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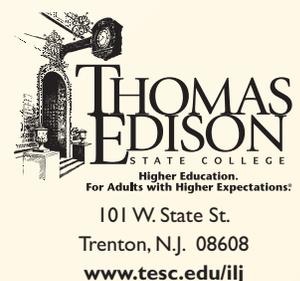
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From the Editor

June 2012

Welcome to this 12th issue of the *International Leadership Journal*, an online, peer-reviewed journal. This issue contains four articles, two research notes, and a book review.

Two articles focus on women and leadership, but approach the topic in vastly different ways. Waggoner, Green, and Duncan study how certain leadership behaviors contributed to or inhibited outstanding leadership, and find that gender, age, and ethnicity all influence the intensity of beliefs about the behaviors. Swanson, Kowalski, Gettman, and Lee examine the link between Title IX—which mandated gender and federal funding equality in athletics, among others—to the development of the personality characteristics of self-esteem, locus of control, and self-monitoring, all of which have been linked to managerial success.

In another article, Sarsar explores how late Israeli psychologist Dan Bar-On and Palestinian educator Sami Adwan worked past their political and cultural differences to become committed peace-building leaders and partners and the lessons learned from their cooperation. Brown and Morrison propose a model of integrating cultural intelligence and transformational leadership theory to address cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal facets of the leader practicing in a global context.

In the research notes, Essawi proposes a dynamic value confrontation leadership model for changing organizational culture through constructive confrontation, while Desai identifies the skills deemed necessary for deans of industrial technology programs to build professional development plans.

Finally, Ives and DiPillo delve into the mind of a genius in their review of Walter Isaacson's 2011 biography, *Steve Jobs*.

Please let us know your thoughts about the articles in the journal and feel free to submit articles for review.

Enjoy!

Joseph C. Santora

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'JCS', written in a cursive style.

Editor

ARTICLES

Leadership Expectations of Women

F. Irene Waggoner, Mark T. Green, and Phyllis A. Duncan
Our Lady of the Lake University

Meta-analytic literature has found differences for gender in an array of psychological and social constructs. Little is known, however, about the differences between what men and women want in leaders. In this study, 1,281 working adults completed the Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire, and participants indicated to what degree 27 leadership behaviors contributed to or inhibited outstanding leadership. Results of a three-way MANCOVA indicated significance for gender, ethnicity, and age, indicating that each influenced the intensity with which participants believed particular leadership characteristics contributed to or inhibited outstanding leadership. Women held stronger opinions than men about the benefits of eight aspects of leadership generally considered to contribute to outstanding leadership and the liabilities of one aspect generally considered to inhibit outstanding leadership. Meta-analytic studies find women to be more transformational, and this study concludes that women also want more integrity and charismatic behaviors from their leaders.

Key words: age, ethnicity, gender, leadership

Research in the field of leadership may be conducted in a variety of ways. Qualitative methods such as focus group interviews or case studies yield rich descriptive results, but offer limited generalizability due to small sample sizes.

Quantitative methods like the survey method are used in the majority of leadership studies research, and generally fall into one of three designs. In a leader-only study, researchers ask participants to complete self-assessments of how they lead, explore demographic comparisons, such as self-assessed leadership styles of women versus men, and perhaps add personality assessments to explore relationships between the leaders' personality scores and self-assessed leadership scores. However, leader-only types of studies are prone to the drawback of leader self-perception.

In another-than-leader type of study, the participants, who may include the leader's followers, peers, supervisors, or other combinations of stakeholders, assess how the leader leads. This type of assessment provides a more realistic

assessment of how the leader actually leads than a leader-only study, but its drawback is covariation. In a large percentage of these types of studies, follower independent variables such as age and ethnicity tend to covary with the leader.

Implicit leadership studies do not rate an actual leader; instead, the concept of desired or outstanding leadership is measured. Participants in implicit leadership studies are asked to complete a survey concerning their prototypes of what constitutes outstanding leadership. Other instruments, such as personality assessments, may be used as a second construct to explore associations between the second construct and participants' implicit views on what constitutes outstanding leadership. Participant demographics and the leadership scores may also be analyzed.

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Research Project (House et al., 2004) is the largest study of its kind on implicit leadership to date. The international study surveyed over 17,000 participants from 62 countries/societies, covering 951 organizations, to explore what contributed to the participants' concepts of outstanding leadership. Its primary focus was to analyze how cultural preferences predicted leadership preferences. While the study added significantly to the body of literature related to implicit leadership, the study did not report how participants' gender, ethnicity, and age moderated their views of leadership.

Although the GLOBE Project was a landmark study, a variety of other variables besides culture undoubtedly contribute to individuals' implicit prototypes of outstanding leadership. Therefore, this study used the Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire to assess 27 measures of leadership. Three demographic variables were then analyzed: participants' gender, age, and ethnicity.

Age, Ethnicity, and Gender Make a Difference in Leadership

The Impact of Age

The impact of age on various attitudes is intrinsically obvious. One common method of conceptualizing age differences is through the use of life-span stages.

Many models exist, but an enduring one is Erikson's stages. Erikson (1959) argued that adults in the general age range of 18 to 35 are struggling to establish an identity and find intimacy. Adults in this age strata generally try to find mutually satisfying relationships, primarily through marriage and friends. Erikson observed that middle age, roughly 35 to 55 or 60, is a period during which adults tend to be occupied with creative and meaningful work and with issues surrounding families. During the middle-age period, adults emphasize the perpetuation of culture and the transmittal of values. Middle-aged adults typically find strength by caring for others and producing things that contribute to the betterment of society. From late adulthood through death, most adults have a need to look back on their lives and put them into perspective. Older adults strive for a feeling Erikson calls integrity—feeling fulfilled with a deep sense that life has meaning and that they have made a contribution to life.

A related theory of the impact that the aging process has on most adults was put forth by Carstensen (1991). His socioemotional selectivity theory argues that life consists of a quest to acquire knowledge and to regulate our emotions. In the early part of adulthood, adults tend to emphasize knowledge acquisition in order to enhance their job performance and career advancement. While they do engage in social activities, many of those social activities are related to “networking” in order to advance their careers. As adults grow older, they begin to allocate less time toward knowledge acquisition and more time toward social and emotional behaviors designed to find meaning in life, establish intimacy with others, and develop a sense of social belonging.

Socioemotional selectivity theory also posits that as adults age, their time horizons become much shorter. Very young adults see the remainder of their lives as a lengthy period. Older adults tend to focus on the short time they have remaining. Consequently, older adults are more likely than young adults to experience positive emotions and less likely to experience negative emotions.

The impact of the aging process as portrayed by both life-span and socioemotional selectivity theories can be seen in a variety of studies concerning age and work. In the most recent meta-analysis on age and work attitudes, Ng

and Feldman (2010) meta-analyzed 800 studies. Corrected correlations for worker age were positively related to satisfaction with coworkers (.12) and supervisors (.10) and very weakly related to supervisor support (.04). Age was positively related to interpersonal trust (.17) and negatively related to interpersonal conflict at work (-.18). Age was also positively related to affective commitment (.24), normative commitment (.22), continuance commitment (.20), and loyalty (.21).

The Impact of Ethnicity

Globalization is a given in today's world, and international trade, communications, schools, and other organizations connect people as never before. Yet, even with increased connectivity, or perhaps because of this connectivity, diversity and its challenges remain an important issue.

Ethnicity "refers to cultural practices and attitudes that characterize a given group of people and distinguish it from other groups," which are derived from "shared meaning developed in a social and economic context with a particular historical and political background" (Watt & Norton, 2004, 38). In essence, ethnicity is a measure of how groups differentiate and describe themselves. The strength of this ethnicity, however, may lead to an ethnocentric viewpoint, where the group is held to a specific culture, believing unquestioningly that its culture is the norm. Leaders of today are challenged to identify their own cultural and ethnic biases and preferences and to be able to identify and deal with others' biases and preferences in appropriate and meaningful ways.

A more controversial aspect of ethnicity is the idea of "race." There are two general views of race: a) a construct of assumed biological differences and b) a construct of social and political aspects. In this study, ethnicity is defined as a social group holding common cultural traditions, even though the labels reflect a more racially distinguished view, and the purpose of the labels was to distinguish specific ethnic groups from the larger cultural concept. The ethnic categories in this study were defined as African-American, Asian, Hispanic, White/Anglo/Caucasian, and Other.

The Impact of Gender

Gender is frequently studied in a variety of academic areas. Meta-analytic studies indicate that women are generally rated higher than men in areas such as transformational leadership behaviors, the transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward, moral and behavioral self-esteem, morality, forgiveness, collaborative behaviors, extraversion, trust and nurturance, but were also rated higher in anxiety. Men were generally rated higher than women in areas such as assertiveness, overall self-esteem, self-satisfaction, and aspects of fairness and equity.

Literature Review

Gender and Leadership

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003), in their seminal meta-analysis on gender and leadership, analyzed 45 studies that compared men and woman on measures of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (passive-avoidant) leadership styles. The studies used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) instrument to rate people in leadership roles by their subordinates, peers, and superiors. The results of the meta-analysis indicated that female leaders were more transformational and scored higher on the subscales of charisma, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration than their male counterparts. Female leaders also scored higher than male leaders on the first subscale of transactional leadership—contingent reward. Male leaders scored higher on the subscales of management-by-exception active and management-by-exception passive. The study also found that women surpassed men in areas of leadership styles that were positively related to effectiveness while men's leadership styles had a negative relationship to follower effectiveness.

Age and Leadership

Age is also an important variable in leadership studies, and the literature includes several large-sample studies in which the leaders were rated by followers. In one

of the largest studies performed, Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, and Brown (2007) analyzed 79,866 direct report ratings of leaders using the Leadership Effectiveness Analysis instrument. Participants came from more than 6,000 North American companies in 23 industries across 48 states. Older leaders were rated as more calm and using a more considered approach that draws on the skills and abilities of others. Younger leaders were rated as more energetic. They were also seen as focused on attaining short-term results and more self-centered.

Kabacoff and Stoffey (2001) administered the Leadership Effectiveness Analysis (LEA) to 640 managers in the 25–35-year range and 640 managers in the 45–55-year range. Each manager underwent 360-degree evaluations from followers, peers, and supervisors. Participants were from 282 North American companies. Older managers were rated higher on leadership that emphasized being conservative, practicing restraint, cooperating, and deferring to authority. Younger leaders were rated higher on strategic thinking; excitement; having a tactical, management focus; and emphasizing production.

In a study of 285 team members and 21 team supervisors in the pharmaceutical industry, Kearney and Gebert (2008) found that the relationship between transformational leadership and team performance was positive when the leader was older than the other team members, but non-significant when the leader's age was closer to the mean age of the team members.

Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) used the MLQ with 234 followers of 56 leaders from a variety of organizations. The 46-year and older age group was rated the highest for transformational leadership, including the subscales of idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and effectiveness. The lowest ratings were given to the 36–45-year age group for intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Gilbert, Collins, and Brenner (1990) asked 1,634 employees to rate their immediate supervisors on 12 dimensions of leadership. Significance for leader age was only found on 4 of the dimensions. Older leaders tended to delegate more effectively than younger leaders, while younger leaders were rated higher

in the leadership dimensions of being a calming influence and being friendly and enjoyable.

Ethnicity and Leadership

Ospina and Foldy (forthcoming) conducted a meta-analysis of 15 quantitative studies on the effects of ethnicity on the perceptions of leadership. Their study found, in general, that white leaders were rated higher than black leaders; Asian leaders were rated higher than both black and Hispanic leaders; and Hispanic leaders were often rated slightly less positively than non-Hispanics.

MacKay and Etienne (2006) conducted a study of black managers in education, and found that isolation, lack of professional acceptance, and limited networks were listed as consequences of race. Thomas and Gabarro (1999) found Hispanic and black executives' career paths took longer to reach the executive level than those of white executives.

Method

The instrument used was the Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire. This instrument has been used by over 20,000 participants worldwide. To develop the instrument, two empirical pilot studies were conducted in 28 countries to assess the psychometric properties. In the first pilot study, the questionnaire was distributed in 28 countries to people who had full-time working experience as a white-collar employee or manager. Exploratory factor analysis, aggregation analysis, reliability analysis, and intra-class correlations were then conducted on the results of the questionnaires. A second pilot study was conducted in 15 countries that did not participate in the first study in order to replicate the scales in a different sample. The results confirmed the findings from the first study and verified their target level of analysis through aggregation tests.

The instrument consists of 112 questions. For each question, the participant is asked to rate to what degree that behavior or characteristic inhibits or contributes to outstanding leadership on a scale from 1 to 7. The instrument measures 21 first-order dimensions of leadership that can comprise six second-order dimensions, or 27 dimensions in total. The 21 first-order dimensions are:

Administratively Competent, Autocratic, Autonomous, Charismatic I: Visionary, Charismatic II: Inspirational, Charismatic III: Self-Sacrifice: Risk Taker, Self-Sacrificial, Convincing, Conflict Inducer, Decisive, Diplomatic, Face Saver, Humane-Oriented, Integrity, Malevolent, Modesty, Participative, Performance-Oriented, Procedural-Bureaucratic, Self-Centered, Status Conscious, Team I: Collaborative Team Orientation, and Team II: Team Integrator. The six second-order dimensions are: Team-Oriented: Second Order, Charismatic/Value-Based: Second Order, Participative: Second Order, Humane-Oriented: Second Order, Self-Protective: Second Order, and Autonomous: Second Order leadership. Definitions of each measure are provided in Appendix A.

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 1,281 working adults from across the United States. The sample ranged in age from 19 to 83 with a mean age of 42.43 years. Of the participants who self-identified their ethnicity, 69 participants identified as Asian, 117 as African-American, 172 as Hispanic, and 542 as White/Anglo/Caucasian. Of those who reported their gender, there were 284 men and 681 women.

Analysis

In this study, a Multiple Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA)—a statistical technique for comparing differences in multiple dependent variables simultaneously—was run for the categorical independent variables of gender and ethnicity and one covariant of age. The 27 dimensions of leadership were the dependent variables.

Results

Table 1 on the next page shows the means for the 27 dimensions of leadership. Using the language of the Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire, 11 dimensions were, on average, considered to somewhat contribute to outstanding leadership. Eight were deemed to slightly contribute to outstanding leadership. Three were considered to have no impact, and five were considered to inhibit outstanding leadership.

Table 1: Dimensions That Contribute to or Inhibit Outstanding Leadership

Dimension	Mean	SD
Contributes Somewhat		
Integrity	6.28	0.99
Charismatic I: Visionary	6.15	0.88
Performance-Oriented	6.14	0.95
Administratively Competent	5.92	0.97
Participative	5.90	1.16
Team II: Team Integrator	5.86	0.77
Decisive	5.83	0.93
Charismatic II: Inspirational	5.82	0.79
Humane-Oriented Second Order	5.79	1.10
Charismatic/Value-Based: Second Order	5.61	1.19
Team Oriented: Second Order	5.53	0.83
Contributes Slightly		
Diplomatic	5.48	0.85
Modesty	5.46	0.95
Humane-Oriented	5.40	0.97
Charismatic III: Self-Sacrifice	5.02	1.15
Team I: Collaborative Team Orientation	4.73	0.85
Autonomous: Second Order	4.68	1.04
Autonomous	4.68	1.04
Participative: Second Order	4.53	1.60
Has No Impact		
Procedural-Bureaucratic	4.38	0.96
Self-Protective: Second Order	4.31	1.18
Status Conscious	4.02	1.43
Slightly Inhibits		
Conflict Inducer	3.40	1.04
Face Saver	3.00	1.16
Somewhat Inhibits		
Autocratic	2.19	1.07
Self-Centered	2.16	0.96
Malevolent	1.81	0.94

Multiple Analysis of Covariance Results

In order to analyze the relationships between the three independent variables and the 27 dimensions of leadership, a three-way MANCOVA was run. Using the Wilks' Lambda test, significance was found for all three variables: gender, ethnicity, and age (see Table 2).

