, New York, campuses of two four-year private higher education institutions, and the other study tested the instrument with U.S. Coast Guard Contingency Planners).

Although the official language of South Africa is English, many of the residents view English as a second language. Since Afrikaans and Xhosa would be the most likely "other" first language of those South Africans participating in the study, the authors had independent translations of the English instrument into Afrikaans and Xhosa and back into South African English. These four translations (a) English to Afrikaans, (b) Afrikaans to South African English, (c) English to Xhosa, and (d) Xhosa to South African English have not been included in this article (see editor's note). The reason for the translations is to show that there is no significant change in meaning by those participants with Afrikaans or Xhosa as their first language.

Each of the three studies (South African data, U.S. faculty data, and U.S. Coast Guard data) is presented in sequence followed by a summary of the findings.

Table 1

## Questions/Comments and their Theoretical/Conceptual support

Item #	Question/Comment	Theory/Concept
1	What level of hope did you have that the project or idea would be successful?	Expectancy Theory
2	What level of faith did you have in the other people in the organization/family doing their share of the work?	Value Chain
3	What level of hope did you have that when the project was completed your efforts would be recognized?	Expectancy Theory
4	What level of faith did you have in the organization/family providing the necessary resources of time, money, and materials to complete the project or idea?	Value Chain
5	While I worked on the project/idea I felt tired all the time.	Hope (reverse worded) <i>relates to dispositional scale-item 3-distractor</i>
6	While I worked on the project I complained about the project/idea to other people who worked on the project/idea.	Hope (reverse worded)
7	Other people in the organization/family did not do what they said they would do.	Value Chain
8	While I worked on the project/idea I put every bit of my energy into the project – just as if it was my project/idea alone.	Hope Theory <i>agency-state hope</i>
9	While I worked on the project other people complained to me about the project/idea.	Hope Theory (reverse worded)
10	The plan to complete the project/idea was clearly presented to me.	Value Chain – infrastructure
11	What level of faith did you have in your leader to coordinate and lead you and/or your group to complete the project/idea?	Value Chain – infrastructure
12	What level of satisfaction did you expect from completing the project/idea?	Expectancy Theory
13	What level of satisfaction did you actually get from completing the project?	Expectancy Theory
14	Would you want to work on the same project/idea again?	Hope Theory
15	What level of faith did you have in the organization/family's systems to provide the resources (the resources were available but you could not get them)?	Value Chain
16	I believe that what my leader says will happen just as he/she says it will.	Value Chain – Infrastructure
17	I want to work on other projects/ideas with my leader.	Hope Theory
18	I have hope in the future of my organization/family.	Hope Theory

**South African Study**

This represented a convenience sample because two of the authors of this present study were involved in the logistics of the seminars; and one author of the study delivered the content for all three seminars. These frames were deemed appropriate for this study in that: (a) the people attending were followers in organizations and (b) worked for leaders who asked them to participate in the implementation of strategic plans.

**South African Results**

Of the 236 participants who completed the instrument during the seminars in October, 2004, 137 attended the seminar in Johannesburg; 54 attended the first seminar in Cape Town; and 45 attended the second seminar in Cape Town.

Before running a factor analysis, the data were checked using ANOVA to confirm that the data on each of the 18 items were similar among the three seminar samples and no significant differences were noted.

Data were manually entered into SPSS and during this process the reverse worded items were reverse scored and substituted for the original data. Table 2 (on next page) shows the component matrix with a minimum factor loading of .500. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, and 18 comprise factor 1 and explain 37.6% of the variance. The Cronbach alpha for factor 1 is .909. Factor 2 and 3 explain 10.6% and 7.6% of the variance respectively and are deemed insufficient to use in the instrument.

**Table 2**  
**South African Sample Component Matrix**

	Component		
	1	2	3
1	0.658		
2	0.617		
3	0.682		
4	0.666		
5r		0.706	
6r		0.664	
7r		0.607	
8			0.641
9r		-	
		0.661	
10	0.665		
11	0.781		
12	0.698		
13	0.701		
14	0.725		
15			
16	0.719		
17	0.751		
18	0.767		

### **U.S. College Faculty Study**

As part of a larger study (Garnes, 2005), 284 faculty from Long Island, New York, and Brooklyn, New York, campuses of two four-year private, higher-educational institutions completed the 18-item hope instrument pool while considering the colleges' IT efforts to implement computer-mediated teaching support strategies.

Table 3 (next page) shows the component matrix with a minimum factor loading of .500. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, and 18 load on the first factor and explain 40% of the variance. The Cronbach alpha for factor 1 is .923. Factor 2 explains 12% of the variance and is not considered as sufficiently contributing to the understanding of the variance to include it as a separate factor.

**Table 3**  
**U.S. Faculty Sample Component Matrix**

Item	Component	
	1	2
1	0.706	
2	0.723	
3	0.711	
4	0.803	
5		0.703
6		0.735
7		0.768
8		
9		0.690
10	0.697	
11	0.774	
12	0.790	
13	0.724	
14		
15	0.679	
16	0.750	
17	0.753	
18	0.737	

### **U.S. Coast Guard Study**

Table 4 (next page) shows the component matrix for the 114 U.S. Coast Guard participants with a minimum factor loading of .500. Items 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 load on the first factor and explain 33.37% of the variance. The Cronbach alpha for factor 1 is .883. Factor 2 explains 9.5% of the variance and is not considered as sufficiently contributing to the understanding of the variance to include it as a separate factor.

**Table 4**  
**U.S. Coast Guard Sample Component Matrix**

Item	Component	
	1	2
1		
2	0.516	
3	0.584	
4	0.644	
5		0.580
6		0.637
7		
8		
9		0.525
10	0.586	
11	0.735	
12	0.610	
13	0.781	
14	0.631	
15	0.634	
16	0.774	
17	0.768	
18	0.579	

### Combined Analysis

The authors combined the data from the three samples and ran an ANOVA to see if significant differences existed by item. Although differences did exist, the Bonferroni post-hoc test did not reveal a pattern of differences but rather the samples varied one to another in different combinations. For example with item 1 the South African sample was different from the U.S. Faculty and the USCG, but with item 2 the U.S. Faculty differed from the other two and with item 4, the USCG differed from the other two.

Factor 1 in Table 5 consisting of items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 explains 37.63% of the variance in the data and has a Cronbach alpha of .912. Factor 2 explains 11.25% of the variance and is not considered as sufficiently contributing to the understanding of the variance to include as a separate factor.

**Table 5**  
**Combined Sample Component Matrix**

Item	Component	
	1	2
1	0.640	
2	0.662	
3	0.676	
4	0.733	
5		0.690
6		0.687
7		0.719
8		
9		0.699
10	0.663	
11	0.772	
12	0.731	
13	0.721	
14	0.632	
15	0.647	
16	0.737	
17	0.752	
18	0.721	

## Conclusion

The similarities between the samples lead to a conclusion that the factor consisting of items 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 could be used to measure the level of hope that a follower/employee may have in the implementation of a strategic plan. More research is necessary from this point forward to test the relationship of hope with successful and failed implementation

efforts. Longitudinal studies may be of use in measuring the change in hope over time in order to show the state-status of hope as it relates to the willingness of employees to commit energy and effort to the implementation of strategic plans. If the research bears out the relationship there may be reasons to train leaders to spend the requisite time on fostering the development of hope in followers/employees rather than focusing solely on the strategic plan. Now that an instrument is available to measure employees' hope relative to the implementation of strategic plans, future research can make use of discriminate studies to measure the differences in organizations in which strategic plans were successful and not successful.

## References

- Eden, D. (2001). Means efficacy: External sources of general and specific subjective efficacy. In M. Erez, U. Kleinbeck, & H. Thierry (Eds.), *Work motivation in the context of a globalizing economy*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Fry, L. W. (2003). Toward a theory of spiritual leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly* 14(6), 693-727.
- Garnes, D. (2005). Hope and self-efficacy as motivational influences in technology adoption. Unpublished dissertation. Regent University School of Leadership Studies.
- Luthans, F. & Avolio, B.J. (2003). Authentic leadership: A positive development approach. *Positive Organizational Scholarship* [Web retrieved December 3, 2004] <http://www.cba.unl.edu/people/article.asp?ID=12>.
- Helland, M. & Winston, B. (2005). Towards a deeper understanding of hope and leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies* 12(3), 42-51.
- Ludema, J. D., Wilmot, T. B. & Srivastva, S (1997). Organization hope: Reaffirming the constructive task of social and organizational inquiry. *Human Relations*, 50(8), 1015-1053.
- Porter, M. (1998). *Competitive advantage*. New York: The Free Press.

- Shorey, H. S. & Snyder, C. R. (2004). Hope as a common process in effective leadership. Paper presented at the UNL Gallup Leadership Institute Summit, June 10-12, 2004.
- Snyder, C. R. (1994). Hope and optimism. In *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior*, Vol 2 New York: Academic Press, 535-542.
- Snyder, C. R. (2000). Genesis: The birth and growth of hope. In C.R. Snyder (Ed.), *Handbook of hope, theories, measure and applications*. San Diego, Academic Press, 25-36.
- Snyder, C. R. (2002). Hope theory: Rainbows in the mind. *Psychological Inquiry*, 13(4), 249-275.
- Snyder, C. R., Irving, L. M. & Anderson, J. (1991). Hope and health. In C.R.Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.) *Handbook of social and clinical psychology: The health perspective*. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon, 285-305.
- Snyder, C. R. & Shorey, H. (2004). Hope. In G.R. Goethals, G. J. Christensen, & J. M. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. Harrison, New York: Berkshire Publishers.
- Snyder, C. R., Cheavens, J. & Simpson, S. C. (1997). Hope: An individual motive for social commerce. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice*, 1(2), 107-118.
- Tangri, R. (2004). Why strategic planning fails. *Chrysalis Approaching Change* February 2004,4(6)  
[http://www.teamchrysalis.com/AC/V\\$/AC46\\_Stategic\\_Failure.htm](http://www.teamchrysalis.com/AC/V$/AC46_Stategic_Failure.htm) retrieved September, 2004.
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley and Sons.

**Editor's Note:** Space did not permit us to include the Appendices. Please contact the lead author for copies of the Appendices.

Bruce E. Winston (PhD, Virginia Commonwealth University) serves as both Dean and Associate Professor of Leadership at Regent University's School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship in Virginia Beach, Virginia. He can be reached at [bwinston@regent.edu](mailto:bwinston@regent.edu)

Corné Bekker (D.Litt.et Phil, Rand Afrikaans University) joined Regent University in 2005 and serves as an associate professor for the School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship. Dr. Bekker teaches in the doctoral programs of the School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship and is actively involved in research on the use of biblical hermeneutics and spirituality to explore leadership. He is also the editor for the *Journal of Biblical Perspectives in Leadership* and the co-editor for *Inner Resources for Leaders*. He can be reached at [cbekker@regent.edu](mailto:cbekker@regent.edu)

Karen Cerff (PhD, Regent University) serves as a consultant in the fields of organizational leadership, coaching, and education. She resides in Cape Town, South Africa, where she is dedicated to encouraging and developing people to their potential in every walk of life and fulfilling their life's purpose. She can be reached at [Karen@transformationalleadership.co.za](mailto:Karen@transformationalleadership.co.za)

Douglas N. Eames is President and Founder of Selah Leadership Solutions, Inc. He is a Doctoral Candidate at Regent University's School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship. He can be reached at [DougEames@SelahLeadershipSolutions.com](mailto:DougEames@SelahLeadershipSolutions.com)

Martha R. Helland (PhD, Regent University) is currently the Vice President for Assessment and Selection at Citi for Global Consumer Group, North American staffing. She serves as an adjunct instructor in the John Vucurevich School of Business at the University of Sioux Falls. She can be reached at [mhelland@sio.midco.net](mailto:mhelland@sio.midco.net)

Delicia M. B. Garnes (PhD, Regent University) currently serves as the Associate Dean of Information Technology at Long Island University and as an adjunct professor in the Departments of Computer Science, Education and Orientation. She can be reached at [delicia.garnes@liu.edu](mailto:delicia.garnes@liu.edu)

## **An Investigation of Generational Values in the Workplace: Divergence, Convergence, and Implications for Leadership**

**Regina A. Greenwood  
Jane Whitney Gibson  
Nova Southeastern University**

**Edward F. Murphy, Jr.  
Embry Riddle Aeronautical University**

**This research explored intergenerational value differences of 5,057 working adults classified as Generation Y (millennium generation), Generation X, and Baby Boomers in the United States with a focus on divergence and convergence of values and the implications for leaders. Using the Rokeach Value Survey, the results indicate significant statistical differences in the terminal and instrumental values of the generations, supporting the popular opinion that members of each generation display different attitudes and behaviors in the workplace and must therefore be led differently. At the same time, the results also indicate areas of convergence in some values. Limitations and suggestions for further research are also presented.**

**Key Words:** generations, Rokeach Value Survey, values

In today's complex organizational environment, leaders at all levels are faced with making an increasingly diverse workforce into high performing work teams. Aside from traditional diversity considerations like gender, ethnicity, religion, and race, age-related differences exist which make the influence process more challenging. One recurrent theme in practitioner-oriented literature as well as the popular press concerns the differences that exist in the attitudes and behaviors of members of different generations in the U.S. workforce. According to many sources, the job-related factors that attract members of one generation can be different from the job-related factors that attract another generation's members (Armour, 2005; Patota et al, 2007; Trunk, 2007). Additionally, the difficulties of leading such an age-diverse workforce with all its conflict-potential is often cited (Weil, 2008; Zemke et al, 1999). Other research finds that generational stereotypes were not always accurate and that motivational differences were not necessarily significant (Johnson & Lopes, 2008). One remedy is better

understanding of what the different generations want and need (Crampton & Hodge, 2007; Martin & Tulgan, 2001).

Researchers have long acknowledged that values influence attitudes which in turn affect behavior (Murphy, Gordon, & Anderson, 2004; Rokeach, 1973). This research seeks to determine if significant value differences exist between generations based on a study of working adults in the U.S. If there are significant value differences between the generations, then generations would also have different attitudes and display different behaviors. If no such significant value differences exist, then there is little basis for the belief that generations have different attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. Leaders would, therefore, have no need to manage organizational members differently.

## **Generations Research**

The modern study of generations is founded on the work of Mannheim (1953) who in the early 1950s defined generations as a group of individuals born and raised in the same chronological, social, and historical environment. The pre-Baby Boom generation, called the Traditionalists by Massey (1979, 2005), consists of those born before or during World War II. Some of them are still in high level positions in Corporate America but they are close to retirement and will not be considered for this study.

The Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y are of most interest to those now studying values in the workplace as they together make up the vast majority of current employees. While there is considerable disagreement as to starting and ending birth years for these generations, the authors chose to use the generation bands defined by Strauss and Howe (1997) and Egri and Ralston (2004) for Baby Boomers and Generation X: Baby Boomers are born from 1946 to 1964, Generation X are born from 1965 to 1979. Generation Y (millennial generation) are those individuals born from 1980 to the present (Eisner, 2005; Murphy et al., 2006).

While this study focuses on generations in the United States, the notion of generational differences has not been confined to this country. Feather's

research studies (1975, 1984) covering Australia, New Zealand, and Papua New Guinea indicated significant differences in generational differences across cultures. For example, Feather found that regardless of culture, the teenage generation ranked true friendship much higher on the RVS than parents did whereas parents across cultures ranked family security higher than did their offspring. Bond's studies using the RVS and the Chinese Value Survey revealed generational differences in the values of respondents in Hong Kong, Singapore and China (1994, 1996). Egri and Ralston's (2003) research on value differences among generations in China indicated that "the generation in which one grew up appears to be crucial to understanding the values" (421). Murphy et al. (2006) and Khilji et al. (2008) investigated cross-cultural generational value differences using the same generational parameters as used in this study.

## **Values Research**

Understanding the values systems of these generational groups is important in that values are a primary underlying factor which determines attitudes and behavior. (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Connor & Becker, 2003) A personal value system has been defined as "a relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behavior" (England, 1967, 54). However, this paper focuses on generational values. Because of these similarities of age and experience, Mannheim believed that common generational values could be expected (Mannheim, 1970). Say Patota, Schwartz, and Schwartz (2007, 2), "The collective memories of a generation lead to a set of common beliefs, values, and expectations that are unique to that generation."

Over the years, a number of well-known values models and instruments have emerged including Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey (1960), Gordon (1967), England (1967), Schwartz (1990). The Rokeach Value Survey, however, has been the most popular values instrument and has been used in a wide variety of settings (Feather & Paye, 1975; Braithwaite & Law, 1985).

Many studies have used the RVS either alone or in concert with other instruments to compare values both within the United States (Allen, 1994; Hogan & Moorherjee, 1981; McCarthy, 1997; Parkes & Thomas, 2007) and in international settings (Kamakura & Mazzon, 1991; Yuan & Shen, 1998; Feather, 1986; Murphy, Greenwood, Ruiz-Gutierrez, Manyak, Mujtaba, & Uy, 2006a). It should be noted that a central tenet of the Rokeach theory is its universality. Says Rokeach, “The number of human values are small, the same the world over, and capable of different structural arrangements (1979, 2).”

Rokeach’s (1973) model is based on two sets of 18 values, including a set of terminal values (or those end states that a person aspires to) and a set of instrumental values (or desired “modes of conduct”). Table 1 lists the instrumental and terminal values.

**Table 1**  
**The Rokeach Value Model**

<b>Instrumental Values</b>	<b>Terminal Values</b>
Ambitious	A comfortable life
Broadminded	An exciting life
Capable	A sense of accomplishment
Cheerful	A world at peace
Clean	A world of beauty
Courageous	Equality
Forgiving	Family security
Helpful	Freedom
Honest	Happiness
Imaginative	Inner harmony
Independent	Mature love
Intellectual	National security
Logical	Pleasure
Loving	Salvation
Obedient	Self-respect
Polite	Social recognition
Responsible	True friendship
Self-Controlled	Wisdom

Source: Rokeach, 1973, 27

The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) asks the respondent to rank the priority of each value relative to one another. Thus, a respondent would rank instrumental values 1-18 (1 = most important; 18 = least important) and do the same for terminal values. While much research has been done describing the behavior of Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y, this paper specifically looks at the generations as they rank the Rokeach instrumental and terminal values.

## **Methodology**

Since values affect attitudes which influence behavior, if different generations have different value systems, then there is support for their attitudes and, consequentially, their behavior, being distinct one from the other. If there is no difference between their value systems, then there is little support for the belief that different generations have different attitudes that affect their behavior in the workplace. The research, therefore, tests the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 (H1): There are statistically significant differences in terminal values between Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): There are statistically significant differences in instrumental values between Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): There are statistically significant differences in terminal values between Generation Y and Baby Boomers.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): There are statistically significant differences in terminal values between Generation Y and Generation X.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): There are statistically significant differences in terminal values between Generation X and Baby Boomers.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): There are statistically significant differences in instrumental values between Generation Y and Baby Boomers.

Hypothesis 7 (H7): There are statistically significant differences in instrumental values between Generation Y and Generation X.

Hypothesis 8 (H8): There are statistically significant differences in instrumental values between Generation X and Baby Boomers.

Rokeach (1973, 1979) and Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach (1989) reported test-retest reliability for each of the 18 terminal values considered separately, from seven weeks to eighteen months later, ranged from a low of .51 for a sense of accomplishment to a high of .88 for salvation. Comparable test-retest reliability scores for instrumental values ranged from .45 for responsible to .70 for ambitious. Employing a 14-16 month test interval, median reliability was .69 for terminal values and .61 for instrumental values. Additionally, the RVS has shown its reliability and validity in numerous cross-cultural research studies in the past 30 years (Connor & Becker, 2003, 2006; Murphy et al., 2006).

Respondents for this study were working adults and working adult university students surveyed in California between 2003 and 2008 and who were employed in industry; federal, state or local government; and the military. The total sample of 5,057 consisted of 2,153 classified as Generation Y (millennium generation), 1,440 as Generation X, and 1,464 as Baby Boomers. The values were explored with a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA median test with generation as the independent variable and values as the dependent variables. Since the ANOVA only shows differences between the samples, we used Tukey Honest Significant Differences (HSD) post hoc tests ( $p < .05$ ) to examine pair-wise differences between the generation categories (Cukur, de Guzman, & Carlo, 2004).

## **Findings**

The rankings, standard deviations, and Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA H-values and significance  $p$ -values for H1 and H2 are shown in Tables 1 and 2. There were generation differences (Table 2 on next page) for 16 of 18 terminal values allowing us to accept H1. Similarly, there were generation differences (Table 3 on page 64) for 17 of 18 instrumental values allowing us to accept H2.

Based on analysis using Tukey HSD post hoc tests ( $p < .05$ ) to examine pair-wise differences in terminal and instrumental values (H3-H8) between the generation categories, H3-8 were accepted. (Tables 4 and 5 on pages 64 and 65) There were statistically significant differences for 12 of the 18 terminal values between Generation Y and Baby Boomers allowing us to accept H3 (Table 4).

Hypothesis 4 suggested that Generation Y would have statistically significant terminal value differences when compared to Generation X. Differences were indicated in 12 of 18 terminal values allowing us to accept the hypothesis (Table 4). Finally, H5 was accepted as Generation X had statistically significant differences in terminal values as compared to Baby Boomers (H5) for 9 of 18 values (Table 4).

Table 5 shows the results of comparing generations' instrumental values. Generation Y did have 13 of 18 statistically significant value differences with Baby Boomers (H6), allowing us to accept the H6. The Tukey post hoc test indicated statistically significant instrumental value differences between Generation Y (millennial generation) and Generation X for 16 of 18 values, allowing us to accept H7. Finally, Generation X did have 13 of 18 instrumental value differences with Baby Boomers allowing us to accept H8.