Table 2: Results of a Three-Way Multiple Analysis of Covariance

Variable	Wilks' Lambda	F	Sig.
Gender	.93	2.64	.00
Ethnicity	.81	1.97	.00
Age	.93	2.69	.00

Results for Gender. Because gender was significant in the MANCOVA, 27 separate univariate tests were run with gender as the independent variable and each of the leadership dimensions as dependent variables. Gender differences were found for 9 of the 27 dimensions of leadership at $p < .05$ (see Table 3). The overall image that emerged was that women held stronger opinions about the benefits of five aspects of leadership generally considered to contribute to outstanding leadership: Integrity, Charismatic I: Visionary, Performance-Oriented, Charismatic II: Inspirational, and Humane-Oriented: Second Order. Women also held stronger opinions about the liabilities of one dimension generally considered to inhibit outstanding leadership: Conflict Inducer.

Table 3: Significant Results for Gender

Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.	Mean for Males	Mean for Females
Females Believed These Dimensions Contribute Somewhat to Outstanding Leadership More Than Males						
Integrity	7.12	1	7.30	0.07	6.07	6.32
Charismatic I: Visionary	5.09	1	6.35	0.01	6.00	6.21
Performance-Oriented	7.35	1	8.02	0.00	5.97	6.23
Charismatic II: Inspirational	3.24	1	5.24	0.02	5.68	5.85
Humane-Oriented: Second Order	14.13	1	12.84	0.00	5.36	5.71
Females Believed These Dimensions Contribute Slightly to Outstanding Leadership More Than Males						
Diplomatic Modesty	10.52	1	13.79	0.00	5.24	5.55
Humane-Oriented	4.20	1	4.51	0.03	5.41	5.60
	10.57	1	8.43	0.00	5.27	5.44
Males Believed This Dimension Somewhat Inhibits Outstanding Leadership More Than Females						
Conflict Inducer	8.24	1	8.04	.00	3.76	3.49

Note: Only significant differences are shown.

Results for Ethnicity. Ethnicity was also found to be significant for specific dimensions (see Table 4). In general, Hispanics believed that Integrity and Humane-Oriented: Second Order dimensions contribute somewhat to outstanding leadership more than African-Americans, Asians, or White/Anglo/Caucasians, while White/Anglo/Caucasians believed that Charisma I: Visionary, Participative, and Decisive dimensions contribute somewhat to outstanding leadership more than African-Americans, Asians, or Hispanics. Asians believed that Modesty contributes slightly to outstanding leadership more than Hispanics, while White/Anglo/Caucasians believe that Charisma III: Self-Sacrifice contributes slightly to outstanding leadership more than Hispanics, and African-Americans believed Participative: Second Order contributes slightly to

outstanding leadership more than Asians, Hispanics, White/Anglo/Caucasians, or Other. White/Anglo/Caucasians believed that the Autocratic dimension somewhat inhibits outstanding leadership more than Asians or Hispanics, and that the Conflict Inducer dimension slightly inhibits outstanding leadership more than Asians or Hispanics.

A Spearman rho rank correlation indicated no significant differences among the five groups in the rankings of the importance of the various aspects of leadership, suggesting that, in general, while some mean differences exist among all ethnic groups regarding specific dimensions, the groups are much more alike than different.

Table 4: Significant Results for Ethnicity

Dependent Variable	Mean for African-American N = 117	Mean for Asian N = 69	Mean for Hispanic N = 172	Mean for White/Anglo/Caucasian N = 542	Mean for Other N = 70
Hispanics Believed These Dimensions Contribute Somewhat to Outstanding Leadership More Than African-Americans, Asians or White/Anglo/Caucasians					
Integrity	6.07		6.34	6.13	
Humane-Oriented: Second Order	5.42	5.39	5.74	5.41	
White/Anglo/Caucasians Believed These Dimensions Contribute Somewhat to Outstanding Leadership More Than African-Americans, Asians, or Hispanics					
Charisma I: Visionary			6.01	6.19	
Participative	5.62	5.43	5.36	5.91	5.71
Decisive			5.73	5.91	
Asians Believed This Dimension Contributes Slightly to Outstanding Leadership More Than Hispanics					
Modesty		5.70	5.35		
White/Anglo/Caucasians Believed This Dimension Contributes Slightly to Outstanding Leadership More Than Hispanics					
Charisma III: Self-Sacrifice			5.00	5.20	
African-Americans Believed This Dimension Contributes Slightly to Outstanding Leadership More Than Asians, Hispanics, White/Anglo/Caucasians, or Other					
Participative: Second Order	5.46	5.22	5.36	4.78	4.19
White/Anglo/Caucasians Believed This Dimension Somewhat Inhibit Outstanding Leadership More Than Asians or Hispanics					
Autocratic		2.62	2.39	2.16	
White/Anglo/Caucasians Believed This Dimension Slightly Inhibit Outstanding Leadership More Than Asians or Hispanics					
Conflict Inducer	3.77		3.74	3.14	

Note: Only significant results were reported.

Results for Age. Age related to 4 of the 27 dimensions of leadership. After controlling for the effects of gender and ethnicity, the finding was that the older the participant, the more he or she believes that integrity contributes to outstanding leadership and that being autocratic, status conscious, or a face saver inhibits outstanding leadership.

Table 5: Significant Results for Age

Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.	Mean	Partial Correlation
The Older the Participant The More Participants Believed These Dimensions Contribute to Outstanding Leadership						
Integrity	8.18	1	8.37	0.00	6.28	0.12
The Older the Participant The More Participants Believed These Characteristics Inhibit Outstanding Leadership						
Status Conscious	40.50	1	19.80	0.00	4.15	-0.18
Face Saver	4.69	1	3.74	0.05	3.01	-0.08
Autocratic	9.78	1	8.54	0.00	2.24	-0.12

Note: Only significant differences are shown. Partial correlations shown are after controlling for gender and ethnicity.

Discussion

Though all three independent variables of gender, age, and ethnicity were found to have significant effects on leadership preferences, gender is noteworthy. Table 6 highlights consistencies between gender findings in this study and previous meta-analytic studies for gender. Meta-analyses have found that women are more transformational, forgiving, caring, nurturing, and trusting than men. These overall meta-analytic findings align well with the results of this study, which found that women held stronger opinions than men about the benefits of Integrity, Charismatic I: Visionary, Performance-Oriented, Charismatic II: Inspirational, and Humane-Oriented: Second Order leadership. Women also held stronger opinions than men about the liabilities of one dimension generally considered to inhibit outstanding leadership—Conflict Inducer.

Table 6: Gender Meta-Analytic Consistencies with This Study

Meta-Analytic Areas in Which Women Scored Higher	Areas Related to this Study in Which Women Scored Higher	Areas Related to this Study in Which Women Scored Lower
Transformational Leadership	Integrity, Charismatic I: Visionary, Charismatic II: Inspirational, Humane-Oriented: Second Order Performance-Oriented	
Transactional Leadership		
Moral Self-Esteem	Integrity	
Forgiveness	Humane-Oriented	
Caring	Humane-Oriented	Conflict Inducer
Trust	Integrity	Conflict Inducer
Nurturance	Humane-Oriented	

Conclusion

Studies have found differences in gender in the areas of morality, forgiveness, and leadership. This study found that men and women are also different in the intensity with which they believe particular leadership characteristics contribute to or inhibit outstanding leadership. Similarly, studies have found that increasing age impacts aspects of leadership such as calmness; being conservative, considerate, and cooperative; and deferring to authority, as well as increased ratings for idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and effectiveness. This study found that age is also related to perceptions of outstanding or inhibiting dimensions of leadership. In general, the older the participant, the more he or she believed integrity contributes to outstanding leadership and being autocratic, status conscious, or a face saver inhibits outstanding leadership. Finally, previous studies have found effects of ethnicity on perceptions of leadership and their consequences. This study adds the finding that ethnicity impacts the intensity with which participants believe particular leadership characteristics contribute to or inhibit outstanding leadership.

The most striking result of this study was that, consistent with previous findings, women hold stronger opinions than men that the integrity, visionary leadership,

inspirational leadership, humane-oriented leadership, modesty, diplomacy and performance-oriented leadership contribute to outstanding leadership, and that conflict inhibits outstanding leadership. While cause and effect cannot be established in this non-experimental design, these findings allude to the observation that women continue to be better at recognizing positive and negative aspects of leadership than men.

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Appendix

Aspects of Leadership Measured by the Project GLOBE Leadership Questionnaire

1. *Administratively Competent*: Orderly, Administratively Skilled, Organized, Good Administrator
2. *Autocratic*: Autocratic, Dictatorial, Bossy, Elitist
3. *Autonomous*: Individualistic, Independent, Autonomous, Unique
4. *Autonomous–Second Order*: (both a specific subscale and global dimension, comprised of questionnaire items, not subscales)
Individualistic, Independent, Autonomous, Unique
5. *Charismatic I: Visionary*: Foresight, Prepared, Anticipatory, Plans Ahead
6. *Charismatic II: Inspirational*: Enthusiastic, Positive, Morale Booster, Motive Arouser
7. *Charismatic III: Self-Sacrifice*: Risk Taker, Self-Sacrificial, Convincing
8. *Charismatic/Value-Based*: Reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate, and to expect high performance outcomes from others based on firmly held core values
9. *Conflict Inducer*: Normative, Secretive, Intragroup Competitor
10. *Decisive*: Willful, Decisive, Logical, Intuitive
11. *Diplomatic*: Diplomatic, Worldly, Win-Win Problem Solver, Effective Bargainer
12. *Face Saver*: Indirect, Avoids Negatives, Evasive
13. *Humane-Oriented*: Generous, Compassionate
14. *Humane-Oriented–Second Order*: Modesty, Humane-Oriented
15. *Integrity*: Honest, Sincere, Just, Trustworthy
16. *Malevolent*: Hostile, Dishonest, Vindictive, Irritable
17. *Modesty*: Modest, Self-Effacing, Patient
18. *Participative*: Does Not Delegate, Does Not Micromanage, Egalitarian, Group-Oriented

19. *Participative–Second Order*: Autocratic (reverse-scored), Non-participative (reverse-scored)
20. *Performance-Oriented*: Improvement-Oriented, Excellence-Oriented, Performance-Oriented
21. *Procedural-Bureaucratic*: Ritualistic, Formal, Habitual, Procedural
22. *Self-Centered*: Self-Centered, Non-Participative, Loner, Asocial
23. *Self-Protective–Second Order*: Self-Centered, Status Conscious, Conflict Inducer, Face Saver, Procedural
24. *Status Conscious*: Status Conscious, Class Conscious
25. *Team I: Collaborative Team Orientation*: Group-Oriented, Collaborative, Loyal, Consultative
26. *Team II: Team Integrator*: Communicative, Team Builder, Informed, Integrator
27. *Team Oriented–Second Order*: Collaborative, Team Integrator, Diplomatic, Malevolent (reverse-scored), Administratively Competent (House et al., 2004, 131).

Anatomy of a Peace-Building Relationship: Dan Bar-On and Sami Adwan as PRIME Leaders

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The Quaker peace activist Gene Knudsen Hoffman once stated, “an enemy is one whose story we have not heard” (Hoffman, 1997). The late Israeli psychologist Dan Bar-On and Palestinian educator Sami Adwan, living on opposite sides of the Israeli-Palestinian border, heard each other’s stories. They realized there is more than one side to every story, reconsidered their deeply held beliefs, developed empathy toward each other, overcame the need to always be right, and even became committed peace-building leaders and partners. Through their joint work, Bar-On and Adwan challenged the status quo. Their main interest was not in playing the blame game, but in finding solutions. They dared to say “no” to war and to dream and hope for peace. Instead of militarizing or politicizing relationships, they humanized them. Israeli Jewish and Palestinian leaders and researchers need to develop the inner strength and the practical steps, as Bar-On and Adwan did, to cross the border and find workable solutions to the longstanding conflict between their national communities.

Key words: historical narrative, peace-building, victimhood

Leadership, among its many characteristics, is the ability to work together to achieve commonly held goals. In my *International Leadership Journal* article, “Reconceptualizing Peace Leadership” (Sarsar, 2008), I argued that what Palestinian, Israeli, and American leaders can do to advance peace is to cohere their values, attitudes, and behaviors in support of peace, an essential ingredient of both peace leadership and wise policy.

In this article, I analyze peace leadership by dissecting the anatomy of the relationship between two peace-builders, the late Israeli psychologist Dan Bar-On and Palestinian educator Sami Adwan. Even though they represent diverse backgrounds, they were more alike than dissimilar. I discuss how they engaged in peace-building under fire, pointing specifically to the constraints they faced, and how they turned them into peace-building opportunities and international recognition. The article concludes with lessons learned, which have important implications for future peace leadership efforts and research projects in Israeli-Palestinian relations.

The Birth of a Peace-Building Relationship

The relationship between Bar-On and Adwan started in 1995, when they conducted joint research for “Youth and History,” a German study on the views of Israeli and Palestinian youths. Two years later, their research interests evolved into a weekend meeting at Talitha Kumi, a Lutheran high school near Beit Jala, Palestine. The group included six Israeli and six Palestinian researchers and practitioners. All invited participants became acquainted with each other through their different histories, which then led to additional meetings and conversations on the roles of education in peace and peace in education.

Bar-On and Adwan, with the assistance of an 8-member executive committee and 25 other members divided between Palestinians and Israelis, led the way by initiating the Peace Research Institute in the Middle East (PRIME). In time, with the expert cooperation of the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research in Braunschweig, Germany, PRIME engaged Palestinian and Israeli teachers in educational initiatives and peace-building projects, including the “Shared History Project: Learning Each Other’s Historical Narrative: Palestinians and Israelis.

Personal Trajectories, Professional Choices

Dan Bar-On’s Background. Bar-On was born in 1938 in Haifa to parents of German descent. They had to cope with the “hardships of a narrow-minded ideological climate of monolithic zealousness... German Jews were not particularly welcomed by the Eastern European-dominated Zionist Jewry” (Bar-On, 2006). At age 16, Bar-On enrolled at an agricultural high school. He then joined Kibbutz Revivim in the Negev Desert, where he lived for almost 25 years; Bar-On was a farmer, an educator, and the secretary of the Kibbutz. In the military, he served as a combat paratrooper and pathfinder.

After completing his M.A. in Psychology in 1975, Bar-On worked in the Kibbutz clinic, specializing in therapy and research with families of Holocaust survivors. In 1981, he received his Ph.D. from the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. Four years later, he launched a pioneering field research project in Germany, studying the

psychological and moral aftereffects of the Holocaust on the children of the perpetrators. His 1989 book, *Legacy of Silence: Encounters with Children of the Third Reich*, has since been translated and published in French, German, Japanese, and Hebrew (Bar-On, 1989). Bar-On then brought together descendants of survivors and perpetrators for five intensive encounters (the TRT group, shown by the BBC on *TimeWatch* in October 1993), as well as students from the third generation of both sides. His 1995 book, *Fear and Hope: Three Generations of Holocaust Survivors' Families*, was published in Hebrew, English, German, and Chinese, and was followed four years later by *The Indescribable and the Undiscussable* (Bar-On, 1995, 1996).

In 1998, Bar-On was the Ida E. King Chair for Holocaust and Genocide Studies at the Richard Stockton College of New Jersey from which he also received an honorary doctorate in 1999. He was made a permanent professor of psychology at Israel's Ben-Gurion University, where he served as the chair of the Department of Behavioral Sciences from 1993 to 1995. In 1996, he was awarded the David Lopatie Chair for Post-Holocaust Psychological Studies, and became the director of the Center for Dialogue between Populations in Conflict. Together with Dr. Adwan, he was the co-director of PRIME (Peace Research Institute in the Middle East) near Beit Jala, Palestinian National Authority (PNA).

Sami Adwan's Background. Adwan is a Palestinian educator whose work has won international recognition. He was born in 1956 in Sourif, a small town northwest of Hebron, ruled at the time by Jordan, now in Palestine. After graduating with a B.A. in Elementary Education from Jordan University in 1976, he received an M.A. in Educational Administration from San Francisco State University in 1982, followed by a Ph.D. in Educational Administration from the University of San Francisco five years later.

Upon returning to the Occupied Territories, Adwan taught and was chair of the education program at Hebron University, where he also headed the employees' union and became active in politics. As a member of Fatah (which was outlawed by Israel at this time), he fought against the occupying Israeli forces in the West

Bank during the first Intifada (1987–1992). He ended up serving a six-month sentence in an Israeli prison in the Negev Desert.

Since 1993, Adwan has been a member of the Faculty of Education at Bethlehem University. His research has focused on Palestinian education and the role of education in building peace. His publications include *The Narrative of Palestinian Refugees during the War of 1948 in Israeli and Palestinian History and Civic Education Textbooks* and *The Narrative of the 1967 War in Israeli and Palestinian History and Civics Textbooks and Curricula Statement*, both co-authored with Ruth Firer (Adwan & Firer, 1997, 1999), as well as book chapters and articles with Palestinian and Israeli researchers (Adwan & Bar-On, 2004b; Chaitan, Adwan, Obeidi, & Bar-On, 2004).

Working Together. As co-leaders of PRIME, Bar-On and Adwan co-edited two works: *The Role of Palestinian and Israeli NGOs in Peace Building*, and *Victimhood and Beyond* (Adwan & Bar-On, 2000, 2001). In 2001, they were awarded the Alexander Langer Foundation Prize for their dedication to peace. A similar honor was bestowed on them in 2005 when they received the Goldberg Prize for Peace. In the spring of 2007, Bar-On and Adwan were Fulbright Scholars-in-Residence at Monmouth University, New Jersey, where they taught, co-taught, and carried out joint research. They also brought their vision for peace to several prestigious academic and international forums. In March 2007, both Bar-On and Adwan were honored with a Joint Resolution from the New Jersey State Senate and General Assembly.

Bar-On and Adwan faced countless obstacles, but were able to overcome most, even though they were working under fire and under the radars of the departments of education in both Israel and the Palestinian Authority. Their success came as a result of both personal and family friendships, as well as serious professional commitment and strategy.

Peace Leaders Who Are More Alike Than Different

While Bar-On and Adwan's differing professional biographies might not have led to cooperative joint work, they did. In addition to being nationalists and peace

activists, they were more similar than dissimilar in their personalities, leadership qualities, ideas, and actions. Both showed much confidence in themselves and their work. They were not shy in admitting their initial reluctance to work with “the other.” Because they recognized the potential and actual change in themselves, they were hopeful that others could be taught, through an understanding of each other’s situation. Moreover, both Bar-On and Adwan acknowledged the reality on the ground, and believed that in order to make genuine progress, real life—not just cold facts—must be shown to people.

Bar-On and Adwan believed in cohering top-down peacemaking and bottom-up peace-building. Ignoring the first, where political decisions rest, is impractical; ignoring the second, where people power and legitimacy reside, results in disempowerment. Isolating one from the other, or non-synchronization of one with the other, can only create peace on paper, or a “cold peace.”

As for differences or unequal emphases between Bar-On and Adwan, the latter was more sensitive to the use of language. He had a tendency to focus on specific word choices, and how, if not used appropriately, such words can inflict harm on others. For Adwan (2005), “Language is not simply symbols and meanings. It is also culture, reality, interaction, and life” (question 9, para. 2). Bar-On was more interested in how people process varying concepts. As he said, “I have also learned that ‘location’ for Jews and Arabs are different concepts. For the Palestinians, it’s *the* place: *the* tree, *the* house. For the Jews it’s more the land in general, not the specific location so much” (Bar-On, 2004, question 24, para. 1).

In addition, while Bar-On focused on inter-generational understanding, Adwan believed that the past must be understood in order for the present to heal the future. Naturally, Adwan also expressed greater frustration than Bar-On with the Israeli occupation of Palestinian territories and the stereotyping of Palestinians. The impact on him, his family, his friends, and his nation was consistent and direct.

From Enemies to Friends

Bar-On and Adwan emphasized the importance of family in both the Israeli and Palestinian cultures, and worked to facilitate progress towards mutual recognition and respect. This emphasis and other similarities helped Bar-On and Adwan to develop a strong friendship and collaborative leadership approach that lasted for over a dozen years (1995–2008) until Bar-On passed away. To do so, both crossed not only a physical barrier, but a psychological one as well.

Both Bar-On and Adwan realized early that they would have to face the conflict head on. Both had lost loved ones in the conflict and its regional reverberations: Bar-On—a friend in 1967, and Adwan—a brother in 1970. Both witnessed the violence and felt the deep pain that their national communities experienced, with Adwan even being jailed for his national activism. Both realized that the conflict was causing a severe feeling of estrangement from oneself and from others. While they could dialogue with the victim in themselves, they had to work harder to establish dialogue between the victim and the victimizer within themselves.

For Bar-On and Adwan, developing a relationship was neither easy nor by chance. It resulted from their personal experiences and intentional commitments to acknowledge and understand each other. Even though Adwan had difficulty differentiating between Israelis as occupiers and soldiers, and Israelis as civilians, his perceptions changed considerably when he was in prison.

Being in prison . . . made me think in a different way. I realized that denial could not help me, or anyone else for that matter. What had the potential to aid understanding was . . . discovering, speaking with, and coming to know him (Adwan, 2005, question 1, para. 8).

Similarly, at a certain point back in the mid-1990s, Bar-On realized (as he told me in an interview), that “I could not live my life in this region without seeing Palestinians, without feeling their pain” (Bar-On, 2007).

Unable to tolerate such a situation, Bar-On began to watch the interactions of Jewish and Palestinian Israeli students as they participated in dialogue workshops under the auspices of Ben Gurion University's behavioral sciences department. Over a three-year period, Bar-On observed their encounters through

a one-way mirror. "That was a painful study for me," he told me. But he felt compelled "to test my own stereotypes about Palestinians" (Bar-On, 2007).

Bar-On had already made a name for himself with his studies of the intergenerational after-effects of the Holocaust on the children and grandchildren of both survivors and Nazi perpetrators. Now, by watching the Jewish-Palestinian groups, he explained, he saw how it was easier to do Holocaust-related studies, "because I come from the victim side . . . the good side." When it came to the Palestinian-Israeli conflict, "I was much more involved [and] under the pressure that I belong to the side that occupies the Palestinians, who prevents them from having their own state, and it was difficult morally for me to be in that role." While he had no doubt that the Jews had a right to their national home, he realized that it was essential to find a way to also "accept the Palestinian need for such a right, and it was not an easy task for me to understand" (Bar-On, 2007).

Bar-On's empathy with the Palestinians expressed itself in frustration, which he blamed on the lack of wise leadership in both the United States and Israel.

I also thought that President Clinton and Prime Minister Barak were not effective in the Camp David encounter with Chairman Arafat, which led to its poor outcome in July 2000, and that many Palestinian complaints against Israel concerning the ongoing occupation and settlement-building in the occupied territories were justified (Bar-On, 2001, 1).

In *Victimhood and Beyond*, he expressed his anger at what Palestinians go through. "I felt that Israel was to blame for allowing Ariel Sharon to make a provocative demonstration of power by visiting the Al-Aqsa Mosque" (Adwan & Bar-On, 2001, 1).

Adwan's vision for a better future was compelling as well. Believing in a two-state solution—Israel and Palestine living alongside each other in peace and security—he advocated for a non-militarized Palestine. As he stated in an interview with Just Vision, the state "should invest in building schools and hospitals, in caring for the families that are suffering, in developing industry and manufacturing, and in improving health, education, roads, and services for its people" (Adwan, 2005, question 17, para. 3)

In due course, as Bar-On and Adwan worked together, they learned to work through their national and personal traumas and find new ways to live with them. They learned to identify with each other's pain. They never let fear stand in their way. Instead of giving in to their differences, they acknowledged what Rabbi Jonathan Sacks (2002) calls "the dignity of difference." In *Victimhood and Beyond*, Adwan explained, "no matter how great our differences and how extreme our claims may be, we can resolve them" (Adwan & Bar-On, 2001, 7). In order to do so, Adwan delved deeply into the human psyche by arguing:

Both sides must recognize each other's suffering. They should discover each other's faces. They should care for the dignity and humanity of the other as much as they care for their own. It does not matter who is stronger, but rather who is wiser and who has the courage to admit wrongdoing. It takes a great deal of courage to say: 'I was wrong. The other has the same right to exist and be free that I have' (Adwan & Bar-On, 2001, 7).

As they emphasized their common humanity and human dignity, Bar-On and Adwan also involved their individual families in their relationships, expressed through mutual visits, unbounded trust, and genuine empathy for each other. In *Victimhood and Beyond*, Bar-On identified with Adwan's predicament of living under Israeli occupation. He even worried about the possibility that his younger son Haran would serve in the Occupied Territories, and was later relieved that he did not.

I admired Sami for his persistence and willingness to continue our work; I identified with his pain when there was shooting near his house, while I lived more or less safely in mine. In addition, my son was drafted and I could not imagine him being posted in the territories, caught up in the shooting. Fortunately, he volunteered for the Air Force rescue and is removed from the events in the territories (Adwan & Bar-On, 2001, 1).

Furthermore, Bar-On was touched by Adwan's concern for Haran's welfare, even though Haran became a soldier of the same occupying power.

In November 1999, my younger son, Haran, was about to join the Israeli air force rescue unit. Haran befriended Sami's oldest son, Tariq. Before Haran's recruitment, Sami invited us all to a Bethlehem restaurant. During the dinner Sami got up and said, 'I know how concerned your parents are for your health and safety, as you are joining the [Israeli Defense Forces]. But now, since we are friends, I will be concerned just as they are, because we are now one family' (Bar-On, 2006, 84).

Adwan's kindness left a huge impression on the Bar-On family, especially since Haran was joining the Israel Defense Forces that were occupying the Palestinian territories and against whom Adwan fought and was imprisoned as a result. When Israeli tanks invaded Bethlehem during the Intifada in the fall of 2000, Bar-On and his wife were abroad, which led Haran to inquire about Adwan and his family. For Bar-On, these small personal gestures meant "much more to me than the big events that were taking place around us; they symbolized the possibility of true friendship and trust in the midst of the hell we were entering" (Bar-On, 2006, 84).

Shared History Project: Learning Each Other's Historical Narrative

Bar-On and Adwan's relationship was not based solely on emotion and sentiment. It was anchored in serious work, premised on the positive use of education in enhancing peace.

Education plays a significant role in building understanding, recognition, and acceptance through the explicit and implicit messages and concepts conveyed to students in textbooks, through teachers and activities. It is important to uproot negative representations and stereotypes, changing terminologies from enemy to amity, from war to peace, from ethnocentrism to diversity and respect of differences. Textbooks have to include the other side and their stories in a context of peace culture (Adwan, 2000, 94).

While they worked on several initiatives, the Shared History Project received the most attention and recognition for "its original idea and implementation" (Adwan & Bar-On, 2005, 3). This project, a joint effort of 14 Israeli and Palestinian teachers, did not create a single shared historical narrative because there was no intent "to create a same-ness" between Israelis and Palestinians (Bar-On, 2004, question 8, para. 1), because, as Adwan (2005) noted, "there is simply no way that this can happen in the absence of a political solution that would end the conflict in all its aspects, or at least a vision for such a solution" (question 7, para. 6). Instead, it presented the narratives of both sides, one next to the other, with a space in between the two narratives for students to write their

own comments. In Bar-On's words, the idea focused on preparing students to accept the existence of two narratives of what occurred between Palestinian Arabs and Israeli Jews.

So for example, for the Palestinians, it will always be that the Balfour Declaration was the first time that their rights were not recognized. And for the Israeli Jews, it will always be the first time that the international community recognized their right to a national home in this land. These things will not change, even if there is a political solution (Bar-On, 2004, question 7, para. 1).

The implication is that each national narrative is conditional, not absolute, and both national narratives, side by side, have the great potential of inviting critical thinking, mutual understanding, and dialogue.

This project resulted in three sets of booklets for high school students, published between 2002 and 2007 in Arabic, Hebrew, and English. Focusing on the same set of events or time periods—the Balfour Declaration of 1917; the 1948 War; the First Palestinian Intifada of 1987–1992; the 1920s; the 1930s; the June 1967 War; the 1950s; the 1970s; and the 1990s—these booklets exposed Israeli and Palestinian students to each other's conception of the conflict.

This project is more than innovative; it is transformative in its implications. In reviewing the research by Adwan and Ruth Firer on Palestinian and Israeli textbooks, Wagner (2005) points out that Adwan and Firer (1997, 1999) found that “both sets of textbooks stick to their own narrative and version of events, do little to understand the other side, and therefore propagate the conflict” (“Unlikely collaboration,” para. 4). Even where text modifications have been attempted, teachers have generally perpetuated their national perspective. In describing the project to me, Bar-On (2007) observed that initially, students from one group, in encountering the story of the other, “usually see it as propaganda. They delegitimize it; they say that their narrative is morally superior.” Being presented with both narratives at the same time, however, “they are faced with both narratives in a way where they can read both of them, can compare them, and have to learn to respect the narrative of the other side just as they respect their own.” As Bar-On elaborated, “The aim is to know and respect the narrative of the other, even though you do not agree with its contents.”

This process of involving teachers and students in considering both narratives necessitates a new way of teaching and relating to the material. It has the strong potential of changing attitudes rather than reinforcing them. In due course, it may have a positive influence on the narratives of both sides, possibly generating one shared narrative.

From Constraints to Opportunities

As mediators and peace-building partners, Bar-On and Adwan tapped into attitudes, experiences, and tools to transform constraints into opportunities (Gerzon, 2006). Guided by a reconciliatory vision and a systemic view of what ails and what could heal their societies, they communicated with others consciously and critically in order to arrive at an ideal or preferred future. Bar-On and Adwan's presence enabled them to build bridges and dialogue with others, inspiring innovative ideas, such as the shared history project.

Recruitment of teachers and implementation of this project was easier conceptualized than done. In addition to the national, political, and personal reasons for non-involvement, there was the simple fact of the Palestinians' reliance on the Israelis to secure travel permits, with its built-in asymmetry, as Adwan (2005) explained.

On the one hand, it is good that we can receive help when we need it. On the other hand, this reliance reinforces the idea that there is 'one who can' and 'one who cannot.' In one way or another, dependence upon Israelis for obtaining permits affects Palestinians' participation (question 6, para. 4).

In the second booklet, Bar-On and Adwan (2005) further explained the dilemma some of the teachers faced and the reasons they quit the project:

One Palestinian teacher said, 'I do not know who I am. . . . I am meeting with Israeli teachers trying to understand each other but only two hours ago I was humiliated at an Israeli military checkpoint.' An Israeli teacher said, 'I cannot come to Talitha Kumi. My family is afraid something will happen to me' (3).