**Table 2**  
**Generation differences in terminal value rankings,**  
**standard deviations and ANOVA H-Values**

Terminal Values	Gen Y N=2,153	StD	Gen X N=1,440	StD	Baby Boom N=1,464	StD	H Value	P < .05
A Comfortable Life	6	5.3	4	5.3	4	4.8		
An Exciting Life	11	4.8	13	4.2	12	4.0	29.49	.002
A Sense of Accomplishment	7	4.2	11	4.4	10	4.7	19.413	.018
A World Peace	15	5.1	15	4.6	14	4.8	14.564	.0001
A World of Beauty	18	4.0	18	4.3	17	3.3	10.944	.001
Equality	12	4.9	14	4.3	16	4.3	136.9	.0001
Family Security	1	4.5	1	4.8	2	5.0	90.2	.0001
Freedom	3	4.4	3	4.5	5	4.0	19.25	.001
Health	2	4.1	2	4.1	1	3.0	243.75	.0001
Inner Harmony	16	4.5	5	4.4	9	4.4	617.11	.0001
Mature Love	9	4.9	9	5.0	11	4.7		
National Security	14	4.9	16	3.8	15	4.9	63.42	.011
Pleasure	13	5.0	10	4.4	13	4.2	89.89	.0001
Salvation	10	6.5	12	6.4	8	6.6	61.76	.0001
Self-Respect	5	3.8	6	4.3	3	3.5	22.39	.024
Social Recognition	17	4.5	17	4.3	18	4.3	306.33	.0001
True Friendship	4	4.5	7	4.2	7	4.6	68.47	.0001
Wisdom	8	4.4	8	5.0	6	4.0	8.267	.016

Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA Median Test

**Table 3**  
**Generation differences in instrumental value rankings, standard deviations and ANOVA H-Values**

Instrumental Values	Gen Y N=2,153	StD	Gen X N=1,440	StD	Baby Boom N=1,464	StD	H Value	P < .05
Ambitious	5	5.0	11	5.2	7	4.5	175.22	.0001
Broadminded	7	5.1	8	4.5	15	3.9	159.11	.0001
Capable	8	4.1	3	4.8	4	4.4	50.97	.0002
Clean	14	5.5	16	4.9	16	4.9	34.46	.002
Courageous	13	4.8	6	4.7	12	4.7	69.61	.0001
Forgiving	15	5.6	14	5.1	9	4.5	72.46	.0001
Helpful	11	4.8	10	5.0	13	4.6	12.38	.002
Honest	1	4.7	1	4.5	1	3.6	101.83	.0001
Imaginative	18	4.7	17	5.0	17	4.1	13.18	.0001
Independent	4	4.8	9	5.3	5	5.0	112.2	.0001
Intellectual	10	4.6	12	5.0	11	5.1		
Logical	12	4.8	7	4.0	8	4.4	53.87	.0001
Loving	3	5.1	5	5.4	6	5.2	36.84	.0001
Loyal	6	4.3	4	4.9	3	5.1	37.723	.002
Obedient	17	4.6	18	4.9	18	4.9	11.980	.001
Polite	16	4.1	15	4.3	14	4.5	24.181	.0001
Responsible	2	4.2	2	4.1	2	3.6	307.1	.0001
Self-controlled	9	4.9	13	5.0	10	5.4	14.45	.0001

Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA Median Test

**Table 4**  
**Generation differences in terminal value rankings:  
 Generational pair-wise differences Tukey's HSD Post Hoc Tests**

Terminal Values	Gen Y N=2,153	Gen X N=1,440	P < .05	Gen Y N=2,153	Baby Boom N=1,464	P < .05	Gen X N=1,440	Baby Boom N=1,464	P < .05
A Comfortable Life	6	4		6	4		4	4	
An Exciting Life	11	13	.0001	11	12	.012	13	12	.038
A Sense of Accomplishment	7	11	.0001	7	10	.0002	11	10	
A World Peace	15	15	.0001	15	14	.032	15	14	
A World of Beauty	18	18		18	17		18	17	
Equality	12	14	.0001	12	16	.0001	14	16	.0001
Family Security	1	1	.005	1	2	.0001	1	2	
Freedom	3	3		3	5	.015	3	5	
Health	2	2	.0001	2	1	.0001	2	1	.0001
Inner Harmony	16	5	.0001	16	9	.0001	5	9	.034
Mature Love	9	9		9	11		9	11	
National Security	14	16	.0001	14	15	.0001	16	15	
Pleasure	13	10	.0001	13	13		10	13	.0001
Salvation	10	12		10	8	.0001	12	8	.0001
Self-Respect	5	6	.0001	5	3		6	3	.0001
Social Recognition	17	17	.012	17	18	.0001	17	18	.0001
True Friendship	4	7	.0001	4	7	.0001	7	7	
Wisdom	8	8		8	6		8	6	.0001

**Table 5**  
**Generation differences in instrumental value rankings:**  
**Generational pair-wise differences Tukey's HSD Post Hoc Tests**

Instrumental Values	Gen Y N=2,153	Gen X N=1,440	P < .05	Gen Y N=2,153	Baby Boom N=1,464	P < .05	Gen X N=1,440	Baby Boom N=1,464	P < .05
Ambitious	5	11	.0001	5	7	.0001	11	7	.016
Broad-minded	7	8	.011	7	15	.0001	8	15	.0001
Capable	8	3	.0001	8	4	.0001	3	4	.044
Clean	14	16	.007	14	16	.0001	16	16	.007
Courageous	13	6	.0001	13	12		6	12	.0001
Forgiving	15	14	.0001	15	9	.0001	14	9	.005
Helpful	11	10	.0001	11	13		10	13	.004
Honest	1	1	.0001	1	1	.0001	1	1	
Imaginative	18	17	.0001	18	17		17	17	.0001
Independent	4	9	.0001	4	5	.013	9	5	.0001
Intellectual	10	12		10	11		12	11	
Logical	12	7	.0001	12	8	.003	7	8	.006
Loving	3	5	.0001	3	6	.0001	5	6	.0001
Loyal	6	4	.007	6	3	.002	4	3	.0001
Obedient	17	18		17	18	.008	18	18	
Polite	16	15	.0001	16	14	.036	15	14	
Responsible	2	2	.002	2	2	.0001	2	2	.0001
Self-controlled	9	13	.0001	9	10		13	10	

## Discussion

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were fully supported as there were statistically significant terminal and instrumental value differences between the generations for 16 of 18 terminal value goals (H1) and 17 of 18 instrumental values (H2). The authors further explored these differences in H3-H8, using Tukey's HSD post hoc tests, which indicated pair-wise differences among all three generations, allowing us to accept H3-H8. Some values were statistically significant between all three generations, while some other values were not.

In examining terminal values (Table 4), only *an exciting life*, *equality*, *health*, *inner harmony* and *social recognition* had statistically significant differences between all the generational pairs (Generation Y versus Generation X; Generation Y versus Baby Boomers; Generation X versus Baby Boomers). For instrumental values (Table 3), all three generational pairs were statistically

different for *ambitious, broadminded, capable, clean, independent, logical, loving, loyal and responsible*.

For pair-wise differences, the terminal values *a sense of accomplishment, a world at peace, family security, national security, and true friendship* and instrumental values *honest* and *polite* had statistically significant differences between the Generation Y and Baby Boomers and Generation Y and Generation X, but not between Generation X and Baby Boomers.

The terminal values *pleasure* and *self-respect* and instrumental values *courageous, helpful* and *imaginative* were statistically significant for differences between Generation Y and Generation X and Generation X and Baby Boomers, but not for Generation Y and Baby Boomers.

The terminal value *freedom* and instrumental value *obedient* had only one statistically significant pair-wise difference, between Generation Y and Baby Boomers. *Salvation* was statistically significant for Generation Y and Baby Boomers and Generation X and Baby Boomers; *wisdom* had one pair-wise difference between Generation X and Baby Boomers, and finally, *self-controlled* had one pair difference between Generation Y and Baby Boomers. The authors next looked at comparative values between each pair of generations.

### **Generation Y versus Generation X**

The terminal values ranked more important (lower rankings and/or means) for Generation Y (millennial generation) as compared to Generation X (Table 4) were *an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, equality, family security, national security, salvation, self-respect, social recognition* and *true friendship* and the instrumental values (Table 5) more important for Millennial Generation as compared to Generation X included *ambitious, broadminded, clean, independent, intellectual, loving, and obedient*.

The terminal value goals more important for Generation X as compared to the Millennial Generation included *a comfortable life, a world at peace, inner harmony, and pleasure* and their more important instrumental values included *capable, courageous, forgiving, helpful, honest, imaginative, logical, loyal, polite and responsible*.

### **Generation Y versus Baby Boomers**

The terminal values ranked more important for Generation Y as compared to Baby Boomers (Table 4) were an *exciting life*, *a sense of accomplishment*, *equality*, *family security*, *freedom*, *mature love*, *national security*, *social recognition* and *true friendship* and the instrumental values (Table 5) more important for Generation Y as compared to Baby Boomers included *ambitious*, *broadminded*, *clean*, *helpful*, *independent*, *intellectual*, *loving*, *obedient* and *self-controlled*.

The terminal value goals more important for Baby Boomers as compared to Generation Y included *a comfortable life*, *a world at peace*, *a world of beauty*, *health*, *inner harmony*, *salvation*, *self-respect*, and *wisdom* and their more important instrumental values included *capable*, *courageous*, *forgiving*, *honest*, *imaginative*, *logical*, *loyal*, *polite* and *responsible*.

### **Generation X versus Baby Boomers**

When comparing Generation X to Baby Boomers, we found that Generation X placed higher value importance on the terminal values *equality*, *family security*, *freedom*, *inner harmony*, *mature love*, *pleasure*, and *social recognition* (Table 4) and instrumental values *broadminded*, *capable*, *clean*, *courageous*, *helpful*, *imaginative*, *logical*, *loving*, and *obedient* (Table 5).

When comparing Generation X to Baby Boomers, we found that for terminal values Baby Boomers placed higher value importance for *a comfortable life*, *an exciting life*, *a sense of accomplishment*, *a world at peace*, *a world of beauty*, *health*, *national security*, *salvation*, *self-respect*, *true friendship* and *wisdom* (Table 4). For instrumental values Baby Boomers as compared to Generation X place higher value importance on *ambitious*, *forgiving*, *honest*, *independent*, *intellectual*, *loyal*, *polite*, *responsible* and *self-controlled* (Table 5).

### **Value Divergence and Convergence across Generations**

For value divergence across the generations, the terminal values more important for Generation Y were *an exciting life*, *a sense of accomplishment*, *equality*, *freedom*, and *true friendship* and the instrumental values more important were

*ambitious, broadminded, independent, intellectual, loving, and self-controlled.* On the other hand, the terminal values more important for Generation X were *family security, inner harmony, mature love and pleasure*, and their more important instrumental values included *capable, courageous, helpful, and logical.* Finally, Baby Boomers' more important goals were having *a comfortable life, health, salvation, self-respect and wisdom* and their more important instrumental values were *forgiving, honest, loyal and responsible.*

For value convergence across the generations, three terminal values and one instrumental value were ranked in the top five of importance across the generations: terminal values *family security, freedom and health* and instrumental values *honest and responsible.* The results indicate that members of each generation would pursue their most important goals in life of taking care of their families, having independence and free choice, and being free from sickness; they would pursue these goals by being sincere and truthful, dependable and reliable.

Values that all three generations similarly ranked as unimportant were the terminal values *a world at peace, a world of beauty, national security and social recognition* and the instrumental values *imaginative, obedient and polite.* The results signify that adults across all three generations had little concern about war and threats to national security, had little interest in aesthetics, and required little recognition from their peers.

## **Limitations**

The major limitation of this study was the narrow geographic area of study. The surveys were distributed to working adults and working adult university students in industry; federal, state and local government employees; and military members in Northern and Southern California. Further studies of the values of generations need to be conducted in other U.S. geographic areas as well as international studies which would reflect the effect of culture on values.

## **Conclusion and Implications for Leaders**

The authors asked if there are significant generational differences that leaders must understand in order to more effectively recruit, lead, and retain employees. Our findings suggest that the answer is yes. Generational value differences do exist and these differences influence attitudes and behaviors, thereby creating what has been called a “generation gap.” Leaders must understand the different needs of each generation and the needs of the different generations in countries in which they are conducting business if they are to lead successfully. Managers in their leadership capacity should also create human resources policies to ensure that work teams include the perspectives of these different generational value systems. Yet, leaders must meet the challenge of managing each generation differently in order to achieve high performance outcomes. By examining each generation’s value structure, one can develop a profile of each group which can guide how each is managed.

Generation Y, when compared to the other generations, is more motivated by excitement, accomplishment, having independence and free choice, close companionship and a desire to be treated equally. Millennials also place a higher value on being ambitious and broadminded. They are self-reliant and self-sufficient (the independent value) as well as valuing intelligence and reflection (intellectual). Finally, they are affectionate and tender and restrained and self-disciplined (self-controlled). Such characteristics imply that Millennials like to be in charge, like to work either alone or with others if they can develop close companionship with their co-workers; they like excitement in their jobs; they want to be hard working and have the chance of promotions and they want to be treated as equals. These young people are reputed to want to be treated as middle-level managers, despite not having moved up through experience. They want the responsibility and experience now, not later. This poses a challenge to Generation X and Baby Boomers because these generations had to get their experience first, before being promoted to the top positions.

Generation X, in comparison with the other cohorts, is more driven to achieve inner harmony and pleasure. They want to take care of their families and loved ones and they desire having an enjoyable and leisurely life. Providing free time from work obligations is a powerful motivator for such employees. Generation X also wants everyone to know that they are competent and effective; they are willing to stand up for their beliefs (courageous). They are likely to be willing to work as part of the team and to pursue team or organizational goals because of their higher ranking of being helpful. They value logic and are likely to make consistent and rational decisions.

Finally, Baby Boomers, as compared to the other generations, have a strong concern for their health and being free from sickness. As they prepare to retire, they are likely to be concerned about health care benefits and retirement plans. Baby Boomers are more concerned with religion and salvation than other generations. Baby Boomers want respect and esteem from co-workers, subordinates and managers, and they are dedicated (loyal). Managers can expect more organizational commitment from the Baby Boomers. They can also expect these workers to be more forgiving and polite in demeanor. Of the three groups, Baby Boomers have the greatest value for a world at peace and a world of beauty.

The savvy leader will realize that within generations, there is a wide range of individual differences; however, recognizing group values and the fact that values underlie attitudes and behavior can be most helpful in understanding and managing the generation gaps in a given workplace. The current emphasis on diversity in the workplace usually focuses on gender, race, and ethnicity, but the generational value differences supported by this study highlight another important aspect of diversity management.

Longitudinal studies, cross-cultural studies, and studies with a larger variety of populations are suggested. The populations that the authors used were from larger cities. Do the same value structures apply for individuals in smaller towns? Additionally, generational research should be conducted in other nations as well in order to identify the values that are important for all generations worldwide.

The authors are interested in investigating whether the cultural profiles popularized by Hofstede and his associates (2001) can serve as predictors of generational ratings of instrumental and terminal values. For example, are all three generations in a high individualism culture like the United States likely to rank independence higher on the RVS than those residing in a low individualism culture like Japan? There are many avenues open for research in cross generational value research. In the global economy of the twenty-first century, leaders can use the insight of this and future research to better manage workers in all three generations.

## References

- Allen, M. W. (1994). Reliability and accuracy of culture-level judgments of personal values. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 79(1), 16-18.
- Allport, G. W., Vernon, P. E., & Lindzey, G. (1960). *Study of values: A scale for measuring the dominant interests in personality*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Armour, S. (2005, November 11). Generation Y: They've arrived at work with a new attitude. *USA Today*. Retrieved May 21, 2008 from [http://www.usatoday.com/money/workplace/2005-11-06-gen-y\\_x.htm](http://www.usatoday.com/money/workplace/2005-11-06-gen-y_x.htm)
- Braithwaite, V. A., & Law, H. G. (1985). Structure of human values: Testing the adequacy of the Rokeach value survey. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(1), 250-163.
- Bond, M. H. (1996). Chinese values. In M. Bond (ed.) *The handbook of Chinese psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bond, M. H. (1994). Finding universal dimensions of individual variation in multicultural studies of values: The Rokeach and Chinese value surveys. In B. Apuka (ed.) *New research on moral development: Moral development a compendium*. NY: Garland Publishing, 385-391.
- Connor, P. E., & Becker, B. W. (2003). Personal values and decision-making styles of public managers. *Public Personnel Management*, (32), 155-181.

- Connor, P. E., & Becker, B. W. (2006). Public sector managerial values: United States and Japan. *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, 9(2), 147-160.
- Crampton, S. M., & Hodge, J. W. (2007). Generations in the workplace: Understanding age diversity. *The Business Review, Cambridge*, 9(1), 16 – 23.
- Cukur, C. S., De Guzman, M. R. T., & Gustavo, C. (2004). Religiosity, values, and horizontal and vertical individualism-collectivism: A study of Turkey, the United States and the Philippines. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144(6), 613-634.
- Egri, C. & Ralston, D. (2004). Generation cohorts and personal values: A comparison of China and the US. *Organization Science*, 15, 210-220.
- Eisner, S. P. (2005). Managing generation Y. *SAM Advanced Management Journal* 70(4), 4-15.
- England, G. W. (1967). Personal value system of American managers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 10, 53-68.
- Feather, N. T. (1984). Masculinity, femininity, psychological androgyny, and the structure of values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(3), 604-620.
- Feather, N. T. & Paye, E. R. (1975). The structure of terminal and instrumental values: Dimensions and clusters. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 27(2), 151-164.
- Gordon, L. V. (1967). *Survey of personal values manual*. Rosemont, IL: McGraw-Hill/London House.
- Hogan, H. W. and Moherjee, H. N. (1981). Values and selected antecedents. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 113(1), 31-27.

- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Cultures consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). London: Sage.
- Johnson, J. A. & Lopes, J. (2008). The intergenerational workforce, revisited. *Organizational Development Journal*, 26(1), 31 – 37.
- Kamakura, W. A. & Mazzon, J. A. (1991). Values segmentation: A model for the measurement of values and value systems. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 208-218.
- Khilji, S. E., Murphy, E. F. Jr.; Mujtaba, B.; Greenwood, R. A.; Ruiz-Gutierrez, J. A.; Olivas-Lujan, M. R.; Luk, D. M.; Madero, S.; Monserrat, S. I. L.; Santos, N. M. B. F.; Teeple, W.; & Uy, A. O. O. (2008) Intergenerational value change: A cross cultural empirical test. Presented at the Eastern Academy of Management Meeting, May 14-17, 2008, Washington, D.C.
- Kluckhohn, C. (1951). The study of values. In D. Barrett (Ed.), *Values in Transition*. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 17-45.
- Kohlberg, L. (1970). *Stages in the development of moral thought and action*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston,
- Lyons, S., Duxbury, L., & Higgins, C. (2005). Are gender differences in basic human values a generational phenomenon? *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 53(9-10), 763-775.
- Mannheim, K. (1953). *Essays on sociology and social psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mannheim, K. (1970). The problem of generations. *Psychoanalytic Review*, LVII, 378-403.
- Martin, C. & Tulgan, M. (2001). *Managing generation Y*. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press.
- Massey, M. (1979). *The people puzzle*. New York: Brady.

- Massey, M. (2005). *What you are is where you were when—again!* Cambridge, MA: Enterprise Media.
- McCarthy, I. N. (1997). Professional ethics code conflict situations: Ethical and value orientations of collegiate accounting students. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 16, 1467-1473.
- Murphy, E. F. Jr., Gordon, J. D., & Anderson, T. (2004). An examination of cross-cultural age or generation-based value differences between the United States and Japanese. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 9(1), 21-48.
- Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R. A., Ruiz-Gutierrez, J. A., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., & Uy, O. O. A. (2006a) A preliminary exploration of generational similarities and differences in values between the United States, United Kingdom, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Colombia, and the Philippines. *1<sup>st</sup> International Conference on Entrepreneurship*, June 30, 2006, Manila, Philippines.
- Murphy, E. F. Jr., Greenwood, R., Ruiz-Gutierrez, J., Manyak, T. G., Mujtaba, B., & Uy, A. (2006b) Generational value changes: Their history and a cross-cultural empirical test. Paper presented at the annual Academy of Management Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia.
- Parkes, S. E. & Thomas, A. R. (2007). Values in action: Observations of effective principals at work. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 45(2), 204-228.
- Patota, N., Schwartz, D., & Schwartz, T. (2007). Leveraging generational differences for productivity gains. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 11(2), 1-11.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: The Free Press.
- Rokeach, M. (1979). *Understanding human values: Individual and societal*. New York: Free Press.

- Rokeach, M. (1986). *Beliefs, attitudes and values: A theory of organization and change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Rokeach, M., & Ball-Rokeach, S. J. (1989). Stability and change in American value priorities. *American Psychologist*, 44, 775-784.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1990). Individualism-collectivism: Critique and proposed Refinements . *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 21(2), 139-157.
- Strauss, W. & Howe, N. (1997). *The fourth turning: What the cycles of history tell us about America's next rendezvous with destiny*. New York: Broadway Books.
- Trunk, P. (2007, July 5). What generation Y really wants. *Time*. Retrieved May 20, 2008 from <http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,1640395,00.html>
- Weil, N. (2008, February 1). Welcome to the generation wars: As Boomer bosses relinquish the reins of leadership to Generation X both are worrying about Generation Y. For the good of the enterprise, everyone needs to do a better better job of getting along. *CIO*, 21(8)
- Yuan, B. & Shen, J. (1998). Moral values held by early adolescents in Hong Kong and Mainland China. *Journal of Moral Education*, 27, 191-207.
- Zemke, R., Raines, C., & Filipczak, B. (1999). *Generations at work: Managing the clash of veterans, Boomers, Xers, and Nexters in your workplace*. New York: AMACOM.