Whatever challenges the Israeli and Palestinian teachers faced, Bar-On and Adwan faced as well. From the start, they worked in an asymmetric political, military, and economic environment that severely limited the creation of balanced resources and equitable relationships. Adwan (2005) explained how all the

positions and tasks within PRIME are “divided equally,” with the goal being to prevent as much as possible “one party from dominating the other.” This was at a time when Israelis have “greater opportunities; their universities and institutions are more developed, they have the ability to travel, they have freedom, they have resources, and we have less” (question 6, para. 3). Bar-On (2006) elaborated further on this and other challenges in *Tell Your Life Story*.

We discussed problems of asymmetry between the parties—differentials in salaries, equipment, and other resources—and how to try and overcome th[em]. We spoke about academic excellence, creating our own body of knowledge, developing a journal, holding conferences, subsidizing and supporting joint research initiatives. There were also tensions, especially within the Palestinian group—power struggles over who would lead this initiative—but they did not stop the process itself (81).

Bar-On and Adwan had difficulty organizing their activities and projects because of the military and political instability and uncertainty. Whatever plans they developed had to remain flexible, and whatever good intentions they possessed often had to be postponed. Bar-On (2006) describes the situation:

Essentially the original ideas that Sami and I developed generated a lot of international interest. The projects also justified our “wartime” strategy of working slowly and quietly on relatively small projects, creating “islands of sanity” before coming out with public statements. This strategy differed from that of certain other joint efforts that were overambitious, spreading their resources too thin and then “burning out” because the situation became so hostile and frustrating that they could not maintain the volume of their activity (86).

Moreover, their intense work amid a charged environment created “moments of crisis” for them (Adwan & Bar-On, 2004a, 10).

We internalized so much frustration and anger that things could not always work out well for us. There were days on which we met and Sami was so angry that he could not hug me as usual. Once, during a workshop with Palestinian and South African ex-prisoners, Sami took the role of translating from English to Arabic for the Palestinians, and I felt excluded and bereft of my co-facilitator and got angry with him. At other times Sami felt that I was dominating a discussion with journalists or a session at a conference where we both had to present papers. Once, in northern Italy . . . he delivered a talk that I considered Palestinian propaganda. Angered, I told him that I expected when we came together we would present our joint work and not a one-sided picture. We did not speak for almost a month but then happened to meet again in Jerusalem, at

a reception held by Sari Nusseibeh at the New Imperial Hotel. We had lunch together and decided to resume our work and relationships (Bar-On, 2006, 85).

Moreover, Bar-On and Adwan's joint work was often carried out under the hostile conditions that pervaded their societies and under intense scrutiny and even threats by their respective societies. While Bar-On (2006) felt politically estranged from his own society due to "the growing political animosity in Israel toward the Palestinians and toward my own work with them. . ." (3) and while he found "a way to live with it without developing self-hatred or hatred toward [my] own society" (Bar-On, 2004, question 34, para 2), Adwan felt caught between his love for Palestine and his commitment to peace. While both Palestine and peace were two sides of the same coin, in the minds of some nationalist Palestinians, normalization of relations with "the enemy" before peace comes is considered a disloyal act.

Sami and I were each attacked as "traitors" in our own societies for our cooperation or for 'normalization with the enemy.' I had to become much more attuned to Sami's "public relations" problems, as he was in a much more complicated situation in his own society than I was in mine. But we were stubborn and determined to continue our work and our personal relationships (Bar-On, 2006, 85).

While Bar-On took security precautions, Adwan did that as well, but he also tried equally hard to build bridges of understanding with the centers of influence and power in Palestinian society, indicating that his work with "the other" is meant to serve the cause of Palestine and of peace. In *Victimhood and Beyond*, Bar-On (2001) expressed his concerns for his physical security and also how he and Adwan overcame the obstacles to meet.

At some point I also had to start protecting myself. An Israeli civilian was shot and killed on the road to Talitha Kumi, and the Palestinian military authorities in Bethlehem warned Israelis not to enter the town after a child was killed by Israelis in January 2001. My family began to pressure me not to endanger myself. Sami and I had to find other ways to continue our joint research. We communicated via email and telephone and finally found a place to meet—Notre Dame in Jerusalem, a place Sami could reach when the tight closure was relaxed (2).

Lessons Learned and Policy Implications

Bar-On and Adwan understood that the Palestinians and the Israelis hold different expectations and understandings of peace. Peace, for most Palestinians, means the ending of the Israeli occupation over their lands and lives and the creation of an independent state with its capital in East Jerusalem. Peace to most Israeli Jews means no conflict and wars, and keeping the status quo. That is why they were utterly careful not to present a single Israeli-Palestinian narrative but to place them in juxtaposition with each other in order to allow for distinction between them.

Adwan (2000) held that while the intensity of pain and suffering might differ, pain and suffering, nevertheless, are the same for both the victims and the victimizers. In order for the pain to dissipate, it must be addressed. Addressing the pain embodies serious implications, often hard for those in conflict to face.

The victimizers should admit their wrongs to the victims, ask for forgiveness and should be willing to compensate the victims. The victims should forgive and show sincere interest in building peace. These moves need a basis of trust on both sides (94).

For Bar-On (2001), trust is hard to generate. Fear stands in the way.

The Jewish-Israeli fear is that by acknowledging that there is right on the other side, Israel's own right to exist as an independent state will be invalidated, the government may collapse and the Jewish-Israeli truth will drown in the flood. Because of this fear, Israelis are willing to kill and be killed (3).

By going beyond victimhood, Bar-On (2001) saw value in taking risks for peace and in acknowledging "the other's" truth—no matter how painful it is—because it "opens up the possibility of achieving a more enduring peace, supported from below—not imposed from above. There are pragmatic ways of diminishing the risk—giving such a process a good chance of success" (3).

Bar-On and Adwan overcame pain and fear and took the lead in a charged environment in which each side totally ignored and excluded the narrative of the other side. Working together was especially difficult due to the power asymmetry between their two societies and the harsh political situation in which the Palestinians live. In their joint sessions, Bar-On and Adwan could observe how

they had different stories to tell. They could actually model what it means to come together, and be in tune, but still be separate and different from each other. They were part of and represent their respective collectives that have not yet resolved the conflict between them.

Bar-On and Adwan focused on the difference between peacemaking (top-down), and peace-building (bottom-up), and how these two should become synchronized in order to enable a successful process. Peacemakers and peace-builders have different time frames and criteria for success, so they actually lack a common language necessary for synchronizing their efforts.

While Bar-On and Adwan understood how history is usually taught (mainly that emotions are not seen as a legitimate part of teaching historical narrative), they highlighted the role that emotions play in teaching history. For them, when there are two narratives, one tends to associate (negative) emotions to the narrative of the other, while one presumes that one's own narrative is based on logic.

The emotional ingredient of the conflict . . . must be addressed and worked through, especially when applied to the past. A Jewish community that suffered so much from silence in the past, including pain and suffering that has no remedy, can be expected to be more sensitive in acknowledging what is important to the other side. This is especially true when the other side feels that we have caused a lot of their pain and suffering, be it intentional or not (Bar-On, 2001, 3).

Bar-On and Adwan also introduced role-playing exercises in their workshops. They found out that as long as participants are not emotionally engaged in creating one of the narratives (for example, around the 1948 War), and actually hear from the other group how different that narrative is from their own, many of them cannot understand why the conflict goes on and on. This is tied to the role of emotions in the learning and teaching of competing historical narratives. One of the foci of the discussion that usually followed was the important role of teachers as change agents, leading the educational reform by becoming the creators of knowledge (i.e., developing the narratives, developing an interactive teachers' guide on the Internet, and being involved in the evaluation process).

Bar-On and Adwan chose not to give up and to continue looking for new opportunities. They learned a lot about the process of change, and actually

practiced trial-and-error approaches to explore if people are ready for active engagement and change.

Israeli Jews and Palestinians are urged to learn from the Bar-On–Adwan example. If their relationships are to improve, then they must forgo their tendency to see only their own victimization, a blindness that only serves to perpetuate the conflict. They must acknowledge and respect the other’s painful memory, whether or not they were party to its creation. Moreover, inclusive acts of communication and faith would prepare the way for reconciling the past and for building a better future, one to which Israeli Jews and Palestinian children and grandchildren are entitled.

In the current political Palestinian-Israeli environment, where expediency, narrow self-interest, and cynicism reign, it behooves Israeli Jewish and Palestinian leaders to develop the inner strength, as Bar-On and Adwan did, to cross the border and find workable solutions to what is ailing them. Whether they like it or not, they are destined to be neighbors forever. The quicker they realize it, the better their relationship will become. Bottom-up peace-builders, leading without power, are urged to maintain their struggle for peace, and to synchronize their plans with top-down peacemakers. Toward that end, today, hope may mean what Bar-On (2006) concluded in *Tell Your Life Story*:

. . . giving up the romantic, monolithic desires of the idealized past in favor of a less perfect but more complex understanding of the world and ourselves, an understanding that can create new possibilities for dialogue within our selves, among ourselves within a collective, and with the Other (230).

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Leadership Characteristics and Title IX: A Possible Mechanism for the Impact of Sports Participation on Work Outcomes

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Sports participation has been found to have significant positive impacts on future work and educational outcomes. In this study, the authors use a cross-sectional survey design to examine self-esteem, locus of control, and self-monitoring, which all have been linked to effective workplace and leadership behaviors. The article proposes that participation in sports helps develop these traits, and that this development is likely a mechanism through which sports impacts work outcomes. The findings support this hypothesis. Further, the authors' finding that the relationship between sports participation and these traits differs by gender raises interesting issues regarding possible gender differences in how sports impacts development. Implications for organizations and future research are discussed.

Key words: gender, leadership, leadership development, personality, sports

Organizations spend billions of dollars on management selection, training, and development every year (Day, 2000), so it is not surprising that there have been scores of research studies that have examined management and leadership development. These studies have examined what makes a good leader, what personality characteristics effective leaders and managers possess, and what methods are best for developing these characteristics (Day, 2000). There has also long been a general belief, as well as anecdotal evidence, that participation in sports is an important “training ground” for developing talented future managers and leaders. Indeed, numerous books and articles have been published in the fields of exercise science, sociology, social philosophy, and, especially sports psychology, about sports participation and its various advantages (Côté & Hay, 2002; Hanson & Kraus, 1998; Kirk, 2005; Miller, Sabo, Melnick, Farrell, & Barnes, 2000; Sabo, Miller, Farrell, Barnes, & Melnick, 1998;

Trudeau, Laurencelle, Tremblay, Rajic, & Shephard, 1999). Further, there is some empirical evidence to support the idea that sports participation positively impacts later job performance.

In that regard, there is a body of research in economic and sociology literature that has shown correlation and, more recently, causal links between sports participation and greater educational and career outcomes. A number of cross-sectional studies have shown a significant correlation between participation in high school sports and educational aspirations, years of education, and wages in U.S. populations (Barron, Ewing, & Waddell, 2000; Ewing, 1998; Long & Caudill, 1991; McCormick & Tinsley, 1987; Spreitzer & Pugh, 1973).

More recently, Stevenson (2010) used a quasi-experimental design to show that women's increased participation in sports due to Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 caused a portion of women's advances in the American workplace since that time. More specifically, Title IX mandated gender equality in educational programs and activities receiving federal funding (of which athletics is the most well-known). Stevenson conducted an across-state analysis of changes in male and female sports participation and across-state differences in educational and labor force outcomes (pre- and post-1972). She found that Title IX increased female participation in high school sports by a factor of nine, and that increase (controlling for factors such as ability and resources) generated significant gains for women in education (years of educational attainment) and work outcome (employment rates and wages).

These studies represent critical advances in showing that sports participation does have an impact on career success; however, they leave open the question of the mediating mechanism for how this occurs. This article addresses that issue by linking the literatures that assess the impact of sports performance on the development of various personality characteristics with the management literature that documents personality characteristics associated with greater job performance or managerial success. There is significant support in sports psychology literature for the assertion that certain characteristics may be developed, modified, or enhanced through sports participation (Duke, Johnson, &

Nowicki, 1977; Fischer, 1995; Handel, 1994; Harragan, 1977; Horn, 1992; Jaffe & Lutter, 1991; Jaffe & Mantzer, 1992; Mechikoff, 1987; Michener, 1976; Nelson, 1994; Paterson & West, 1971; Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993). Similarly, there are numerous studies in management literature linking various personality characteristics to job performance and managerial success (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991; Wooten, Timmerman, & Folger, 1999). This study examines whether three personality characteristics that have been linked to managerial success are related to participation in high school athletics. Specifically, this article analyzes the relationship between an individual's involvement in organized sports and the personality characteristics of self-esteem, locus of control, and self-monitoring.

Personality Characteristics

In the process of connecting the two sets of literature, the authors also examine whether there are gender differences in the relationship of sports participation to the development of self-esteem, locus of control, and self-monitoring. Specifically, it is argued that these characteristics affect work-related behavior, and that they can be developed through sports participation, therefore making the case that the perceived benefits of playing sports to business careers is likely mediated at least partially through the development of these characteristics.

Sports, Self-Esteem, and Individual Performance

Self-esteem, or the extent to which a person believes that he or she is a worthwhile and deserving individual (Marsh, 1996; Meeker, 1990; Pierce, Gardner, & Cummings, 1989), is very important to being a successful manager (Branden, 1998). It affects behavior in several important ways: People with high self-esteem tend to feel competent, deserving, and capable of handling most situations, while individuals with low self-esteem question their capabilities and are unsure of their ability to handle different situations (Branden, 1998; Brockner, 1988; Marsh, 1996). Studies have shown that self-esteem affects motivation and is an important part in self-regulation (Moss, Dowling, & Callahan, 2009), which is a critical determinant of successful job performance (Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt,

& Hall, 2010; Porath & Bateman, 2006). For example, employees with high self-esteem get greater intrinsic satisfaction from accomplishments and do not need as much external motivation in order to put forth effort toward a task, while those with low self-esteem are more focused on extrinsic rewards (Blitzer, Petersen, & Rogers, 1993; Brockner & Guare, 1983; Fitch, 1970).

Additionally, leadership and team effectiveness have been found to have a relationship with self-esteem. For example, individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to take on leadership roles than those with low self-esteem (Jago, 1982). Work teams composed of employees with high self-esteem are also more likely to experience success than teams composed of employees with lower self-esteem (Brockner & Hess, 1986). The research is clear that self-esteem is an important personality characteristic impacting effective work behavior (Hollenbeck & Brief, 1987; Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, & Cummings, 1993; Renn & Prien, 1995).

Some studies have linked sports participation to increased self-esteem (Fischer, 1995; Jaffe & Lutter, 1991; Jaffe & Mantzer, 1992; Nelson, 1994). Smoll et al. (1993) conducted a controlled study that showed particular supportive coach behaviors enhanced player self-esteem. However, Richman and Shaffer (2000) argue that past research examining the relationship between sports participation and global self-esteem is limited, inconsistent, and, at times, conflicting, so more research is therefore necessary. However, more recent studies have found a more consistent relationship when factors such as physical well-being (Tracy & Erkut, 2002) and fostering positive body image (Richman & Shaffer, 2000) were considered.

Hypothesis 1: In line with previous research, there is a positive relationship between levels of sports participation and levels of self-esteem.

Sports, Locus of Control, and Individual Performance

Rotter (1966, 1990) identified “locus of control” as an important dimension of personality, contending that individuals typically attribute the causes of their behavior to internal or environmental forces, and this impacts future behavior.