Regina A. Greenwood, Professor of Business and Management at Nova Southeastern University, teaches management, business strategy, and management history courses at the graduate and undergraduate levels. Dr. Greenwood is the co-Historian and co-Archivist for the Academy of Management. She has published numerous research papers in her research interest areas of management history, strategy, cross-cultural factors, outsourcing, and lean management and serves on the editorial boards of several journals. She can be reached at [rgreenwo@nova.edu](mailto:rgreenwo@nova.edu).

Jane Whitney Gibson, Professor of Management at Nova Southeastern University, teaches human resource management, organizational behavior, management and leadership at the graduate level. Dr. Gibson is the editor of *The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship* and author of several management books including *The Supervisory Challenge*. She is active in the Academy of Management and serves on several editorial boards including *The Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*. She can be reached at [gibson@nova.edu](mailto:gibson@nova.edu).

Edward F. Murphy, Jr., Adjunct Professor of Business and Management for Embry Riddle Aeronautical University, teaches Bachelor's Degree and Master of Business Administration courses throughout California. He is a retired United States Air Force officer and serves as an education and strategic planning consultant. Dr. Murphy's research interests are in strategic planning, organizational and societal culture, socialization, cross-cultural similarities and differences, sex roles, gender roles, values, aviation human factors and situational leadership. He can be reached at [Murphe23@erau.edu](mailto:Murphe23@erau.edu).

## **PEDAGOGY**

### **Leadership Education: New Challenges, Continuing Issues**

**Anthony Middlebrooks**  
University of Delaware

**Scott J. Allen**  
John Carroll University

**As the field of leadership studies has grown, so too have efforts to scrutinize, assess, and improve leadership education. Effective leadership education must begin by addressing the foundational questions of teaching and learning: (a) theoretical framework, (b) curriculum, (c) pedagogy (or androgogy), (d) influences, and (e) assessment. These fundamental questions provide the framework for identifying and consequently addressing specific issues and challenges. This paper briefly introduces a number of the key challenges and offers important questions for leadership educators.**

**Key words:** curriculum, education, leadership challenges, teaching, theory

Leadership education in this new century comprises a dizzyingly complex landscape for which effective leadership will be critical. While every era necessitated leadership, technological advances have ushered in a significantly greater level of interconnectedness across fields, sectors, and the world. Access to information continues to expand exponentially. And the speed at which work and communication are possible grows ever faster. These new realities require individual change in both competencies and conceptualization, particularly for those in leadership positions. For instance, Chris Townsend (2006), editor of *Journal of Educational Leadership (JOLE)* asks “How much better could our leaders be if they had intentional preparation for their leadership positions?” (viii).

Substantial advances in the field of leadership studies have helped bring further clarity to leadership education. *The Encyclopedia of Leadership* (Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004) summarizes many of these advances, and there have even been recent efforts to create a General Theory of Leadership (*The Quest for a General Theory of Leadership*, 2008). Further, a long-term project is underway within the International Leadership Association (ILA) to create guidelines for leadership education (*Guidelines for Leadership Education*

Learning Community, 2008). The work of translating and communicating advancements in the field requires greater attention, however, as educating aspiring leaders often relies on the values and experience of the teacher.

As the field of leadership studies has grown, so too have efforts to scrutinize, assess, and improve leadership education. Townsend (2005) asks the question, “Is it time to create a national agenda for research in leadership education...?” and then goes on to pose some specific questions that might make up that agenda: such as do “leadership education programs or courses increase and enhance leadership capacity...”. In other words, is leadership education effective? It seems that despite the many creative, carefully considered, well-executed leadership education programs around the world, there is limited agreement and evidence regarding what effective leadership education entails (Townsend, 2005). Given this, our article briefly outlines some of the key challenges and issues that leadership education programs must address to create a coherent, effective, and evidence-based program.

### **Key Challenges in Leadership Education**

Leadership educators have made great strides in curriculum and pedagogy, applying a broad variety of techniques and learning theories. However, as with any field of inquiry, new advances bring forth new challenges. For example, leadership educators have sought to emulate other applied fields such as teaching and nursing by introducing curricular experiences that strive to recreate the real experience. But in creating, applying, and working through these recreations, new questions emerge such as how to recreate the more implicit facets of culture and context. This is but one of many issues leadership educators must effectively work through.

Effective leadership education must begin by addressing the foundational questions of teaching and learning: (a) theoretical framework—what big picture assumptions and objectives inform the program? (b) curriculum—what content should we teach? (c) pedagogy (or androgogy)—how should that content be taught? (d) influences—what influences our teaching and the student’s learning?

and (e) assessment—how do we know if learning occurs? These fundamental questions provide the framework for identifying and consequently addressing specific issues and challenges. This section briefly introduces a number of the key challenges within that framework and offers a key question for leadership educators. While the issues range from the very abstract and theoretical to the very practical and applied, our hope is that this overview will provide some common points of focus for leadership educators to collaborate their ideas and advancements of the field.

### **Theoretical Framework Issues**

*The “Expert” Leader.* Efforts to define and understand leadership have led to a considerable range of outcomes for leadership education objectives, many of which focus on developing the individual, e.g., bringing forth the characteristics that comprise greater leadership efficacy. Despite a good deal of research on the development of expertise, the expert leader remains ambiguous. What does an “expert” leader know and do, how does an “expert” act like? Are they transformational (Bass, 1985), situational (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993), or adaptive (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002)?

*Term Inconsistency.* The word *leadership* may be followed by *education, training, development, guidance, facilitation, capacity-building*—what are leadership educators, developers, and trainers doing? Each of these terms follows from a philosophical perspective of teaching and/or learning, and each has significant implications for how leadership education is applied, the expected outcomes, and the extent of responsibility that falls to the educator.

*Superficial Definitions of Leadership.* Students seem to begin with and hold fast to superficial definitions of leaders and leadership, usually involving positional power. When defining leadership, students use common examples of positional leadership while ignoring people who demonstrate leadership in other ways (e.g., Greenleaf, 1977). How can leadership educators effectively deconstruct and reconstruct the conceptualization of leadership beyond the positional?

## Curricular Issues

*Integrating Disciplines, Sectors, and Fields.* Leadership is an applied practice informed by the research of many different disciplines (e.g., Wheatley, 1992). Leadership is also situational, contextual, positional, and personal. What characteristics of leadership are unique to particular fields, what facets can be informed by other fields, and what would efforts to integrate require of leaders?

*Prevalence of “Bad” Leaders.* There are more examples of “bad” leaders—ranging from incompetent leaders to evil leaders (see Kellerman, 2004)—than “good” leaders in our immediate experiences and in the news. Students often seem unwilling to think of this other side of leadership. How do we discuss the implications of bad leadership: how it affects us as individuals and the organization and how to address it?

*The Curse of the Numbered Maxims.* How many habits, traits, skills, laws, characteristics, rules, and maxims can one leader keep track of effectively (e.g., Maxwell, 1998)? Leadership educators are faced with an immense barrage of assertions regarding what effective leaders know, do, or are like. An experienced leadership educator can sort and organize this amassed wisdom. How do we facilitate emerging leaders to take a mindful, evidence-based approach to leadership information?

*What About Context?* If leadership is a relationship between the leader, the followers, and the context, then how do you teach “context” to future leaders? Where do you even begin unpacking the infinite number of challenges anyone in a leadership role will face? Fiedler (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995) attacked this issue in the 1970s and 1980s, and Heifetz and Linsky (2002) have explored it, but who else has adequately addressed this aspect of leadership?

*Head or Heart?* Transformational (e.g., Bass, 1985) and servant leaders (e.g., Greenleaf, 1977) speak from the heart to the heart. Leadership relies on the qualitative relationships built between leader and follower; yet leaders need to strategically guide those relationships to some reasoned purpose. For leadership educators this duality between head and heart raises considerable curricular questions. Clearly both are necessary, but how are both taught?

## **Pedagogical Issues**

*Lack of Connection and Involvement in Community/Issues.* One challenge leadership educators face is helping students become leaders in their communities or engaged in a specific issue. “Community service” activities in high school and college may be limited-term, limited-investment educational opportunities, and students do not make connections and commitment with their communities or issues. How do leadership educators enhance community and issue engagement (e.g., Couto & Eken, 2002)?

*Connecting the Dots: Activity and Insight.* Often we only provide the “in class” portion of leadership education and training within the context of our programs. There may be a few exercises that allow participants to practice what has been learned, but often participants are not given the chance to practice in real time where leadership is messy, confusing, and lacks clear solutions. On the opposite end are those programs that “develop leaders” through activities (e.g., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts). How do we better connect the dots between experiences and activities, and theory and models?

## **Influence Issues**

*Development Versus Developmental.* When educating young children, teachers take a developmental approach, matching their content and pedagogy with the developmental level of their students. On the other hand, when educating an adult to perform a specific task, teachers often take a novice-expert approach; for example, here is how you do it, step by step. Which approach is most applicable to leadership? What is the developmental continuum for leaders? For instance, how does Kegan’s (1994) thinking apply to leadership education?

*Identity and Purpose.* Many students, regardless of age, seem to be unsure of their place and purpose. Individuals seek both identity and a sense of meaningfulness to their activity. What role does leadership education play in these natural human inquiries? Should educators guide this uncertainty toward developing positive agents for change?

*The Challenge of Time.* Conger (1992) asserts, “Most would agree that to seriously train individuals in the arts of leadership takes enormous time and

resources – perhaps more than societies or organizations possess, and certainly more than they are willing to expend” (pp. 38-39). There are many leadership “camps”—short, intense leadership trainings. However, developing leadership skills, competencies, or behaviors takes time, consistent practice, coaching, and reflection. How can we facilitate this “deep work” with limited time?

### **Assessment Issues**

*Indirect Causality.* Assessing the impact of leadership education activities is often limited in both validity and reliability. It is not clear whether specific outcomes can be directly attributed to participation in leadership education, whether they emerge through experience and/or necessity, or whether they are acquired through some other source or means. Some who succeed as leaders have had leadership training, and some have not. Of course, many who do have leadership training do not succeed as leaders; and many don't even aspire to leadership positions. How do we accurately attribute such contradictions to the causal effects of leadership training?

*Latent Causality.* Leadership educators understand that leadership learning does not immediately manifest, and it often requires some contextual or experiential dimension, such as the individual assuming a leadership position or finding herself in a position requiring she assume a leadership role. So the resulting assumption is that leadership educators build capacity or capability to lead - the implicit and underlying lessons that one hopes will bear fruit when the circumstances require. But the fact of the matter, as many scholars would agree, is that leaders must experience “the crucible” of the leadership challenge (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). How do leadership educators assess capacity building?

### **Conclusion**

Thousands of organizations call what they do “leadership” training or development. The term leadership has taken on impressive and important, although at times elusive, implications. Leadership is desirable, attractive, and a proven moneymaker. However, any time an idea, particularly a highly complex and applied idea, achieves this level of desirability and ubiquity, the potential for

mindless approaches and outright abuse multiplies. How does mindful, informed, and research-based leadership education address this broad challenge?

The aim of this paper is to both expand the conversation and share some of the most prevalent current challenges and issues. Other challenges exist, and there needs to be a systematic, comprehensive effort to assess the field, identify further challenges, and coordinate efforts to continuously improve. Leadership education is unique in that the concepts and applications are so broadly practiced and relevant: all fields and professions utilize leadership, or certainly could benefit from doing so. Theory and practice are closely interconnected, and students need this connection explicitly addressed. By maintaining an awareness of the unique issues and challenges in this field, leadership educators can better meet the needs of their students and the organizations and communities they seek to lead.

## References

- Ayman, R., Chemers, M., & Fiedler, F. (1995). The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: Its levels of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 147-167.
- Bass, B. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bennis, W. & Thomas, R. (2002). *Geeks and geezers*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Blanchard, K. H., Zigarmi, D., & Nelson, R. B. (1993). Situational leadership after 25 years: A retrospective. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1), 21-36.
- Conger, J. (1992). *Learning to lead: The art of transforming managers into leaders*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Couto, R. A., & Eken, S. C. (2002). *To give their gifts: Health community, and democracy*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press
- Goethals, G.R., Sorenson, G.J. & Burns, J.M. (Eds.) (2004). *Encyclopedia of leadership*, Volumes 1-4. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

*Guidelines for leadership education learning community.* (2008). Retrieved from <http://www.ila-net.org/Communities/LC/Guidelines.htm> on October 6, 2008.

Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness.* New York: Paulist Press.

Heifetz, R. A., & Linsky, M. (2002). *Leadership on the line.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Kegan, R. (1994). *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard.

Kellerman, B. (2004). *Bad leadership.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Maxwell, J. (1998). *The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership: Follow them and people will follow you.* Nashville: Thomas Nelson Publishers

*The quest for a general theory of leadership* (2008). Retrieved from [http://www.ilanet.org/Members/PublicationFeatures/View\\_Publication\\_Feature.asp?DBID=32](http://www.ilanet.org/Members/PublicationFeatures/View_Publication_Feature.asp?DBID=32) on October 6, 2008.

Townsend, C. (2005). From the editors' clipboard. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 4(2), 1-3.

Townsend, C. (2005). From the editors' clipboard. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 4(1), 1-3.

Townsend, C. (2006). From the editors' clipboard. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 5(3), viii-ix.

Wheatley, M. J. (1992). *Leadership and the new science.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Anthony Middlebrooks (PhD, University of Wisconsin, Madison) is an Assistant Professor in the Leadership Program in the School of Urban Affairs and Public Policy at the University of Delaware. He helped develop the doctoral program in leadership as a professor at Cardinal Stritch University and spent ten years prior in non-profit leadership positions. Middlebrooks teaches courses in leadership theory, decision making, organizational leadership, and research methodology. He can be reached at [tmiddleb@udel.edu](mailto:tmiddleb@udel.edu).

Scott J. Allen is a visiting assistant professor at John Carroll University where he teaches management/leadership development. In 2005, Allen founded the Center for Leader Development ([www.centerforleaderdevelopment.com](http://www.centerforleaderdevelopment.com)), an organization dedicated to providing leadership development resources, job links, tools, conference announcements, relevant links, publications and information-rich content regardless of sector. Allen is the co-author of *Emotionally intelligent leadership: A guide for college students* (Jossey-Bass). He can be reached at [sallen@jcu.edu](mailto:sallen@jcu.edu).

## INTERVIEW

### **Dr. Ron Riggio by William Howe, Associate Editor, ILJ**

ILJ Associate Editor William Howe (PhD, Stanford) had the opportunity to interview Claremont McKenna College Professor Ron Riggio in California on October 17, 2008. Professor Riggio offers ILJ readers some insights about the current and future status of leadership studies.

Dr. Ron Riggio is the Henry R. Kravis Professor of Leadership and Organizational Psychology and Director of the Kravis Leadership Institute at Claremont McKenna College. He also helps coordinate the annual Kravis-de Roulet Leadership Conference at Claremont McKenna. Dr. Riggio is the author or editor of several recent leadership books. His research interests include leadership, communication, assessment, and learning strategies in higher education. Dr. Riggio can be reached at [ronald.riggio@cmc.edu](mailto:ronald.riggio@cmc.edu)

---

**WH: Let's start with what some people today call "leadership studies." Is there such a thing and, if so, how would you describe it?**

**RR:** Yes, I think there is something called leadership studies, and I would characterize it as an emerging discipline. I've done some investigation of this, partly as a result of a role I play at the International Leadership Association (ILA) – that is, promoting leadership studies as a legitimate area of research. I'd put it in a category with what are often referred to as emerging disciplines—women's studies, ethnic studies, and other areas that have some kind of disciplinary base. So if you go to a college or university you might have a department of ethnic studies or women's studies. I think leadership studies falls into that kind of category, though it's clear that leadership studies has a cross-disciplinary focus and that there are people who study it from a variety of disciplinary perspectives. It's unique in that way, though I don't think it's all that different from women's studies, where sociologists, psychologists, and anthropologists might all study women. Those same groups might all study leaders.

**WH: How would you classify leadership studies – is it a field, a discipline, a domain, a professional arena, or something altogether different?**

**RR:** Again, I think it's an emerging discipline. If we look 10 to 20 years down the line, it might be more common than it is now for students to have a major in leadership studies, or to have a graduate degree in leadership studies. Professor Gill Hickman of the Jepson School of Leadership Studies, at the University of Richmond, and I were discussing this one time and she said she had the perfect

analogy. She talked about public administration because she has experience in that field, and she said in the early days people argued that it was not a defined area, though now one might call it a discipline or a field of study. I think the same thing is going to happen with leadership studies somewhere down the line.

**WH: Do you think there is a knowledge base for leadership studies as a distinct concern, and, if there is, how would you describe that knowledge base?**

**RR:** I think there is, and I think the roots of leadership studies are in multiple disciplines. The discipline I'm most familiar with is psychology. You can go back over a hundred years and see that psychologists were studying leadership and in fact calling it leadership. It was primarily in the context of group dynamics, and you had studies of groups where individuals were identified as leaders. So psychology looked at the influence that leaders had or at who emerges as a leader. Sociologists too go back almost to that same era. They looked at leadership in social groups, and I can think of classic works in sociology that focus on leadership, though the authors of those works might not have identified their focus in that way. Also, if you look at political science—though political scientists might not have used the term *leadership* until recently—there were discussions of elites, of heads of state, and that kind of thing, and so there are roots of leadership in that discipline as well. If you go to a number of disciplines, in fact, you'll see that leadership has been discussed for some time.

**WH: Do you think that leadership studies has become a deeper, richer, more encompassing concern since it emerged, and, if so, in what ways?**

**RR:** I think that's absolutely true. When you bring more scholars to the table, you're going to get richer investigations, and I think the real draw of leadership studies is its interdisciplinary nature. I know that's what I find exciting about it—that it is almost impossible to understand leadership from one disciplinary perspective, so it forces you out of your disciplinary silo to look at leadership through other disciplinary lenses. I find that particularly interesting—working with, or consulting with, or discussing leadership with philosophers and anthropologists and people from the business community, both scholars and practitioners, who bring their own perspectives, and even people from areas like religious studies. It really is an area where there is intense disciplinary cross-fertilization, and that's what I find exciting about it.

**WH: How do you see the relationship between leadership research, leadership education, and leadership practice, and how have those three elements played a part in leadership studies?**

**RR:** I think you need to have all of those aligned to be successful. The base has got to be scholarship, so education and practice have to emerge from the scholarly base. There is no other way that a discipline can maintain its integrity

unless it follows that order. I can turn to psychology and see the example where occasionally the practitioner cart gets ahead of the research horse, so sometimes there were different kinds of therapy introduced in clinical psychology where there was no research base to support their success. The early days of medicine, too, had all kinds of practices that were not founded in research, and those medical practices were often completely ineffective. So I think that to be effective, the teaching of leadership studies and the practice of leadership have to be solidly grounded in research.

**WH: Do you believe that we are closer now to understanding what leadership is than we were when the field of leadership studies emerged? Karl Popper said, by the way, that “the further we progress in knowledge, the more clearly we can discern the vastness of our ignorance.”**

**RR:** That’s completely true with leadership. But I think it’s incremental. Clearly, every piece of research, every breakthrough, adds to what we know. But as you suggested, there is so much that we don’t know. I characterize leadership as perhaps the most complex form of human interaction, and there is so much to the underlying psychology of leaders and followers and their relationship. And it is an extremely complex human relationship. But I’d also turn to research on evolution and evolutionary psychology. If you look back and study social animals you can see that leadership—or at least something around dominance—is probably hard-wired into social animals. So in apes, wolves, and so on you see something akin to leadership; you see the dominant animals and you see followership in the rest of the pack following those dominant animals. Now in humans, of course, it’s not just dominance; we’re much more complex and evolved than that. But I think there is a legitimacy to the idea of being led and following, and this goes right back to our evolutionary roots. So I think leadership is a completely legitimate thing to study.

**WH: Given what you just said, do you think we could bring the natural sciences more to bear on leadership studies—biology, chemistry, physics?**

**RR:** I think we’re seeing that somewhat, but it’s coming more out of the practitioner end of things. For example, I’ve been to several leadership conferences in recent years where the speakers and people in the audience have been physicians, and they’re interested in leadership in a couple of ways. They’re obviously interested in the management/organizational leadership elements, because they may be department heads in a medical school or a hospital or people who have a leadership role in the medical community. But they’re also interested in the idea of leadership in terms of scientific ideas—how do ideas emerge and lead the field or lead the scientific endeavor? That would include looking at people like Einstein and Newton and others as leaders—thought leaders. In that way there is a huge and growing interest in leadership in science. We actually taught an interdisciplinary course here [at Claremont McKenna] called “Leadership and the Sciences,” and it included faculty from

public policy, ethics, leadership, and management. We didn't restrict the scope of that course, and we probably should have, because it was so broad. We talked about leadership of scientific ideas, leaders in science, management of drug companies and ethical issues in drug research, releasing drugs that hadn't been adequately tested, and human greed. We discovered that the scope of leadership and the sciences was enormous, and since that time we've broken the course down into smaller courses. So I think that there's leadership everywhere and that science is highly relevant to leadership studies. You could make the same claim for the arts and the humanities. There's just such breadth to what can be studied with leadership.

**WH: What is the current thinking about the field of leadership studies and where do you think it will go in the future?**

**RR:** Here's the difficulty, and this holds true for any emerging discipline: There has to be – because of the way we are with our educational domains or silos, though that may be a negative way to express it—a home for this emerging discipline of leadership studies, and that's one of the reasons I've been so involved in the International Leadership Association (ILA), because I see ILA as a candidate to be the disciplinary society for leadership studies. ILA's real strength is that it brings together scholars from multiple disciplines, educators from multiple disciplines, and practitioners from multiple disciplines. It's an exciting organization because of that cross-fertilization. On the other hand, it is very difficult to bring together scholars, educators, and practitioners all in one place because they may have different agendas and missions. So it's a vibrant society but it's also a society that's highly conflicted.