Locus of control is essentially the degree to which individuals believe their actions influence what happens to them. Individuals who have a high internal locus of control (internals) believe that what happens to them is largely under their own control, while those who have a high external locus of control (externals) believe that change, fate, people, or environmental factors primarily determine the events in their lives (Rotter, 1971, 1990). The behavioral outcomes of these beliefs are the real interest of organizational researchers, as locus of control is used to explain why some people are resilient and willing to act in the face of challenges, while others fail to act and experience negative emotions (Lefcourt, 1991). How employees will react when faced with challenges is of clear import to organizations, increasingly so as business becomes more complex and the pace of change accelerates (McKinsey & Company, 2006).

Research has clearly shown that internal locus of control is related to greater job performance and career success, with internals more likely to engage in behaviors that are related to positive work outcomes. Specifically, they tend to have higher job satisfaction, lower absenteeism, and more organizational citizenship behaviors (Barbuto & Bugenhagen, 2006; Turnipseed & Bacon, 2009), and are more likely to be proactive in improving their environment and less likely to be defensive and not accept responsibility for their mistakes (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006; Norris & Niebur, 1984; Rotter, 1966). Further, they are more strongly and intrinsically motivated, are more committed and expend more effort to reach their goals, and have higher job involvement than externals (Blau, 1987; Erez & Judge, 2001; Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975; Ng et al., 2006; Rotter, 1990; Spector, 1982). Internals generally outperform externals; they are more likely to take on managerial positions, more effective as managers, and achieve greater success with regard to salary and organizational level (Boyatzis, 1982; Erez & Judge, 2001; Mitchell et al., 1975; Ng et al., 2006; Spector, 1982).

The connection between sports participation and developing locus of control has not been explored in much depth. Though there have only been a few studies connecting locus of control and athletics (and the results have been inconsistent—Kleiber, 1981, and Parsons and Betz, 2001, found that girls' sports

participation was positively related to internal locus of control, while Valliant, 1981, found no differences), there is a clear rationale linking sports participation to the development of a more internal locus of control. The sports mantra that “practice makes perfect,” that an individual can expend effort and change their skills, improve their physical condition, and increase their performance is essentially training an internal locus of control. The inconsistency of the research indicates a need for more research in this area, and this study begins to address the issue by further investigating the relationship.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between levels of sports participation and internal locus of control.

Sports, Self-Monitoring, and Individual Performance

Self-monitoring refers to the extent that an individual can and does engage in expressive control; that is, observes their own behavior and adjusts it to external, situational factors (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Individuals high in self-monitoring show considerable adaptability in adjusting their behavior to situational factors and situations (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Being adaptable to situations has been found to be one of the important traits of a successful manager (Silverthorne & Wang, 2001; Stogdill, 1974). Results from a meta-analysis suggest that self-monitoring may be an important variable in determining crucial work-related attitudes, organizational success, and emergent leadership (Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002).

The ability to adjust one’s behavior based on situational factors (e.g., its impact on the emotions of other people) is similar to the important “self-management” component of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence has been shown to be related to a number of workplace performance outcomes (leadership effectiveness, managerial performance, and combat performance) across a variety of settings, including corporate executive and managerial levels, military, and educational settings (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). In addition, managers who are high self-monitors tend to be more successful in acquiring a

mentor (Turban & Dougherty, 1994) and more mobile in their careers and are promoted more often, both internally and externally (Kilduff & Day, 1994).

While the connection between self-monitoring and career success has been examined, the relationship of self-monitoring to sports participation has not yet been investigated at any great length. It is expected that participation in team sports will result in increased self-monitoring abilities. Self-monitoring is a skill necessary to function effectively in, or lead, a team (Douglas & Gardner, 2004; Griffin & Wayne, 1984). Participating in sports provides the opportunity to practice seeing the impact of one's behavior on others and receiving feedback and, therefore, should result in an increase in the characteristic (Cherniss et al., 2006; Goleman, 1998). This study will be one of the few to explore whether any relationship exists between participating in sports and self-monitoring.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a positive relationship between levels of participation in sports and levels of self-monitoring.

Gender Differences

In addition to testing the hypotheses, the study explores the possibility of gender differences in the connection between sports participation and these personality traits, with an eye to examining the relative importance of sports participation to career success between men and women. It also may be that it is equally important, but affects the personalities of males and females differently. This could be important to understanding specifically how Title IX impacted women's success in the workforce. There is little research discussing differential impact of sports on these personality traits, so this is a purely exploratory analysis.

Exploratory Question 1: Do the relationships between sports participation and the personality variables differ by gender?

Method

Procedures and Participants

Data for testing the hypotheses were taken from survey questionnaires completed by 284 female and male students in classrooms at a midsized public university and a small private college in the northeastern United States. Selecting a sample from a population that is primarily in the same age range helps to limit the influence of life experiences, including work experience, on responses to survey questions.

Survey respondents included 140 females (49.3%) and 144 males (50.7%). The vast majority of participants, 93.7%, were in the 18- to 24-year age range, 4.6% in the 25 to 34 range, and 1.8% in the 35 to 44 range (numbers add up to more than 100% due to rounding). There were no respondents over age 44. The racial composition of the sample was 90% Caucasian, 5% Asian, 2.8% African American, 1.1% Latino, 0.7% Native American, and 0.4% Pacific Islander.

Measures

Personality Variables. Self-esteem was measured with the widely used Rosenberg's (1989) Self-Esteem Scale. This 10-item scale measures general positive or negative feelings about oneself. Sample items include "I feel I have a number of good qualities," and "On the whole I am satisfied with myself." Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree, with lower total scores indicating a higher level of self-esteem.

Locus of control was assessed using Rotter's (1971) Locus of Control scale, which measures the degree to which individuals believe what happens to them is under their control or due to outside forces. This scale consists of 10 forced choice items—participants had to choose which of two statements they most agreed with, one relating to internal and one to external locus of control, for example (a) "I am the master of my fate" or (b) "A great deal that happens to me is probably a matter of chance." Scoring is done by adding up the number of answers with an external locus, such as response (b) above, so higher scores reflect an external locus of control.

Self-monitoring was measured using Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) revision of Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale. This 13-item scale measures the extent to which an individual observes his or her own behavior and adjusts it to external, situational factors. Responses were based on a scale from 0 (certainly always false) to 5 (certainly always true).

Sports Participation. The level of sports participation was based on how many regular playing seasons each individual had been involved in organized, competitive sports from age 6 to the present. For the purposes of this study, league or intramural-type teams that played against other teams were counted toward sports participation, whereas any type of play that was not formally organized (e.g., regular pickup games) were not included. A "regular" playing season was approximately four months (e.g., playing competitive tennis year-round would constitute three seasons per year). If students had participated in more than one sport at a time, each sport was considered a separate season.

Other Variables. Participants were also asked their age group, ethnicity, and year in college.

Results

Sports Participation

In this sample, the average number of seasons the students had participated in sports was 13.49, with a range from no participation to 39, and a standard deviation of 10.88.

Personality Characteristics

The average self-esteem score in our sample was 20.72 ($SD = 8.71$), and self-monitoring score was 44.38 ($SD = 8.15$). Men had significantly higher self-esteem (women: $M = 22.60$, $SD = 8.78$; men: $M = 18.89$, $SD = 8.28$; $t(282) = 3.66$, $p < .05$; note higher scores indicate lower self-esteem) and self-monitoring scores (women: $M = 42.94$, $SD = 8.11$; men: $M = 45.78$, $SD = 7.97$; $t(282) = 2.98$, $p < .05$) than women. Finally, the average locus of control was 7.51

($SD = 2.23$), and there were no gender differences in this sample (women: $M = 7.47$, $SD = 2.28$; men: $M = 7.55$, $SD = 2.19$; $t(282) = .30$, $p = .76$).

Hypotheses

The hypotheses were tested employing correlation analysis. Supporting the hypotheses, increased sports participation was significantly related to higher levels of self-esteem ($r = -.45, p < .01$), locus of control ($r = .34, p < .01$) and self-monitoring ($r = .67, p < .01$) (see Table 1).

Table 1: Correlations between Sports Participation and Personality Characteristics

Variable	Mean	SD	<i>r</i> with sports participation	<i>p</i> <
Self-Esteem*				
All	20.72	8.71	-.45	.01
Females	22.60	8.78	-.32	.01
Males	18.89	8.28	-.49	.01
Locus of Control				
All	7.51	2.23	.34	.01
Females	7.47	2.28	.41	.01
Males	7.55	2.19	.30	.01
Self-Monitoring				
All	44.38	8.15	.67	.01
Females	42.94	8.11	.74	.01
Males	45.78	7.97	.60	.01

*Note: Higher scores indicate lower self-esteem.

Further, the exploratory question regarding gender differences in the strength of the relationships between sports participation and the personality characteristics was addressed using Fischer's *r*-to-*z* transformation. There were, in fact, gender differences in two of these relationships. Specifically, the relationship between sports participation and self-monitoring was significantly stronger for women than for men ($z = 2.0, p < .05$), while the relationship between sports participation and self-esteem was stronger for men than for women ($z = 3.7, p < .05$).

Discussion

Contribution to Research and Practice

The results of this study indicate the importance of sports participation to the development of leadership characteristics for all individuals. The hypotheses that sports participation has significant positive relationships with self-monitoring, self-

esteem, and locus of control, all of which have been found to be related to effective leadership and management, were supported. This adds to the existing research to help people understand possible mechanisms via which athletics impacts career success (Stevenson, 2010), and can help begin formulation of a model of the impact of athletics on work performance.

In addition, as the number of women in the workforce continues to increase, women developing personality characteristics related to managerial success through participation in sports will become that much more important. These findings validate the necessity of enforcing Title IX, especially in providing equal access to sports participation, and provide more evidence of the criticality of females having full access to and opportunities in organized sports. Additionally, understanding the mechanisms via which sports participation impacts those outcomes (i.e., through improved self-monitoring, self-esteem, etc.) could be used to help women by finding *other* ways to improve those same characteristics, especially for those individuals who are not athletically inclined (e.g., perhaps other competitive clubs such as math or debate teams, or performance-oriented extracurricular groups like band have similar impacts).

Implications for Organizations

The results of this research have several implications for management and organizations. If certain characteristics (e.g., having an internal locus of control) that have positive implications for performance quality and leadership/managerial success (McBer & Company, 1994; Spencer, McClelland, & Spencer, 1994) are related to participation in sports, organizations may alter their hiring, recruiting, and public relations policies. With regard to hiring, organizations might consider weighing athletic activities more heavily in their hiring decisions. Further, more organizations may decide to sponsor interscholastic, intramural, or league youth sports to increase the number of sports opportunities for both females and males in their communities, and therefore improve the quality of their local labor pool. As an additional benefit, an organization's support of athletics might improve its reputation with athletes and increase its attractiveness as an employer to this group of desirable job candidates.

Limitations

While causality between sports participation and improved career outcomes has already been proven (Stevenson, 2010), the cross-sectional design of this study did not allow the determination of a cause-and-effect relationship between athletics and the personality characteristics. While it seems likely based on previous research and theory that participation in sports does impact individual characteristics such as self-esteem, it is also possible that those with higher self-esteem are more likely to engage in competitive sports. We do not rule out the possibility that both are true and the relationship is bidirectional.

Another limitation is that the sample consists only of individuals enrolled in college, and the results therefore may not be generalizable beyond the college setting. However, there is no particular reason to think that playing sports in high school would have a significantly different impact on those who went on to college compared to the rest of the population.

Future Research

As causality cannot be definitively determined with a cross-sectional design, longitudinal studies are needed to define more precisely the direction of the relationship between sports participation and personality characteristics. Further, studies with non-college samples are also important to ensure broader generalizability, as only 30% of adults over 25 in the United States have a bachelor's degree (though degree holders are disproportionately represented in the workforce; U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

The results of the current study suggest many avenues for future research. For example, more research needs to be conducted to determine the exact role that sports participation has on the development of the variables studied. Specifically, what aspects of participating in competitive athletics, which experiences it affords, are responsible for developing these characteristics? Determining this would help in uncovering or developing other activities to bolster these characteristics outside of athletics.

Further, the fact that significant gender differences in the strength of the relationships between sports participation and self-esteem and self-monitoring

were found indicates that athletics may contribute to career success of males and females differently. Gender differences should be examined in all future research on this topic, and the underlying reasons for these differences should be examined.

In this study, only organized and competitive sports were utilized in determining an individual's level of sports participation. However, there might be important work-related benefits to non-competitive and non-organized physical activities such as yoga. These activities may impart some of the same benefits as organized sports (e.g., development of discipline) as well as unique benefits (e.g., ability to quiet the mind and focus). Further, the United States Department of Health and Human Services (1996) reported that "regular physical activity improves health and well-being, reduces depression and anxiety, improves mood, and enhances the ability to perform daily tasks throughout the life span" (United States Department of Health and Human Services, 1996, 5). Such an increase in well-being, decrease in negative conditions, and increased ability to perform daily tasks would certainly be beneficial to job performance. The health benefits realized by physical activities would also likely result in lower employee absenteeism due to illness. For similar reasons, sports that are competitive but not organized should also be included in future studies (i.e., street hockey or pickup basketball). Many of the same benefits may be realized for all types of sports activities (organized, unorganized, competitive, and non-competitive), so they all are worth investigation as other avenues for the development of leadership competencies.

Conclusion

This study adds to the empirical evidence supporting the long-held anecdotal belief in the benefits of sports to the development of positive characteristics, and specifically to those related to successful leadership, providing possible mechanisms for their effect. Further, while the magnitude of the impact of sports on work outcomes has not been found to be different for women and men

(Stevenson, 2010), our study raises the issue that there may be gender differences in the way this impact comes about.

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Integrating the Old with the New: Cultural Intelligence and Transformational Leadership for an Interdependent World

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This article proposes a model of integrating cultural intelligence and transformational leadership theory to address cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal facets of the leader practicing in a global context. Transformational leadership theory and cultural intelligence theory are defined and their relationships to organizational effectiveness and leadership are discussed. After reviewing the literature related to transformational leadership and cultural intelligence, the proposed model is introduced and its strengths and weaknesses are explored. A real-world application of the model in a global organization and recommendations for additional research are also discussed.

Key words: cultural intelligence, global context, global leadership, organizational effectiveness, transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has emerged as a noteworthy area in leadership research over the last two decades. According to Northouse (2010), “transformational leadership is the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower” (172). Through research, Nemanich and Keller (2007) found that transformational leadership behaviors, including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, results in increased job satisfaction and organizational performance and success.

Although transformational leadership has many strengths and applications to organizational leadership, many weaknesses have also been identified by leadership scholars, including the influence of Western thought and the lack of cultural sensitivity (Northouse, 2010). This exclusion of culturally-related elements has caused many scholars to question the relevancy of transformational leadership in a global organization or multinational corporation.

In order to address this issue, the emerging idea called “cultural intelligence” may provide a solution by enhancing the transformational leadership model to offer increased relevancy in the global context. This article argues the need to integrate cultural intelligence and transformational leadership theory to address cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal facets of the leader and the follower in a global context.

Why Transformational Leadership?

James MacGregor Burns (1978) introduced the idea of transformational leadership by studying the leader-follower interaction as it relates to the leader motivating the follower to reach organizational goals. Bass (1985) enhanced the theory by emphasizing the leader’s role in identifying and meeting the needs of his or her followers through influence, motivation, and inspiration. Northouse (2010) notes that a transformational leader goes beyond motivating and meeting the needs of his or her followers by striving to encourage and coach followers to “reach their fullest potential” (172). According to Bass and Avolio (1990), transformational leaders influence followers to succeed beyond their expectations and work toward the good of the organization rather than themselves.