**WH: What about your own work? What part do you believe your work has played in the emergence and evolution of leadership studies?**

**RR:** A couple of things: We have a conference we put on every year [annual Kravis-de Roulet Conference at Claremont McKenna], and we were blessed because it's an endowed conference. What we have tried to do is explore cutting-edge topics in the broad realm of leadership. I feel like the kid in the candy store with this, since we can look at almost anything we want, because there really are no restrictions and leadership is so broad. For example, in our first really successful conference we focused on multiple intelligences and leadership. What we do out of each of these conferences is publish an edited book that is written primarily by folks who come to the conference and present there, though we supplement their articles by going out and finding additional people who can round out the book. So one of the areas in which I've contributed is through these conferences and pushing the envelope on leadership. We had a conference a few years ago on followership, for example, and we're doing one this coming year on social entrepreneurship and leadership. Leadership and entrepreneurship are in many ways distinct, but they have similar elements, and our conference will focus on entrepreneurship in the social sector. In short, what

we've done is to poke and push at the outer membrane of leadership studies with our conferences. The other thing I find exciting is some work we're doing on ethical leadership, and I think this is timely and needed. For the most part, social scientists have ignored ethics and leadership and left that to the philosophers, and I think that that is not a good course. A better course for leadership studies is to bring disciplines together, so what we've been working on is this idea of bringing social scientists, who are high on measurement, together with philosophers, who have the content, to develop a way to measure ethical leadership. I'm working with a business ethics person at Fordham University on this, and we're relying on Aristotle's work on cardinal virtues as the grounding for this work—an approach some might approve and some others might question.

**WH: Is there anything else you would like to add?**

**RR:** Let me tell you a little about Claremont because I think it represents some of the excitement around leadership studies now. A few years ago, Jean Lipman-Blumen, who's at the Drucker School at Claremont Graduate University, Diane Halpern, my colleague here in psychology at Claremont McKenna, and I got together and concluded that there were many people at the Claremont colleges from different disciplines who were interested in leadership. We developed something called the Leadership Roundtable, and what we do is take turns as speakers or invite outside speakers, and this year we're inviting the presidents of the Claremont colleges to come and talk about the practice of leading a college. We have about a dozen current or past presidents whom we're hoping to involve as speakers. What's exciting is that our group represents a number of different disciplinary areas. One member even represents the area of neuroeconomics.

Let me note, finally, that leadership is a legitimate topic for study and will be recognized as a legitimate discipline in the future. I found leadership fascinating because of its depth and breadth, and it has really captivated me. I've done research in several different areas, and I always felt as though I was a gadfly, and now I've landed in leadership and it has excited and challenged me because it's such a huge landscape. I've developed a passion for this topic, and I enjoy engaging with and working with others who have a passion for the topic. It's a timely and relevant topic, and we certainly can learn to do leadership much better than we do it today. As Barbara Kellerman says in *Bad Leadership* and Jean Lipman-Blumen in *The Allure of Toxic Leaders*, we have many leaders who should not be leading and who are causing considerable damage. We just don't do a very good job of selecting leaders. So I think we all have much to learn about leadership yet.

**WH: Thank you for your perspectives. We look forward to seeing you at International Leadership Association (ILA) meetings and at Kravis-de Roulet conferences, and please stay in touch.**

## ESSAY FROM THE FIELD

### Selecting Leaders Who Make a Difference

**John F. Manfredi**  
**Manloy Associates**

*Good leaders are the make-or-break factor in business.* Although that is a widely used cliché, it is also a broadly accepted truism among business practitioners. With the right leaders, so many things are possible. With the wrong ones, failure awaits. So when I teamed with James M. Kilts during his time as CEO of Gillette and Nabisco, we exercised great diligence in selecting top people. And over time we developed specific criteria, which we describe in our book *Doing what matters: How to get results that make a difference—A revolutionary old-school approach* (2007).

There are several things to look for when choosing leaders. Brains and the capacity for hard work are givens, which is not to say that they are always, or even, regularly present. But you must have a certain amount of intellectual wattage and a decent-size battery to function at the higher levels of responsibility in a major business position. So if they are missing, there is no need for any further consideration. People who aren't highly intelligent and don't have a high energy level just cannot be serious contenders for top-level positions.

Beyond those essentials, there are six critical factors that are predictive of success:

- Intellectual integrity
- Results orientation
- Ability to make decisions
- Ability to communicate and connect
- Emotional maturity and confidence
- Ability to think conceptually

*Intellectual integrity* is a broad term. But perhaps its most important aspect is the ability that a person must have to hold up a mirror, and the willingness to

view the reflection with total honesty. Good leaders have the willingness to confront reality all the time every day of the week, week of the month, month of the quarter, quarter of the year, year after year. Yet most business managers manifest a strong tendency to put off coming to grips with bad news.

The other aspect of integrity relates to the more popular usage of the word *integrity*—honor, ethics, and good practices. These are essential for any leader. Honesty and openness in financial reporting are critically important. Cutting corners, shading the truth, playing fast and loose with rules and regulations, or overlooking infractions by others—these practices simply cannot be tolerated. Our horrific financial and economic mess would never have occurred, or at the very least, would have been greatly mitigated ... *if* the leaders on Wall Street had promulgated and enforced a code of conduct that adhered to both the letter and spirit of the regulations and laws.

*Results orientation* is the second important trait of leaders. You can spot the people who know the importance of results, because of the results in their track records. To use the colloquial, they walk the walk and they deliver what they promise when they promise it. People like this are simply great competitors. They hate to lose. They understand that the winner is the one who gets results first and fastest. So by definition they are much more comfortable being a doer than a watcher.

The results-oriented leader also focuses on solutions. It is rare that any business leader has a blinding strategic insight or possesses an incredible technological advancement that provides a "sustainable competitive advantage." The true differentiation comes from out-executing the competition. It comes from results-oriented leaders who focus on solutions.

The *ability to make decisions* is the third trait. There are three aspects within this skill. First comes the process part of decision making, the ability to drill down quickly to find the facts that are important to the decision, the ability to look at things quantitatively, and the discipline to proceed in a systematic way, even if others are urging you to turn right or left, or maybe stop altogether.

The second piece in decision making is risk. Unbridled risk-taking will lead to certain failure. But the failure to accept appropriate risk leads to paralysis and inaction. All leaders must be able to step up to the possibility that in spite of their best efforts, their decisions may be wrong. Yet they must go ahead and make the decisions anyway.

The third is just having a feel for business. The best leaders do the analysis, but they don't lose touch with something inside that says, "I don't care what the numbers seem to say, something just isn't right here." This ability to draw upon knowledge and insights that have no apparent direct connection to the decision in question, but rather are based on a full understanding of how all the moving parts must come together, characterizes top business leaders.

The *ability to communicate and connect* is the fourth leadership quality. For many people, communication is a real weakness. In writing, meetings, and in presentations large and small, communication skills are critical. You must gain commitment, and make people believers in your causes. Great leaders see a target, and then organize people and resources to hit it. They have to be able to give dimension to a project and create excitement, just as President John F. Kennedy did when he said we would walk on the moon, or Herb Kelleher, the legendary CEO of Southwest, did when he created a highly profitable airline in an industry where bankruptcy was the norm by unswerving adherence to being "THE low-cost" carrier.

The team aspect of leadership cannot be overstated. There are few great things that can be accomplished alone. The team must be committed to the leader, but, even more important, the leader must be committed to the team and to goals that go beyond self-interest.

*Emotional maturity and confidence* are less easily defined personality attributes. But these traits are important in order to deal with criticism that accompanies the tough decisions that leaders must make. Good leaders know how to listen to the criticism that is helpful, ignore the criticism that is not, and be able to tell the difference between the two.

The *ability to think conceptually* is the final leadership trait. While leaders must respond to urgent needs, they also must have the capacity to step back and think conceptually. Conceptual thinkers are people who can put pieces together and turn those pieces into the right answers. These are people who can see both the forest and the trees. They are able to look at a problem and view it from all angles, turn it over and inside-out, and then analyze and frame it in a way that allows them and their team to take the right course of action. Skilled conceptual thinkers are dedicated to a lifetime of learning so they are relatively easy to spot. They are people who learn something from everything they do. And they learn even more from what didn't work than from what did.

Putting together a team of top leaders calls for adherence to these traits and qualities that are time-proven to predict success. But it also relies on gut instinct and chemistry. It is an extension of one of Warren Buffett's core beliefs. He has often said he will only invest with people with whom he would enjoy working. That part of the process is art and personal, not scientific or book-learned. And making the right choices in selecting good leaders is also a big part of what defines *great* leaders.

## Reference

Kilts, J.M., Manfredi, J. F. & Lorber, R. (2007). *Doing what matters: How to get results that make a difference. A revolutionary old-school approach*. NY: Crown Business.

John F. Manfredi (BA, Columbia) is Managing Partner of Manloy Associates, a strategic consulting and communications group, and co-author of the best-selling book, *Doing what matters: How to get result that make a difference*. He is one of the executives who turned around Nabisco and Gillette, two global consumer products companies. He has led a number of industry initiatives in the United States and worldwide as chairman of the Global Commission on Marketing & Advertising of the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris and of the International Food Information Council in Washington, D.C. Community and professional activities include more than a decade of serving as chairman of the U. S. Olympic Committee in New Jersey and as a member of the boards for the United Way of New England, the Foundation for Teaching Economics in San Francisco, and the Arthur Page Society. He can be reached at [john@manloyassociates.com](mailto:john@manloyassociates.com).

## **RESEARCH NOTE**

### **Do Generals Make Good Presidents?**

**Michael A. Genovese**  
**Loyola Marymount University**

In the 2008 presidential campaign, the Republicans insisted that a military background was an essential requirement for a president. This was a far cry from their strategy in 2004 when they questioned the service of a decorated military hero, Democratic presidential nominee Senator John Kerry.

In the political “silly season” one can understand how and why a party would play to its perceived strength and attempt to undermine the opposition’s strength. After all, in 2008, Republicans had a genuine war hero and former Vietnam prisoner-of-war, Senator John McCain, as their nominee. In 2004, the military tables – and the politics animating them—were reversed.

But the question remains, is military service important for would-be presidents? Is military service an asset or a liability in governing?

One part of the answer to these questions might be supplied if we examine how well or poorly generals who became presidents performed in office. Of the 43 presidents, 12 were generals (28 percent). Only lawyers outnumber generals in occupation prior to the presidency. If we examine the presidential ratings, as faulty as they may be, (Murray & Blessing, 1994; Neal, 1995; Schlesinger, 1996) we can see that in general, generals did not perform very well as presidents.

The first two generals, George Washington (1789-1797) and Andrew Jackson (1829-1937) were the best, with Washington consistently ranked at or near the top (1 to 3), and Jackson usually placed in the “near great’ category. But after those two early presidents, the generals drop dramatically. Table 1 lists generals who became Presidents in chronological order.