Northouse (2010) describes transformational leadership through four leadership factors: Idealized Influence or Charisma, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration. These factors focus on a variety of leader-follower interactions and best practices including demonstrating charisma; acting as a role model for followers; inspiring employees using emotional and symbolic methods; stimulating creativity, innovation, and challenge in the workplace; and providing an individualized approach to leadership with each follower (Northouse, 2010). Nemanich and Keller’s (2007) research discovered that these factors resulted in increased job satisfaction and organizational performance and success.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) also contributed to transformational leadership theory through their development of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership:

Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. Unlike Burns' (1978) contributions to transformational leadership, this model is not dependent on certain traits such as charisma or personality and is more applicable to leaders serving in a global context.

After reviewing various theories and practices regarding transformational leadership, five themes emerge from Northouse's 2010 book, *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (2010). His findings incorporate contributions from different scholars; thus, providing a well-rounded understanding and description of transformational leadership theory.

- Transformational leaders possess a personal commitment and responsibility to empower and develop their followers personally, professionally, and morally.
- Transformational leaders serve as strong role models of the ideal organizational culture and change.
- Transformational leaders have the ability to develop and communicate a vision that inspires and motivates followers.
- Transformational leaders serve as "social architects." As Northouse (2010) describes, "this means that they make clear the emerging values and norms of the organization. They involve themselves in the culture of the organization and help shape its meaning" (186).
- Transformational leaders possess the ability to build trust and demonstrate strong interpersonal skills.

Transformational leadership theory offers a framework to study leader and follower interactions as it relates to organizational change. It also values the leader's role in developing and influencing followers for the greater good of the leader, follower, and organization, making the model appealing to many leadership practitioners. Although much focus is placed on serving the needs of the follower, the theory ignores the need to examine context; in particular; cultural elements involved in the leader-follower interaction. According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), current theoretical models of leadership "are missing the

most important piece of the puzzle in understanding executive success and failure” (92). This piece of the puzzle, according to Ang and Van Dyne, is cultural understanding and skills.

Why Cultural Intelligence Theory?

Earley, Ang, and Tan (2006) define cultural intelligence, or CQ, as “a person’s capability for successful adaptation to new cultural settings, that is, for unfamiliar settings attributable to cultural context” (5). They go on to explain that cultural intelligence is a multidimensional concept composed of the facets of metacognition and cognition (cultural strategic thinking), motivation, and behavior. To further understand each of these facets, Earley, Ang, and Tan use the following questions:

- *Cultural Strategic Thinking: How and why do people do what they do in this given context or situation?* This question begins to examine the psychological “fingerprint” of individuals including “the complex set of memories, thoughts, ways of thinking, and feelings that we have about the world around us” (23). This fingerprint is also referred to as self-concept, or “the sum of our experiences, thoughts, and views of ourselves and others” (23).
- *Motivation: Am I motivated to do something in this given context or situation?* This question examines whether the individual is “energetic and willing to persevere in the face of difficulty and possible failure” (28). This motivation is guided by three self-motives—“enhancement (wanting to feel good about yourself), growth (wanting to challenge and improve yourself), and consistency (wanting continuity and predictability in your life)” (28).
- *Behavior: Can I do the right thing to yield the most productive and beneficial outcome?* The behavior element of CQ focuses on individual ability and development. “CQ not only requires that you know how and what to do and have the energy to persevere and keep trying; it also requires that you have in your toolbox of actions the specific ones needed for a given encounter” (33).

In addressing each question, one can determine the cognitive, behavioral, and motivational/attitudinal attributes associated with social interactions in a diverse or cross-cultural context, including the leadership process of leader-follower interactions. Dagher's (2010) research on CQ as an element of organizational leader effectiveness provides empirical evidence supporting the need for CQ in the global workforce, especially "organizations and institutions that are seeking the best means to develop a competitive advantage in a culturally diverse environment" (142). Thus, cultural intelligence is suitable for understanding cultural issues and its relationship to leadership and organizational performance in a global workforce and marketplace.

Integrating CQ and Transformational Leadership

Based upon the theoretical and empirical evidence supporting CQ as a means to understand cultural capabilities in individuals, CQ can provide additional insight into understanding global leadership when integrated with current models such as transformational leadership (Ang & Van Dyne, 2006). The following describes one example of how integrating cultural intelligence with transformational leadership research can yield new models of global leadership.

Utilizing Northouse's (2010) five themes of transformational leadership, the authors applied the three questions deriving from Earley, Ang, and Tan's (2006) facets of cultural intelligence to each transformational leadership practice. The following describes how cultural intelligence can influence the transformational leadership process:

- *Transformational leaders possess a personal commitment and responsibility to empower and develop their followers personally, professionally, and morally.* CQ/transformational leaders reflect and adapt when determining the most effective way to empower and develop their followers, especially as it relates to adjusting certain behaviors to yield the best results. The questions also encourage the leader to reflect upon his or her motivation in leading the follower and a commitment to developing the

follower regardless of the adaptations he or she may have to make to engage his or her diverse group of followers.

- *Transformational leaders serve as strong role models of the ideal organizational culture and change.* CQ encourages the leader to examine the organizational culture and determine if it is inclusive to all employees regardless of cultural backgrounds. CQ leaders will not only serve as role models of change, but also role models of cultural understanding, commitment, and behaviors.
- *Transformational leaders have the ability to develop and communicate a vision that inspires and motivates followers.* CQ/transformational leaders realize the best method to communicate and inspire vision by understanding the followers' needs and best form of communication, especially as it relates to cultural differences.
- *Transformational leaders serve as "social architects."* As Northouse (2010) describes, "this means that they make clear the emerging values and norms of the organization. They involve themselves in the culture of the organization and help shape its meaning" (186). CQ/transformational leaders understand the cultural context in which the organization functions. They involve themselves in the operations of the organization and embrace the diversity each follower brings to the organization.
- *Transformational leaders possess the ability to build trust and demonstrate strong interpersonal skills.* CQ/transformational leaders possess the understanding and abilities to not only interact with followers with cultural differences, but also to develop trust among the followers regardless of cultural differences.

Strengths

In examining transformational leadership and cultural intelligence individually, each theory has its own distinct strengths. According to Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (1999), transformational leadership has generally been proven to have a stronger effect on leadership and organizational performance indicators than other theories. In addition to its leadership and organizational applications, Hall,

Johnson, Wysocki, and Kepner (2002) state that the “strengths [of transformational leadership] are widely researched (using well-known leaders), effectively influence associates on all levels (from one-on-one to the whole organization), and strongly emphasize associates’ needs and values” (2). Cultural intelligence has also provided much to the organizational leadership and social science disciplines, especially as it relates to understanding cultural capabilities in individuals. This understanding is framed using metacognition and cognition, motivation, and behavior (Earley, Ang, & Tan, 2006). A comprehensive understanding of cultural intelligence allows organizations to assess, develop, and evaluate cultural intelligence in their employees (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

Integrating two theories—CQ and transformational leadership—that have individually demonstrated empirical evidence of application to organizational and leader effectiveness to create a model to better understand global leadership theory provides much promise. Although Ang and Van Dyne (2008) were reference CQ and strategic leadership in the following statement, the same can be said in regard to CQ and transformational leadership: “Although the strategic leadership and CQ literatures provide different starting points, bridging between these knowledge domains holds the promise of providing new insight into the understanding of global leadership” (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, 103).

Weaknesses

The idea of integrating CQ with transformational leadership is exploratory and takes steps toward creating a more comprehensive model of global transformational leadership; however, it lacks empirical evidence and has not been tested. Due to the lack of evidence to support this integrated theory, the research findings are not generalizable and may not be applicable to all contexts. It does, however, show promise as a proposed model for global leadership, especially as scholars continue to learn more about cultural intelligence and leadership in a global context.

Real-World Application

To provide better understanding of this integrated model, the authors propose a real-world application with the Walt Disney Company. In a case study discussing

Disney's globalization efforts, Ungson and Wong (2008) describe the many failures Disney encountered when expanding internationally. In response to Disney's success in California, Florida, and Japan, the company opened Euro Disney in 1992, which is now known as Disneyland Paris. The park struggled financially and was not well accepted by the Europe population. The primary reason for its failure, according to Ungson and Wong (2008), was its lack of cultural sensitivity. Now, "Disney Paris is still \$2.71 billion in debt and no viable strategy has yet been announced by Disney officials" (Ungson & Wong, 2008, 135).

Although it appears that Disney learned from its mistakes with Euro Disney and successfully opened Hong Kong Disneyland Resort in 2005, Disney may have avoided the financial loss associated with Euro Disney had their executive and middle-management leadership team adopted the integrated model of CQ and transformational leadership to develop and operate Euro Disney. The following outlines a proposed intervention grounded in Bradford and Burke's (2005) organizational development strategies that could have resulted in a different outcome for Euro Disney.

1. Obtain a benchmark of the Disney employees by assessing the cultural intelligence and transformational leadership capacities within the organization. Then compare these benchmarks to organizational performance indicators, including employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, financial statements, and employee turnover.
2. Review the data and determine interventions based upon the results. These interventions could include incorporating CQ and transformational leadership development strategies into a variety of elements in the talent management system, such as the new-hire orientation program, recruitment and selection process, performance evaluations, and executive coaching programs. Cultural intelligence training can also offered to all departments, including sales, marketing, research and development, production, human resources, and finance.

3. After implementing the intervention strategies, reassess the benchmark discussed in Step 1. Based upon the results, one can determine the return on investment of the intervention strategies and formulate an adapted development plan based upon the progress made.

If each member of the organization, especially those in leadership, would exhibit cultural intelligence and transformational leadership practices in leadership interactions, decision making, problem solving, strategic planning, and other business processes, Disney may have found more success working in a cross-cultural context with diverse employees and a foreign target market.

Although this intervention strategy follows organizational development intervention principles, it offers only a proposed intervention that may result in organizational success as it relates to CQ and transformational leadership. The intervention strategy discussed above lacks empirical evidence to support its success other than a foundation in organizational development and leadership theories and practices.

Research Opportunities

The integrated model of CQ and transformational leadership creates a need for further theoretical research and advanced understanding on the proposed model. In addition to theoretical research, empirical testing should be conducted on cultural intelligence and its relationship to transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness, in particular in a multinational corporation or global organization context. Furthermore, the proposed model should be further explored to determine its validity in understanding global leadership theory.

Beyond furthering the study of theoretical and practical application, scholars and practitioners would benefit from a visual of the integrated model and an instrument to measure the model. The instrument must be developed and validated using a sample of leaders from global organizations and corporations. After further development of the model and instrument, the opportunities for application in global organizations makes this integrated model a promising approach in understanding global leadership.

Conclusion

Transformational leadership continues to serve as a reliable model to understand the leader-follower interaction and the leadership process, especially as it relates to change (Northouse, 2010). Although transformational leadership has many strengths and applications to organizational leadership, many weaknesses have been identified by leadership scholars, including the lack of attention to cultural issues. This lack of attention to cross-cultural capacities has lost transformational leadership theory its appeal to scholars studying leadership in the global context. This exclusion of culture in the transformational leadership model can best be resolved by adopting cultural intelligence. Due to its ability to describe cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal attributes of cultural abilities, CQ provides strong empirical evidence to describe individual's capacities to interact effectively in a cross-cultural context, in particular in a global organization or a multinational corporation. By integrating CQ with transformational leadership, the new integrated model imparts a better understanding and framework for future global leadership theories and models, which is desperately needed in our ever-changing, interdependent world.

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RESEARCH NOTES

The Value Confrontation Leadership Model

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This research note proposes a dynamic value confrontation leadership model for changing organizational culture. The model provides for constructive confrontation between the desired values of the organizational culture and the current cultural values of employees. Changes in the individual values are revealed through examination of an employee activity aimed at internalizing the desired organizational culture values. The created constructive confrontation environment uses measurement of the confrontation to promote internalization of the desired organizational culture values by employees. The outcomes of changing the cultural values of the organization and its employees are determined by comparing the desired values of organizational culture with the current employee values. The model shapes the leadership process by engendering feelings and energies of employees and channeling them into productive internalization of the desired organizational culture values.

Key words: changing organizational culture, leadership model, value confrontation

Effective performance of a modern organization is a result of adaptive changes in organizational activity (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Heifetz, Linsky, & Grashow, 2009; Obolensky, 2010). Changes in organizational culture serve as leverage for changes in an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Kotter & Heskett, 2011; Schein, 2010). Consequently, the need for productive leadership models and methods of changing organizational culture is apparent and vital (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schabracq, 2007; Schein, 2010).

A central level of organizational culture is represented by values (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Cameron & Quinn, 2011, Schein, 2010). Hence, the basic purpose of organizational culture leadership is to change organizational culture values. In a weak (low-performance) organizational culture, there is a gap between individual values and those underlying effective organizational culture (which are stated in the vision of the organization (Kotter & Heskett, 2011). During organizational culture change, the leadership should shift the organization

from a weak organizational culture to a strong organizational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 2011), in which the gap between individual values and the desired values of effective organizational culture is reduced.

Individual values are internalized normative beliefs that guide behavior (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Hence, leaders should ascertain individual values through an employee activity aimed at internalizing the desired organizational culture values. Congruence between individual values and the desired values of organizational culture is a kernel of personal-organizational culture fit (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Thus, leadership of changing organizational culture values is comprised of determining the desired organizational culture values and conducting changes in employee values accordingly.

Using a constructive confrontation approach can be an effective way to make changes in organizational culture (Cummings & Worley, 2009; Hoover & DiSilvestro, 2005; Pachter & Magee, 2001). Leaders who use constructive confrontation between desired values of organizational culture and current employee values should be able to discern the differences between the two sets of values and channel the employees' feelings and energies into internalizing desired organizational culture values.

Therefore, the goal of this research note is to present a leadership model based on constructive confrontation of cultural values in order to shape the leadership process of changing organizational culture values.

Brief Literature Review

The approaches, methods, and models reviewed here are examined in relation to various aspects of leadership directed toward change of organizational culture values. Maurer (2010) analyzes causes of resistance to change and suggests approaches for overcoming resistance and successful realization of change. However, he does not focus on the specific resistance to organizational culture values change. Furthermore, he does not consider the possibility of overcoming resistance to change by coordinating an improvement in quality of life with the process of passing through the different stages of change.

O'Reilly et al. (1991) describe a method of calculating person-culture fit based on correlating the organizational culture values profile with the individual preferences profile. However, they do not suggest a mechanism for accomplishing person-culture fit.

Cameron and Quinn (2011) present a competing values framework, explaining the competition of different value orientations in an organization. However, they do not research changing employee behavior through performance of tasks directed toward changing values. Cameron and Quinn contend that "people are unaware of their culture until it is challenged, [or] until they experience a new culture" (16). Nevertheless, a mechanism for ascertaining employee values is not discussed. Their proposed method for diagnosing and initiating cultural change does not take into account value differences between employees and an organization.

Hellriegel and Slocum (2010) examine confrontation as a cultural value that provides deeper analysis of interpersonal problems. However, they do not use confrontation to reduce the gap between organizational and individual cultural values.

Cummings and Worley (2009) suggest using constructive confrontation to conduct change in an organization. However, they do not discuss how constructive confrontation impacts the effectiveness of organizational development.

Burgess and Burgess (1996) suggest a constructive confrontation strategy for resolution of intractable conflicts, but do not examine how to use the strategy to resolve organizational conflicts caused by differences in cultural values.

Hoover and DiSilvestro (2005) describe the constructive confrontation approach, which is a structured approach to decreasing conflict and increasing accountability. They do not suggest a tool for measuring the results of the confrontation process. Moreover, they do not apply the approach to realizing confrontation of cultural values.

Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, and Switzler (2004) suggest an approach based on crucial confrontation to provide accountability. However, the authors consider

development and measurement of critical confrontation skills based only on self-assessment. They do not examine the use of crucial confrontation tools for changing organizational culture values.