**Table 1**  
**Generals Who Became President**

<b>Years</b>	<b>President</b>	<b>Neal<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Murray/Blessing<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Schlesinger<sup>3</sup></b>
1789-1797	George Washington	#2 of "The Ten Best"	"Great"	"Great"
1829-1837	Andrew Jackson	#8 of "The Ten Best"	"Near Great"	"Near Great"
1841	William Henry Harrison	N/A	N/A	N/A
1849-1850	Zachary Taylor	N/A	"Below Average"	"Below Average"
1853-1857	Franklin Pierce	#3 of "The Ten Worst"	"Below Average"	"Failure"
1865-1869	Andrew Johnson	#5 of "The Ten Worst"	"Failure"	"Failure"
1869-1877	Ulysses S. Grant	#4 of "The Ten Worst"	"Failure"	"Failure"
1877-1881	Rutherford B. Hayes	N/A	"Average"	"Average (Low)"
1881	James A. Garfield	N/A	N/A	N/A
1881-1885	Chester A. Arthur	N/A	"Average"	"Average (Low)"
1889-1893	Benjamin Harrison	N/A	"Average"	"Average (Low)"
1953-1961	Dwight D. Eisenhower	#9 of the Ten Best"	"Above Average"	"Average (High)"

William Henry Harrison (1841) who served only a month, is not rated. Zachary Taylor (1849-1850) is in the "below average" category, as is Franklin Pierce (1853-1857). Some ratings place Pierce in the "failure" category.

Andrew Johnson (1865-1869), the first president to be impeached, is rated a "failure," as is Ulysses S. Grant (1869-1877). Rutherford B. Hayes (1877-1881) is in the "average" category, and James Garfield (1881) is not rated because he was in office such a short time. Chester A. Arthur (1881-1885) ranks low in the "average" category, as does Benjamin Harrison (1889-1893).

It was roughly 75 years before another general became president. Dwight D. Eisenhower (1953-1961) is usually ranked in the “above average” category, and the Neal Poll rates him number nine.

The qualities that make a good general may sometimes apply also to the American presidency. But overall, the data support the notion that being a general is not a good preparation for the presidency.

Why is this so? Exploration of that question is beyond the scope of this “Research Note,” though one would fully expect that further research on this subject would have to look to situational leadership and contingency perspectives on leadership as a starting point. Obviously, military and political situations differ from each other in many ways. In addition, the specific leadership situation of a general differs substantially from the leadership situation of the president. Furthermore, the two leadership situations involve completely different kinds of “followers”—those trained to carry out orders, in the military context, and those nurtured on representative democracy and the “voice of the people,” in the political context. Finally, too, the scope of responsibilities of the two roles and of the entities led by the two a military force vs. a nation as well as the environments in which the two roles are immersed—national and/or global military contexts vs. national and/or global social, economic, political, *and* military contexts—make the two roles distinctly different. The historical moment, for example, war/peace, national or world crisis, acts of terrorism, might constitute yet another important situational factor in any consideration of military-to-political leadership.

Research might also seek to identify the leadership traits/characteristics/qualities exemplified by generals, together with the traits/characteristics/qualities frequently cited as essential for effective presidential leadership. What traits/characteristics/qualities of generals’ leadership coincide with the traits/characteristics/qualities called for in the “best” presidential leadership? Likewise, what traits/characteristics/qualities of generals’ leadership may be consonant with, or even contribute to, the “worst” presidential leadership? Such research could potentially uncover reasons as to why generals often failed as presidents

or why, in cases like Washington and Eisenhower, generals were quite successful as presidents.

Another consideration worthy of future exploration—and one particularly apt for this journal—might be the political leadership in other countries as assumed by top-ranking military leaders. Italy, for example, experienced the political leadership of Benito Mussolini, considered by many to be a failed leader who brought on the subsequent focus on social democracy. On the other hand, General Charles DeGaulle's leadership of France has often been rated as quite successful. Obviously, too, one could examine the military-to-political leadership in many Latin American countries, in Russia or the former Soviet Union, in China, in Africa, and elsewhere around the globe. In these contexts, too, various situational factors might also be brought to bear on the research.

Any such research—limited to the American presidency or focusing on political leadership around the globe—would do well, of course, to discuss the implications of findings. For example, when are nation-states apparently most in need of leadership by generals or other high-ranking military officers? What training and experience for generals or other military leaders is most relevant to political leadership? How do national values and culture affect the perception of—and desire for—military leaders taking on political leadership? Why do some military leaders fail at political leadership while others succeed?

Finally, additional research could move beyond the focus on generals and other military leaders to examine the success or failure of American and international leaders in terms of other kinds of prior experience—e.g., lawyer; senator/congressman/ assembly member/politburo member/council member/parliament member/governor; corporate executive or businessperson. Comparative studies of the relevance of such roles to the “top” political position might reveal much of interest about international leadership.

## Endnotes

<sup>1</sup> This article is based upon a survey of 59 Presidential historians and political scientists.

<sup>2</sup> This study is based upon surveys administered to 846 historians. In addition, it discusses presidential polling in general and the place of polls in presidential politics. See especially, p.16.

<sup>3</sup> This article is based upon a survey administered to 32 presidential historians.

## References

Murray, R. K., & Blessing, T. H. (1994). *Greatness in the White House*. University Park, PA: Pennsylvania State University Press.

Neal, S. (1995). Putting presidents in their places. *Chicago Sun-Times*, (November 19), 30-31.

Schlesinger, A.M., Jr. (1996). The ultimate approval rating. *The New York Times Magazine*, (December 15), 48-49.

Michael Genovese (PhD, University of Southern California), currently holds the Loyola Chair of Leadership at Loyola Marymount University, where he is a Professor of Political Science and Director of the Institute for Leadership Studies. Genovese is also a Fellow at The Queen's College, Oxford University. He has published twenty books, and served as President of the Presidency Research Group of the American Political Science Association. He serves on the Editorial Board of *White House Studies*, and *Rhetoric & Public Affairs*. He can be reached at [mgenovese@lmu.edu](mailto:mgenovese@lmu.edu).

## BOOK REVIEW

***The Power of Unreasonable People: How Social Entrepreneurs Create Markets that Change the World* by John Elkington and Pamela Hartigan.**

**Published by: Center for Public Leadership/Harvard Business Press.  
Boston, MA.**

**Cost: \$27.50, Pages: 242**

**Reviewed by Rosemary A. Clemens**

---

Given the troubled times in which we live, this book could not have been more timely and hopeful for the future. One of the major lessons that we have learned this year is that the financial crisis that we are slowly making our way through is not an insular problem of the United States, but one that transcends national and geographic boundaries and involves ALL of us.

There is no way of putting our heads in the sand and hoping that U.S. governmental leaders will pave a way out of this mess; we must acknowledge that it is a global problem and that all economies on the planet are interrelated today. Any solutions that will have a lasting effect will have to be crafted by peoples from different nations, different cultures, and different places on the developmental scale, and it will take different ways of thinking to find workable solutions.

One thing is very obvious: it will take people who have innovative ideas and faith in those ideas, the willingness to try something different and create models that can be tested and modified and measured. It will take those who are not afraid of failure but at the same time can rise up from those experiences, acknowledge new directions from those experiences, and hasten to develop a new model or plan that can solve the problems at hand. It will take unusual leadership.

*The Power of Unreasonable People* focuses on such new leaders, and its very title comes from a quote by George Bernard Shaw that the authors share

with the reader immediately upon opening the book: “The reasonable man adapts himself to the world” whereas “the unreasonable one persists in trying to adapt the world to himself. Therefore all progress depends on the unreasonable man.” And that in a nutshell is the thesis and focus of the book: an attempt to catalog current successful social entrepreneurs—our current unreasonable people—who are working to solve social and economic problems worldwide. Many of these people work with large scale issues in developing countries with very limited resources. They are attempting to create solutions that are rooted in measurable outcomes that establish sustainable social value not only for targeted recipients but are scalable so that there are lasting benefits for the general society.

They are developing business /social models that question traditional measurements of success by asking a fundamental question: How do we define “value”? Different models seek to find an answer. Many of these leaders are initially using nonprofit structures to experiment, and these models have been categorized by the authors into three classes: the “leveraged nonprofit,” the “hybrid nonprofit,” and the “social business.” All of these models seek to redress social or environmental issues that the traditional marketplace has either ignored or poorly addressed. The mindset is that the nonprofit can leverage a host of resources, experiment, create new definitions of “value” and then move into a mainstream business model.

The authors choose case studies to illuminate these models and demonstrate new styles of leadership, new organizational models and new methods of delivery and access.

ParqueSoft (8-10) is one case that draws the reader to an innovative technology incubator that reaches out to young people from poor areas of Columbia to develop software teams that become viable companies offering products for companies in optics, artificial intelligence, “edutainment,” bioinformatics, and nanotechnology. At the same time that the incubator supports research and development and teaches business concepts, it is a social

experiment that encourages young entrepreneurs to become self-sufficient, develop democratic conduct, climb out of poverty, and help others.

Sekem (44-47), a for-profit model case study, focuses on farming in Egypt. The case study explains how the development of new farming methods has led to six new businesses all supporting farming and food stuffs. The model uses a traditional holding company model to provide efficient centralized services to the different businesses with profits being reinvested into participating companies. Setting farm prices and dealing with distribution networks are controlled by the farmers through a Sekem council and offer a new found transparency and fairness that farmers never knew before. The model not only creates stability in farming production but provides opportunities for democratic voting, fairness and oversight.

Whole Foods (50-54) is, of course, a name known by many. Its evolution from a small social business model to a very scalable large leading food retailer in the U.S. and England is detailed thoroughly by the authors. Its purpose has been to provide the best in organic and natural foods and to meet high standards of customer satisfaction and operate with integrity, thereby delivering “value” to all its stakeholders. Its founder, John Mackey, has been a larger-than-life entrepreneur with a deep commitment to the philosophy of delivering social value; he highlights the type of leadership that can make such a model highly viable.

The other examples in this book showcase what can be done with limited resources, display the methods of leveraging non-traditional resources to get the job done, and illustrate empowerment of the disenfranchised to participate in solving their own problems and becoming real stakeholders in the experiment.

In the end, the authors believe that the successful lessons and models uncovered here must be embraced by the international business sector because without the power, legitimacy, resources, and scalability of big business many of these innovative and successful models will not survive. This book is indeed a call to the global business community to listen, learn, and leverage these new models to define the new “value.”

Rosemary A. Clemens (PhD, New York University) is currently the Chief Executive Officer and Executive Director of the New York Children's Vision Coalition, a non-profit organization providing eye and vision care services to children in economically challenged school districts of New York City. She is a public health entrepreneur having undertaken studies, established coalitions and created public awareness campaigns in the areas of AIDS and Adolescents, Sun and Skin Cancers and Aging and Arthritis. Her funding for such efforts has come from government, corporations and foundations. The social value targeted has been behavior change through widespread public information campaigns and direct community outreach. She can be reached at [rosemaryclemens@aol.com](mailto:rosemaryclemens@aol.com)

---