Schein (2010) suggests a conceptual model for managing change of organizational culture. However, this model does not empower management of employee energies emerging as a result of confrontation of cultural values.

Based on the brief literature review, there is no leadership model based on constructive confrontation between desired organizational culture values and current cultural values of employees. Hence, the development of a Value Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM) is needed. The VCLM could shape the leadership process that creates productive changes in organizational culture values.

The Value Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM)

The purpose of creating a Value Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM) is to shape a leader's process for changing organizational culture values in order to face organizational challenges and accomplish effective results over the long term. The VCLM serves as a tool for a constructive confrontation of values guided by the vision of an effective organization. The model provides a framework for minimizing the gap between desired organizational culture values and current employee values through realizing values confrontation. Changes in individual values are revealed through examination of an employee activity aimed at internalizing the desired organizational culture values.

Leading a change in organizational culture values involves identification of the desired organizational culture values, dynamic constructive confrontation of these values with the current values of employees, measurement of the confrontation results, and making changes in the employee values. This type of leadership allows an organization to achieve its vision of strong organizational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 2011).

Components of the Values Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM)

The “Lead” Component. The objective of the “lead” component is to provide a change in the organizational culture values as a result of performing its leadership procedures and coordination of the procedures accomplished by other components of the model. Leadership should create a new organizational identity—one in which discrepancies between employee values and those of effective organizational culture are minimized and effective outcomes are thereby achieved.

The lead component is a central component that integrates the other components of the model and serves as the starting point of the leadership process. The lead component

- diagnoses the strengths and weaknesses of the organization, threats, and outside opportunities.
- creates a vision of an effective organization beneficial to all employees. (Such vision will entail change in the organizational culture values.)
- forms an organizational covenant in which employees commit to follow the organizational vision.
- builds a profile of organizational culture values based on the organizational covenant.
- develops a strategic plan for realizing the organization’s vision.
- delegates accountability for changes to members of a leadership team. The leadership team is formed by the organization leader. The members of the leadership team ensure changes in organizational culture values.
- defines the milestones of the leadership process. The milestones pave the way toward achievement of the vision on both the organizational and employee levels.
- continues to change cultural profiles of employees. (A cultural profile contains personal cultural values.)
- identifies the risks that emerge from the attempt to change values.
- integrates the model’s components.

The “Confront” Component. The objective of the “confront” component is to promote a confrontation between the desired organizational culture values and current employee cultural values. The confront component

- provides employee awareness of the desired organizational culture values that are represented in the organizational covenant.
- persuades employees to take part in accomplishing the organizational vision by committing to the organizational covenant.
- develops detailed departmental commitments to the strategic plan for realizing the organizational vision.
- forms an employee commitment to perform activities aimed at minimizing the gap between desired organizational culture values and available employee values by changing individual values.
- creates a confrontation framework and a process for reducing the gap between desired organizational culture values and current employee values.

The confrontation framework is based on a set of tasks. The performance of the tasks by employees induces individual behavior corresponding to desired organizational culture values. The behavioral tasks are created through detailed elaboration of the employee commitment.

Confrontation between desired organizational culture values and current employee values results in a range of emotional reactions: denial, active resistance, passive resistance, indifference, passive acceptance, active acceptance, identification, participation, partnership, and active partnership. From this it follows that a measurement of value confrontation can be introduced, with the confrontation being maximal for the first element of the range (denial) and minimal for the last element of the range (active partnership).

The confrontation process is accomplished through performance of behavioral tasks aimed at employees’ internalization of the desired organizational culture values. This process is evaluated by the members of the leadership team based on the values confrontation measurement.

The “Enable” Component. The objective of the “enable” component is to create a constructive confrontation environment that empowers effective performance of behavioral tasks through different procedures. It promotes persuading and inspiring employees to take part in internalizing the desired organizational culture values.

The procedures provide employees with a way to channel diverse feelings and energies that emerge as a result of a confrontation between desired organizational culture values and current employee values toward achievement of the organizational vision.

The same procedures of the enable component may be performed simultaneously with the procedures of the confront component in order to show an optimistic perspective of organizational effectiveness and quality of life. Confrontation should not be conducted without enabling, or the effort will be meaningless.

The enable component

- uses a stimulation mechanism for channeling employee feelings and energies based on an analysis of behavioral tasks performance.
- overcomes resistance to changes by conducting changes in accordance with the set order of change along with improvement in quality of life. (Changes are aligned with increasing the organization’s efficiency.)
- facilitates performance of behavioral tasks through collaboration.
- empowers employees to hold senior positions through rotation and promotion.
- encourages employees to follow through on commitments by rewarding excellent performance.
- uses mentorship by the organizational leader and the members of the leadership team to help employees channel their energies toward the organizational vision.

The “Result” Component. The objective of the “result” component is to measure the employee and organizational outcomes. The employee outcome is

determined by comparing the desired values of organizational culture with the current employee values.

The current employee values are revealed through performance of the individual behavioral tasks aimed at internalization of the desired organizational culture values. The employee internalized the value if the task corresponding to the desired organizational culture value(s) is performed completely. Members of the leadership team evaluate the internalization of the desired organizational culture values. So an employee outcome is the extent to which an employee internalized desired organizational culture values.

Hence, the result component

- measures employee and organizational outcomes relative to milestones of leadership process.
- measures the final employee outcomes.
- measures the final organizational outcome.

Using the Values Confrontation Leadership Model

A leadership process based on the Values Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM) is realized by performing the procedures of the model's components in an integrative and interconnected manner and in the correct order. The process starts with forming an organizational vision containing desired organizational culture values (the lead component). Next, there is a confrontation between the desired organizational culture values and current employee values. The confrontation is measured (the confront component).

A created constructive confrontation environment using measured confrontation then promotes internalization of the desired organizational culture values (the enable component). The leadership process is completed by determining employee and organizational outcomes (the result component). However, the procedures can also be performed simultaneously to minimize the time it takes to achieve effective and meaningful results.

Conclusion

The Values Confrontation Leadership Model (VCLM) is based on constructive confrontation between the desired values of organizational culture and current cultural values of employees. The model contains four dynamic integrated model components, each of which employs a set of practical procedures that makes the model applicable.

The model includes a confrontation framework and process. The framework is based on a set of the tasks that induces individual behaviors corresponding with desired organizational culture values. The confrontation process is a result of performing these behavioral tasks that promotes internalization of desired organizational culture values.

The introduced measure of confrontation allows measurement of the confrontation process. The employee outcome is determined by comparing the desired values of organizational culture with current employee values. Organizational outcome is the average employee outcome of internalizing organizational culture values. Future research will be directed toward development of a method for managing organizational culture based on the suggested VCLM.

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Leadership in Higher Education: Professional Development of Deans

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University deans fulfill a variety of leadership roles as the link between administration and faculty. A survey containing 58 activity statements was sent to deans of industrial technology programs in the United States to determine the skills deemed necessary for leadership in this role. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used to rank each statement. Thirty statements in the areas of funding, personnel, administration, technology/change, curriculum, student recruitment, and external relations were identified as important. The results will help those interested in similar positions prepare a professional development plan by focusing on development of the identified skills.

Key words: deans, leadership, professional development

A dean is the backbone of university decision making. The position is the link between central administration and academic departments. The dean is responsible for resource management, academic personnel management, internal productivity, personal scholarship, leadership, and external and political relations. The challenges include fiscal management, administration, program development, faculty, technology, personal balance, diversity of faculty and students, teaching, research, and leadership (Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002). Deans need to continually evaluate new technologies so that they can keep their programs in line with the future needs of industry and education. The programs, in addition to providing entry-level skills in multiple technologies, have to also provide the ability to adapt to changing technologies.

Deans also need to anticipate curriculum changes, which include emerging technologies that will prepare students for careers of the future. This necessitates equipment modernization and faculty training. Nelson (1980) stressed that new and emerging occupations need to be investigated by so that educators can keep their programs in line with the new technology. High technology companies were located near universities in order to have a good supply of technically trained professionals (DuVall, 1984). The dean has many responsibilities and has to play

different roles at different times. Delegation of some activities to department leaders and staff is essential in order to maintain the comfort level of the dean.

Deans must possess decision-making ability, professional competence, organizational ability, planning skills, problem-solving ability, evaluation of faculty, budgetary skills, program/course innovation and development, skill in constructive inquiry, commitment to the advancement of human capability, ability to recruit new faculty, promotion of accessible educational opportunities, promotion of educational justice, and fundraising abilities. Symptoms of burnout include poor performance, tardiness, non-completion of assignments and isolating oneself (Friedman, 2002). Taking time to get to know the staff and being responsive to their concerns gives staff a sense of accomplishment (Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2005). Actively seeking ideas and suggestions from staff to improve productivity and engaging staff in collaborative problem solving is helpful in creating a sense of team (Brody, 2000). Regularly scheduled supervisory meetings may be a convenient non-threatening way to offer support to staff (Whitaker, Reich, Reid, Williams & Woodside, 2004).

The dean is responsible for monitoring information about students, including number of majors and graduate assistants, total students enrolled in courses, and number of degrees conferred; recruitment procedures, information about degrees and courses offered; faculty accomplishments; data on equipment; facilities and supplies; and several other activities related to the college.

According to Waggaman (1984), persons interested in administrative positions should have a plan for their professional development. This research note studies the relative importance of 58 activities performed by deans of industrial technology programs as part of their job descriptions. The results should help those interested in seeking similar positions to prepare a professional development plan by focusing on achieving the highest-ranked skills.

Design of the Study

The procedure used in this study involved preparing the survey, identifying the population, conducting the survey, analyzing the data collected, and writing the

final report. The survey was adapted from a similar survey completed for the author's doctoral dissertation. Methods used to survey a population to maximize the return of completed survey items were studied. DeVellis (2003), Dillman (2000), and Fink (2006) explain the steps for developing measurement instruments.

A survey containing 58 activity statements was sent to all deans of industrial technology programs at technology schools/colleges in the United States (see appendix for survey). Out of the 106 technology programs in the United States, only 19 have technology deans. Out of the 19, 11 responded to the survey.

The respondents were asked to rank the importance of each activity as part of their job based on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Responses to activity statements were analyzed separately by category (funding, personnel, administration, technology/change, curriculum, recruitment, external relations, and college or school name). Mean response values and standard deviations were calculated for each of the 58 activity statements. The statements were then ranked in descending order from the highest to lowest mean value. When two or more activity statements had the same mean value, they were ranked in ascending order from the lowest to the highest standard deviation. Activity statements with mean values greater than the grand mean of 3.9 were considered important.

Results

Funding

Since education consumes a significant amount of the state's budget, governments have been forced to reduce public spending on higher education during the economic downturn. Higher education has to be more self-sustaining (McLendon, 2003). To contain costs, the number of departments and faculty has been reduced at many colleges. Deans are generally involved in fundraising and presenting the budget for the college (Tucker & Bryan, 1991). The survey resulted in the identification of seven important activities for deans under the funding category (see Table 1 on the next page).

Table 1: Important Funding Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Request adequate levels of funding and related support services for laboratories, equipment, and staff from university sources.	4.7	0.675
2	Identify external sources of funding to increase levels of support for program development and research.	4.6	0.699
3	Devise effective strategies for operating with limited budgets.	4.5	0.527
4	Compete effectively with other colleges or schools for scarce resources within the university.	4.5	0.707
5	Reduce reliance upon state funding.	4.4	0.843
6	Develop new long-range techniques for budget needs.	4.3	0.675
7	Request funds for the development of new programs.	4.1	0.738

Personnel

There is pressure on the higher education system to be more competitive, and a strong faculty can provide that edge. Maintaining a diverse faculty with complementary skills is preferable to a homogenous faculty. The survey resulted in the identification of six important activities for deans under the personnel category (see Table 2 on the next page).

Table 2: Important Personnel Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Serve as a role model for chairs and faculty.	4.6	0.699
2	Promote a high degree of professionalism among the faculty locally, statewide, and nationally.	4.3	0.823
3	Provide an environment whereby chairs and faculty can grow professionally and be current in their teaching assignments.	4.3	0.823
4	Appoint search committees, oversee their work, and interview candidates to recruit chairs, faculty, and staff.	4.2	0.919
5	Continually evaluate the quality of teaching to ensure that the highest standards of excellence are met.	4.2	1.135
6	Petition the administration on behalf of chairs and faculty in such areas as salaries, leaves, and benefits.	4.1	0.994

Administration

Academic administrators work with changing institutional environments and have to adapt to these changing environments to survive (Wolverton, Gmelch, Montez, & Nies, 2001). Deans seek department chairs with superior management and communication skills who are able to implement university policies and directives.

While programs have to be responsive to the needs of local students (Patton, 1975), administrators in today's global economy know that collaboration is necessary for success. St. George (2006) asserts that educational institutions operating in a global economy should spend fewer resources competing against one another and more resources in collaborating with each other.

Internal and external dynamics must be considered in studying administrative changes (Salter & Tapper, 2004). According to Kezar (2005), those changes must also be analyzed after five to seven years to see the full effect. The survey resulted in the identification of five important administrative activities for deans (see Table 3 on the next page).

Table 3: Important Administrative Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Managing the resources in a more effective manner to achieve college or school goals.	4.8	0.422
2	Provide leadership in establishing and maintaining program accreditations.	4.7	0.483
3	Administer college/school scheduling and budgeting.	4.3	0.823
4	Take necessary measures to obtain physical facilities to ensure excellence in instruction and research.	4.2	0.789
5	Coordinate the establishment of new programs as needed.	4.1	0.876

Technology/Change

Efficiency, effectiveness, and economics are reasons for change. Competition is a catalyst for change. Today, there is greater demand for access in a more competitive environment (Kezar, 2006). Access is the primary motivation for institutions to use distance teaching (Berg, 2002), which is one of the many ways an institution can expand its reach. The dean has to look at available resources and see how they can be used to advance the goals of the school or college. The survey resulted in the identification of four important activities for deans in the category of technology/change (see Table 4).

Table 4: Important Technology/Change Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Ensure a high degree of program relevance.	4.4	0.699
2	Encourage innovation among chairs.	4.2	0.789
3	Promote the development of programs that reflect contemporary technology by continuous updating.	4.2	0.789
4	Participate in determining future goals and directions of programs.	4.1	1.101

Curriculum

Globalization is bringing about curriculum changes (Mok, 2005). Faculty members have talents and interests beyond their subject matter expertise that can be used to serve the future needs of the school or college. The survey

respondents identified three activities as important for deans under the curriculum category (see Table 5).

Table 5: Important Curricular Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Encourage chairs to actively participate in the curriculum change process.	4.3	0.823
2	Ensure that an appropriate range of programs is available to meet the needs of those planning to enter education, business, and industry.	4.3	0.823
3	Provide leadership in updating programs.	4.0	1.054

Student Recruitment

Students are consumers of universities (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Universities have to operate in a new competitive environment, and performance expectations continue to grow. More than 54 million adult students in the United States do not have a bachelor's degree, and they need convenient, flexible, and affordable access to higher education (Pusser et al., 2007). The respondents identified three student recruitment activities as important for deans (see Table 6).

Table 6: Important Student Recruitment Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Direct the recruitment of more academically able students into your program(s).	4.0	1.054
2	Retain quality students in your program(s).	4.3	0.949
3	Stimulate outstanding young people in the profession to seek advanced degrees and accept leadership responsibilities.	4.0	1.054

External Relations

Colleges and universities are expected to satisfy societal expectations that blur what is needed from higher education (Ramaley, 2006). Restructuring is necessary to align with external demands (Mok, 2005). Higher education is heading towards massification, commodification, and rationalization (Reed, Meek, & Jones, 2002), and is linked with economic development (Kumar

Narayan, & Smyth, 2006). Bowen (2007) referred to the impact of higher education on economic development as increasing the region's knowledge base. This includes using applied research to respond to local needs. The survey respondents identified two activities as important for deans under the external relations category (see Table 7).

Table 7: Important External Relations Activities

Rank	Statement	Mean	SD
1	Improve the image of your programs at all levels.	4.7	0.675
2	Work for and maintain better relationships with industry, government, public education agencies, and the community.	4.4	0.843

Conclusion

There is a need for more deans of technology in order to grow technology programs, and a professional development plan will help those interested in such positions acquire the most-needed skills. Based on analysis of the survey results, the categories of funding (7) and personnel (6) had the greatest number of important activities, followed closely by administration (5). Technology/change (4), curriculum (3), student recruitment (3) and external relations (2) were also important. College/school name was not an important area of activity.

Recommendations

Based on the data collected in this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Persons interested in dean positions should acquire the skills identified in the 30 important activity statements.
2. Identification of funding sources is an important requirement for deans in public higher education institutions.
3. Seeking and maintaining accreditation is also designated as an important area for deans. Future deans should be exposed to accrediting organizations.
4. Developing a partnership with industry is an important requirement for future deans.

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Appendix

Survey for Prioritizing Requirements of Deans of Technology, Management, and Applied Engineering Programs

Directions: Please respond to **all** the statements in each area. Please rate each statement relative to its importance according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
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Not Important	Least Important	Important	Very Important	Most Important

Please circle or **BOLD one** response for each statement.

Category: Administration

1. Managing the resources in a more effective manner to achieve college or school goals. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Administer college or school scheduling, and budgeting. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Streamline paperwork to allow more time for dean's professional work. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Coordinate the maintenance of adequate files and fiscal records. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Take necessary measures to obtain physical facilities to ensure excellence in instruction and research. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Establish an organizational structure to manage the maintenance of equipment and facilities. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Provide leadership in establishing and maintaining program accreditations. 1 2 3 4 5
8. Encourage research & facilitate research programs. 1 2 3 4 5
9. Teach undergraduate and graduate courses. 1 2 3 4 5
10. Advise thesis & dissertation students. 1 2 3 4 5
11. Carry out university committee responsibilities. 1 2 3 4 5
12. Participate in leadership roles in professional associations. 1 2 3 4 5
13. Coordinate the establishment of new programs as needed. 1 2 3 4 5
14. Maintain a program of professional or technical writing for undergraduate and

graduate programs. 1 2 3 4 5

Category: Curriculum

15. Ascertain in consultation with chairs appropriate directions and procedures for curriculum development. 1 2 3 4 5

16. Encourage chairs to actively participate in the curriculum change process. 1 2 3 4 5

17. Include automation and their use in your programs. 1 2 3 4 5

18. Include computers and their use in your programs. 1 2 3 4 5

19. Provide leadership in updating programs. 1 2 3 4 5

20. Evaluate and consider the implementation of curriculum developments from national and state sources in the preparation of future graduates. 1 2 3 4 5

21. Provide leadership in instructional research and service activities. 1 2 3 4 5

22. Ensure that an appropriate range of programs and offerings is available to meet the needs of those planning to enter education, business, and industry. 1 2 3 4 5

23. Encourage chairs to preserve an appropriate relationship between content and methods of instruction. 1 2 3 4 5

Category: Technology/Change

24. Encourage innovation among chairs. 1 2 3 4 5

25. Promote the development of programs that reflect contemporary technology by continuously encouraging updating. 1 2 3 4 5

26. Ensure a high degree of program relevance. 1 2 3 4 5

27. Participate in determining future goals and directions of programs. 1 2 3 4 5

28. Sensitize chairs to become part of the mainstream of education. 1 2 3 4 5

29. Provide in-service workshops whenever resources are available to assist chairs to stay abreast of development. 1 2 3 4 5

30. Encourage a broader interpretation of college or school mission.

1 2 3 4 5

Category: Funding

31. Identify external sources of funding to increase levels of support for program development and research.

1 2 3 4 5

32. Reduce reliance upon state funding.

1 2 3 4 5

33. Devise effective strategies for operating with limited budgets.

1 2 3 4 5

34. Compete effectively with other colleges or schools for scarce resources within the university.

1 2 3 4 5

35. Request adequate levels of funding and related support services for laboratories, equipment, and staff from university sources.

1 2 3 4 5

36. Develop new long range techniques for budget needs.

1 2 3 4 5

37. Request funds for the development of new programs.

1 2 3 4 5

Category: External Relations

38. Work for and maintain better relationships with industry, government, public education agencies, and the community.

1 2 3 4 5

39. Improve the image of your programs at all levels.

1 2 3 4 5

40. Interface your programs in the United States with international programs.

1 2 3 4 5

41. Create a partnership with industry for curriculum input.

1 2 3 4 5

42. Provide services to local education agencies, state departments of education, regional and national groups and associations.

1 2 3 4 5

Category: Personnel

43. Coordinate and monitor chair and faculty development.

1 2 3 4 5

44. Continually evaluate the quality of teaching to ensure that the highest standards of excellence are met.

1 2 3 4 5

45. Appoint search committees, oversee their work and interview candidates to recruit chairs, faculty, and staff.

1 2 3 4 5

46. Petition the administration on behalf of chairs, and faculty in such areas as

- salaries, leaves, and benefits. 1 2 3 4 5
47. Promote a high degree of professionalism among the faculty-locally, statewide, and nationally. 1 2 3 4 5
48. Provide an environment whereby chairs and faculty can grow professionally and be current in their teaching assignments. 1 2 3 4 5
49. Serve as a role model for chairs and faculty. 1 2 3 4 5

Category: Recruitment

50. Direct the recruitment of students from diverse backgrounds. 1 2 3 4 5
51. Direct efforts to bring increased numbers of women and minority group members into the profession. 1 2 3 4 5
52. Direct the recruitment of more academically able students into your program(s). 1 2 3 4 5
53. Facilitate student services: advisement, scheduling, personal counseling, transcript evaluation, and field experiences. 1 2 3 4 5
54. Retain quality students in your programs. 1 2 3 4 5
55. Ascertain the reasons students leave your programs. 1 2 3 4 5
56. Stimulate outstanding young people in the profession to seek advanced degrees and accept leadership responsibilities. 1 2 3 4 5

Category: College or School Name

57. Change name from Technology to Technology, Management, and Applied Engineering. 1 2 3 4 5
58. Participate in the on-going search for the most appropriate name for the field. 1 2 3 4 5

Demographics

Please mark **one** response.

59. What is your age?

1. 39 and under 2. 40 to 49 3. 50 to 59 4. 60 or older

60. With which ethnic group would you identify yourself?

1. Caucasian 2. African American 3. Hispanic
4. American Indian 5. Asian 6. Other, specify _____

61. How many years have you served as dean?

1. 1 to 3 years 2. 4 to 6 years 3. 7 to 9 years 4. 10 years or more

62. How many years of chair experience did you have **prior to** taking your present position?

1. 1 to 3 years 2. 4 to 6 years 3. 7 to 9 years 4. 10 years or more

63. What levels of programs does your college or school have? Please **mark all** that apply.

1. Undergraduate 2. Master's 3. Doctoral 4. Other, specify _____

64. How many **full-time faculty** does your college or school have?

Please specify _____ full-time faculty.

65. Your institution is:

1. Public 2. Private 3. Minority 4. Other, specify _____

66. Please indicate other concepts and/or areas important to the deans:

If you want a report of the results of this study, please indicate. Yes____.

Thank you for your cooperation and prompt response.

BOOK REVIEW

***Steve Jobs* (2011)**

By Walter Isaacson

Published by Simon & Schuster, New York

Cost: \$35.00, Pages: 656

Reviewed by Jane Ives, Ph.D., Northeastern University, and Patricia DiPillo, Ed.D., Falmouth Public Schools, Falmouth, Massachusetts

Walter Isaacson has written a brilliant masterpiece with his biography of Steve Jobs, who will be remembered as one of the all-time leading pioneers and inventors along with Edison and Ford. He literally revolutionized the world in the field of electronics simply because he saw the same things in the world that everyone else did, but viewed them differently. No one else had the ability to combine software, hardware, and content the way Jobs did. He founded the “digital hub” platform in which computers were linked to devices that managed content, and he thought that this would be even more efficient if hardware, software, content, and peripherals were all made by the same company. He left a multi-billion dollar legacy in Apple Inc., with products spawned from his own ingenuity, all of which partner with one another and function in a symbiotic way.

Jobs was a child of the '60s with heroes like the Beatles and Bob Dylan, and he created products that filled a need based on his own interests, creative insight, and style. He will be honored and revered for those contributions forever. However, Jobs' leadership was also multifaceted. To say that he forged new ground in the business world is an understatement. From his humble beginnings with Steve Wozniak, to his lifelong rivalry with Microsoft and Bill Gates, Jobs was the man with the golden touch. Everything he worked on turned to gold. He literally transformed the industry as CEO of Apple, yet for all his bravado drew a

mere \$1 for his salary. Most of his income came from Disney and Pixar. This review attempts to offer some insights into Steve Jobs, the man behind Apple.

Innovator

*“But innovation comes from people meeting up in the hallways or calling each other at 10:30 at night with a new idea, or because they realized something that shoots holes in how we’ve been thinking about a problem.”**

Steve Jobs was a master at innovation. He believed the strongest and best ideas came from people just talking and brainstorming when they met in a professional capacity on the job. He designed Apple headquarters in Cupertino, California, with a central meeting place where people would naturally congregate after using the restrooms while at work. Everything had a function. He often toured Apple’s design rooms just to look at products waiting for production so he could talk to engineers about them and discover new ways to look at them. He never tried to make the most products; Jobs just tried to make the best products. This came from seeing what other products were in the markets and improving on them in different ways. That was also true of the film industry. What Jobs did for Apple, he also did for animation and Disney Studios as well.

Creator

“Creativity is just connecting things. When you ask creative people how they did something, they feel a little guilty because they didn’t really do it, they just saw something. It seemed obvious to them after a while. That’s because they were able to connect experiences they’ve had and synthesize new things.”

Steve Jobs’ mind was never at rest. It was constantly and actively searching for new and better ways to do things, or how to provide new and better products that would be simple and easy to use, yet functional for the customer. From the iPod to the iPhone and the iPad and the creation of the App store itself, what started with the music industry quickly became music plus communication and the

portable tablet that every major company has copied and tried to imitate. How did Jobs manage to get the music industry to buy into the iTunes concept and sell songs for 99 cents each?? In his own words: “We knew how cool it was because we knew how badly we each wanted one personally” (390). Jobs also had plans to upstage education and the textbook industry by creating free digital textbooks for the iPad.

As for creativity, Jobs saw that the same design could be made to fit a new problem, and logically, his products became useful metaphors applied to new situations. Steve Jobs made fact out of fiction, or more appropriately sometimes, Jobs made sure others did, much to their dismay at times. One good example of this is the glass cover of the iPhone. Jobs was so well connected and had so many contacts that he merely had to call the CEO of Corning, who put his engineers to work creating the exact kind of glass necessary for the phone.

Quality Control/Perfectionist

“For you to sleep well at night, the aesthetic, the quality, has to be carried all the way through.”

The perfectionist in Jobs never let him rest and, at times, he pressured others to do the same, to the point of ruthlessness. He reveled in control and had an unwavering, commanding hold over his people and his company. Quality was all-important to Jobs, more so than any other facet of the business. This quality is the trademark of the Apple Stores, even including the boxes in which products are packed. When you purchase an Apple product, you know you are getting something unique and special because the box entices you to open it with the maximum amount of anticipation.

Like the exacting details Jobs went through to ensure each product model was the best it could be, each Apple Store was also located in a prime location in a mall or city block. Great care was even taken not to have the stores open onto parking lots. The interiors of the stores are just as exacting.. Each store is arranged according to need and with product orientation in mind. Each sales

representative is well versed in a particular specialty, and each purchase is done with portable devices.

Resilience

“I didn't see it then, but it turned out that getting fired from Apple was the best thing that could have ever happened to me. The heaviness of being successful was replaced by the lightness of being a beginner again, less sure about everything. It freed me to enter one of the most creative periods of my life.”

Few people know that Steve Jobs had failed twice along the route to fame and fortune. One of his first companies was NeXT, a failing attempt to produce hardware with a monitor. However, sales fell and the business was classified as a disaster and huge failure. Jobs was resilient and more determined to succeed. Subsequent to that, Jobs was removed as CEO of Apple for a short time due to some internal strife within the company and conflicting views about how the company should be run. Again, an undaunted Jobs rose to even greater heights of acclaim and prestige.

Anyone who understands the creative mind knows that resiliency is one of its prime components. Creative people simply do not give up, no matter how many times they experience failure or other setbacks. Creative people have an uncanny ability to bounce back from diversity with more aplomb than before. It is for this reason that no Apple product has an on/off button. These devices merely “go to sleep.”

Genius

“I want to put a ding in the universe.”

Without question this quote needs no explanation. No one in this past century has come as close to revolutionizing the way people communicate or envisioned the amount of creative electronic products that Steve Jobs did. As Rosabeth Moss Kanter (2008) stated: “When giants transform themselves from impersonal

machines into human communities, they can transform the world” (44). The last propulsion of progress any of us have read about is the industrial revolution. The printing press impacted the evolution of mankind in terms of publicizing the printed word. Jobs impacted the evolution of handheld devices that transmit information electronically. He has left his own forward-thinking brand of efficient ways for people to stay and remain in touch with one another around the clock. He connected the globe and made social media easily transmittable. In his own words, someday, albeit posthumously, we will find out that Jobs set the stage for universal interactivity. This has already begun to happen with the introduction of “the cloud,” the system whereby all electronics are synced with one another and can be accessed from anywhere in the globe.

Entrepreneur

“Our goal is to make the best devices in the world, not to be the biggest.”

Entrepreneurs take risks. To be the best, you need to constantly be on the edge of new discovery. It takes great fortitude to forge ahead with something others are telling you will never work or is doomed to fail. Jobs never let that discourage him. Not only did he make the best product, but Apple has become the biggest company to produce electronic devices with stock that continues to rise with each new product model revealed. Jobs focused on being the best he could be and making sure Apple products were the best in the field. That mattered to him more than anything else.

Visionary

“You can’t just ask customers what they want and then try to give that to them. By the time you get it built, they’ll want something new.”

Jobs never designed new products according to what people wanted. He knew that he could come up with products that people would actually want. He was never satisfied with the status quo, but was three steps ahead all the time. He

listened to *his* instincts and *his* insights only. The legacy he left behind was built on functional use and needs that arose from his own background and circumstances influenced heavily by music, television, and the arts. The world will no doubt not miss his fiery temper and calculating persona, but the world will never again see the likes of a man so driven by innovation that he gave his life for it.

Walter Isaacson cleverly takes us chapter by chapter into the world of Apple that is synonymous with Steve Jobs. The only criticism of this book is that I regret that there is not more of it. And more of the man whose name will forever go down in history as the man who coined the phrase “Think Different.”

Cynthia A. Montgomery (2008), a Harvard professor of business administration, notes that “[when] forging a compelling organizational purpose . . . creativity and insight are key,” adding that analysis alone will never suffice (3). “While faithfully translating the purpose into practice, the CEO must also remain open to the possibility that the purpose itself may need to change”(4). Steve Jobs most assuredly was open to change driven by creativity and uncommon insight into the future.

*All Steve Jobs quotes from www.brainyquotes.com unless otherwise indicated

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